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ACRONYMS

AC	Affective commitment
ACyn	Affective cynicism
AFGI	Adjusted goodness of fit index
AIC	Akaike information criterion
AMCU	Association of Mineworkers and Construction Union
ANC	African National Congress
AttC	Attitudinal commitment
ASV	Average shared variance
AVE	Average variance extracted
B-BBEE	Broad-based black economic empowerment
BCEA	Basic Conditions of Employment Act
BCyn	Behavioural cynicism
BSA	Business South Africa
CC	Continuance commitment
CCMA	Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration
CCyn	Cognitive cynicism
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	Comparative fit index
CMIN	Chi-square (also indicated as χ^2)
COSATU	Congress of South African Trade Unions
CR	Composite reliability
CWB	Counterproductive work behaviour
CWB-I	Counterproductive work behaviour towards individuals
CWB-IC	Counterproductive work behaviour relating to industrial or collective action
CWB-O	Counterproductive work behaviour towards the organisation
df	Degrees of freedom
DJ	Distributive justice
EEA	Employment Equity Act
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
ER	Employment relations
FEDUSA	Federation of Unions of South Africa
FVPCB	Feelings of violation and perceived contract breach measures
Measures	
FA	Few alternatives

GFI	Goodness of fit index
HC	Horizontal collectivism
HI	Horizontal individualism
HR	Human resource
HVIC	Horizontal and vertical individualism and collectivism scales
Scales	
IOD Scale	Interpersonal and organisational deviance scale
IIC	Inter-item correlation
IJ	Interactional justice
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IR	Industrial relations
ITC	Item-to-total correlation
KMO	Kayser-Meyer-Olkin
LRA	Labour Relations Act
MSV	Maximum shared variance
NACTU	National Council of Trade Unions
NC	Normative commitment
NDP	National development plan
NEDLAC	National Economic Development and Labour Council
NFI	Normed fit index
NGP	New growth path
NUMSA	National Union of Metalworkers of South Africa
OC	Organisational commitment
OCB	Organisational citizenship behaviour
OCB-I	Organisational citizenship behaviour directed at helping individuals
OCB-O	Organisational citizenship behaviour directed at helping the organisation
OCB Scale	Organisational citizenship behaviour scale
OCS	Organisational commitment survey
OCyn	Organisational cynicism
PAF	Principal axis factoring
PCV	Psychological contract violation
PJ	Procedural justice
POJ	Perceived organisational justice
POS	Perceived organisational support
PS	Perceived sacrifice
RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximations
SACP	South African Communist Party

SACTU	South African Congress of Trade Unions
SAFTU	South African Federation of Trade Unions
SPOS-SV	Survey of perceived organizational support–shortened version
SRMR	Standardised root mean squared residual
TLI	Tucker-Lewis index
UCS	Union commitment scale
UC-L	Union loyalty
UC-R	Responsibility to the union
UC-W	Willingness to work for the union
VC	Vertical collectivism
VI	Vertical individualism

CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

This research endeavoured to construct a psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in a South African employment relations context. More specifically, this research focused on the relationship dynamics between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (perceived organisational support, perceived organisational justice and psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (organisational citizenship behaviour and counterproductive work behaviour) in the workplace, as moderated by their personal dispositions (individualism/collectivism) and mediated by organisational cynicism and trust. Because of the diverse nature of the South African workforce, the associations between individuals' personal (gender, age, population group and education level) and work-related characteristics (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) and these dispositional (individualism/collectivism) and relational variables (perceived organisational support, perceived organisational justice, psychological contract violation, organisational commitment, union commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, counterproductive work behaviour, organisational cynicism and trust) were also explored. The aim of this chapter is to provide the background to and motivation for the intended research resulting in the formulation of the problem statement and the research questions. The aims of the research are stated and the paradigm perspectives, which guide the research, discussed. Furthermore, the research design and research method, including the different steps that provide structure to the research process, are explained. To conclude, the manner in which the chapters will be presented is introduced followed by a chapter summary.

1.1 BACKGROUND TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

This research was conducted in a South African employment relations context. The research emanated from one of the key objectives of South Africa's National Development Plan (NDP), which pertinently states that better workplace relations must be ensured (National Planning Commission, 2011). It furthermore drew on the contention expressed by contemporary employment relations scholars and practitioners (e.g. Jordaan & Ulrich, 2016; Nel, Kirsten, Swanepoel, Erasmus, & Jordaan, 2016; Ramutloa, 2014) that an overtly formal or legalistic approach to dealing with employer-employee relationships has not succeeded in eradicating the high levels of adversity and mistrust in South African workplaces. In addition, the research aimed to address the need expressed for a higher level of appreciation of common interests

and a better understanding of workers' social and psychological needs (Heyns & Rothmann, 2015).

In South Africa, employment relations as a field of study and practice remain focused mainly on workplace conflict, historically reflected in high levels of unionism, large-scale militant industrial action and confrontational collective bargaining (Bashir & Nasir, 2013; Borat, Naidoo, & Yu, 2014). The association of formal institutions such as trade unions, employers' organisations and various bodies established in order to resolve or adjudicate labour disputes, as well as rules regulating employer-employee relations with the management of employment relations, endures (Chinguno, 2013; Finnemore & Joubert, 2013). However, contemporary employment relations scholars argue that this narrow view of employment relations is no longer feasible, and that all dimensions of the employment relationship (collective and individual; formal and informal/social) should be embraced when attempting to better understand and effectively manage employment relations in organisations (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011; Kaufman, 2014).

Employment relations scholars and practitioners increasingly acknowledge that conflict and cooperation in employment relationships coexist and that the collective and individual dimensions of these relationships cannot be isolated (Bendix, 2015; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). The pluralist frame of reference, which recognises that employers and employees have different needs that have to be reconciled to ensure organisational effectiveness, is becoming the leading employment relations paradigm (Anstey, 2013; Williams, 2014). Collective displays of power, an overemphasis on conflict and the formal regulation of the employment relationship are making way for the promotion of fairness and justice and balancing the mutual interests of all role players and stakeholders (Nel et al., 2016). The traditional emphasis on the legal or formal dimension of employment relations – more so in South Africa, with a relatively high level of unionisation and a formally regulated employment relations environment – is gradually changing with the view that the quality of employment relations is largely determined by the informal, social or behavioural elements gaining acceptance (Mückenberger, 2016).

The aim of this study was to contribute to a better understanding of those factors that shape employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace by focusing on the informal dimension (i.e. the humanisation of work) and finding ways to establish high-quality employer-employee relations by, for instance, showing concern for the socioemotional well-being of employees and enhancing fairness when interacting with them. It is suggested that, by following a more humane, as opposed to an overtly legal approach to employment relations,

employers may succeed in establishing high-quality employment relations that will encourage positive employee attitudes and behaviour benefiting all role players. However, it is acknowledged that collective representation by trade unions remains a fundamental aspect of employment relations in South Africa (Bhorat et al., 2014), and this study therefore specifically incorporated trade unionism (specifically trade union membership and union commitment) in order to explore its association with employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. It is anticipated that, when employees experience high-quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations, their need to resort to trade unionism and to engage in union activities (e.g. strikes or picketing) will decrease. Prominence is thus placed on employees' expectations of their employing organisations and their attitudinal and behavioural responses to the extent to which they perceive these expectations to be met. It is suggested that, if employers can find ways of addressing their employees' work-related expectations, thereby enhancing the perceived quality of employer-employee relations, this might be reciprocated by positive employee attitudes and behaviour.

1.1.1 Reciprocity in employment relations

The main theoretical foundation of this study is the social exchange perspective (Blau, 1964), which emphasises the reciprocal expectations and obligations (as reflected in the psychological contract) held by the parties in an employment relationship. This perspective is gaining significance in understanding the intricacies involved in employment relations and their impact on organisational effectiveness (Alcover, Rico, Turnley, & Bolino, 2017b; Moorman & Byrne, 2005; Park, 2018). It is suggested that the quality of the social exchange relationship experienced by employees in the workplace determines the extent to which they develop positive attitudes towards and behaviour in their employing organisations. It has been shown in extant literature that employees who perceive high-quality social exchange relationships with their employing organisations display greater emotional attachment to these organisations and are more motivated to engage in behaviour that has favourable consequences for the organisation (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007; Obuya & Rugimbana, 2014; Özbek, Yoldash, & Tang, 2016).

It is thus argued in this study that, for organisations to achieve long-term success, they need to find ways of cultivating positive relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace and that this may be achieved by creating high-quality social exchange relationships with their employees. The context of the present research is therefore employment relations in the South African organisational environment. More specifically, the research focuses on a range of variables that influence the relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and

behaviour (organisational citizenship behaviour and counterproductive work behaviour) of employees in the workplace. It is suggested that organisational environments marked by positive employer-employee relations may contribute to enhancing employees' emotional attachment and involvement with the organisation (as opposed to trade unions) (Allen & Meyer, 1990), eliminating behaviour that intentionally harms the organisation or people in the organisation (Bennett & Robinson, 2000b; Robinson & Bennett, 1995) and encouraging behaviour that collectively promotes the effective functioning of the organisation (Organ, 1988).

1.1.2 Employee behaviour in the workplace

Since this study has a relational focus and endeavours to find ways to enhance employment relations in South African organisations, it is argued that the emphasis should not be on employees' task-related behaviour, but rather on their discretionary (positive or negative) behaviour, which has been shown to better reflect employees' motivational states and is therefore expected to have a greater impact on relations in the workplace (Chênevert, Vandenberghe, & Tremblay, 2015). Extant literature furthermore shows that it is insufficient to focus on employees' formal job performance only as a means of ensuring organisational effectiveness as employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace shapes the organisational, social and psychological context that serves as the catalyst for task activities and formal processes (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Organisations in competitive and dynamic environments are increasingly relying on their employees' citizenship (i.e. their willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour and refrain from engaging in negative discretionary behaviour) to enhance their social capital and thereby their competitive advantage (Methot, Lepak, Shipp, & Boswell, 2017). Discretionary employee behaviour has thus become vital for effective organisational functioning (Bester, Stander, & Van Zyl, 2015). In this study, the constructs that thematically relate to discretionary employee behaviour include organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB).

The behavioural focus in this study is thus on OCB, which reflects employees' discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation or people in the organisation (Carpenter, Berry, & Houston, 2014; Organ, 1997; Wang, 2015), and CWB, which consists of intentional acts that harm organisations or the people in them or run counter to the legitimate interests of an organisation (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Skarlicki & Latham, 1997). OCB, as conceptualised by Organ (1988), includes a range of voluntary employee actions which, while not required in terms of formal

job requirements, relates directly to employer-employee relations in the workplace. For instance, employees who display high levels of OCB are willing to help co-workers and share knowledge (altruism); they are willing to perform tasks beyond what is formally required when needed, without complaining that it is not their responsibility (conscientiousness); they are willing to tolerate minor and temporary personal inconveniences and impositions experienced in the workplace, without resorting to complaining, lodging grievances or appeals, making accusations or engaging in protest actions (sportsmanship); they avoid interpersonal and intergroup conflict (courtesy); and responsibly participate in, are involved in, or concerned about the continued survival of the organisation (civic virtue) (Organ, 1988). Employers should strive towards finding ways to create an environment in which employees are more willing to engage in such positive discretionary behaviour rather than having “what’s in it for me” attitudes that often prevail in negative employment relations climates (Shore, Tetrick, Sinclair, & Newton, 1994). By creating a positive employment relations environment, employers are also more likely to discourage negative employee behaviour (CWB) such as sabotage, workplace violence, aggression, incivility and participation in collective behaviour such as industrial action (Kelloway, Francis, Prosser, & Cameron, 2010), which is often associated with employment relations. Trade union members often engage in union activities which, although intended to benefit union members in the long term, inadvertently harm the organisation by adversely impacting on its operations (Monnot, Wagner, & Beehr, 2011).

OCB and CWB reflect two distinct categories of discretionary behaviour that have been shown to have implications for organisational functioning (Reynolds, Shoss, & Jundt, 2015). OCB, for instance, has been linked to higher levels of cooperation and productivity, and subsequently increased organisational effectiveness (Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016; Park, 2018), while CWB has been shown to have negative economic consequences for organisations (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Shoss, Jundt, Kobler, & Reynolds, 2016).

In this study, it is argued that, in order to achieve long-term organisational success, employers should find ways in which employees can be encouraged to engage in positive discretionary behaviour (OCB) and discouraged to engage in behaviour that may be detrimental to the organisation or people in it (CWB). Several determinants of OCB and CWB that have been reported in extant literature and are deemed relevant in an antagonistic employment relations environment such as South Africa have therefore been identified. This includes, inter alia, the extent to which employees experience an affective attachment or commitment to their employing organisations as well as their perceptions of the quality of the social exchange relationships they have with these organisations. These antecedents of employees’

discretionary behaviour in the workplace, as reported in extant literature, are briefly explored in the following sections.

1.1.3 Relational attitudes in the workplace

Organisational commitment has been shown to be a strong predictor of positive discretionary behaviour (OCB) (Cetin, Gürbüz, & Sert, 2015; Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016), while a negative relationship between organisational commitment and CWB has also been reported (Demir, 2011; Wang, 2015). Drawing on extant research, one would expect employees who are committed to their employing organisations to be more inclined to engage in OCB, while less committed employees would not only be less likely to engage in OCB, but might also be more inclined to participate in CWB. It has also been suggested in the literature (e.g. Angle & Perry, 1986; Becker, 1992; Klein, Molloy, & Brinsfield, 2012; Liden, Wayne, Kraimer, & Sparrowe, 2003; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Meyer, Morin, & Vandenberghe, 2015; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Redman & Snape, 2016; Reichers, 1985) that employees' behaviour is not influenced only by their commitment to a single entity (the organisation). Their commitment to, for example, their occupation (Morin, Meyer, McInerney, Marsh, & Ganotice, 2015; Tsoumbis & Xenikou, 2010) or other entities such as their supervisors, work groups or trade unions may impact on their behaviour (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer & Morin, 2016). Contemporary organisational commitment research emphasises the significance of dual commitment (e.g. commitment towards the organisation and an occupation or the organisation and a supervisor) or multiple commitments (e.g. commitment to the organisation, top management, supervisor and workgroup) when considering the impact of commitment on behaviour in the workplace (Becker & Billings, 1993; Cooper, Stanley, Klein, & Tenhiälä, 2016; Lavelle et al., 2007; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Meyer et al., 2015; Morin et al., 2015; Tsoumbis & Xenikou, 2010).

Given the prominence of trade unions in many South African workplaces and employment relations in general (see Chapter 2), key questions that need to be addressed when attempting to better understand employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace are whether dual commitment to the organisation and a trade union is possible and, if so, to what extent this may impact on trade union members' discretionary behaviour in the workplace (Gordon & Ladd, 1990; Redman & Snape, 2016). Although commitment to the organisation and other entities (e.g. an occupation) has been shown to be compatible (Morin et al., 2015; Tsoumbis & Xenikou, 2010), it is unlikely that similar results would be obtained when considering employees' commitment to their employing organisations and trade unions. In an adversarial employment relations climate, such as that in South Africa (see Chapter 2), activities by either the organisation or the union that influence employees' perceptions of the extent to which

these entities care about their well-being may increase commitment to either the organisation or the union (i.e. whichever entity is regarded as supportive) (Sinclair, Hannigan, & Tetrick, 1995; Snape & Redman, 2012). These findings suggest that, in a negative employment relations climate, employers and trade unions compete for the commitment of employees. This does not, however, suggest that organisations should attempt to dissuade employees from joining trade unions or to eradicate union commitment as this would be in contempt of employees' rights enshrined in the Constitution (Republic of South Africa, 1996) and Labour Relations Act (Republic of South Africa, 1995). Trade unions continue to play an essential role in South Africa's employment relations and broader sociopolitical environment. However, in order to better understand employee behaviour in the workplace, it is important to explore how union commitment may impact on and interact with employees' commitment towards the organisation and whether dual allegiance is possible. Extant literature has shown that dual commitment to an organisation and union is only feasible in workplaces where positive relationships between management and unions exist (e.g. Angle & Perry, 1986; Fullagar & Barling, 1991; Lee, 2004; Magenau, Martin, & Peterson, 1988; Purcell, 1960; Stagner, 1954). The aim should therefore be to find ways in which organisational commitment can be maintained, even when trade unions are present.

If employees regard employment relations in unionised organisations as positive, they are likely to credit both the employer and the trade union for the positive outcome (Redman & Snape, 2016). By drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and relying on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), one might then expect these employees to reciprocate by increasing their commitment towards the organisation and the union, which is seen as working towards outcomes that would benefit both the organisation and its employees (Deery, Iverson, Buttigieg, & Zatzick, 2014). This, in turn, is likely to result in positive workplace behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation and individuals in it. Therefore, rather than searching for ways to circumvent trade unions in the workplace (i.e. reducing union commitment), employers could benefit by embracing them (Fuller & Hester, 1998).

It is thus suggested that employers should create a positive employment relations environment that will enhance not only employees' affective attachment to the organisation, but also their moral obligation to act in a way that will benefit the organisation (Kabins, Xu, Bergman, Berry, & Willson, 2016; Meyer, Kam, Goldenberg, & Bremner, 2013). Positive employment relations climates have also been shown to alleviate the potential negative effects of trade union membership for organisations (Magenau et al., 1988; Snape & Redman, 2012). It is thus expected that, by improving employees' perceptions of the quality of the social exchange relationship that exists between themselves and their employing organisations, the employees

will be more willing to engage in behaviour beyond what is expected in terms of their task agreements and would refrain from engaging in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or people in it.

1.1.4 Establishing high-quality social exchange relationships

This study explores three ways in which employers can enhance the social exchange relationship with their employees. Firstly, the organisation should fulfil its obligations in terms of the psychological contract or rather refrain from breaching or violating this contract (Bal, De Lange, Zacher, & Van der Heijden, 2013). The negative impact of psychological contract violation has been shown to be greater than the positive impact of psychological contract fulfilment (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001; Felps, Mitchell, & Byington, 2006) – hence the focus in this study on the negative construct (psychological contract violation) rather than the positive one (psychological contract fulfilment). The psychological contract reflects the employee's beliefs about the employment relationship and is therefore central to effective employer-employee relations in the workplace (Alcover, Rico, Turnley, & Bolino, 2017a; O'Leary-Kelly, Henderson, Anand, & Ashforth, 2014; Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, & Tetrick, 2012a). When an employer is perceived as failing to meet its obligations in terms of the psychological contract, this could have negative consequences such as a decline in commitment to (Bal, De Lange, Jansen, & Van der Velde, 2008; Bal, De Lange, Zacher, et al., 2013; Lapalme, Simard, & Tremblay, 2011; Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007) and trust in the organisation (Cheung, Wong, & Yuan, 2017; Erkutlu & Chafra, 2013; Robinson, 1996) and an unwillingness to engage in behaviour beyond what is required in terms of the contract of employment or task agreement (OCB) (Bal, Chiaburu, & Jansen, 2010; Lapalme et al., 2011; López Bohle, Bal, Jansen, Leiva, & Alonso, 2017; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Rodwell & Ellershaw, 2015; Zhao et al., 2007). Furthermore, the detrimental effect of a perceived breach of the psychological contract on organisational commitment may lead to greater union commitment (Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, 2004) and higher levels of counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) (Chiu & Peng, 2008) and organisational cynicism, because employees who feel that their contracts have been violated are likely to believe that the organisation lacks integrity and exploits employees for organisational gain (Andersson, 1996; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003).

Secondly, employees want to be treated fairly and equitably (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2010; Lavelle et al., 2007; Lehmann-Willenbrock, Grohmann, & Kauffeld, 2013; Sharma & Dhar, 2016). The notion of fairness and justice is central to effective employment relations (Bendix, 2015; Nel et al., 2016). Positive perceptions of organisational justice may be regarded as a gesture of

goodwill on the part of the organisation which, in turn, engenders an obligation on the part of employees to reciprocate by displaying positive attitudes (e.g. organisational commitment) and engaging in behaviour that benefits the organisation and the people in it (OCB) (Agarwal, 2014). Regrettably, employment relations in South Africa are often characterised by perceptions of unfairness and injustice (Beresford, 2012; Di Paola & Pons-Vignon, 2013; Jacobs & Yu, 2013; Pons-Vignon & Anseeuw, 2009; Webster, 2013). When employees perceive that they are not being treated fairly by their employers, this may result in a further deterioration of relations that are already adversarial in nature. It may also encourage affiliation with and loyalty to trade unions and concomitant collective action as a way of responding to perceived unfairness or inequity (Baron & Pfeffer, 1994).

Thirdly, organisations need to show employees that they care for their well-being by providing the necessary support (Eğriboyun, 2015; Sharma & Dhar, 2016; Van Knippenberg, 2012). Support initiatives may include, for instance, adopting policies that emphasise cooperation and mutual interests; affording employees opportunities to participate in organisational decision making or to make suggestions for improvements relating to operations, working conditions and work practices; recognising and valuing employees' contributions (including financial incentives and nonfinancial inducements such as status or job titles); offering employees a direct stake in the organisation's ownership and prosperity (e.g. profit sharing schemes, incentive schemes, employee share ownership plans); providing opportunities for training and development; and implementing conditions of employment aimed at meeting employees' specific needs (Nel et al., 2016; Park, 2015; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). If employees perceive these initiatives as sincere efforts aimed at increasing their well-being, rather than simply a means to increase employee commitment and performance, it is likely to be reciprocated by positive employee attitudes and behaviour (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986).

In this study, employees' work-related perceptions about organisational support (POS) and justice (POJ) and work experiences in the form of psychological contract breach or violation were thus posited as being indicative of the quality of employees' social exchange relationship with their employing organisations. One would expect employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) to be intertwined, resulting in the formation of an overall impression of the quality of the employer-employee exchange relationship. The quality that employees ascribe to the relationship (based on these perceptions and experiences) is, in turn, expected to influence their attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation. By drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and relying on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), it is suggested that employees who experience a

high-quality relationship with their employing organisations are more likely to reciprocate by displaying positive attitudes (e.g. organisational commitment) and behaviour (e.g. OCB). In contrast, when the quality of the relationship is regarded as poor, the employee will attempt to restore the balance by either adjusting his or her perceived obligations in the reciprocal relationship or displaying negative attitudes and behaviour. This may, for instance, result in a decrease in commitment to the organisation or, in unionised organisations, an increase in union commitment. In addition, perceived poor quality of the employer-employee relationship may lead to decreased effort in terms of both in-role and extra-role behaviour, and may even provoke employees to engage in CWB as a means of retaliation.

From the preceding information, one could therefore infer that organisational success is largely determined by the quality of employer-employee relations. Employees' valuation of the quality of the social exchange relationship is based on the extent to which they perceive their employing organisation as fair and supportive and meeting its obligations in terms of the psychological contract. This valuation influences not only on their attitudes (organisational commitment) towards and discretionary behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace, but also determines the likelihood that they will join a trade union and participate in its activities. It is expected that, should adversarial employment relations conditions persist, trade union members' commitment will negatively impact on their commitment to their employing organisations and will result in a higher propensity to engage in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or people in it. In the South African employment relations context, where perceptions of injustice and inequality are often the norm and unionisation is commonplace, employees may, for instance, respond by participating in collective action, often in the form of unprotected strikes accompanied by unlawfulness and destruction, as a form of protest (Botha & Cronjé, 2015). Although such behaviour is intended to benefit trade union members in the long term, this inevitably has negative consequences for the organisation. It may thus be viewed as CWB with the intention of redressing, drawing attention to or expressing dissatisfaction with organisational events (e.g. perceived injustice) (Kelloway et al., 2010).

1.1.5 Trust and cynicism in employment relations

Another aspect of the employer-employee relationship that has often been regarded as indicative of the quality of the exchange relationship and which is essential to the success of employment relations, is the level of trust that exists between the employee and the organisation or organisational representatives (Ehlers, 2013; Jordaan & Cillié, 2015; Potgieter, Olckers, & Ehlers, 2015; Von der Ohe, 2014). A high level of trust exists when the parties have positive expectations about the intentions and behaviours of the others (Ehlers, 2013). Trust

has been shown to be a predictor of a range of individual-level and organisational-level outcomes, including organisational commitment and OCB (Chatbury, Beaty, & Kriek, 2011; Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Deconinck & Beth, 2013; Duffy & Lilly, 2013; Eğriboyun, 2015; Lewicki, Tomlinson, & Gillespie, 2006; McCabe & Sambrook, 2014). Higher levels of organisational trust have also been shown to lead to lower levels of absenteeism and intention to quit, which may be regarded as specific forms of CWB (Bagram & Hime, 2007; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Unfortunately, the South African employment relations environment is characterised by high levels of mistrust and adversity (Di Paola & Pons-Vignon, 2013; Jordaan, 2013; National Planning Commission, 2011). Although this may be attributed to sociopolitical and economic factors such as poverty, unemployment and inequality (Di Paola & Pons-Vignon, 2013; Pons-Vignon & Anseeuw, 2009), these negativities are inadvertently carried over to the workplace, impacting on employees' interactions and behaviour within organisations (Bapuji, 2015). One would expect employees who experience poor-quality social exchange relationships with their employing organisations to be less likely to trust their organisation and its leaders to act in their best interests.

Hence, if employers wish to encourage positive behaviour in and towards the organisation, it is imperative for them to establish trusting relationships with their employees. This may, however, be difficult in South Africa's political and economic climate. Employees, whose expectations following South Africa's political transition to a democracy have often not been met, no longer believe that organisations understand their needs or have any inclination to meet these needs. They are therefore becoming increasingly cynical towards organisations and managers benefiting from the persisting inequalities (Bhorat et al., 2014). These inequalities are reflected in low levels of trust and adversity in the workplace (Webster, 2013) and contribute not only to political or societal cynicism, but also cynicism towards those organisations and managers benefiting from these inequalities. The broader national dynamic – as seen in increased citizen impatience, community protests and political formations – is mirrored in current workplace relationships. Workers are increasingly showing their frustration with the slow pace of economic transformation. Growing militancy is reflected in inter-union rivalry, and an increasing number of unprotected strikes, often accompanied by violence and destruction of property and the dynamics of broader politics, all impact on the already precarious relations in the workplace (Commission for Conciliation Mediation and Arbitration, 2013; Webster, 2013). Cynicism, which may be regarded as a negative attitude that originates from employees' critical assessment of the intentions, actions and values of their employing organisations and its leaders (Abraham, 2000; Dean, Brandes, & Dharwadkar, 1998; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014), is increasingly embedded in the South African society and workplaces as a result of condescending business practices, large-scale retrenchments, wage inequality

and a general perception that only an elite few are enriched and empowered to the detriment of others (Andersson, 1996; Bradley, 2013; Rattsø & Stokke, 2013; Scott & Zweig, 2016).

Extant literature suggests that organisational trust and cynicism should be viewed as two contrasting attitudes relating to the expectations that employees have about the credibility of their organisations and managers as well as their work settings in general (Chiaburu, Peng, Oh, Banks, & Lomeli, 2013). These attitudes are shaped by employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace and impact on their behaviour in and towards their employing organisations (Bapuji, 2015). Cynical employees perceive their employers to be uninterested in their day-to-day needs and concerns (Mirvis & Kanter, 1989). Cynicism is reflected in employees' lack of faith in the integrity of organisations and a belief that they are exploited (Andersson, 1996), resulting in an unwillingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour and furthering the organisation's general well-being (Abraham, 2000). Furthermore, cynical employees, who question the motives of their employers and believe that they are being exploited, are more likely to shift their loyalties from the organisation to a trade union and to actively participate in union activities (Bashir & Nasir, 2013). They are also more likely to participate in large-scale collective action and support industrial action such as strikes (Kelloway et al., 2010). Drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), it is posited that employees who perceive that their employers do not meet their obligations, that they are treated unfairly or that they do not receive the necessary support from their employers, become cynical and reciprocate by engaging in behaviour that is detrimental to their employing organisations and the managers in them.

Employees' trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and its leaders are therefore expected to intervene in the relationship between their work-related perceptions and work experiences that shape their views on the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employing organisations and their relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace. While employees' perceptions of the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employees are expected to be shaped by their work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), the relationship between these variables and the ensuing relational attitudes and behaviour are expected to be both direct and indirect (i.e. mediated by organisational trust and cynicism).

It has already been established that high levels of perceived organisational support and justice and an absence of perceived psychological contract violation are likely to contribute to a high-quality social exchange relationship and result in increased commitment to the organisation

and engagement in positive discretionary behaviour. It is, however, posited that perceptions of a high-quality social exchange relationship may increase trust between the parties and reduce employee cynicism towards the organisation and its managers. This is expected, in turn, to increase the likelihood of positive outcomes (increased organisational commitment and OCB). In contrast, if employees experience poor-quality social exchange relationships with their employees (i.e. injustice, lack of support and violation of psychological contracts), this may lead to a decline in organisational trust and an increase in cynicism, which are likely to result in negative outcomes in the form of increased union commitment (to the detriment of organisational commitment), an unwillingness to engage in OCB and a tendency to engage in CWB. It is thus anticipated that employees' perceptions of unfairness, lack of support and indifference towards socioemotional obligations in their workplaces will be exacerbated by their distrust of and increased disillusionment with and disapproval of their organisations and its leaders (i.e. higher levels of organisational cynicism), especially in a highly unionised collectivist settings.

1.1.6 Collectivism in the workplace

Trade unions are founded on the sociocultural value of collectivism – by standing together workers increase their power base and improve their chances of promoting greater organisational and social justice (Nel et al., 2016). Not all employees, however, are collectivistically inclined. Since, cultural dispositions vary, not all employees are equally likely to resort to unionism if they experience dissatisfaction in the workplace. Triandis (2004) explains that, within a particular culture (e.g. the South African national culture), individuals have individualistic and collectivistic characteristics to various degrees (i.e. not all South Africans are either individualistic or collectivistic in nature). Employees' personal dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism therefore differ. While individualistically inclined employees will tend to value personal goals, independence, self-enhancement and competition, their collectivistic counterparts will have a higher regard for in-group goals, interdependence, group enhancement and cooperation (Györkös et al., 2013; Marcus & Le, 2013; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a). Collectivists are more inclined to join trade unions and actively participate in their activities, believing that, by doing so, the needs of the collective (trade union members) will be met (Finnemore & Joubert, 2013; Sarkar & Charlwood, 2014).

In an employment relations context, it is therefore to be expected that individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition would not only elucidate why some employees are more likely than others to join trade unions, but would also explain differences in the way employees perceive and experience events in the workplace and their attitudinal and

behavioural reactions to such events. It is thus postulated that individualism/collectivism, as an individual disposition, should be regarded as a moderator in the relationship between employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (perceived contract violation) and their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and its leaders. Similarly, individualism/collectivism is expected to moderate the nature of the relationships between trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace as well as the relationship between their relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB). Individual differences may thus occur in the way in which relationships are experienced and how these experiences influence attitudes and behaviour because of employees' cultural disposition (individualism/collectivism).

1.1.7 Diversity of the South African workforce

The South African workforce replicates the diversity of its population (see section 2.2.2.6 in Chapter 2) – hence the expectation that person-centred variables may exist that will impact on social exchanges in the workplace and the way in which the relational attitudes and behaviour and their hypothesised antecedents relate to one another. These person-centred variables, as reflected in extant literature, may include both personal characteristics such as gender, age, population group and education level as well as work-related factors such as employment status, tenure, job level and union membership.

It has been shown, for instance, that employees' needs and ideas about their employers' obligations gradually change (Colquitt, LePine, & Wesson, 2017; Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert, & Hatfield, 2018). Employees' expectations evolve as they gain experience in an organisation and receive feedback on their initial expectations (Schalk, 2004). Over time, employees who are dissatisfied with their employing organisation tend to leave it (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012). Those employees who remain are more likely to have realistic expectations of their employing organisations and are consequently less inclined to regard employer actions as unjust or malevolent (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Thomas & Anderson, 1998). Older and longer-tenured employees have not only been shown to be less cynical towards their employing organisations (Brandes et al., 2008; Brown & Cregan, 2008; Naus, Van Iterson, & Roe, 2007), but also tend to display less intense reactions to negative workplace events than their younger, inexperienced counterparts (Bal, De Lange, Jansen, & Van der Velde, 2013; Kunzmann, Kupperbusch, & Levenson, 2005; Kunzmann & Richter, 2009). Age- and tenure-related differences have also been reported in terms of employees' willingness to trust their employing organisations (Chang, O'Neill, & Travaglione, 2016; Pearce & Klein, 2017); to form

emotional bonds with these organisations (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Sherer & Morishima, 1989); to affiliate with trade unions (Nel et al., 2016); and to engage in positive or negative discretionary behaviour in the workplace (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Ng & Feldman, 2008, 2010; Sullivan, Mikels, & Carstensen, 2010).

It has also been suggested that employees' work-related perceptions and expectations and their tendency to engage in either positive or negative workplace behaviour, may be linked to their levels of education and employment (Restubog, Zagenczyk, Bordia, Bordia, & Chapman, 2015; Sheel & Vohra, 2016; Wu, Liu, Kwan, & Lee, 2016). Highly skilled, senior employees generally tend to receive more support from their employing organisations (Nielsen, 2014). They also have greater power in and affinity towards their organisations, which means that they are less likely to experience discontent (Monnot et al., 2011; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994) or distrust (Cyster, 2009; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011) or to perceive organisational actions as unfair (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Thomas & Anderson, 1998). In addition, these employees have more alternative employment opportunities and are therefore more likely to leave the organisation if they are dissatisfied (Meyer et al., 2002). In contrast, however, unskilled or semiskilled, lower-level employees tend to have limited career prospects and are more likely to hold cynical views of their organisations and managers (Mirvis & Kanter, 1989, 1991). These employees may reciprocate negative workplace experiences with an unwillingness to engage in OCB or may even retaliate by engaging in CWB (Restubog et al., 2015; Wu, Liu et al., 2016). They are also more likely to affiliate with trade unions and to engage in trade union activities (e.g. strikes) in an attempt to improve their working conditions (Deery, Iverson, & Erwin, 1994; Monnot et al., 2011).

Extant literature has furthermore shown that individuals who are employed in dissimilar forms of employment (permanent vs temporary) may have differing norms that may influence their perceptions of and reactions to organisational events (Callea, Urbini, Ingusci, & Chirumbolo, 2016; Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2003). Given the inequalities that employees in nonstandard employment experience in terms of remuneration and legal and social protection, their perceptions of and experiences in the workplace may be vastly different from those of their counterparts in permanent employment (Eaton, Schurman, & Chen, 2015). Owing to the transactional nature of temporary employees' contracts, they typically demonstrate lower levels trust in and commitment towards their employing organisations (Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Conway & Briner, 2002; Cooper et al., 2016). Temporary employees also tend to be less willing to engage in OCB, preferring to focus on their specified job-related activities (Redman & Snape, 2016; Spreitzer, Cameron, & Garrett, 2017). Although temporary

employees are posited to be more inclined to resort to CWB when experiencing dissatisfaction or injustice in the workplace, their behavioural options may be limited due to the finite and transactional nature of their contracts of employment (Lemmon, Wilson, Posig, & Glibkowski, 2016; Mai, Ellis, Christian, & Porter, 2016). In addition, they are unlikely to be trade union members and their reciprocal reactions to negative workplace events will thus not typically include union-related activities such as strikes (Redman & Snape, 2016).

It is thus implied that trade union membership may influence employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Shore and Coyle-Shapiro (2003) support this view, positing that trade union members have different views of the exchange relationship than nonmembers. They tend to credit the union, rather than the employer, for positive workplace experiences (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2003). Hence trade union members tend to perceive higher levels of injustice (Blader, 2007; Buttigieg, Deery, & Iverson, 2007) and experience lower levels of commitment towards their employing organisations (Conlon & Gallagher, 1987). They also tend to be less trusting and more cynical towards their employing organisations and its leaders than nonmembers (Brown & Cregan, 2008; Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006).

Furthermore, male and female employees have different needs (Schalk, 2004; Zhang, Song, Tsui, & Fu, 2014) and their expectations are often influenced by gender norms (Li & Thatcher, 2015). It has thus been suggested that gender-related differences exist in terms of commitment (Ibrahim & Perez, 2014) and behaviour (Kark & Waismel-Manor, 2005; Kidder & McLean Parks, 2001) in the workplace. Since females tend to place a high value on relationships, female employees are expected to judge fairness in employment relations in terms of the influence of organisational actions on employer-employee relations (Dulebohn et al., 2016). They also tend to be more trusting than male employees (Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Dohmen, Falk, Huffman, & Sunde, 2008) and are generally more willing to engage in behaviour beyond what is formally required (Eagly & Crowley, 1986; Eagly & Steffen, 1984; Wei, Ma et al., 2015). Male employees, in contrast, are more likely to be cynical towards their employing organisations (González-Morales, Peiró, Rodríguez, & Bliese, 2012; Meyer & Steyn, 2008; Mirvis & Kanter, 1991). They judge organisational events in terms of the fairness of outcomes (i.e. distributive justice) (Clay-Warner, Culatta, & James, 2013) rather than its relational impact, and tend to resort to undesirable behaviour in response to negative workplace events (Spector & Zhou, 2014).

Finally, the population group to which an employee belongs is also likely to impact on his or her expectations and relations in the workplace. South Africa has a history of racial

segregation, which gave rise to a dual employment relations system based on race. This has resulted in vast inequalities between employees of different races and continued discrimination, which has not yet been rectified, despite various initiatives in this regard (e.g. employment equity, affirmative action and black economic empowerment) since the advent of democracy (see section 2.2.1). Employees of different races therefore have vastly different expectations in terms of the reciprocal obligations of the parties in the employment relationship. Although extant literature has identified the need for research on the relationships between population groups and organisational attitudes and behaviour (e.g. Berry et al. (2007), this has not been done in a South African employment relations context.

The identified person-centred variables (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) are often used as control variables in extant industrial and organisational psychology literature and have all been shown to be of relevance in an employment relations context (detailed discussions are provided in Chapters 3 to 6). However, their relationships with the variables of interests in this study have not been indisputably confirmed. Although relationships between these person-centred variables and employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace as well as their attitudinal (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behavioural (OCB and CWB) reactions to workplace events have been reported (these relationships are explored in Chapters 3 to 6), empirical evidence of these relationships, especially in a South African organisational context, tends to be limited and inconclusive. In this study it is posited that a richer understanding of social exchange relationships in the workplace may be obtained by considering individual differences in terms of work context (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) and personal characteristics (gender, age, population group and education level) that may impact on employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace. The potential effect of these variables on employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences and their relational attitudes and behaviour as reported in extant literature are therefore explored in subsequent chapters.

The aim of the study was to foster a better understanding of employees' attitudinal and behavioural responses to work-related perceptions and work experiences following an integrated approach. Employees' perceptions of the extent to which their expectations in terms of their psychological contracts with their employees are fulfilled and the levels of support and justice in the organisation are therefore examined in terms of the influence of these perceptions on the quality of the exchange relationship (social exchange and psychological contract theories), as well as their attitudinal and behavioural responses to perceived imbalances, injustice and lack of support. It is posited that a better understanding of the

interplay between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) will enable employers to amend their employment relations policies, practices and procedures to promote positive employee attitudes and behaviour and to address elements that may give rise to negative attitudes and behaviour. It is anticipated that employees who do not observe breaches in terms of their psychological contracts and perceive their employing organisations as supportive and fair will enjoy high-quality social exchange relationships with their employing organisations. Such relationships are expected to foster trust in the organisation and its managers and lead to positive reciprocative attitudes and behaviour. In contrast, employees who regularly observe breaches in terms of their psychological contracts are likely to question the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employing organisations – especially when these breaches are accompanied by negative emotions (e.g. anger and frustration), perceived injustice or a lack of support. It is anticipated that poor-quality social exchange relationships will promote organisational cynicism, which, in turn, will enhance its negative impact on employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

By actively engaging with employees as individuals, organisations can create a work environment in which employees are committed to their work, their colleagues, management and, overall, to the organisation, and this will be reflected in positive work behaviour. This can only be achieved in an environment characterised by mutual cooperation and trust (Purcell & Hall, 2012). Employment relations policies, procedures and practices that are transparent and reflect a sense of care for employees' well-being and valuation for their contribution to organisational success are likely to alleviate employees' fear of exploitation and cynicism that result from the inherent power imbalance in the employment relationship (Andersson, 1996; Mirvis & Kanter, 1991). Building trust relationships and thereby resolving disputes in a sustainable manner, to the benefit of all concerned, needs to be emphasised (Commission for Conciliation Mediation and Arbitration, 2013). Employment relations management practices should not only be focused on adding value for customers and improving organisational competitiveness. In order to really be successful, organisations should focus on adding value to their employees – their work, the quality of their life at work and their work performance – by setting the scene for high-quality social exchange relationships (Karagonlar, Eisenberger, & Aselage, 2016; Lee, Chiang, Van Esch, & Cai, 2018). In this way, employment relations play a crucial part, not only in the success of organisations, but also in developing a sustainable society where all parties benefit (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012).

In summary, it has been shown that the effective management of employment relations is not only essential in attaining long-term organisational success, but is also a national imperative. It has, furthermore been argued that employment relations should not be regarded solely as the formal or legal and collective relationships between employees and their employing organisations but should include the individual and informal relationships. While South African research on the legal aspects of the employment relationship is abundant, there is a paucity of research on the informal or socioemotional aspects of the relationship. Hence, this study draws mainly on social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity to argue that employees who experience a high-quality social exchange relationship with their employing organisations will form positive attitudes about their employing organisations and will be more likely to engage in desirable discretionary behaviour intended to benefit these organisations.

It is suggested that, for organisations to achieve long-term success, they need to find ways of cultivating positive relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. The attitudinal focus is on employees' commitment to two potentially contradictory entities, namely the organisation and trade union. It is argued that trade unions are a reality in the South African employment relations environment. Employers should therefore not attempt to dissuade employees from joining trade unions or taking part in their activities. Employers should rather strive towards creating a positive employment relations climate where dual commitment to both entities is possible and unlikely to have negative implications for the organisations. The behavioural focus is on discretionary employee behaviour (OCB and CWB). These forms of behaviour are regarded as essential in shaping the organisational, social and psychological context in which employers and employees operate and thereby affecting employer-employee relations and impacting on organisational functioning.

It is postulated that positive relational attitudes and behaviour may be attained by creating high-quality social exchange relationships. This study explored three ways in which employers may achieve this, namely by providing employees with the necessary support, by treating employees fairly and equitably and by refraining from violating their obligations in terms of the psychological contract. The direct relationships between these antecedent variables and relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) were therefore examined. It is furthermore suggested that two additional contrasting attitudes, namely employees' trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and its leaders, may serve as mediating variables in these relationships. It is emphasised that individual dispositions (individualism/collectivism) may influence the nature of the relationships between the antecedent and outcome variables of concern in this study. Finally, the diversity of the

South African workforce is recognised by taking cognisance of individual differences that may influence the way employees perceive, experience and react to events in the workplace.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

While South Africa's National Development Plan (NDP) recognises the troubled nature of the country's employment relations and the importance of building constructive working relations (Anstey, 2013; National Planning Commission, 2011), and effective employment relations are recognised as being imperative for organisational success (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012), key challenges remain. At a national level, these challenges include the increasingly adversarial relations between employers and employees – fuelled by perceptions of unfairness, injustice and inequality – resulting in large-scale labour unrest (Di Paola & Pons-Vignon, 2013; Pons-Vignon & Anseeuw, 2009; Webster, 2013). At an organisational level, the persistent conflict between employers, employees and their representatives leads to low productivity, poor performance, high levels of absenteeism, low worker morale, high employee turnover and destructive behaviour (Jordaan, 2013; Webster, 2013). Employees feel oppressed and exploited, resulting in mistrust and cynicism towards organisations and their leaders (Jordaan & Cillie, 2015; Wörnich et al., 2018).

Even though important advances have been made in terms of the regulation of employment relations in South Africa, this has not succeeded in eradicating these challenges (Ramutloa, 2014). Contemporary employment relations scholars argue that the answer lies in a more integrative approach to managing employment relations, incorporating the informal or relational aspects with the traditional notions of collectivity and conflict resolution (Jordaan & Ulrich, 2016; Nel et al., 2016; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). Nevertheless, research incorporating the social dynamics of employee attitudes and behaviour (mainly contained in the industrial and organisational psychology literature) with the collective nature of employer-employee relations in unionised organisations has not been forthcoming. Although expectations and obligations are regarded as central to the development of employer-employee relations, reciprocity and social exchange are rarely mentioned in South African employment relations literature (Finnemore, Koekemoer, & Joubert, 2018; Jordaan & Ulrich, 2016; Nel et al., 2016). The emphasis remains on conflicting interests, a continuous battle for limited resources, an inherent power imbalance in the employment relationship and inequalities in the labour market (Anstey, 2013; Bhorat, Naidoo, Oosthuizen, & Pillay, 2016). While research in employment relations is often aimed at better understanding employer-employee relationships, the focus tends to be on organisational objectives (rather than mutual

expectations), collective actors and labour markets rather than the employment relationship (Kochan, Riordan, Kowalsi, Khan, & Yang, 2019).

This study aims to contribute to South African employment relations theory and practice by exploring the following key issues and determining how they can be incorporated into a psychological framework aimed at enhancing positive employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace:

- Owing to the emphasis on transactional exchanges, the behavioural focus in employment relations tends to be on formal job-related performance. Employers therefore implement policies and procedures aimed at ensuring that employees perform their agreed-upon tasks according to set standards and by following prescribed rules. The ways in which positive discretionary behaviour may be encouraged and the contribution that such behaviour may make to organisational effectiveness are underestimated and under-researched. At the same time, while measures are put in place to deal with employee wrongdoing in the workplace, little effort has been made to determine the factors that give rise to such misbehaviour.
- Although trade unions play an essential role in workplace relations, employment relations scholars have not considered how employees' affiliation to unions may influence their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Given the prominence of trade unions in South African employment relations (Bhorat et al., 2014), it is deemed essential to determine whether embracing trade unionism negatively affects members' attitudes towards and behaviour in their employing organisations. Although it has been established in extant literature that trade union members may be dually committed towards both their employing organisations and trade unions (Monnot et al., 2011; Redman & Snape, 2016), this has not yet been investigated in a South African employment relations context.
- While the emphasis on conflict and adversity in employment relations suggests the need for research on the extent to which negative workplace experiences and perceptions may influence employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, there seems to be a dearth of research relating to psychological contract violation. Extant research seems to rather focus on its positive counterpart (psychological contract fulfilment), although it has been shown that negative work experiences and

perceptions have a greater impact on employee attitudes and behaviour than positive ones (Baumeister et al., 2001).

- Although employment relations literature tends to emphasise perceived injustice and inequality, the interactive effect of the promotion of fair and supportive employment relations practices and work experiences (psychological contract violation) in the formation of an overall impression of the quality of employees' social exchange relationships with their employing organisations has not been explored.
- South African employer-employee relations are often described as distrustful (Humby, 2016). Although the factors that give rise to trust have received some scholarly attention (Martins, 2002; Von der Ohe, 2014), researchers have refrained from investigating the extent to which distrust is revealed in organisational cynicism. Research on cynicism and trust in the workplace has been conducted mainly within the context of organisational change and restructuring, leadership and burnout (Du Plessis, Wakelin, & Nel, 2015; Engelbrecht, Heine, & Mahembe, 2015; Harry, 2015; Krog & Govender, 2015; S. Rothmann & Joubert, 2007; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010). However, trust/mistrust has not been investigated in the context of employment relations. It has not yet been established how employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace may give rise to trust and/or cynicism and how this may predict their attitudes towards and behaviour in their employing organisations.
- South Africa has a diverse population and this diversity is increasingly being reflected in the workplace where individuals from dissimilar cultural backgrounds are continuously required to interact and work together towards common goals, often giving rise to conflict (Wärnich et al., 2018). Although one would expect employees' cultural backgrounds to influence how they experience and perceive events in the workplace and how they react to such events (Yates & De Oliveira, 2016), this matter has not received attention in employment relations research. This underscores the need to better understand employees' individual cultural dispositions. In an employment relations context, their disposition towards individualism or collectivism is regarded as particularly important as a collectivist disposition has been linked to a greater tendency to join trade unions and to participate in union activities (Sarkar & Charlwood, 2014).
- Finally, there seems to be paucity of research on the relationship dynamics between individuals' personal (gender, age, population group and education level) and work-

related (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics, the work-related perceptions and work experiences that serve as antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace. In South Africa, with its diverse workforce, it is deemed essential to take cognisance of these individual differences to eliminate any confounding effects they may have on the relationships between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust), moderating (individualism/collectivism) and dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables that are anticipated to form part of the conceptualised psychological framework.

From the above it may be deduced that there is a need to extend employment relations research by incorporating informal or social factors that may shape employer-employee relations, thereby influencing employees' attitudes towards and behaviour in their employing organisations. Although the influence of various variables on organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB have been observed by researchers, the collective impact of these variables in an employment relations context needs to be explored. While individual work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) have been reported as potential antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour (Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Sousa-Lima, Michel, & Caetano, 2013), the collective and interactive effect of these antecedents, as indicators of the quality of the social exchange relationship, has not been considered. Furthermore, research on the relationships between the constructs included in this study has mainly been conducted in other cultural settings such as the USA, UK, Europe and Asia. In this study, it is posited that different relationships may exist in the South African organisational context, not only because of unique characteristics in terms of national culture and the troubled history of its employment relations, but also as a result of individual cultural dispositions. The study examines employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in a South African employment relations environment to determine whether results similar to those obtained in other countries are observed in this context. This research was thus aimed at exploring the complex relationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations in a South African organisational context.

Given the cultural diversity of the South African population, it is also deemed essential to better understand the potential impact of employees' disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism on the relationships between (1) their work-related perceptions and work experiences and the levels of organisational trust and cynicism they experience; (2) their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their attitudinal and behavioural reactions to organisational events; and (3) their relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and subsequent behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace. The potential intervening effect of employees' individual dispositions (individualism/collectivism) on these relationships has not been considered in extant literature. Employees' biographical characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) and their contribution to the interplay between the selected variables will also be explored.

While relationships between many of these variables have been observed by researchers (see Chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6), the collective impact of these variables in a South African employment relations context has not been studied. This research is a starting point in providing theoretical and empirical support for the broadening of employment relations as a field of study and practice. The emphasis is on increasing the quality of social exchange relationships between employees and their employing organisations, and thereby promoting positive relational attitudes and behaviour that are likely to address both individual and organisational needs. A dynamic approach towards exploring the complex relationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), on the one hand, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), on the other, is adopted. The complexities involved in these relationships are further explored by investigating the moderating influence of individual dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism and the mediating role of organisational cynicism and trust in the South African employment environment. It is anticipated that the psychological framework emanating from the empirical results of this study could enhance employment relations scholars' and practitioners' understanding of the interaction between employees' perceptions, attitudes and behaviour (i.e. the "soft" issues) in the workplace. This may, in turn, inform the development and implementation of appropriate employment relations practices focused on enhancing positive employee attitudes and constructive behaviour, thereby contributing to the long-term success of South African organisations.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In view of the foregoing, the research questions as set out below were formulated to guide the literature review and empirical study.

The main research question was: What are the elements of an integrated psychological framework aimed at enhancing relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in a multicultural South African employment relations context and what relationships exist between these elements?

The following subquestions were articulated:

- What are the relationship dynamics between work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the South African employment relations environment?
- Can organisational cynicism and trust be regarded as a set of mediating constructs in the relationship between work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB)?
- Does employees' disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism play an intervening role in the relationships between employees' (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences and the levels of organisational trust and cynicism they experience; (2) trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their attitudinal and behavioural reactions to organisational events; and (3) relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and subsequent behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace?
- Which biographical characteristics may be identified that relate to individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences, their cynicism towards and trust in the organisation, their relational attitudes and behaviour and their personal dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism?

On the basis of these research questions, it was deemed essential to clearly conceptualise employment relations in the contemporary South African organisational context. Furthermore,

a clear conceptualisation of the identified constructs and an understanding of the relationships between these constructs, as reported in extant literature, were regarded as vital. It was also considered important to contemplate how individual differences (i.t.o. gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) might relate to employees' disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism, work-related perceptions and work experiences, their cynicism towards and trust in the organisation and their relational attitudes and behaviour. The literature review was thus aimed at clearly conceptualising the constructs of relevance to this study and exploring the relationship dynamics between them (Chapters 2 to 6). This culminated in a theoretical conceptualisation of a psychological framework aimed at enhancing employee attitudes and behaviour by improving employment relations (Chapter 7). Extant literature was furthermore drawn on to formulate the potential implications of the anticipated psychological framework for employment relations practices and to make recommendations that might facilitate the development of high-quality employment relationships and positive relational outcomes.

Following the theoretical conceptualisation of the psychological framework, this study sought to obtain empirical evidence for the anticipated relationships between the independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), dependent variables (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB), mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust) and moderating variable (individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism). Empirical support was also sought for the extent to which individuals' biographical characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) relate to their work-related perceptions and work experience, their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations, their individual dispositions and their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Based on the overall statistical relationship between the antecedent, mediating, moderating and outcome construct variables, the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretical hypothesised framework was determined.

1.4 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

Based on the above research questions, this study therefore intended to address the research aims set out below.

1.4.1 General aim of the research

The general aim of this research was to construct an integrated psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in a South African employment relations context. This aim was realised by exploring the relationship dynamics between diverse employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace, as mediated by their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations.

The unique characteristics of the South African workforce were incorporated into the proposed framework by considering the moderating effect of personal dispositions (individualism/collectivism) and the relationships between selected biographical characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) and the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) and moderating (individualism/collectivism) variables of relevance in this study.

1.4.2 Specific aims of the research

The following specific aims were formulated for the literature review and empirical study:

1.4.2.1 *Literature review*

In terms of the literature review, the specific aims were as follows:

Literature research aim 1: To conceptualise employment relations in the South African organisational context

Literature research aim 2: To conceptualise relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a set of relational outcomes or consequences in employment relations

Literature research aim 3: To conceptualise work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as a set of antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour

Literature research aim 4: To conceptualise organisational cynicism and trust as a set of mediating constructs in the relationship between work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB)

Literature research aim 5: To conceptualise individualism/collectivism as a moderating construct in the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations, and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB)

Literature research aim 6: To determine how the biographical characteristics of individuals (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) relate to their individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism, work-related perceptions and work experiences, their cynicism towards and trust in the organisation and their relational attitudes and behaviour

Literature research aim 7: To outline the elements of the psychological framework for enhancing employees' relational attitudes and behaviour based on the theoretical relationship dynamics between the constructs

Literature research aim 8: To identify the implications of the psychological framework for employment relations practices and to formulate recommendations to facilitate the development of high-quality employment relationships and positive relational outcomes

1.4.2.2 Empirical study

In terms of the empirical study, the specific aims were as follows:

Empirical research aim 1: To assess the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical interrelationships between the independent variables (work-related perceptions and work experiences), dependent variables (relational attitudes and behaviour), mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust) and moderating variable (individual disposition in terms of

individualism/collectivism) in a sample of respondents employed in the South African organisational context

Empirical research aim 2: To assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of independent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables

Empirical research aim 3: To assess the overall statistical relationship between horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of independent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables

Empirical research aim 4: To assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as a composite set of independent variables and organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent dependent variables

Empirical research aim 5: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the construct variables, to assess the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretical hypothesised framework

Empirical research aim 6: To determine whether (1) organisational cynicism and (2) organisational trust significantly mediate the relationship between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB)

Empirical research aim 7: To determine whether the influence of individuals' (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) on their sense of organisational cynicism and trust; (2) trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations on their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and (3) relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) upon their behaviour (OCB and CWB), is conditional on their disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (moderating variable)

Empirical research aim 8: To empirically assess whether gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership significantly predict work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB)

Empirical research aim 9: To empirically assess whether individuals from various biographical groups (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) differ significantly regarding the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust), moderating (individualism/collectivism) and dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables

Empirical research aim 10: To formulate recommendations for employment relations practices and future research

1.5 STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE

This research is relevant and significant to the current South African employment relations landscape, which is marked by adversity and general dysfunctional attitudes and undesirable behaviour. It is anticipated that value will be added by making the following theoretical, empirical and practical contributions:

1.5.1 Potential contribution at a theoretical level

At a theoretical level, this study could serve as a starting point in broadening the scope of employment relations as a field of study and practice in South Africa. Employment relations in a South African organisational context is conceptualised by considering its international origins as a field of study and practice and tracing its development in South Africa with its unique socioeconomic challenges. In addition, it is anticipated that a contribution will be made towards understanding the development of particular relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace by examining relevant literature. The attitudinal emphasis is on employees' attachment to two potentially competing entities (the organisation and trade unions) and the possibility of dual commitment towards these entities. The behavioural component relates to both positive (OCB) and negative (CWB) discretionary behaviour that shape the organisational, social and

psychological context in which the parties to the employment relationship function. By investigating the antecedents of organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB that have been reported in extant literature, the elements of a psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour are identified and conceptualised in the context of a culturally diverse South African workforce.

It is anticipated that the theoretical framework developed in this research will guide further research aimed at understanding how employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences facilitate the development of high-quality exchange relationships and how the perceptions they hold of their relationships with their employing organisations, relate to their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. It is furthermore anticipated that the theoretical framework will highlight the need for additional research on cultural and demographic differences between South African employees and how such differences may influence workplace relations.

1.5.2 Potential contribution at an empirical level

By constructing an empirically tested psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour, this research could make a novel contribution by providing empirical support for theoretically posited relationships between variables that are deemed essential in enhancing employment relations. Such relationships include, inter alia, the interactive effect of work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) on attitudinal (organisational and union commitment) and behavioural (OCB and CWB) outcomes; the mediating effect of organisational cynicism and trust in the relationship between work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and attitudinal (organisational and union commitment) and behavioural (OCB and CWB) outcomes; and the associations between organisational commitment, union commitment and behavioural (OCB and CWB) outcomes.

In addition, the study could provide empirical support for the moderating effect of individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism and confirm whether employees' individual characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) influence their perceptions and experiences in the workplace and ultimately their work-related attitudes and behaviour. Given the diversity of the South African workforce, the results might be valuable in informing employment relations practices aimed at ensuring optimal employer-employee relations.

Finally, as limited research on some of the variables identified has been conducted in the South African organisational context, this study should also make a contribution in testing and validating those measurement instruments that have only been used in international settings.

1.5.3 Potential contribution at a practical level

At a practical level, if employment relations practitioners and industrial and organisational psychologists could develop an enhanced understanding of the relationship between employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace and their impact on work-related attitudes and behaviour by considering the proposed psychological framework, this might prove useful in terms of improved employer-employee relations and ultimately organisational success. By considering and addressing factors that negatively affect employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace and focusing on those factors that enhance their commitment to the organisation and discretionary behaviour in support of the organisational objectives, employment relations practitioners and industrial and organisational psychologists would contribute at the following three levels: (1) Individual-level interventions to enhance high-quality employment relations in the workplace could be developed. (2) By determining employees' psychological profiles, employment relations strategies, policies, procedures and practices could be revised at an organisational level to ensure alignment between individual needs and objectives and organisational goals. (3) At a national level, employment relations practitioners and industrial and organisational psychologists would be enabled to contribute towards the national imperative of increasing employment and reducing inequality.

1.6 PARADIGMATIC PERSPECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

Employment relations in South Africa is regarded as an interdisciplinary field of study within the social sciences that draws on a variety of disciplines such as economics, law, sociology, politics and psychology (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). Research in the social sciences is aimed at finding patterns of regularity in social life (Babbie, 2017). It entails an objective investigation of social reality aimed at gaining a valid understanding thereof (Mouton & Marais, 1996). The research domain of the social sciences thus relates to humankind in all its diversity, including, inter alia, human activities, characteristics, institutions and behaviour (Mouton & Marais, 1996). In their seminal work on methodology in social sciences research, Mouton and Marais (1996) proposed five dimensions that should be incorporated into the design of a research framework, namely the sociological, ontological, teleological, epistemological and methodological dimensions (see Figure 1.1).

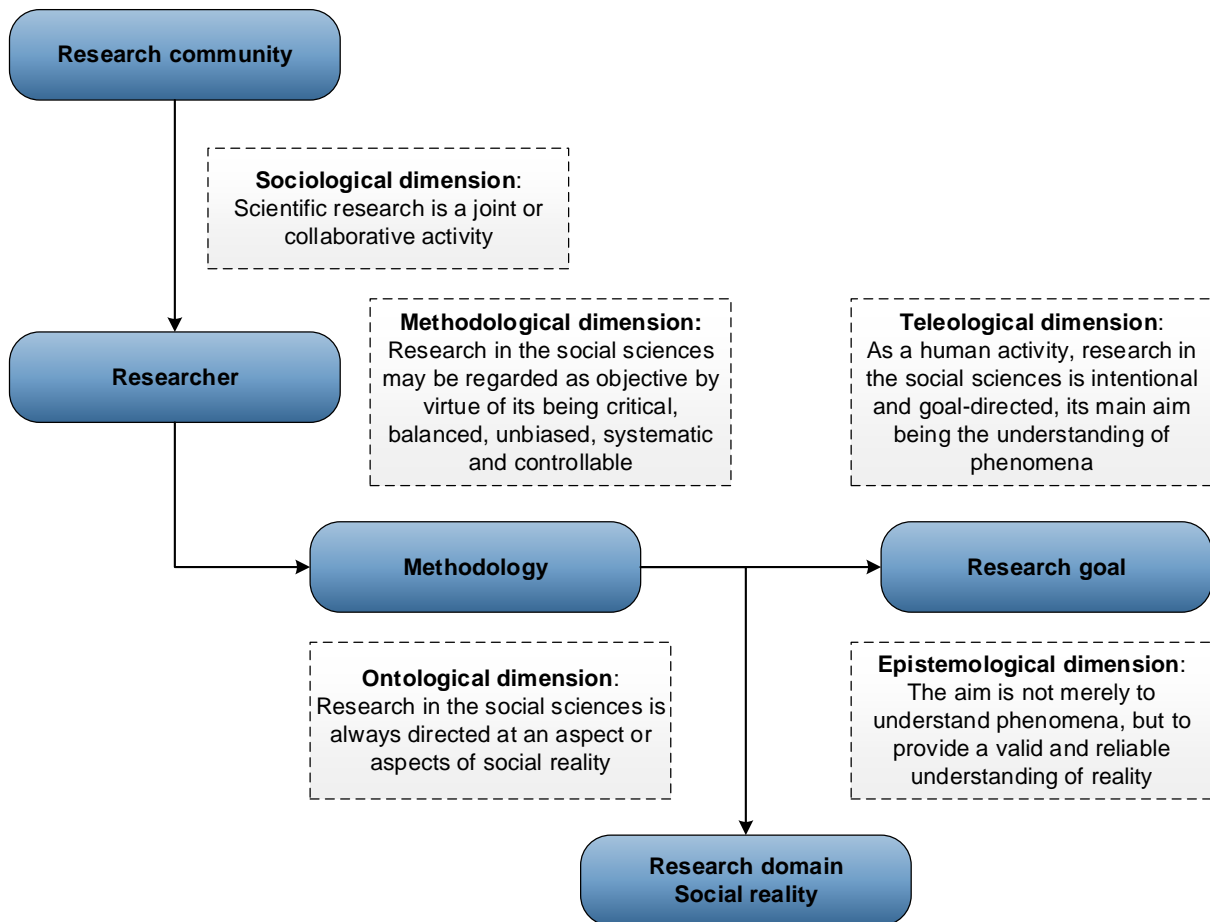


Figure 1.1. Dimensions of Social Sciences Research adapted from Mouton and Marais (1996, pp. 7–8)

Mouton and Marais (1996) synthesised these dimensions of social research within a proposed framework for research in the social sciences. This framework, described as a systems theoretical model, consists of three interactive subsystems, namely the intellectual climate, the market of intellectual resources and the research process (Mouton & Marais, 1996). These subsystems and their interaction within the research domain of the social sciences serve as the building blocks of the research approach adopted in this study, and serve as a framework for the sections that follow.

1.6.1 The intellectual climate

The intellectual climate reflects the variety of metatheoretical values or beliefs held by practitioners in the relevant discipline (in this instance, industrial and organisational psychology, and more specifically, employment relations) (Mouton & Marais, 1996). These beliefs include views on the nature of social reality as well as more discipline-specific beliefs and are formed as a result of the particular disciplinary and paradigmatic contexts in which the

research is conducted (Mouton & Marais, 1996). A set of assumptions about reality is therefore made, which subsequently guides research decisions (Babbie & Roberts, 2018).

Four paradigmatic perspectives are applicable in this study. The literature review is presented from the perspective of the broad employment, conflict and rational choice paradigms. The empirical study is presented from the post-positivist research paradigm. These paradigmatic perspectives inform the theoretical and methodological beliefs (see sections 1.6.2.4 and 1.6.2.5) that guide the research process and decisions.

1.6.1.1 The literature review

The literature is presented from the following paradigmatic perspectives:

(a) Broad employment paradigm

The conceptualisation of employment relations as the metatheoretical context of this study (see Chapter 2) and the necessity for this particular research is informed by what Kaufman (2008) terms the broad employment paradigm. This paradigm is centred around the employment relationship (Ackers & Wilkinson, 2008; Kaufman, 2014). It encompasses all types of employment relationships (i.e. private and public, unionised and nonunionised, formal and informal) and is not restricted to collective relations and unionised environments (Kaufman, 2008). Its core principle is that labour is human. It thus ascertains that labour should not be regarded as a commodity. Labour, as embodied in human beings, has confined rationality and operates in a persistently uncertain environment that is susceptible to imperfect information (Kaufman, 2008).

The broad employment paradigm includes both pluralist and unitarist views, incorporates both unionised and nonunionised workplaces and embraces both individual and collective employment relationships. It provides for a broader array of solutions to labour problems and includes a normative value commitment that remains progressive and humanistic, but is also more inclusive and neutral towards competing interests and ideologies (Kaufman, 2008).

(b) The conflict paradigm

In terms of the conflict paradigm, human behaviour is viewed as attempts to dominate others or avoid being dominated by others (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). The conflict paradigm draws

attention to conflict, inequality, dominance and oppression in social life. Hutchinson (2017) outlines the main characteristics of this perspective as follows:

- Groups and individuals try to advance their own interests over the interests of others as they compete for scarce resources.
- Power is unequally divided, and some social groups dominate others.
- Social order is based on the manipulation and control of nondominant groups by dominant groups.
- Lack of open conflict is a sign of exploitation.
- Members of dominant groups become alienated from society.
- Social change is driven by conflict, with periods of change interrupting long periods of stability.

Babbie (2017) explains that, although the conflict paradigm originated from Karl Marx's (1818–1883) work on the struggle among economic classes, it would be appropriate to apply it whenever different groups have competing interests. In this study, the conflict paradigm is relied upon to highlight the potentially diverse interests of conceptually opposing groups or entities in an employment relations context. Firstly, the study reflects on the inherent conflict between the employer and employee as primary parties in the employment relationship. Secondly, the way in which employees perceive and experience events in the workplace is postulated to be influenced by their cultural dispositions. Individualists and collectivists are expected to have different values and beliefs that influence their attitudes and behaviour in the work environment (Triandis, 1995). Collectivists are also more likely to join trade unions (Finnemore & Joubert, 2013; Sarkar & Charwood, 2014). It is anticipated that the perceptions, attitudes and behaviour of union members will differ from those of nonmembers, in part due to their differing cultural values and beliefs.

Within an employment relations context, the conflict paradigm is reflected in the pluralist view, which presupposes that organisations are multifaceted and complex groupings of individuals and groups who align with others, inside as well as outside the actual employing organisation, who share similar views, values and objectives. Power is dispersed among a variety of stakeholder groups (e.g. management as representatives of the employer and trade unions as representatives of employees) and, as a result of this interface between a variety of interest groups and a greater dissemination of power, there is a greater propensity for conflict that is accepted as rational and normal (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012).

Thematically, the conflict paradigm relates to the conceptualisation of employment relations, which forms the metatheoretical context of this study. It is acknowledged that conflict is inherent in the employment relationship, but that employment relations as a field of study and practice should include both means of dealing with conflict and establishing cooperation (see Chapter 2). The conflict paradigm furthermore informs the conceptualisation of individualism/collectivism as a cultural disposition influencing employee perceptions, attitudes and behaviour in the workplace and provides support for differentiating between trade union members and nonmembers when attempting to better understand employee attitudes and behaviour.

(c) *Rational choice paradigm*

According to the rational choice paradigm, human behaviour is based on self-interest and rational choices about effective ways to accomplish goals (Hutchinson, 2017). It is a way of looking at deliberations between a number of potential courses of action, in which "rationality" of one form or another is used either to decide which course of action will be the best to take, or to predict which course of action actually will be taken. Hutchinson (2017) outlines the main characteristics of this perspective as follows:

- People are rational and goal directed.
- Human interaction involves trade of social resources, such as love, approval, information, money and physical labour.
- Social exchange is based on self-interest, with actors trying to maximise rewards and minimise costs.
- Values, norms and expectations, as well as alternatives, influence the assessment of rewards and costs.
- Reciprocity of exchange is essential to social life.
- Power comes from unequal resources in an exchange.

This paradigm incorporates social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which posits that all human relationships are formed by the use of a subjective cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). For example, when a person perceives the costs of relationship as outweighing the perceived benefits, then the theory predicts that the person will choose to leave the relationship. Reciprocity is therefore at the heart of exchanges between people (Cardona & Morley, 2013; Gouldner, 1960). Social exchange theory is a dominant framework for various theories that are used to explain a variety of employees' work

attitudes and behaviours (DeConinck, 2010) including OCB (Chiang, Yang, Klein, & Jiang, 2013; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Lilly & Virick, 2013), CWB (O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel, 2012; Thornton & Rupp, 2016), organisational commitment (Jiang, Gollan, & Brooks, 2017; Liu & Wang, 2013), union commitment (Thacker, 2015), organisational cynicism (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Neves, 2012) and trust (Biswas & Kapil, 2017; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013; Zapata, Olsen, & Martins, 2013). Furthermore, the psychological contract, and more specifically the extent to which employees' expectations in terms of this contract are fulfilled or violated, is an integral part of social exchange (Birtch, Chiang, & Van Esch, 2016; Lv & Xu, 2018). Social exchange theory is also commonly relied upon when exploring the influence of perceived organisational support (Teoh, Coyne, Devonish, Leather, & Zarola, 2016; Wong, Wong, & Ngo, 2012) and justice (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Lilly, 2015) on employee attitudes and behaviour.

In this study, the rational choice paradigm was adopted in conceptualising employees' perceptions, experiences, attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Thematically, this paradigm thus relates to employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) as well as their attitudes (organisational cynicism and trust, union and organisational commitment) towards and behaviour (CWB and OCB) in their employing organisations. Within this paradigm, social exchange theory is relied upon to better understand the relationships between these perceptions, experiences, attitudes and behaviour as reported in extant literature.

1.6.1.2 The empirical study

In this study, the empirical research was presented from the post-positivist research paradigm. Challenging the positivism paradigm, which is often subscribed to in social sciences research, post-positivism rejects positivistic beliefs of a single truth, positing that all observations are fallible and a full understanding is therefore not possible (i.e. critical realism) (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). The distinct ontological, epistemological, axiological and methodological beliefs that describe each of these paradigms are outlined in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1

The Core Beliefs Associated with Positivism and Post-positivism

Core beliefs	Positivism	Post-positivism
Ontological beliefs (the nature of reality)	Naïve realism: There is a “real” objective reality that is knowable.	Critical realism: There is a “real” objective reality, but humans cannot know it for sure.
Epistemological beliefs (what constitutes acceptable knowledge)	Objectivist: The researcher can, and should, avoid any bias or influence on the outcome. Results, if done well, are true.	Modified objectivist: The goal is objectivity, but pure objectivity is impossible. Results are “probably” true and are constructed through research and statistics. Interaction with research subjects is kept to a minimum. Emphasis is placed on external verification of results (i.e. validity comes from peers, not participants).
Axiological beliefs (role of values)	Researchers should remain distant from participants to ensure that their actions do not influence them.	Researchers’ biases need to be controlled and not expressed in a study. Researchers should attempt to gain a better understanding of reality and get as close as possible to the truth through the use of statistics that explains and describes what is known as reality.
Methodological beliefs (approach to inquiry)	Experimental/manipulative: Tends towards quantification and controlled experiments. Questions and hypotheses are proposed and subjected to empirical tests in carefully controlled conditions.	Modified experimental/ manipulative: Use of scientific method and writing. Object of research is to create new knowledge. Method is important. Deductive methods are used (e.g. testing of theories, specifying important variables, making comparisons between groups).

Sources: Creswell and Creswell (2018); Lincoln, Lynham, and Guba (2011)

The post-positivist paradigm challenges the positivist notion of the absolute truth or knowledge and recognises that, when studying the behaviour and actions of humans, only partial understanding can be achieved (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). In terms of this paradigm, it is thus understood that the researcher can seldom be completely objective, but an effort is still made to reduce researcher contamination. Although quantitative research methods are mostly used, qualitative research may be used to generate testable hypotheses (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Lincoln et al., 2011).

According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), the main assumptions of the post-positivist research paradigm are as follows:

- Knowledge is hypothetical, which means that absolute truth can never be found. Evidence established in research is therefore always imperfect and fallible. For this reason, researchers aim to falsify or reject a hypothesis instead of proving one.
- The research process commences by making claims (hypotheses), which are then tested in order to refine or abandon them.
- Knowledge is shaped by data, evidence and rational considerations. The researcher thus collects information on instruments (surveys) completed by the participants or by observations recorded by the researcher.
- The aim of research is to develop relevant, true statements that explain the situation of concern or that describe the causal relationships of interest. In quantitative studies, researchers investigate the relationship between variables by presenting these relationships in the form of research questions or hypotheses.
- Objectivity is of crucial importance. Researchers must examine the methods used and the conclusion drawn for bias by using, for example, measures for validity and reliability.

This research is grounded in the preceding assumptions to ensure an objective and scientific analysis of the empirical evidence. The empirical study consists of a cross-sectional quantitative study conducted within the ambit of the post-positivist research paradigm.

Thematically, the quantitative study focuses on investigating the relationship dynamics between the variables individualism/collectivism, POS, POJ, psychological contract violation,

organisational cynicism, organisational trust, organisational commitment, union commitment, CWB and OCB. This study provides quantitative measures of these constructs that have a concrete and tangible value through statistical science and techniques.

1.6.2 The market of intellectual resources

According to Mouton and Marais (1996), the market of intellectual resources refers to the collection of beliefs that have bearing on the epistemic states of scientific statements. These beliefs include theoretical views about the nature and structure of phenomena and methodological beliefs concerning the nature and structure of the research process. For the purpose of this research, the metatheoretical statements and conceptual descriptions of and relevant theories relating to individualism/collectivism, POS, POJ, psychological contract violation, organisational cynicism, organisational trust, organisational commitment, union commitment, CWB and OCB, as well as the central hypothesis (theoretical, methodological assumptions), are presented. Furthermore, the central hypothesis of the research and the theoretical and methodological assumptions guiding the research are stated.

1.6.2.1 Metatheoretical statements

Metatheoretical statements represent an important category of assumptions underlying the theories, models and paradigms of research (Mouton & Marais, 1996). The underlying assumptions of theories, models and paradigms within a particular disciplinary field thus form the context for a specific study. In terms of the disciplinary context, this study is conducted within the field of industrial and organisational psychology and specifically the subfields of organisational behaviour and employment relations.

(a) Industrial and organisational psychology

This study was conducted in the context of industrial and organisational psychology. Industrial and organisational psychology is a subfield of psychology that applies the principles of psychology to the workplace (Aamodt, 2016). Schreuder and Coetzee (2010) define industrial and organisational psychology as an applied division of psychology concerned with the study of human behaviour related to work, organisations and productivity in a particular type of environment, that is, almost any kind of organisation. It therefore relates to the application of psychological principles, theory and research to the workplace (Landy & Conte, 2016).

Industrial and organisational psychology can be considered in a number of ways. One mode emphasises the epistemological and scientific status of the premises. According to Van Vuuren (2010), the purpose of the epistemology of scientific knowledge in the discipline is to understand, influence or change organisational related behaviour. Thematically, this study aims to provide an understanding of employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the South African organisational context by applying the constructs of individualism/collectivism, POS, POJ, psychological contract violation, organisational cynicism, organisational trust, organisational commitment, union commitment, CWB and OCB.

(b) Organisational behaviour

The aim of organisational behaviour, as a field of study built on contributions from a number of behavioural disciplines including psychology, social psychology, sociology and anthropology, is to understand three determinants of behaviour in organisations, namely individuals, groups and structure (Robbins & Judge, 2017). It is primarily concerned with the psychosocial, interpersonal and behavioural dynamics in organisations (Nelson & Quick, 2013). The purpose of the epistemology of scientific knowledge in the discipline is to understand, explain and ultimately improve the attitudes and behaviours of individuals and groups in organisations in order to enhance organisational effectiveness (Colquitt et al., 2017).

In this study, the focus is on individual discretionary behaviour in the workplace. In terms of a systemic organisational behaviour model (Robbins & Judge, 2017) it is anticipated that individual differences in terms of work context (employees' employment status, tenure, job level and union membership), personal characteristics (gender, age, population group and education level) and cultural dispositions (individualism/collectivism) may influence employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace. The way in which employees react to organisational events, in turn, determines their attitudes (organisational cynicism and trust, organisational commitment, union commitment) towards and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in their employing organisations. By encouraging positive attitudes and desirable behaviour, individuals may contribute towards organisational effectiveness.

(c) Employment relations

Employment relations management revolves around all aspects of the employment relationship (Abbott, MacKinnon, & Fallon, 2016). The purpose of the epistemology of scientific knowledge in the discipline is to understand and manage both conflict and cooperation between the role players on both the collective and individual dimensions of this relationship

in order to ensure organisational success (Nel et al., 2016; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). By gaining a better understanding of the predictors of employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace and the interrelationships between the identified constructs (individualism/collectivism, POS, POJ, psychological contract violation, organisational cynicism, organisational trust, organisational commitment, union commitment, CWB and OCB), this study sets out to find of ways of encouraging positive employer-employee relations and thereby contributing to both long-term organisational success and individual need fulfilment.

1.6.2.2 Conceptual descriptions

The conceptual descriptions relating to the various constructs of relevance to the study are provided in Table 1.2 and serve as a point of reference for the conceptualisation and discussion of these constructs. The main theoretical models relating to these constructs as well as their operationalisation in terms of measurement instruments are also indicated. These theoretical models and their relevance to this study are fully explored in Chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6, and the measurement instruments are discussed in the research method chapter (Chapter 8).

Table 1.2
Conceptual Descriptions

Concept	Description	Theoretical model and measurement instrument
Organisational citizenship behaviour	OCB refers to constructive behaviour that an employee engages in, over and above his or her agreed-upon tasks, in support of the organisation and people in it (Carpenter et al., 2014; Organ, 1997).	<p>Theoretical models: Organ's (1988, 1997) five-component model of OCB</p> <p>Williams and Anderson's (1991) multifoci approach to OCB</p> <p>Instrument: The Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002)</p>
Counter-productive work behaviour	CWB consists of intentional acts that harm organisations or people in them or run counter to the legitimate interests of an organisation (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett &	<p>Theoretical models: Robinson and Bennett's (1995, 1997) typology of employee deviance</p> <p>Bennett and Robinson's (2000a) operationalisation of this typology</p>

Concept	Description	Theoretical model and measurement instrument
	DeVore, 2001; Skarlicki & Latham, 1997).	Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model of CWB Instrument: The Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scales (Bennett & Robinson, 2000b)
Organisational commitment	Organisational commitment is a psychological state that portrays an employee's affective attachment to his or her employing organisation as a single anthropomorphic entity (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). This psychological state is characterised by three mind-sets reflecting an identification with the goals and values of the organisation, a willingness to exert effort on the organisation's behalf, and an intention to remain with the organisation for an extended period (Meyer & Allen, 1988, 1991, 1997).	Theoretical models: Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) three-component model of organisational commitment Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) typology of commitment profiles Instrument: Organisational Commitment Survey (OCS) (Meyer & Allen, 1997)
Union commitment	Union commitment reflects an individual's desire to remain a member of the union, a willingness to make an effort on the union's behalf and a belief in and acceptance of the union's goals (Gordon, Philpot, Burt, Thompson, & Spiller, 1980a).	Theoretical model: Gordon, Philpot, Burt, Thompson, & Spiller's (1980a) conceptualisation of union commitment Instrument: Shortened version of Gordon et al.'s (1980a) Union Commitment Scale (Bayazit, Hammer, & Wazeter, 2004b, see 2004a)
Psychological contract breach and violation	Psychological contract breach refers to an employee's perception that the organisation has failed to meet one or more of its obligations in terms of the psychological contract even though the employee upheld his or her side of the	Theoretical model: Morrison and Robinson's (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 2000) conceptualisation of and differentiation between psychological contract breach and violation

Concept	Description	Theoretical model and measurement instrument
	<p>agreement (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).</p> <p>Perceived violation of the psychological contract is regarded as an employee's emotional response following the belief that the organisation has failed to meet one or more of its obligations in terms of the psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).</p>	<p>Instrument:</p> <p>The Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures (Robinson & Morrison, 2000)</p>
Perceived organisational justice	<p>Perceived organisational justice refers to employees' perceptions of the fairness of treatment received from the organisation and their reactions (attitudes and behaviour) to those perceptions in an organisational context (Greenberg, 1987; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013).</p>	<p>Theoretical model:</p> <p>Moorman (1991) and Colquitt's (2001) conceptualisations of POJ as a multidimensional construct</p> <p>Instrument:</p> <p>The Justice Scale (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993b)</p>
Perceived organisational support	<p>Perceived organisational support (POS) is an affect-free cognition (Wayne et al., 2009), which encompasses the degree to which employees perceive that the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 500).</p>	<p>Theoretical model:</p> <p>Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) conceptualisation of POS</p> <p>Instrument:</p> <p>The Survey of Perceived Organisational Support–Shortened Version (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewé, & Johnson, 2003b)</p>
Organisational cynicism	<p>An attitude, ensuing from employees' critical assessment of the intentions, actions and values of their employing organisations and its leaders, resulting in negative perceptions towards the organisation and management, culminating in disparaging and counterproductive behaviour (Abraham, 2000; Dean et al., 1998; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014).</p>	<p>Theoretical model:</p> <p>Dean et al.'s (1998) conceptualisation of organisational cynicism</p> <p>Instrument:</p> <p>Organisational Cynicism Scale (Dean et al., 1998)</p>

Concept	Description	Theoretical model and measurement instrument
Organisational trust	Organisational trust is regarded as a psychological state, reflecting an employee's willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of the employing organisation, based on the conviction that the organisation and its management will act in good faith and uphold its obligations towards its employees without having to resort to formal processes to monitor or control employer actions (Altuntas & Baykal, 2010; Martins, 2000; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998; Von der Ohe, 2016).	<p>Theoretical models:</p> <p>Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman's (1995) integrative model of organisational trust informs the conceptualisation of trust in an organisational context</p> <p>Additional models (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007; Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Martins, 2002; Von der Ohe, 2014) inform the conceptualisation of trust in the particular context (i.e. employment relations in South African organisations)</p> <p>Instrument:</p> <p>Trust in Management Scale (Mayer & Davis, 1999)</p>
Individualism/collectivism	Individualism/collectivism is viewed as a personal disposition (i.e. an inherent individual characteristic), where individualism refers to an individual's tendency to value personal goals, independence, self-enhancement and competition; while in-group goals, interdependence, group enhancement and cooperation are emphasised in the case of collectivism (Györkös et al., 2013; Marcus & Le, 2013; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a).	<p>Theoretical model:</p> <p>Triandis's (1995) conceptualisation of individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition</p> <p>Instrument:</p> <p>The Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism (HVIC) Scales (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b)</p>

1.6.2.3 Central hypothesis

The central hypothesis of the research can be formulated as follows:

The relationship between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational

commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), as mediated by organisational cynicism and trust, may constitute a psychological framework that will enable industrial and organisational psychologists and employment relations practitioners to better understand employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in a diverse workforce.

Individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition may moderate the relationships between these constructs in a diverse sample of employees. The diversity of the workforce is further represented by individual characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership).

This psychological framework may inform employment relations strategies, policies, procedures and practices that will enhance relational attitudes and behaviour in the South African organisational context, thereby contributing to organisational effectiveness.

1.6.2.4 Theoretical assumptions

Research assumptions refer to basic principles that are assumed to be true without verification or proof and form the cornerstone of scientific research (Neuman & Robson, 2018). These assumptions provide support for the research strategy and methods and are thus regarded as a necessary starting point for research (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2016). The following theoretical assumptions, derived from the paradigmatic and metatheoretical perspectives outlined above, serve as fundamental realities from which the theoretical reasoning proceeds in this research:

- Employment relations as a field of study is centred on the employment relationship and encompasses all types of employment relationships. Employers and employees are regarded as the primary parties in the employment relationship.
- Employees may or may not be trade union members. Irrespective of their membership status, the primary employment relationship remains between the employer and employee. It is, however, anticipated that trade union members' perceptions of and reactions to experiences in the workplace may differ from those of nonmembers.
- Owing to the fact that organisations differ widely in terms of their employment relations ideologies, the ways in which they relate to, manage and support their employees vary. Labour should, however, not be regarded as a commodity, but embodied in human relationships.

- Employees make rational choices about their workplace behaviour that are based on self-interest. Owing to this self-interest, conflict is inherent in the employment relationship. In managing employment relations, however, the emphasis should not only be on managing this conflict, but also on establishing cooperation between employers and employees.
- Positive employer-employee relations are essential for the achievement of long-term organisational success in that it encourages an emotional attachment to the organisation and a willingness to engage in desirable behaviour, thereby increasing employees' contributions to organisational objectives.
- Employer-employee relationships are built on social exchange. In terms of the rules of reciprocity, high-quality employment relationships are thus anticipated to encourage positive employee attitudes and behaviour. Employees' perceptions of organisational support and justice as well as the extent to which they perceive their employing organisations as meeting their obligations in terms of the psychological contract are deemed indicative of the quality of the social exchange relationship between the parties.
- The South African workforce is diverse, and employment relations are characterised by a history adversity and inequality. The country continues to experience a variety of socioeconomic challenges, which may require a unique approach to dealing with employment relations matters.

1.6.2.5 *Methodological assumptions*

Methodological assumptions are beliefs concerning the nature of social science and scientific research. Methodological beliefs are more than methodological preferences, assumptions and presuppositions about what ought to constitute good research. There is a direct link between methodological beliefs and the epistemic status of research findings (Mouton & Marais, 1996). The methodological assumptions are derived from the five dimensions of social science research (i.e. sociological, ontological, teleological, epistemological and methodological) reflected in Mouton and Marais' (1996) framework (see Figure 1.1). These assumptions affect the nature and structure of the research domain and inform the methodological choices, assumptions and suppositions that make for good research.

(a) *The sociological dimension*

The sociological dimension conforms to the requirements of the sociological research ethic that makes use of a clearly defined scientific community for its sources of theory development (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Within the bounds of the sociological dimension, research is experimental, analytical and exact, since the issues that are studied are subject to quantitative research analysis of variables and concepts. This is described in Chapters 8 (research method) and 9 (research results). Cognisance is taken of the moral implications of the research and the norms relating to plagiarism and professional conduct (see section 1.7.6).

(b) *The ontological dimension*

The ontological dimension of research encompasses that which is understood to constitute reality (Moyo, 2017). It thus addresses the questions, “What is reality?” and “What can be known about reality” (Mouton & Marais, 1996). From an ontological point of view, the researcher appreciates that there is a “real” objective reality, but that absolute truth can never be found. The goal is thus to describe, understand and predict employee attitudes and behaviour in an organisational context by providing valid and reliable evidence (see sections 1.7.4 and 1.7.5).

This study relies on individual employees as its unit of analysis (see section 1.7.4). The focus is on human activities and behaviour that can be measured. Measurement takes place by means of a survey (details are provided in Chapter 8) and is directed towards the properties of and associations between the constructs of work-related perceptions (POS and POJ), work experiences (psychological contract violation), relational attitudes (organisational and unit commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), cultural disposition (individualism/collectivism), organisational cynicism and trust as well as selected person-centred variables (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership).

(c) *The teleological or ideological dimension*

The teleological dimension suggests that research should be systematic in nature and goal directed (Mouton & Marais, 1996). This research is aimed at understanding, explaining and predicting employee behaviour (theoretical objectives) in order to enhance the quality of employment relationships and contribute to organisational success (practical objectives). The

research problem providing impetus for these goals is outlined in section 1.2. Furthermore, the research questions (section 1.3) and aims (section 1.4) are explicitly stated and linked to the research problem.

(d) The epistemological dimension

Epistemology relates to the ways in which knowledge is acquired, understood and explained (i.e. how we know what we know) (Moyo, 2017). According to Mouton and Marais (1996), the epistemological dimension may be regarded as the embodiment of the ideal of science, namely the expedition for truth. The purpose of this research is to generate objective, valid and reliable findings, which approximate reality in the best possible way. Although it is accepted that pure objectivity is impossible, decisions in terms of the research design are aimed at enhancing objectivity. This includes limiting interaction with research subjects and searching for “truth” by means of empirical research and statistics.

(e) The methodological dimension

The methodological dimension concerns how research should be structured and executed in order to remain compliant with the criteria of science (Mouton & Marais, 1996). It thus requires a critical assessment of the practices and techniques used to collect, process and interpret information (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). The aim is to achieve methodological coherence throughout the research design, thereby maximising the validity of the research findings (Saunders et al., 2016).

The next section briefly outlines the research design addressing specific decisions made in terms of the methodological dimension of the research. Further details are provided in Chapter 8.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design essentially refers to the researcher’s strategy for ensuring the rigorous, systematic collection and analysis of data needed to answer the research question (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). It therefore refers to the method and structure of an investigation chosen by the researcher to conduct data collection and analysis (Salkind, 2018) and can be viewed as a strategic framework which serves as a bridge between the research questions and the execution of the research (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). The research design for this study is discussed in terms of the decisions relating to the type of research, the research

approach, the variables and units of observation and analysis, ways of ensuring research quality (validity and reliability), ethical considerations and the boundary conditions of the research.

1.7.1 Types of research of relevance in this study

Research in the social sciences commonly serves three purposes, namely exploration, description and explanation (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). Although this study is ultimately explanatory in nature, it incorporates exploratory and descriptive research in its design. The extent to which each of these purposes is integrated into the current research is shown below.

1.7.1.1 Exploratory research

When social research is conducted to explore a topic or to begin to familiarise the researcher with that topic, this constitutes exploratory research (Babbie & Roberts, 2018; Mouton & Marais, 1996). Exploratory research is most typically conducted for the following three purposes: to satisfy the researcher's curiosity and desire for a better understanding; to test the feasibility of undertaking a more extensive study; and to develop the methods to be employed in any subsequent study (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). In this study, exploratory research was conducted in the initial stages with the aim of familiarising the researcher with the context of the study (employment relations in South African organisations), identifying the constructs of relevance to the proposed psychological framework, formulating the research problem, question and aims and determining the feasibility of the research.

1.7.1.2 Descriptive research

Descriptive research describes the characteristics of an existing phenomenon (Salkind, 2018) and is used to present a systematic picture with specific details of a situation, activity, social setting or relationship (Neuman & Robson, 2018). It also serves to systematically classify the relationships between variables in the study (Mouton & Marais, 1996; Salkind, 2018). It is an extension of the preceding exploratory research and, by giving a clear picture of the phenomena being investigated, it provides a solid foundation for the explanatory research (Saunders et al., 2016).

In the literature review, descriptive research applies to the conceptualisation of the constructs of relevance in this study, namely organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB, CWB,

organisational cynicism, organisational trust, POS, POJ, psychological contract violation and individualism/collectivism, and the discussion of the theories underlying these constructs (Chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6).

In the empirical study, descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) are used to describe the research sample in terms of biographical characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership). Descriptive research also applies to the means, standard deviations, internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alphas) and composite reliabilities of the measures of individual dispositions (individualism/collectivism), work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and employee attitudes and behaviour (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB, CWB, organisational cynicism, organisational trust). These descriptive statistics are reported in Chapters 8 (research method) and 9 (research results)

1.7.1.3 *Explanatory research*

Explanatory research goes a step further than simply indicating that a relationship exists between the variables. It identifies the sources of social behaviours, beliefs, conditions and events, documents causes, tests theories and provides reasons building on exploratory and descriptive research (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Its major aim is to explain given occurrences by exploring the relationships between variables (Saunders et al., 2016). Explanatory research thus focuses on why events occur or tries to test and build social theory (Babbie & Roberts, 2018; Neuman & Robson, 2018).

As reflected in the cross-sectional nature of the research design, the present research does not seek to investigate cause and effect, but rather aims to explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the relationships between the variables of relevance to the study. In the empirical study, this form of research applies to the determination of statistically significant relationships between employees' biographical characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership), employee dispositions (individualism/collectivism), work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and employee attitudes and behaviour (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB, CWB, organisational cynicism and organisational trust). The ultimate aim of the research is to formulate a conclusion on the relationship dynamics between these constructs in order to construct an empirically tested psychological

framework for encouraging positive employee attitudes and behaviour by enhancing employment relations.

1.7.2 Research approach

When adopting a post-positivist research paradigm, in order to maintain objectivity, it is essential for researchers to separate themselves from the research process (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). However, objectivity is recognised as an ideal that can never be achieved, and research is conducted with a greater awareness of subjectivity (Maree, 2007). The goal is to describe, understand and predict how the natural and social world works and this is done by searching for evidence that is valid and reliable in terms of the existence of phenomena by using scientific methods (Collins, 2010; Maree, 2007). Research is aimed at falsifying or disproving hypotheses, instead of proving them, as is the goal for positivist researchers (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Deductive reasoning is used to put forward theories that can be tested by means of a fixed, predetermined research design and objective measures (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

This study followed a deductive research approach aimed at using empirical data to test theoretically posited relationships between identified variables (Saunders et al., 2016). In support of this approach, a cross-sectional quantitative research design was relied upon. Quantitative researchers perceive social research in an instrumental way. Research is thus seen as a tool for studying social events, and for learning about them and their interconnections, so that general causal laws can be discovered, explained and documented (Salkind, 2018). Knowledge of events and social laws helps to control events and to predict their occurrence and outcomes (Sarantakos, 2013). Within the post-positivist paradigm, the following quantitative practices are generally applied (Creswell & Creswell, 2018):

- testing or verification of theories or explanations
- identification of variables to be studied
- formulation of research question and/or hypotheses describing the relationships between variables
- using standards of validity and reliability
- observing and measuring information numerically
- using unbiased approaches
- employing statistical procedures

Hence, a deductive research approach was relied upon in this research to (1) identify and conceptualise the variables of relevance in the proposed psychological framework; (2) posit relationships between these variables based on what has been reported in extant literature; and (3) obtain empirical evidence and/or verification of these theoretically posited relationships. A quantitative research design was used with the aim of promoting researcher objectivity, and thereby ensuring maximum validity and reliability. The research decisions made in terms of this design are briefly outlined below and elaborated on in Chapter 8.

1.7.3 The variables

The variables that have been theoretically posited to be of relevance in constructing a psychological framework for enhancing employee attitudes and behaviour in a South African employment relations context are outlined in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3

Variables in the Conceptualised Psychological Framework

Type of variable	Description	Variables identified
Independent variables	Variables that (probably) cause, influence or affect outcomes.	Work-related perceptions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perceived organisational support Perceived organisational justice Work experiences: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Psychological contract violation
Dependent variables	Variables that may change in response to changes in other variables; observed outcome or result from manipulation of another variable.	Relational attitudes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organisational commitment Union commitment Relational behaviour: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organisational citizenship behaviour Counterproductive work behaviour
Mediating (or intervening) variables	Variables located between the independent and dependent variables, which explain the relationship between them.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organisational cynicism Organisational trust
Moderating variable	Independent variable that affects the nature (direction and/or strength) of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Individualism/collectivism

Type of variable	Description	Variables identified	
Control variables	Additional observable and measurable variables that may potentially influence the dependent variables. These variables need to be kept constant to avoid them influencing the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variables.	Gender	Age
		Population group	Education level
		Employment status	Tenure
		Job level	Union membership

Sources: Adapted from Creswell and Creswell (2018, p. 50) and Saunders et al. (2016, p. 179)

According to Mouton and Marais (1996), differentiation between the independent and dependent variables refers to the basic cause and effect between specific events or phenomena. However, the focus in this research was not on establishing the existence of longitudinal cause-effect relations between the variables. Instead, it was aimed at obtaining empirical evidence of associations between the variables and exploring moderating and mediating effects within the constraints of a cross-sectional research design. The research therefore reflects the associations between selected variables at a particular point in time (Saunders et al., 2016).

A graphic overview of the variables that were included in this study is provided in Figure 1.2.

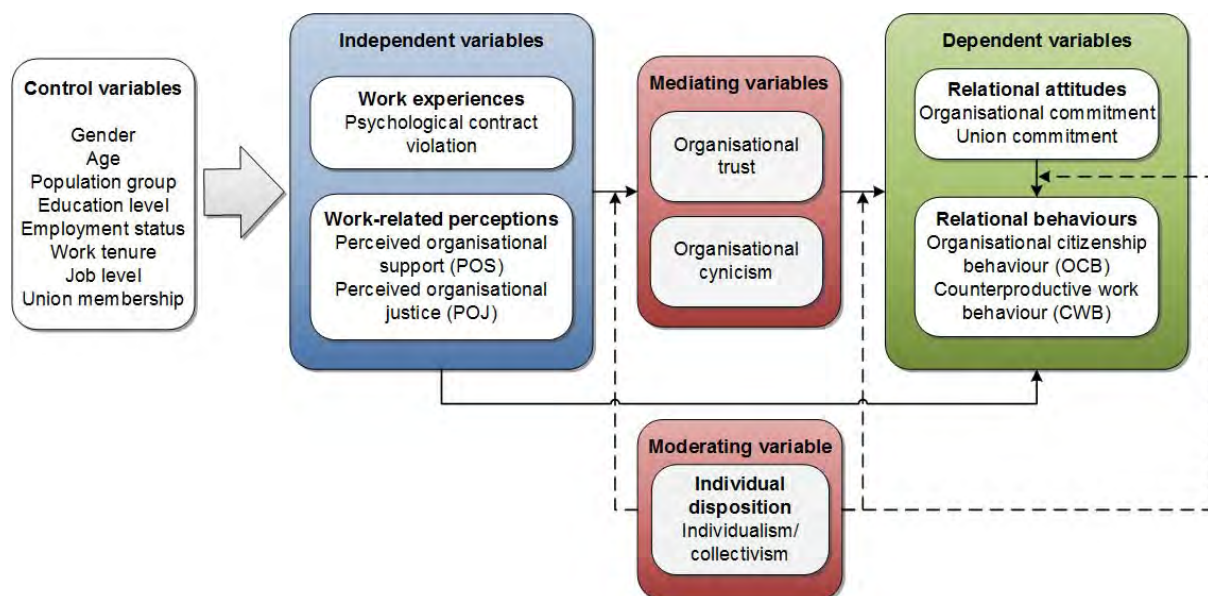


Figure 1.2. An Overview of the Relationships between the Control, Independent, Mediating, Moderating and Dependent Variables

The independent variables included employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), while their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) were regarded as dependent or outcome variables.

The researcher was also interested in exploring the direct and indirect effect of two mediating variables, organisational cynicism and organisational trust, on the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Since mediators explain how external physical incidents take on internal psychological meaning, mediator variables explain how or why particular effects occur (Baron & Kenny, 1986) and influence the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). As previously stated, the present research did not investigate cause and effect, but endeavoured instead to explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the relationship between the variables of relevance to the study. Organisational cynicism and trust were included as mediating variables as it was expected that these variables might clarify the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

Furthermore, individualism/collectivism was included as a potential moderating variable. A moderator is described as a relatively stable characteristic, inherent attribute, enduring process, or disposition, which modifies the strength or direction of a causal relationship (Wu & Zumbo, 2008). This research explored the potential moderating role of employees' cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism in predicting the relationship between (1) individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ, psychological contract violation) and their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations; (2) their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace; and (3) their relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB).

Finally, a number of biographical characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) that may affect the relationships between the independent, mediating and dependent variables that form part of this study, were included as control variables. Control variables have a potential influence on the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variables (Babbie & Roberts, 2018; Salkind, 2018). These variables are held constant during empirical analysis in an attempt to further clarify the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Babbie & Roberts, 2018; Salkind, 2018). The control variables identified have regularly been used in

research relating to employee perceptions, attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Detailed discussions on the significance of these variables are included in Chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6 following the conceptualisation of each relevant construct and the discussion of applicable theoretical models.

1.7.4 The units of observation and analysis

The most common object of research in the social sciences is the individual human being but it may also include groups, communities, organisations, social categories (e.g. gender or race), social institutions or a society (Mouton & Marais, 1996; Neuman & Robson, 2018). Babbie and Roberts (2018) emphasise, however, the importance of differentiating between the unit of observation and the unit of analysis when conducting research in the social sciences. While the former refers to the objects from which evidence is collected, the latter relates to what is being studied (Babbie & Roberts, 2018).

In this study, the unit of observation was individual employees in South African organisations. Empirical data was thus collected from individual employees by means of a survey. The unit of analysis, however, differs in that it reflected the attitudes and behaviour of both individual employees and groups of employees in the organisational environment. At an individual level, individual scores were aggregated to determine the existence of relationships between variables. At a group level, differences in terms of relational attitudes and behaviour between subgroups (e.g. individualists vs collectivists, trade union members vs nonmembers, men vs women, permanent employees vs temporary employees) were explored.

1.7.5 Reliability and validity

Reliability and validity are fundamental determinants of the quality of quantitative research in the social sciences (Saunders et al., 2016). While reliability relates to the replicability and consistency of research, validity reflects the extent to which the method of data collection accurately measures what was intended, and the extent to which research findings are really about what they profess to be about (Neuman & Robson, 2018; Saunders et al., 2016).

1.7.5.1 Reliability

Reliability is an indication of whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object, results in the same outcome each time (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). Reliability in the literature was upheld by using existing literature sources, theories and models that are

available to researchers to clearly conceptualise all constructs (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2013; Salkind, 2018). Unambiguous and theoretically sound definitions were provided for all measured constructs (Neuman & Robson, 2018).

The reliability of the empirical research was improved in the following ways:

- Care was taken to measure specific information (as theoretically conceptualised in the literature review), using established measures (Babbie & Roberts, 2018).
- A pretest and a pilot study were conducted as suggested by Hair, Celsi, Money, Samouel, and Page (2016). Firstly, the questionnaire was pretested by a selected group of experts in the field of industrial and organisational psychology and employment relations to ensure the suitability and representativeness of the questions included. Minor changes, mainly intended to enhance the clarity of questions and their comprehension in a South African context, were made.

Following this initial pretest, a pilot study was conducted by sending the questionnaire to 20 individuals whose profiles were similar to that of the final population sampled and who were easily accessible for personal consultation following completion of the questionnaire. These individuals were requested to not only complete the questionnaire, but also to provide feedback in terms of the clarity of the instructions, their understanding of the items, any discomfort experienced in answering questions, the layout and presentation, their ability to complete and submit the questionnaire (i.e. technical difficulties) and how long the questionnaire took to complete. Follow-up interviews were conducted with nine of the participants who provided extensive feedback on these matters. Final amendments to the instrument, mainly intended to enhance its face validity, were subsequently made.

The pretest and pilot study assisted the researcher in amending or eliminating items and instructions that were unclear, thereby enhancing the face validity and content validity of the research instrument (Salkind, 2018).

- The representativeness of the sample was maximised by inviting all employed students registered for selected qualifications and modules offered by a higher education institution to participate in the research. The qualifications were selected on the basis of their applicability in terms of the context of the study (South African organisations).

- The instructions provided were standardised and the effects of external events were minimised (Salkind, 2018). Particular care was taken in terms of extending the invitation to students to participate in the research. This was done shortly after the examinations were concluded, thereby ensuring that participation would not be limited because of an unwillingness or inability to participate due to pressing academic responsibilities.
- Confounding variables were minimised through the sampling procedure (explained in Chapter 8) and by including instruments whose reliability had been proven through previous research (Babbie & Roberts, 2018).
- The instruments were tested for unidimensionality and internal consistency reliability in the South African context (Hair, Black, Bagin, & Anderson, 2014). First, exploratory factor analysis was conducted to confirm the dimensionality of each instrument. This was followed by confirmatory factor analysis to establish the best fit measurement model for each construct and to ensure that common method variance did not pose a threat to the research findings. To assess internal consistency, the item-total correlation (i.e. the correlation of each item to the summated scale score) and the inter-item correlation (the correlation among items) were considered (Hair et al., 2014). The coherence (or redundancy) of the scale components or internal consistency was measured by calculating Cronbach's alpha value for each measurement scale (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2017). In addition, the composite reliability was calculated for each measure in order to prevent an over- or underestimate of reliability (Raykov, 2012).
- The research context was also respected at all times.

1.7.5.2 *Validity*

Both internal and external validity are critical for a research design (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016; Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). Internal validity refers to the study generating accurate and valid findings with regard to causal relationships between variables, while external validity relates to the generalisability of the findings across relevant contexts (Maree, 2007). The results of a study are therefore referred to as internally valid if the constructs were measured in a valid manner, while external validity refers to the ability to generalise findings from a

specific setting and small group to a broad range of settings and people (Babbie & Roberts, 2018; Collins, 2010; Neuman & Robson, 2018).

(a) *Validity with regard to the literature*

In this study, extant literature and relevant theories and models were relied upon to guide the theoretical and empirical phases of the research. Constructs, concepts and dimensions were not chosen subjectively but originated from an in-depth review of the relevant literature. Validity was ensured by consulting literature relating to the nature, problems and aims of the research. In addition, the constructs were logically and systematically ordered.

All constructs were clearly conceptualised and defined by drawing on extant literature, and care was taken to align the theoretical conceptualisation and empirical measurement of all constructs. Every attempt was made to search for and make use of the most recent literature sources, although some classical and contemporary mainstream research was referred to, because of its relevance to the conceptualisation of the context and constructs of relevance to this research. Moreover, all reference material used was acknowledged and is accessible to other researchers in the field.

(b) *Validity with regard to the empirical research*

Internal validity in relation to the research instrument (in this instance a questionnaire) or measurement validity refers to the ability of the questionnaire to measure what was intended (Saunders et al., 2016). Hence, measurement validity is an indication of how well an empirical indicator and the conceptual definition of the concept that the indicator is supposed to measure “fit” together (Neuman & Robson, 2018).

In the empirical research, validity was confirmed using relevant and standardised measuring instruments. The measuring instruments were tested in scientific research and accepted as suitable in terms of their face validity (whether it is judged by the scientific community to measure the stated concept), content validity (the extent to which a measure represents all the aspects of the conceptual definition of a construct), criterion validity (how well it estimates present or predicts future performance) and construct validity (the extent to which a measure relates to other variables as expected in a system of theoretical relationships) (Babbie & Roberts, 2018; Salkind, 2018). The face validity and content validity of the questionnaire were further enhanced by conducting a pretest among subject experts and a pilot study among selected individuals whose profiles were similar to that of the target population.

The questionnaire included standard instructions and information for all participants. Efforts were made to ensure that the data collected was accurate, and correctly coded and appropriately analysed to ensure construct validity. The processing of statistics was done with the assistance of an expert and by using the most recent and sophisticated computer software. The statistical procedures controlled for biographical variables (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership). The instruments were tested for construct validity and reliability. Furthermore, the results were reported and interpreted according to standardised procedures. The researcher ensured that the conclusions, implications and recommendations were based on the findings of the research.

External validity is the extent to which conclusions drawn from a study can be generalised to other contexts (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016) and is also associated with the sampling procedures used, the time and place of the research and the conditions under which the research is conducted (Salkind, 2018). In this study, external validity was ensured by minimising selection bias (targeting all students registered for selected qualifications at a higher education institution in South Africa) and selecting as large a sample as possible to offset the effects of extraneous variables.

The research was cross-sectional in nature and nonprobability purposive sampling was used (see Chapter 8 for details). Although cross-sectional designs pose problems in terms of the generalisability of results, it should be noted out that the main objective of the research was not to make generalisations to the overall population, but rather to explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the proposed relationships between the various variables of concern to this study. To correct for some of the problems associated with purposive sampling, the present study ensured that the sample was reasonably representative of the broader South African workforce, as reflected in the quarterly Labour Force Survey (Statistics South Africa, 2016), by including a broad cross-section of participants of different age, gender and ethnic groups across all types of employment.

1.7.6 Ethical considerations

Ethics generally refers to those norms or standards of behaviour that guide people's conduct and relationships with others (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). In a research context, ethics refers to the standards of behaviour that guide the researcher's conduct in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of the research or are affected by it (Saunders et al., 2016). Ethical research conduct requires consistent application of specific norms and standards, relating to the collection, analysis, reporting and publication of information about research

subjects to ensure that no one is harmed or suffers adverse consequences as a result of the research (Cooper & Schindler, 2014; Salkind, 2018).

The foremost ethical principles in social research are autonomy, nonmaleficence, beneficence and justice (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Respecting the autonomy of research participants implies informing them of the nature of the study, obtaining each participant's consent to participate in the study, ensuring that participation is voluntary, affording participants the opportunity to withdraw from the research at any time and respecting their privacy (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). Nonmaleficence means that the research should do no harm to the research participants or to people in general, while beneficence means that the study must be beneficial (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). It should therefore make a positive contribution, either directly or indirectly, to the research participants or society in general (Salkind, 2018). Justice is promoted when the risks and benefits of the research are fairly distributed (Saunders et al., 2016). Researchers must report their findings in a complete and honest fashion, without misrepresentation (Babbie & Roberts, 2018).

The procedure followed in the research adhered to all the ethical requirements necessary to ensure ethical responsibility. Ethical clearance and permission to conduct the research were obtained from the research institution (Unisa) (see Appendices A and B). To ensure that the researcher met the ethical requirements, the ethical principles emphasised in Unisa's Policy on Research Ethics were adhered to (Unisa, 2016). A discussion of the ethical considerations that were applied in the study is provided in Chapter 8 (section 8.4.3).

1.7.7 Boundary conditions of the research

A clear demarcation of the boundary conditions (i.e. the limits of generalisability) of the research is essential to ensure the accuracy of future theoretical predictions and the generalisability of the results across contexts (Busse, Kach, & Wagner, 2017). In this study, the research data was exclusively drawn from a South African organisational context. The first boundary condition was thus national scope. The objective of the research was to better understand those factors that shape employee attitudes and behaviour in South African organisations. The research did not aim to draw cross-cultural comparisons at a national level, but rather focused on cultural differences within the South African population that might influence employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

The second boundary condition is the context in which the research was undertaken, namely employment relations in South Africa. Although the findings of this research might thus not be

generalisable across international settings, its significance in enhancing employer-employee relations in the troubled South African employment relations environment was highlighted.

The third boundary condition of this research relates to the conceptualisation of the employer and employee parties that form part of the primary employment relationship. The employer (or employing organisation) was regarded as a single anthropomorphic entity (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Lavelle et al., 2007; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). For the purposes of this research, no distinction was made in terms of legal entities (e.g. incorporated companies, closed corporations or partnerships), organisational size or ownership. The employer was also not limited to a single individual (e.g. a manager or supervisor), but was considered as incorporating a variety of actors and role players. The employer was thus conceptualised as a collective term referring to the party that receives services from another (i.e. the employee) (Grogan, 2017). Employees are individuals who render services for an employer in exchange for remuneration (Nel et al., 2016). For the purposes of this study, employees included individuals who are permanently or temporarily (i.e. contract workers) employed. Individuals who are engaged in informal work or self-employed were explicitly excluded from participating in this study, as they were regarded as unlikely to experience formal interactions with an employing entity.

Finally, this study was confined to dealing with the relationships between selected antecedent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust), moderating (individualism/collectivism) and outcome (organisational commitment, union commitment, CWB and OCB) variables. In an attempt to identify factors that could influence individuals' levels of POS, POJ, psychological contract violation, organisational cynicism organisational trust, individualism/collectivism, organisational commitment, union commitment, CWB and OCB, particular person-centred variables were used as control variables. These control variables were gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership. Furthermore, in this research no attempt was made to manipulate or classify any of the information, results or data, based on family or spiritual background. In addition, no factors relating to disability or illness, either physical or psychological, were included in any classification process.

The research was undertaken to serve as a starting point in scientific enquiry intended to find ways of enhancing employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in a South African employment relations context. It was restricted in its focus to investigating the conceptualised relationships between theoretically selected variables, namely POS, POJ, psychological contract violation, organisational cynicism, organisational trust, individualism/collectivism,

organisational commitment, union commitment, CWB and OCB. The insights gained from this research may serve as a foundation for future research aimed at enhancing employer-employee relations and encouraging positive employee attitudes and behaviour in South African organisations. The selected research approach was not intended to establish the cause and effect of the relationships. It merely endeavoured to explore whether such relationships do exist, and what the nature, direction and magnitude of the relationships are. Such an approach could potentially stimulate further longitudinal research that may assess cause-effect relations between the variables.

1.8 RESEARCH METHOD

This research was conducted in two phases (the literature review and empirical study). Below is an overview of the two phases, as depicted in Figure 1.3.

1.8.1 Phase 1: Literature review

The literature review commences by setting the scene for the study, namely the South African employment relations environment. This is followed by a conceptualisation of the relevant constructs identified and an in-depth examination of the theories relating to these constructs to ensure a theoretically sound conceptual framework. The literature concludes with a conceptualised psychological framework depicting the theoretically established relationships between the variables as discussed in extant literature and an outline of the implications of this framework for employment relations practices.

Step 1: Conceptualisation of the metatheoretical context of the study: The South African employment relations environment

In Chapter 2, research relating to the South African employment relations environment is critically reviewed. The development of employment relations as a field of study and practice is described, culminating in the definition of and perspective on employment relations adopted in this study. This is followed by a brief overview of the development of employment relations in South Africa and a description of the unique challenges experienced in the current South African employment relations environment (literature research aim 1).

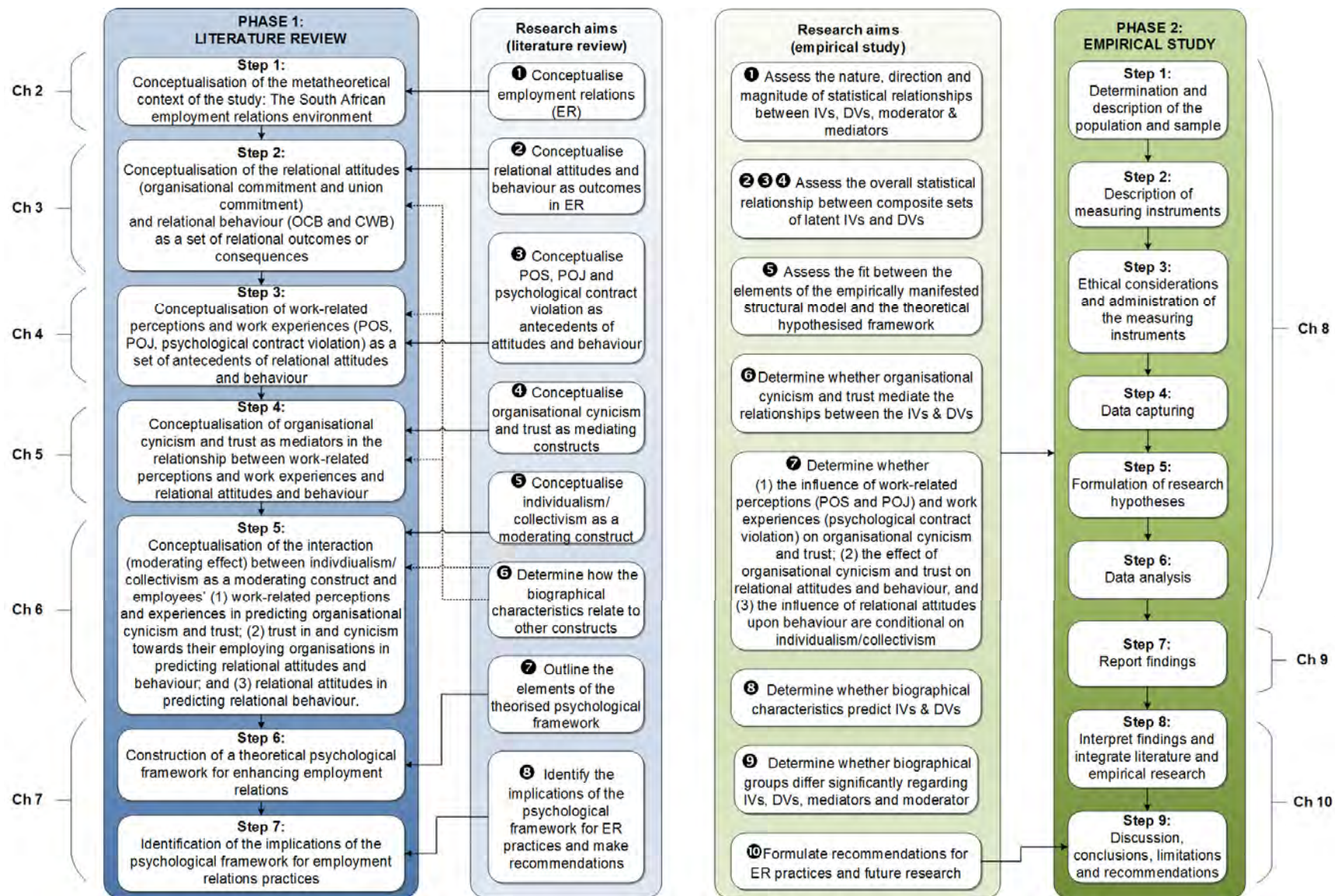


Figure 1.3. Overview of the Research Methodology

Step 2: *Conceptualisation of relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a set of relational outcomes or consequences in employment relations*

In Chapter 3, research in the industrial and organisational psychology and employment relations management fields is drawn on to conceptualise relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a set of relational outcomes or consequences of employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences in a South African employment relations context (literature research aim 2). The reported associations between individuals' biographical characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) and these attitudes and behaviours are also explored (literature research aim 6). The relationships between organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB are investigated in order to inform the development of a conceptual framework (literature research aim 7). The relevance of these relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) for employment relations and their implications for employment relations practices are discussed (literature research aim 8).

Step 3: *Conceptualisation of work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as a set of antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour*

In Chapter 4, research in the industrial and organisational psychology and employment relations management fields is drawn on to conceptualise a set of work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as antecedents of individuals' relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace (literature research aim 3). The reported associations between individuals' biographical characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) and these work-related perceptions and work experiences are also considered (literature research aim 6). The relationships between psychological contract violation, POS and POJ, as well as the associations between these antecedent constructs and relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) are explored in order to inform the development of a conceptual framework (literature research aim 7). The relevance of these work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) for employment relations and their implications for employment relations practices is considered (literature research aim 8).

Step 4: *Conceptualisation of organisational cynicism and organisational trust as a set of mediators in the relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences and relational attitudes and behaviour*

In Chapter 5, there is a critical evaluation of extant research on the constructs of organisational cynicism and trust in the context of industrial and organisational psychology, and more specifically, employment relations. Organisational cynicism and trust are conceptualised and the relevant theories relating to these constructs are explored in order to inform the approach adopted in this research. Organisational cynicism and trust are theorised to be a set of potential mediating constructs in the relationship between work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB) (literature research aim 4). The reported associations between individuals' biographical characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) and organisational cynicism and trust are also explored (literature research aim 6). The reported relationships between the dependent variables (psychological contract violation, POS and POJ), mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust) and outcome variables (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) are explored in order to inform the development of a conceptual framework (literature research aim 7). Finally, the relevance of organisational cynicism and trust for employment relations and their implications for employment relations practices are discussed (literature research aim 8).

Step 5: *Conceptualisation of the interaction (moderating effect) between individualism/collectivism as a moderating construct and employees' (1) work-related perceptions and experiences in predicting organisational cynicism and trust; (2) organisational cynicism and trust in predicting relational attitudes and behaviour; and (2) relational attitudes in predicting relational behaviour*

Chapter 6 includes a critical evaluation of extant research on the construct individualism/collectivism. Individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition is suggested as a moderator in three relationships (literature research aim 5). Firstly, it is posited that a moderating effect exists between individualism/collectivism as a moderating construct and employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences in predicting their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations. Secondly, it is anticipated that a moderating effect exists between individualism/collectivism as a moderating construct and employees' trust in and cynicism

towards their employing organisations in predicting relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace. Finally, it is expected that a moderating effect exists between individualism/collectivism as a moderating construct and employees' relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) in predicting their relational behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace. The reported associations between individuals' biographical characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) and individualism/collectivism are also explored (literature research aim 6). The reported relationships between individualism/collectivism and the other constructs of relevance in this study (psychological contract violation, POS and POJ, organisational cynicism and trust, organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) are explored in order to inform the development of a conceptual framework (literature research aim 7). Finally, the significance of understanding how employees' cultural dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism may influence how they experience and react to events in the workplace and its implications for employment relations practices is discussed (literature research aim 8).

Step 6: Construction of a theoretical psychological framework for enhancing employment relations

The final step in the literature review, as reflected in Chapter 7, relates to the theoretical integration of the reported relationships between the constructs identified to be of relevance. These constructs include employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation); organisational cynicism; organisational trust; relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); individual dispositions (individualism/collectivism) and biographical characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership). A critical evaluation and assimilation of the theoretical information reflected in Chapters 2 to 6 culminates in the development of an hypothetically conceptualised psychological framework constructed from the relationship dynamics reported in extant literature (literature research aim 7).

Step 7: *Identification of the implications of the psychological framework for employment relations practices*

This step, as addressed in Chapter 7, entails the identification of the implications of the psychological framework for employment relations practices and formulating recommendations that will facilitate the development of high-quality employment relationships and positive relational outcomes based on a critical evaluation and synthesis of extant literature (literature research aim 8).

1.8.2 Phase 2: Empirical study

The empirical study was conducted following the steps outlined below.

Step 1: *Determination and description of the population and sample*

The determination and description of the population and sample are discussed in detail in Chapter 8.

Step 2: *Description of measuring instruments*

Data collection took place by means of a self-administered web-based questionnaire consisting of relevant and standardised measuring instruments. The measuring instruments that were used to measure the constructs of relevance in this study are described in Chapter 8.

Step 3: *Ethical considerations and administration of the measuring instruments*

Ethical clearance to conduct the research was obtained following prescribed procedures. The methods used to collect data from the sample, with due regard for ethical requirements, are outlined in Chapter 8.

Step 4: *Data capturing*

Data was captured in a Microsoft Excel spread sheet followed by careful scrutiny and cleaning of the data by using the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 25 (IBM Corp, 2017).

Step 5: *Formulation of research hypotheses*

The research hypotheses for this study were derived from the literature study and the central hypothesis (see section 1.6.2.3) and aligned with the stated empirical research aims (see section 1.4.2.2). The hypotheses formulated are outlined and the testing thereof reported in Chapter 8.

Step 6: *Data analysis*

The statistical procedures used to achieve the empirical objectives of this research are described in Chapter 8. These procedures include descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis values, Cronbach's alpha coefficients, Raykov's composite reliability coefficient, frequency data, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis), bivariate correlational analysis (Pearson product moment correlations) and inferential (multivariate) statistics (canonical correlation analysis, structural equation modelling, mediation analysis, moderation analysis, multiple regression analysis and tests for significant mean differences).

Step 7: *Report statistical findings*

The results of the study are presented in tables, diagrams and/or graphs and the discussion of the findings is advanced in a systematic framework (see Chapter 9). Specific care was taken to ensure that the findings were reported in a clear, objective and articulate manner.

Step 8: *Interpretation of the findings and integration with the research*

In Chapter 10, the findings relating to the literature review are interpreted with reference to relevant literature and integrated with the findings from the empirical research in Chapter 9 as an amalgamation of the overall findings of the research.

Step 9: *Conclusions, limitations and recommendations*

The conclusions are constructed from the results and integrated with relevant theory. These conclusions and the limitations of the research are discussed in Chapter 10. Recommendations are made in terms of the empirical psychological framework for enhancing employment relations, and future research emanating from the study is suggested.

1.9 CHAPTER DIVISION

The chapters in this study are presented in the following manner, as reflected in Figure 1.3:

Chapter 2: Metatheoretical context: The South African employment relations environment

The aim of this chapter is to conceptualise employment relations in the South African organisational context and thereby to outline the metatheoretical context that forms the definitive borders of the research.

Chapter 3: Relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace

The literature review serves to conceptualise relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviours (OCB and CWB) in the workplace in terms of relevant theories. The implications of improving relational attitudes and behaviours for employment relations and practices are critically evaluated.

Chapter 4: Antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour

The literature review serves to conceptualise the antecedents of relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace with specific reference to work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation). The implications of individuals' work experiences and perceptions for employment relations and practices are critically evaluated.

Chapter 5: Mediating effects of organisational cynicism and trust

The literature review focuses on the conceptualisation of organisational cynicism and trust and the antecedents and outcomes of organisational cynicism and trust in a South African organisational environment. The mediating effect of organisational cynicism and trust on the relationship between the antecedents and outcomes of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace is explored. The implications for employment relations and practices are highlighted.

Chapter 6: *Cultural differences in the workplace: The moderating effect of individualism/collectivism*

Individualism/collectivism is conceptualised as an individual disposition and a potential moderator in the proposed psychological framework. Three moderating effects are suggested. The first is between individualism/collectivism as a moderating construct and employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences in predicting organisational cynicism and trust. The second moderating effect is between individualism/collectivism as a moderating construct and organisational cynicism and trust in predicting relational attitudes and behaviour, and the third between individualism/collectivism as a moderating construct and employees' relational attitudes in predicting relational behaviour in the workplace.

Chapter 7: *Theoretical integration and construction of a hypothesised psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in a South African employment relations context*

Chapter 7 serves as an integration of the theoretical associations between the constructs reported in the literature review. The chapter concludes with the formulation of a hypothesised psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in the South African employment relations environment, which consists of a diverse arrangement of employees. The implications for employment relations practices are specified and recommendations are made.

Chapter 8: *Research method*

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the empirical research method used in the study. Firstly, an overview of the population and sample of the study is presented. The measuring instruments are discussed and the choice of each justified, followed by a description of the methods used for data gathering and analysis. Finally, the research hypotheses are formulated and the process followed in analysing the data is described.

Chapter 9: *Research results*

In this chapter, the results of the descriptive, explanatory and inferential statistical analyses are reported.

Chapter 10: Discussion, conclusions, limitations and recommendations

In the final chapter, the results are integrated, discussed and interpreted and the conclusions drawn are reported. The limitations of the study are explained and recommendations are made for the fields of industrial and organisational psychology and employment relations, both as applied in practice and in terms of further research. The chapter ends with concluding remarks on the integration of the research.

1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The scientific orientation to the research was outlined in this chapter. The background to and motivation for the research, the problem statement and research questions, the aims and significance of the research, the paradigmatic perspectives adopted, as well as the research design and method were described.

The motivation for this study was based on the observation that there is a dearth of research relating to the antecedents of employee attitudes and behaviour in a South African employment relations context. No known research has been conducted on the relationship dynamics between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace. Furthermore, irrespective of the high levels of antagonism and distrust in South African employment relations, there is a paucity of research relating to organisational cynicism and trust in this context. It has not been determined whether the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions and experiences and their relational attitudes and behaviour may be better explained by introducing organisational cynicism and trust as mediating variables. Finally, it is proposed that the diversity of the South African workforce necessitates research on the extent to which individual differences may influence how employees experience and react to events in the workplace. Hence, employees' cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism and their biographical characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) are included in the conceptualised psychological framework.

Although relationships between many of these variables have been observed by researchers, the collective impact of these variables in an employment relations context needs to be explored. This will assist industrial and organisational psychologists and employment relations practitioners to devise ways in which positive relational outcomes and behaviour can be

attained. This will not only serve to enhance employment relations in South African organisations, but will also contribute to organisational success and the achievement of national priorities in terms of employment.

In Chapter 2, the first research aim of the literature review, namely to conceptualise employment relations in the South African organisational context, is addressed.

CHAPTER 2: METATHEORETICAL CONTEXTS OF THE STUDY: THE SOUTH AFRICAN EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS ENVIRONMENT

Keywords: employment relations (ER), industrial relations (IR), social exchange theory

The aim of this chapter is to conceptualise employment relations in the South African organisational context and thus outline the metatheoretical context that forms the definitive boundary of the research. Employment relations as a field of study and practice is complex, dynamic and constantly evolving. In order to better understand the field and the nature of the employment relationship, the historical development of employment relations as a field of study and practice needs to be understood as this impacts not only on societal norms and the means by which employment relations in a particular setting is regulated, but also on individual relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. As a point of departure, the development of employment relations as a field of study is therefore described, culminating in the definition of and perspective on employment relations adopted in this study. This is followed by a brief overview of the development of employment relations in South Africa and a description of the unique challenges experienced in the current South African employment relations environment.

2.1 EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS AS A FIELD OF STUDY AND PRACTICE

In order to fully understand the metatheoretical context of this research, namely employment relations in South African organisations, it is essential to first comprehend the origins and development of employment relations as a field of study and practice.

2.1.1 The origins of employment relations as a field of study and practice

Employment relations as a field of study and practice has its origins in industrial relations (IR), which emerged as a field of study and area of vocational practice in the United States of America (USA) in the 1920s (Frege, 2008). The advent of IR as a field of study and practice was the result of a practical and intellectual response to the rise of trade unions and collective bargaining as significant institutions of 20th-century industrial society (Ackers, 2011b). The roots of IR, however, can be found in the industrial revolution in Great Britain in the late 18th and 19th centuries, which highlighted the class distinction between the owners of capital and the workers in society. This distinction resulted in a growing awareness of the unfairness of this inequality among the working class. This realisation, in turn, brought about higher turnover

and absenteeism rates as well as large-scale violent strikes instigated and supported by emerging militant trade unions and socialist political parties, which soon spread into Europe and North America (Kaufman, 2008).

The pioneers in describing and analysing the field of IR were Sidney and Beatrice Webb (Webb & Webb, 1897, 1902, 1914, 1920) in the United Kingdom (UK) and John R. Commons (see Commons, Phillips, Gilmore, Eugene, Sumner, & Andrews, 1918) in the USA. These authors were greatly influenced by the opposing economic ideologies of Adam Smith (capitalism) and Karl Marx (socialism) (Bendix, 2015). The Webbs' (Webb & Webb, 1897, 1902, 1914) work was in response to the so-called "labour problem" in the UK, which threatened the social order (due to the rapid spread of trade unionism and an upsurge in militant, industrial conflict) and social welfare (poverty and deprivation suffered by a large section of the working class as a result of industrialisation) of society (Dibben, Klerk, & Wood, 2011). These authors supported trade unionism and the role of trade unions in improving poor working conditions and wages by increasing the bargaining power of individuals and advocated for legislation to be passed to protect exploited workers (Finnemore & Joubert, 2013).

Commons et al. (1910) emphasised the importance of negotiations and compromise in dealing with the divergent interests of management, labour and the broader public. The goal was to solve the labour problem without threatening capitalism (Frege, 2008). These researchers (Commons et al., 1910; Webb & Webb, 1914) accepted the assumption that inherent conflict exists between workers and employers. Commons et al. (1910), however, disagreed that capitalism was the root cause of this conflict (the Marxist view held by the Webbs) and argued that employer-employee conflict could be dealt with by means of worker organisation, union-employer accommodation and periodic conflict resolution. Both parties (Commons et al., 1910; Webb & Webb, 1914) rejected the commonly held notion at the time that labour was simply another factor of production. They viewed the role of work as central to the life interests and welfare of individual workers, their families and their communities, and as a result, labour, as a factor of production, could not be separated from labour as an individual with human motivations, needs and goals. However, they argued that key decision making in the workplace took place between organised groups of workers and employers. Thus, instead of focusing on the behaviour of individual workers, their emphasis was on documenting the history, origins and development of trade unions, and they intensely advocated social reform (Kochan, 1980).

The European socialist theorists deviated from this emphasis on trade unions and collective conflict resolution by focusing on job security as the driving force in determining workers' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Perlman, 1928). The inherent conflict between employers and workers was therefore regarded as the result of the discrepancy between workers' need for job security and employers' need for organisational efficiency or effectiveness, and continuous accommodation of these needs was subsequently promoted (Barbash, 1964). Industrial psychologists and sociologists also began to examine the behaviour of workers in industry focusing on the compatibility of worker and employer interests and the role of management in achieving the objectives of the organisation while ensuring that the goals of employees were also met (Kochan, 1980). Both industrial psychologists and sociologists supported the belief in the commonality of goals between workers and employers but differed in the role of management in achieving these goals. Industrial psychologists focused on individuals in the workplace and held a scientific management view (developed by Frederick Winslow Taylor, 1911), whereby it was argued that the appropriate organisation of production, incentives and supervision would lead to higher levels of performance and productivity and ultimately to the fulfilment of workers' needs (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015). Industrial sociologists, in contrast, focused on work groups and, in what was known as the human relations movement (introduced by Elton Mayo, 1933), believed that workers' social and psychological needs should first be met (focusing on work conditions such as group relationships, leadership styles and management support), which would then result in satisfied high-performing workers (Kochan, 1980; Rothmann & Cooper, 2015). Although the existence and role of trade unions were acknowledged by these schools of thought, this was not their primary focus. They emphasised the consideration of workers' social needs and desires in the workplace and their research focused on the relations between labour and management at organisational level including topics such as strike proneness, pay systems and union attitudes (Adams, 1983; Bain & Clegg, 1974; Kochan, 1980).

While scientific management focused on the individual in the workplace and work groups were studied in human relations, an effort was made by early management and organisational theorists to develop principles of management at the organisational level of analysis. Fayol (1949) highlighted the supremacy of management's goals in the organisation and how other role players in the organisation should be encouraged to attain these goals. Managers followed a paternalistic approach – focusing on the attainment of the organisational goals, while taking into account the legitimate interests and needs of the workers (Kochan, 1980). This view was in line with Max Weber's (1947) classic theory of bureaucracy, which emphasised the supremacy of the efficiency goals of the organisation and the use of bureaucratic principles to ensure organisational success (Kochan, 1980). Early management

researchers at the individual, group and organisational levels of analysis therefore shared an aversion to conflict in organisations but questioned the value of trade unions in dealing with this conflict (Kochan, 1980). However, as industrial relations problems became more visible and unions gained more power, the need for a more integrated approach to studying IR became vital to consider trade unions and collective bargaining, on the one hand, and the psychology and sociology of worker behaviour, on the other. In response, Dunlop (1958) developed a broad theoretical framework for IR, emphasising the set of rules governing relations between worker and employers and how these rules are affected by an environmental context, the ideology of society and the actors (workers and their organisations, managers and their organisations and government agencies concerned with the workplace and the work community) in the system (Adams, 1983).

Dunlop's (1958) framework was highly influential in shaping discourse and theorising the IR field – it introduced the systems theory, outlined the main actors (employers and their collective representatives, workers and their collective representatives, and the state and its various subsidiary agencies) and established the institutional infrastructure in which the interactions between these parties are embedded and coordinated (Kaufman, 2011). However, Dunlop's (1958) work was widely criticised and regarded as too narrow in focus. Kerr, Harbison, Dunlop and Myers (1960) elaborated on Dunlop's (1958) original framework incorporating the diversity of IR systems across countries, industries and sectors due to differences in cultural, social and political factors. There was still an over-sensitisation to the presence of conflict and an ignorance of situations where conflict does not exist with a strong emphasis on rule-making as an “end in itself” rather than the “means to an end” that shapes the dynamics of behaviour in employment relations (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011).

Flanders (1965) held similar views and emphasised the structured relationships and the formal institutions of industrial relations, such as trade unions, employer organisations and state departments, which develop and administer workplace rules (Finnemore & Joubert, 2013). Subsequent writers, most notably Craig (1975), Geare (1977) and Kochan (1980) have also refined, clarified and added to Dunlop's systems framework (see Adams, 1983). Both Dunlop and Flanders were criticised for their disregard for human relations. Although the systems framework emphasised actors and their interactions, it omitted behavioural variables such as human motivation, perceptions and attitudes, arguing that these aspects did not fall within the scope of an IR system, which focused on formal collective relationships (Bain & Clegg, 1974).

By 1965, there was still no agreement on the definition and central focus of IR as a field of study (Kochan, 1980). Researchers tended to focus on the means by which the mainly

collective relationships in the workplace could be regulated. Flanders (1965, p. 10), for instance, defined industrial relations as “the study of the institutions of job regulation” while Bain and Clegg (1974, p. 95) referred to “the study of all aspects of job regulation” or “the study of the rules governing employment” (Clegg, 1979). The view that IR was limited to making and administering rules, which regulate employment relationships, was, however, inadequate because it failed to acknowledge the intricate nature of the employment relationship. During this time, industrial psychologists and sociologists started to focus their attention on organisational behaviour and the empirical testing of psychological models of motivation, turnover, selection and placement, job performance and job satisfaction (Kochan, 1980). The role of trade unions and the impact of collective bargaining were ignored in these models. Organisational objectives such as job performance, organisational effectiveness and innovation became the core focus (Kochan, 1980).

The 1970s heralded a new wave of efforts to reconcile behavioural science theories, research and normative frameworks with the basic ideas of trade unionism and collective bargaining. Fox (1971), for instance, conceptualised a framework built on the notion that employees and employers (and their representatives) enter their work roles with particular expectations that are shaped by societal values, their cultural heritage and their past experiences. He postulated that workers not only bring a variety of their own needs and objectives to the workplace, but their acceptance of management’s right to organise work and direct the workforce also varies on the basis of these expectations. When there is a discrepancy between the workers’ perception of the legitimacy of management’s role and management’s actions, this gives rise to power play in the workplace (workers must be forced to comply with management directives). The inherent conflict between employers and workers is therefore viewed as a result of the existence of power relations in the workplace and differences about the scope and exercise of authority, power and control (Kochan, 1980). A distinction between unitary and pluralist frames of reference in employment relations – that is, the belief held by management about how employment relations should operate – was established at this time (Fox, 1974; Williams, 2014). The unitarist perspective is characterised by common employer and employee interests and an emphasis on cooperative work relations, while the pluralist perspective recognises that employers and employees have different interests, which need to be reconciled if the organisation is to function effectively (Williams, 2014). The pluralist frame of reference was the leading paradigm in British IR research at the time and was significant in the development of employment relations as a field of study (Frege, 2008). Until the 1980s, this perspective had a significant influence on public policy and impacted on management attitudes towards employment relations (Williams, 2014).

The late 1970s saw the rise of a more radical Marxist frame of reference focused on the class struggle and the subversion of the capitalist system (Frege, 2008). Hyman (1975), for instance, disagreed with pluralist views of IR proposed by authors such as Dunlop (1958) and Flanders (1965). He argued that the priority of the pluralist paradigm was to incorporate trade unions into the IR system as influential social actors. The assumptions of this approach were that the economic needs of employers and workers would be balanced, that employers would prioritise quality of work life and promote industrial democracy and that, if conflict ensued, it would be peacefully resolved. According to Hyman (1975), this view did not take cognisance of the continued domination, control and exploitation of labour in a capitalist system. Hyman (1975) argued that workers are human beings (as opposed to inanimate commodity inputs) and therefore endowed with consciousness, life aspirations and an ethical sense of right and wrong. When employer demands therefore escalate in an attempt to increase profits, workers experience hardship and observe injustice, resulting in alienation and the manifestation of conflict in various forms (absenteeism, loafing on the job, poor customer service, going on strike, etc.). The only option at workers' disposal was therefore to unite by forming unions and using collective bargaining to protect and advance their interests. Hyman (1975, p. 12) defined IR as "the process of control over work regulations" focusing on power and control in the employment relationship. Fox (1974), however, stressed that employers, by virtue of their ownership of and control over the production of goods and services, enjoy far greater power than even the most well-organised union. Hyman (1975) supported this view and maintained that, within a capitalist system, the employment relationship would always be adversarial and exploitative. Radical writers such as Fox (1974) criticised the pluralist view, rejecting the notion that conflict in employment relations can be easily accommodated as the potential for conflict is ever-present and efforts to contain it will always be partial and incomplete. Employment relations became an issue of public policy as governments' concern about the unnecessary high levels of disruptive labour conflict and unrealistic wage increases, resulting from the growth in workplace bargaining between union representatives and managers, increased (Williams, 2014). Industrial relations researchers therefore started to focus on the relationships between the goals of workers, employers and the larger society and sought ways of achieving a workable and equitable balance between these interests (Kochan, 1980).

In describing IR, Barbash (1964) focused on so-called "labour problems" described as any behaviour or outcome in the workplace that does not meet the requirements in terms of efficiency, justice and human aspirations, such as high turnover, low labour productivity, wage differentials, discrimination and strikes. He described IR as the management of labour problems in an industrial society and maintained that conflict is the central labour problem (Barbash, 1964). He argued, however, that although conflict is present in any employment

relationship, its strength, intensity and expression differ across countries by stage of economic development, type of economic system, cultural/social norms and history. The emphasis was on how the institutions of job regulation (the bargaining role of trade unions in particular) shaped work and employment relationships (Williams, 2014).

Over time, the scope, focus and definition of the field of study known as IR changed. Whereas originally, and especially in the USA, industrial (or labor) relations was regarded as broad and encompassing conflict as well as the cooperative dimensions of the employment relationship, it shifted back towards a more narrow focus, emphasising the conflict between the parties in the employment relationship and how this conflict should be managed (Kaufman, 2008; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). More recently, however, there have been strong moves back towards broadening the scope of the field. The 1990s heralded a focus on management strategies and their impact on IR systems (Kochan, Katz, & McKersie, 1986; Locke, Kochan, & Piore, 1995). This was to a large extent in response to the rise of human resource management (i.e. the idea that work could be professionally managed rather than socially negotiated), Thatcherism in the UK, which entailed a strong anticollectivist political orientation condemning trade unions, and collective bargaining which has up to this point been the main focus of industrial relations, and increased globalisation (Meardi, 2014). Pluralism has made way for “neo-pluralism” – an ideology that is less preoccupied with the trade union movement and more receptive to communitarian principles and ethics (Heery, 2016). Various changes in IR systems followed, such as the decentralisation of bargaining and employment relations; a greater focus on the organisation (rather than the external environment) as the locus of IR activity and decision making; greater flexibility in work arrangements and compensation plans; more emphasis on skills development and education; a decline in unionisation; a rise in the importance of human resource management; and greater political support for labour market deregulation (Heery, 2015; Kaufman, 2011). The broadening of the scope of IR (now referred to as employment relations by various scholars) was also reflected in more comprehensive definitions such as the following:

- “a discipline concerned with the systematic study of all aspects of the employment relationship” (Poole, 1986, p. 4);
- “how individuals and groups, the organisations representing their interests and wider institutional forces determine decisions affecting employment relationships” (Farnham & Pimlott, 1995, p. 11);
- “the study of employment relationship and all the behaviours, outcomes, practices, and institutions that emanate from or impinge on the relationship” (Kaufman, 2004a, p. 45);

- “a multidisciplinary field studying all aspects of work and the employment relationship” (Budd & Bhawe, 2008, p. 92); and
- “a field of study that deals with the formal and informal relationship between an organisation and its employees. This embraces the wide range of interactions and processes by which the parties to the relationship adjust to the needs, wants and expectations of each other in the employment situation” (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011, p. 5).

These definitions reflected a renewed focus on all aspects of and role players in the employment relationship. Employment relations as a field of study and practice was therefore no longer viewed as being limited to conflict, trade unionism and collective bargaining and the institutionalisation and regulation thereof, but encompassed all aspects of the employment relationship (i.e. individual and collective; formal and informal). Similar changes were reflected in South African literature, which is discussed in section 2.1.2, culminating in the definition of employment relations adopted for the purposes of this study.

In summary, originally IR was regarded as broad and encompassing conflict and cooperation within the employment relationship. The original paradigm, founded in the 1920s, centred on the employment relationship – it included both unionised and nonunionised sectors, and incorporated personnel or human resource management (traditionally the individual relations between managers and labour), as well as labour-management relations (traditionally collective in nature) (Kaufman, 2008; Kirton, 2011). However, IR gradually converted to a more narrow focus with the emphasis on the conflict dimension only (Kaufman, 2008). The original paradigm was replaced in the 1960s by the so-called “modern” industrial relations paradigm, which focused on unionised sectors and topics associated with trade unions such as collective bargaining, labour-management relations and national labour policy (Kaufman, 2008; Kirton, 2011). As a field of study and practice, it became mainly concerned with understanding the rules that govern employment relationships, in particular joint regulation and collective bargaining between trade unions and employers (Williams, 2014). Since the mid-1990s, however, there has been a movement towards redefining the field, along with the renaming thereof. The field has evolved from a relatively narrow focus on unions and collective bargaining to a broad consideration of the entire employment relationship (Kaufman, 2014). Although the concepts of industrial relations and labour (or labor) relations are still widely used, they are increasingly being replaced by the concept of employee relations (Armstrong & Taylor, 2017; Aylott, 2018; Dessler, 2017) or employment relations, incorporating both the individual (traditionally human resource management) and collective (labour or industrial

relations narrowly defined) dimensions of the employment relationship (Arrowsmith & Pulignano, 2013; Fritz, O'Neil, Popp, Williams, & Arnett, 2013; Iles, 2013; Williams, 2014).

For the purpose of this study, it is essential to understand how employment relations as a field of study and practice evolved from focussing mainly on conflict between the owners of capital and workers and the role of trade unions in resolving this conflict, to a broader view that includes both conflict and cooperation between a variety of role players. When adopting a broader perspective, it is no longer sufficient to focus on the formal (legal), economic and collective (trade unions) dimensions of employment relations only. The informal or social (psychological contract) and individual dimensions of the employment relationship should be regarded as equally important when aiming to align individual employees' attitudes and behaviour with the goals of the organisation and creating an environment in which individual, organisational and societal needs are met. In the next section it is demonstrated that employment relations as a field of study and practice has undergone similar changes in South Africa. Employment relations is conceptualised within the context of the South African organisational environment and the definition of employment relations that is adopted for the purposes of this study is articulated.

2.1.2 Conceptualising employment relations in a South African organisational context

The broadening of the scope of employment relations as field of study experienced internationally is also visible in South African literature. In South Africa, seminal research relating to the changing nature of industrial relations (as it was known at the time) was conducted by Swanepoel (1994, 1996, 1997), and the concept of employment relations has since been widely accepted to express a more balanced view of the field (although some authors still refer to labour or even employee relations), acknowledging both conflict and cooperation in employment relationships as well as collective and individual dimensions (Nel et al., 2016; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012).

Finnemore and Joubert (2013, p. 1) describe employment relations (they refer to labour relations) as incorporating the continuing processes of interaction and power play between parties to the employment relationship, which may include the state, employers and their organisations, as well as employees and their unions. Bendix (2015, pp. 4–5) uses a somewhat broader definition and describes employment relations (referring to labour/employment relations and thereby acknowledging a movement away from the

traditional view of labour relations) as “a study of relationships between people within a work situation”. Bendix (2015) proceeds to explain that “these relationships may be of an individual or collective nature; are particular to the society in which they occur; and give rise to actions, reactions, processes, rules, institutions and regulations which, in turn, will affect the relationship itself”. The South African Board for People Practices (SABPP, 2015) defines employment relations management as “the management of individual and collective relationships in an organisation through the implementation of good practices that enable the achievement of organisational objectives compliant with the legislative framework and appropriate to socioeconomic conditions”. This definition thus incorporates both the individual and collective dimensions of the employment relationship, but leans towards the formal dimension within an organisational and broader societal setting.

Nel et al. (2016, p. 13) provide the most comprehensive South African definition of employment relations as a field of study and practice. These authors emphasise the complexity of employment relations by incorporating all the dimensions of the employment relationship (formal, informal, individual and collective relationships) and a variety of role players and stakeholders (employers, employees, the state, the representatives of these parties and relevant institutions) in their definition. Nel et al. (2016) conceptualise employment relations within both an organisational and societal context, valuing the contribution that organisations should make to individual (i.e. employees) and societal needs satisfaction. The employment relationship is regarded as multidimensional – incorporating both conflict and common ground – and requiring the balancing of power and regulation. Nel et al. (2016) furthermore suggest the partly common and partly divergent interests of the role players in employment relations can only be reconciled if justice and fairness are promoted. This definition reiterates the broadening of the field of employment relations by incorporating formal, informal, individual and collective relationships between a variety of role players. These role players devise ways of balancing their common and conflicting interests in order to meet the needs of individuals, organisations and society. The emphasis is no longer on displaying power and the formal regulation of the relationship but rather on the promotion of fairness and justice and balancing the needs of all role players and stakeholders.

The following common elements are found in the definitions of employment relations that are currently adopted in South African employment relations literature (Bendix, 2015; Finnemore & Joubert, 2013; Nel et al., 2016; SABPP, 2015; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012):

- (1) **Employment relations as a field of study and application has the employment relationship at its core.** This relationship consists of various dimensions, namely the

economic dimension (the provision of labour in exchange for remuneration), the formal dimension (regulated by the contract of employment and relevant legislation), and the informal dimension, with the psychological contract (i.e. the unexpressed needs and expectations of parties) as its foundation. It is therefore shaped by both economic and social exchange (Fox, 1974). Furthermore, it is both individual and collective in nature. The individual employment relationship refers to relations between each individual employee and the organisation or employing entity, as well as the face-to-face relations between the individual worker (non-management employee) and an individual manager (who represents the employers' interest). The collective dimension refers to the relations between workers as a group (traditionally mainly through organised labour or trade unions) and employers and their representatives (e.g. employers' organisations) as a group (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). The employment relationship therefore relates to the formal and informal relations between individuals and groups in a work setting.

- (2) **The employment relationship exists in a work context and incorporates a variety of role players and stakeholders.** The employment relationship includes all work contexts – formal and informal, unionised and nonunionised, single or multiple employers – and the actors are not limited to employers (or managers as their representatives in the workplace) and trade unions but should include all employer parties, employees (permanent, temporary, full-time, and part-time), trade unions, the community, and the state. When studying employment relations in a broader context, the focus is on an all-encompassing employment relationship and not on union-management relations, predominantly dedicated to formal, unionised employment and specifically strikes, conflict, remuneration and terms and conditions of employment only (Kirton, 2011). The extent to which employment relations is shaped by collectivist perceptions, especially in a highly unionised society such as that of South Africa, should however not be underestimated (Bendix, 2015).
- (3) **The employment relationship is characterised by inherent conflict as well as mutual interests between the parties.** The diversion and animosity created by the inherent conflict in the employment relationship are balanced, to some extent, by the existence of common interests. The parties to the employment relationship continuously interact within an organisation as a complex and dynamic open system. The interaction relates to aspects of mutual concern to employers and employees and should therefore be characterised not only by conflict (which is often the case due to limited resources) but rather by interdependence, cooperation and reciprocal respect

(Finnemore & Joubert, 2013; Mückenberger, 2016; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). Employment relations therefore relates to understanding and managing the inherent conflict and common ground dynamics between the parties to the employment relationship (Nel et al., 2016). The employment relationship is strengthened when employees perceive that their employer is satisfying their needs and expectations in the workplace, cares for their well-being and values their contributions. They will experience a sense of felt obligation and reciprocate by increasing their commitment to the organisation as well as behaviour that supports the organisation and people in it (Birtch et al., 2016).

- (4) **The interaction between the parties is guided by formal and informal dynamics.** The parties in the employment relationship (individually and collectively) interact and make use of both formal dynamics, such as courts and legal processes, and informal (behavioural or social) dynamics, such as communication and power, to regulate and maintain their relationships (Nel et al., 2016). When employees feel that they are valued, appreciated and respected by their employer, this leads to positive perceptions about the employment relationship and ultimately healthier long-term employment relations (Birtch et al., 2016).
- (5) **The notions of fairness and justice are central to employment relations.** Traditionally, the employment relationship is based on negative attitudes resulting from the inherent conflict between employers and employees, and this negativity may increase in the event of perceived injustice or unfairness (Bendix, 2015). Within a broader view of employment relations, however, the focus is not only on conflict and perceived injustice, but rather on ways in which the parties continuously attempt to find ways to balance, integrate and reconcile the partly common and partly divergent interest inherent in the employment relationship (Nel et al., 2016). As Kaufman (2008) explains, labour is embodied in human beings with particular values and emotions which they bring to the work environment. When developing high-quality employment relations, one should take cognisance of the higher moral significance, requiring fairness in all interaction, of working people as a resource as opposed to inanimate resources such as capital and land.

Considering the development of employment relations as a field of study, both internationally and in South Africa, and the commonalities in the definitions adopted by seminal authors in the field (Bendix, 2015; Budd & Bhawe, 2008; Dundon & Rollinson, 2011; Farnham & Pimlott, 1995; Kaufman, 2014; Nel et al., 2016; Poole, 1986; Venter, Levy, Bendeman, &

Dworzanowski-Venter, 2014), the following definition of employment relations was adopted for the purpose of this study:

Employment relations is the study of all factors that affect and impact on the employment relationship and the parties in this relationship with the aim of finding fair ways to balance, integrate, reconcile and regulate both the mutual and opposing interests of these parties to the benefit of organisations, individuals in organisations and the societies in which they operate.

Employment relations thus incorporates a variety of role players (e.g. employers, employees, trade unions, the State) and stakeholders (e.g. organisational shareholders and societies in which organisations operate) and relate to both common and conflicting interests. The aim of effective employment relations management should be to devise ways of managing the relationships between these role players in such a way that it addresses not only organisational needs but also the economic and socioemotional needs of employees, as well as societal needs in terms of service delivery and economic advancement. By using the concept of employment relations, the scope of the field becomes broad enough to merge the individual and collective dimensions of the employment relationship. Furthermore, the focus is not only on the inherent tension and conflict between the parties in the employment relationship resulting from perceived inequality and injustice, but also on the interdependency between the parties and therefore finding ways to balance the simultaneously convergent and divergent interests of the parties in just and equitable ways (Nel et al., 2016; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012).

Employment relations in South Africa is regarded as an interdisciplinary field of study within the social sciences that draws from a variety of disciplines such as economics, law, sociology, politics and psychology (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). The roots of the field are found in the work of economists (Kaufman, 2008), and nowadays, labour economics as a branch of economics focuses on factors associated with the supply and demand of labour as a commodity (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). A further essential aspect of employment relations is the legal side – the use of various forms of legislation to promote fairness and justice in the employment relationship, which is the focus of labour law. The South African employment relations environment is highly regulated, and employment relations cannot be studied without due cognisance of the relevant legislation (Bendix, 2015). However, in this study, the formal (legal) aspect is not the main focus. Rather, employment relations are viewed primarily from the perspective of industrial and organisational psychology and more specifically organisational behaviour, which is concerned with the relational and behavioural dynamics

involved in employment relations and the contribution that high-quality employment relations may make to the success of organisations (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012).

In summary, for the employment relationship to succeed, the parties in the relationship should realise that they share common interests (the continued profitable existence of the undertaking) and are interdependent, which means that a certain measure of cooperation and commitment to the organisation are essential. However, perceived inequality, injustice, powerlessness and supposed lack of support, coupled with conflicting individual and group goals, values, interests and ideologies, strengthened by social and political conflict, have resulted in the emphasis in employment relations to rather be placed on the institutionalisation of conflict (Bendix, 2015). Swanepoel and Slabbert (2012) argue that the only way of ensuring constructive employment relations, and thereby contributing not only to the success of organisations, but also the broader South African society, is to focus on the interests, needs, satisfaction and quality of work life of employees as individuals. Although organised labour (trade unions and trade union federations) are central to South African society, and employment relations in particular, employment relations as a field of study should not revolve around trade unions and collective relations only. Trade unions are often perceived to be overly politicised and out of touch with the needs of their constituencies, which is reflected in declining trade union membership, most notably in the private sector (see section 2.2.2.3). The answer to ensuring more effective employment relations may therefore no longer lie in the historical collectivist nature of employment relations, but in refocusing on the individual relationships between employers and employees and finding ways to enhance these relationships. This study therefore draws not only on the conflict paradigm, which relates to the inherent conflict of interest and power play in the employment relationship, but also on the rational choice paradigm as affected in the social exchange perspective on the nature of employment relations, which recognises the inherent complexity of the employment relationship (Blau, 1964; Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). These theoretical perspectives are prominent in understanding employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2003).

The inherent and continuing conflict between employers and employees in the South African employment relations environment is explored in section 2.2. The next section, however, focuses on employment relations as viewed from a social exchange perspective. The reciprocal obligations and expectations of employers and employees and their impact on the continued employment relationship are emphasised (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Dundon & Rollinson, 2011; Shore, Tetrick, Coyle-Shapiro, & Taylor, 2004).

2.1.3 The social exchange perspective on the nature of employment relations

Different theoretical perspectives can be used to explain employment relations as a field of study and practice. Of particular importance in this study is the social exchange perspective (Blau, 1964), which argues that the employment relationship is much more than a simple economic or legal exchange (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004). Although the economic dimension of the relationship (i.e. contractual in nature and governed by a clearly specified schedule of benefits and reciprocations) is recognised in terms of this perspective, the emphasis is on the anticipated indefinite duration and dynamic nature of the employment relationship, which is filled with unspecified obligations and expectations (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Dundon & Rollinson, 2011).

Social exchange involves actions that are reliant on the reciprocal reactions of others (Blau, 1964). Over time, these actions and reactions provide for mutually satisfying relationships. Therefore, relationship development within the social exchange perspective is not a result of a single stimulus-response, but more ascending in nature (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In an employment relations environment, it implies that employers cannot expect higher levels of employee commitment and behaviour aimed at advancing the objectives of the organisation and individuals in the organisation as a result of a single intervention. Instead, there should be a continuous effort aimed at enhancing the quality of the employment relationship by, for instance, ensuring fair and just employment relations practices, appreciating employees' contributions to the organisation and showing concern for their well-being (Potgieter et al., 2015). The reciprocal attitudes and behaviour demonstrated by employees in reaction to particular interventions may differ from organisation to organisation depending on the level of relationship development within a particular organisation (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Social exchange relations are characterised by interdependence, as implicit in the employment relationship, and concerns for the other party (i.e. mutual interests in the employment relationship), and individuals in such relationships trade both tangible resources (such as money and labour) as well as socioemotional currencies such as trust and respect (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Li & Thatcher, 2015). This perspective further acknowledges that the economic and formal aspects of the employment relationship are inevitably influenced by informal social interactions (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006). Dundon and Rollinson (2011, pp. 16–20) explain how the following five characteristics of social exchange relationships may give rise to a number of issues that continuously surface in employment relations:

- (1) **Costs and benefits:** An individual's basic motivation for entering an employment relationship is the rewards or benefits he or she expects to gain. However, a relationship does not only bring benefits to the parties, but also costs. Both parties incur costs (e.g. self-determination in the case of the employee or wages for the employer) and expect the other to provide benefits (e.g. wages or development opportunities for the employee and productivity for the employer) in return. Similarly, the parties feel an obligation to incur costs as they acquire benefits from the relationship. One party's actions are therefore contingent on the other party's behaviour (i.e. reciprocal exchange) (Gouldner, 1960) in a mutually interdependent relationship (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).
- (2) **Unvoiced expectations and obligations:** The above costs and benefits are rarely specified before the commencement of the relationship. Social exchange is therefore characterised by a host of unspecified and unvoiced expectations and obligations (i.e. the psychological contract). The parties expect the perceived cost-benefit ratio to remain in place for the duration of the relationship. Because of their inherent flexibility and depth of investment, social exchanges are viewed as more effective in the long term than economic exchanges (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015).
- (3) **Fairness:** In order for there to be fairness in an employment relationship there should be reciprocity of exchange; a particular exchange should be consistent with other exchanges undertaken elsewhere; and there should be equal treatment and consideration (i.e. one party should not benefit at the expense of the other) (Potgieter et al., 2015; Salamon, 2000). Each party in the relationship should therefore be willing to understand and respect the needs and interests of the other and, if necessary, to reach a fair compromise (Mückenberger, 2016). If either of the parties perceives that the cost-benefit ratio is heavily weighted in favour of the other party, the exchange will be regarded as unfair. Since there is no absolute standard of fairness, it is evaluated in comparison with others (i.e. equity). If an individual or group feel that they are under-rewarded in comparison to a reference individual or group this may result in a sense of relative deprivation and often leads to behaviour aimed at redressing this imbalance.
- (4) **Trust:** Trust is conceptualised as an indicator of the quality of social exchange (Li & Thatcher, 2015). As behaviour cannot be controlled, neither of the parties can be certain that the other will honour their obligations. This means that the parties need to trust one another, which makes them vulnerable to the other party and provides them with a potential power advantage. Trust, however, is essential in the employment

relationship, and organisations therefore need to devise ways to increase the likelihood of trusting employer-employee relations (Jordaan & Ulrich, 2016).

- (5) **Imbalance of power:** An inherent assumption of social exchange theory is that any relationship is characterised by unequal power. The party that is least able to withstand the severing of the relationship is the one who is potentially at a power disadvantage. In the employment relationship, power is often manifested in terms of the authority vested in individuals or groups in the workplace and may even be reflected in the approach to individualism and collectivism (i.e. the extent to which individual or collective relationships are valued and supported) adopted in workplaces (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012).

As indicated in the previous section, employment relations as field of study has at its core the employment relationship (the relationship between various parties in employment) and how fairness and justice can be achieved in this relationship (Nel et al., 2016). Drawing on social exchange theory, it may be anticipated that employees who perceive their employer to be supportive and fair will be less inclined to focus purely on the attainment of individual economic gains. Instead, the psychological contract, which reflects the (unspoken) set of expectations that the parties in the employment relationship have of one another as well as the obligations that they feel towards each other, will become more important (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011; Rousseau, 1995). Employees who perceive that their expectations in terms of the psychological contract have been met, will likely feel obliged to reciprocate the delivery of incentives by the employer, resulting in a higher level of commitment towards the organisation and a willingness to engage in desirable behaviour (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Baer, Long, & Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2014; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Obuya & Rugimbana, 2014).

The principles of social exchange theory furthermore suggest that effective employer-employee relations in organisations can only be established if employee expectations (including formal contractual or legal expectations as well as unspoken more personal expectations) are acknowledged (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). The emphasis is thus on mutual responsibility and the trust that is earned when both parties fulfil their obligations (Potgieter et al., 2015). When employees notice that the organisation recognises their needs and observes and rewards employee efforts made on its behalf, this builds trust in the employment relationship (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). Trust is an essential component of high-quality employment relations (Jordaan & Cillié, 2015; Potgieter et al., 2015) and encourages commitment towards the organisation and a willingness to engage in OCB

(Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000). Employees in high-quality exchange relationships will be more willing to “walk the extra mile” for the organisation, but will expect continued fair treatment and support in return (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). However, the opposite is also true. If employees perceive their employers’ actions to be unfair and malevolent, they will in all likelihood be less inclined to engage in OCB, and may even resort to behaviour aimed at harming the organisation or counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) (e.g. intimidation, violence, sabotage and disruption of organisational activities) (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011; Lam, Liang, Ashford, & Lee, 2015; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Zhao et al., 2007).

In the South African employment relations environment, which is characterised by high levels of mistrust and adversity (see section 2.2.1), conflict often manifests in, for instance, industrial action (see section 2.2.2.4) at a collective level, or misconduct, poor performance and absenteeism at an individual level (Jordaan & Ulrich, 2016). It has been shown that the cost of such negative work experiences far outweighs the benefits accrued from positive experiences (Baumeister et al., 2001; Felps et al., 2006). In addition, negative work experiences are considered more transmittable than positive ones (Barsade, 2002). In this context, it is therefore not possible to focus on positive (although desirable) constructs such as organisational support and justice, organisational commitment and OCB only as this may result in a biased view of employer-employee relations, the factors impacting on such relations and the attitudinal and behavioural outcomes thereof (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010; Southey, 2010). In order to obtain a more balanced view and understanding of employees’ perceptions and experiences in the workplace and the impact thereof on their relational attitudes and behaviour, it is essential to also consider what may be regarded as negative constructs. This is especially true for constructs and contexts in which the positive and the negative may represent qualitatively different, but at the same time potentially coexisting, phenomena rather than opposite, mutually exclusive ends of a single continuum (e.g. OCB and CWB) (Avey et al., 2010). For the purposes of this study, there are some apparent negative constructs that are deemed relevant to the employment relationship, namely psychological contract violation, cynicism and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB). It has, for instance, been found that employees who feel that their expectations in terms of the psychological contract have not been met may become more cynical towards their organisation and are more likely to reciprocate by displaying a higher degree of commitment towards a trade union (as opposed to the organisation) (Bashir & Nasir, 2013). Violation of the psychological contract has also been linked to decreased job satisfaction, reduced job performance and CWB, which includes sabotage, theft and displaying aggression towards others in the organisation (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

In summary, it is proposed that adopting a social exchange perspective to employment relations may be useful in gaining a better understanding of the intricate dynamics of the employer-employee relationship (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). Although this perspective emphasises the socioemotional needs of employees, it focuses on the long-term relationship between employers and employees, rather than short-term need fulfilment, and the mutual interdependence between the parties (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). This theory acknowledges the existence of different dimensions of employment relations (formal, informal/social, economic/transactional, collective and individual) that impact on one another (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). Thus, by relying on the principles of social exchange theory, it can be argued that fairness and support displayed by an employer will increase employees' trust in the organisation and, based on the norm of reciprocity, will enhance positive employee attitudes and behaviour (Tremblay, Cloutier, Simard, Chênevert, & Vandenberghe, 2010). In contrast, negative reciprocation holds that employees who regard their employers as unsupportive, unjust and exploitive will regard these actions as an inability or unwillingness to fulfil its obligations in terms of the psychological contract (Bal et al., 2010; El Akremi, Vandenberghe, & Camerman, 2010; Ng, Feldman, & Butts, 2014). If these perceptions are accompanied by negative emotions such as feelings of anger and betrayal, this may enhance employees' cynicism towards the organisation, resulting in negative attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation (Bal et al., 2010; Quratulain, Khan, Crawshaw, Arain, & Hameed, 2016).

It is therefore argued that, by applying social exchange theory to employment relations, it is plausible that employees who experience a high-quality relationship with their employers will trust their employers to act in their best interest and will be more likely to reciprocate by demonstrating loyalty and commitment towards the organisation and engaging in both in-role and extra-role behaviour that benefits the organisation and people in it. In contrast, employees who experience a poor-quality relationship with their employers will question the integrity of their employers (i.e. become cynical) and may reciprocate by decreasing their commitment to the organisation. They may also be less willing to make an effort on the organisation's behalf, and may even resort to behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation as a way of reciprocating the perceived lack of support or injustice. It is thus argued that in the South African employment relations environment, with high levels of adversity and inequality, it is essential for employers to provide the necessary support and to treat their employees fairly. It is proposed that this will, in turn, increase employees trust in their employers and decrease their cynicism towards the organisation and its managers, resulting in higher levels of organisational commitment and a willingness to engage in behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation and people in it. Employees who are more trusting and less cynical towards the

organisation will be less inclined to engage in acts that are harmful to the organisation such as strikes, misconduct and poor performance.

In this section, it was shown that social exchange theory is an appropriate theoretical underpinning when attempting to glean a better understanding of the complexity and dynamics of employer-employee relations in the workplace. It was also suggested that this theory may serve as an appropriate theoretical lens for examining the associations between the constructs of relevance in this study, namely organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB, CWB, organisational cynicism, organisational trust, POS, POJ, psychological contract violation and individualism/collectivism. The conceptualisation of these constructs and the reported associations between them, as viewed from a social exchange perspective, are explored in subsequent chapters (Chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6). The remainder of this chapter, however, concludes the conceptualisation of the metatheoretical context of the study by acknowledging and exploring the multilayered and dynamic nature of employment relations in the South African organisational environment.

Bendix (2015) explains that the employment relationship changes as the status, needs, attitudes and perceptions of the parties to the relationship change and as society evolves. Dundon and Rollinson (2011) also warn that, although the social exchange perspective, takes cognisance of perceptions and emotions in the employment relationship and consequently on the way the world of work is experienced, other factors such historical legacies or economic realities and legal provisions that place constraints on what the parties can do should not be ignored. Furthermore, specific employment conditions (e.g. labour laws and cultures in a country) can affect the type of perceived psychological contract obligations, as well as responses to the fulfilment or breach of these obligations (Lub, Bal, Blomme, & Schalk, 2016; Rousseau & Schalk, 2000). When studying employee attitudes and behaviour in a South African employment relations in context, it is therefore essential to consider the factors impacting on the parties to the relationship within a particular societal setting, but with due consideration of the historical development of these relations over time. Hence, the focus in the next section is on employment relations in the South African societal setting. The development of employment relations in South Africa, the main challenges impacting on employment relations and the changing nature of work influencing the employment relationship are highlighted in order to outline the metatheoretical context of this research, namely employment relations in a South African organisational environment.

2.2 THE SOUTH AFRICAN EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS ENVIRONMENT

A brief summary of the events impacting on the development of employment relations as a field of study and practice in South Africa is provided below. A timeline of these events is provided in Appendix C.

2.2.1 The development of employment relations in South Africa

The roots of industrial relations (IR) in South Africa can be traced back to the advent of the country's own industrial revolution, following the discovery of gold and diamonds (Nel et al., 2016; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). Large-scale industrialisation, especially in the mining, engineering and building industries, led to an influx of labour to the Witwatersrand (Bendix, 2015). From the outset, there were inequality and conflict between skilled (mostly English speaking whites) and unskilled (mainly blacks, migrants and white Afrikaners) workers (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012; Venter et al., 2014). In its earliest stages of development, employment relations in South Africa was characterised by gross social disparities and the system was designed to protect the interests of mainly white European (English-speaking) workers from perceived encroachment by cheaper black labour (Finnemore & Joubert, 2013; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012; Venter et al., 2014). The emphasis was therefore on the exclusion of black African workers (Bendix, 2015). Skilled workers also kept their labour scarce by limiting trade union membership, thereby maintaining job standards, which in turn prevented job dilution and fragmentation, and deprived other workers of the opportunity to acquire the relevant job skills. A collectivist system of employment relations was imposed by European immigrants (mostly from the UK) who had trade union experience (Nel et al., 2016).

The first reported trade union activity took place in 1897 when white miners went on strike in Randfontein (Kaufman, 2004b). This set the tone for a proliferation of trade unionism (mainly among skilled white workers) and large-scale industrial action, which marked the turn of the century (Finnemore & Joubert, 2013). During this time, trade unions became politically active, prompting the start of continual interaction between developments in employment relations and politics in South Africa (Nel et al., 2016). From its earliest beginnings, employment relations in South Africa revealed vast inequalities in social and economic relationships – between industry and labour, between skilled and unskilled workers, and between white and black workers (Nel et al., 2016). These inequalities were exacerbated by a dual employment relations system based on race. While white workers were allowed to form and join trade unions and engage in collective bargaining, black workers did not enjoy similar protection

(Venter et al., 2014). White workers were therefore protected within the capitalist system while black workers were marginalised and had no political or economic power (Finnemore & Joubert, 2013).

In South Africa, the first half of the 20th century was marked not only by rapid growth in the manufacturing and service sectors, but also by the escalating political divisions in society and a general dissatisfaction among people of all races (Bendix, 2015). Although there was a move towards nonracial trade unionism, especially in the manufacturing industry, this was halted when the National Party came to power in 1948, as they were opposed to any form of registered trade unionism for blacks. Labour legislation firmly entrenched the principles of racial segregation into the labour situation (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). As a result of the National Party's social policy of apartheid, black trade unions became increasingly politicised and agitated and were eventually banned. During this period, industrial relations research in South Africa was largely limited to trade union history while stayaway actions, boycotts and riots became the face of industrial relations (Kaufman, 2004b).

During the late 1950s and throughout the next decade, black unionism was subdued as a result of the execution or detention of prominent trade union members, resulting in a decline in membership from 55 000 in 1962 to 17 000 in 1969 (Venter et al., 2014). The early 1970s, however, were characterised by a renewed outbreak of strikes and labour violence (Webster, 2013). These strikes were not only indicative of increasing dissatisfaction among black employees, but also emphasised their joint power and the necessity to accommodate their interests in the employment relations system (Bendix, 2015). Demonstrations intensified and the government came under increasing pressure (both nationally and internationally) to introduce political change (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). This eventually resulted in the appointment of the Wiehahn Commission in 1977. In 1979, the recommendations of this Commission gave rise to a series of legislative reforms that created space for the social movement unionism, which energised political change (Anstey, 2013; Borat et al., 2014; Webster, 2013). The equality in terms of rights endorsed by new legislation served as a precursor to political democracy in South Africa (Bendix, 2015).

Regrettably, these reforms in labour legislation failed to address the increasing political, economic and social divisions in the wider society and therefore failed to eradicate the escalating unrest and militancy of the black trade unions. In the 1980s, these trade unions – united under the auspices of newly formed trade union federations, such as the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) and the National Council of Trade Unions (NACTU) – became a leading force in the anti-apartheid movement (Venter et al., 2014). Organised labour

exercised power, by means of general stayaways from work and supporting consumer boycotts, to pressure employers and the government to effect much broader and deeper societal transformation, along principles similar to those that guided change in the labour dispensation (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). This resulted in increased interest in industrial relations and subsequently heralded an upsurge of academic research in the field in South Africa (Kaufman, 2004b).

By the end of the 1980s, the South African economy was in recession and the country was politically isolated. Rising unemployment did not curb strike activity as wage demands increased (Finnemore & Joubert, 2013). The struggle years from the late 1980s saw a huge surge in unrest, violence, strikes, school and consumer boycotts, and stay away actions in South Africa, mainly driven by the ANC/SACP/SACTU alliance (later the ANC/COSATU/SACP alliance) from outside the country through its underground structures in South Africa (Anstey, 2013; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). The 1990s, however, heralded a process of sociopolitical transition (Anstey, 2013). Following the first democratic elections in 1994, the new coalition Government of National Unity embraced the interests of the major labour stakeholders as well as the community (Bendix, 2015). Dominated by the ANC, the government was widely perceived as pro-labour, as many unionists took up positions in it. This pro-labour approach was reinforced by the continued alliance between the ANC, COSATU and the SACP (the tripartite alliance) (Nel et al., 2016). This era was marked by extremely high worker expectations both inside and outside the workplace (Bendix, 2015).

Political democracy prompted the institutionalisation of employment relations. South Africa was formally readmitted to the International Labour Organization (ILO) in 1994 (Nel et al., 2016) and the National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC) was introduced (Bendix, 2015). Trade union federations (COSATU, FEDUSA and NACTU) embraced their position in NEDLAC to become involved in socioeconomic policy making. Employers' organisations also sought to consolidate their strategies and organisational capacity through Business South Africa (BSA) in order to meet the new challenges of social dialogue (Finnemore & Joubert, 2013).

In the context of the country's new inclusive democracy, and in an attempt to bring South African labour policies in line with international standards set by the ILO, NEDLAC's first priority was to negotiate labour-friendly legislation among the social partners (government, business and labour). For the first time, fair and equitable labour relations was recognised as a constitutional right (Republic of South Africa, 1996). The promulgation of a number of new Acts, entrenching this right, signalled government's intention to balance power and promote

cooperation between the parties to the employment relationship (Venter et al., 2014). However, most of the changes favoured trade unions and centralised collective bargaining was strongly promoted, which was to the advantage of the larger trade unions and trade union federations, and further entrenched the collectivistic focus of employment relations in South Africa (Bendix, 2015). The Acts included extensive rights of association, organisation, collective bargaining and protected strike action. It also provided statutory structures for interaction between labour and business on issues beyond wages and conditions of employment, and led to the establishment of the Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA) in support of workplace justice and collective bargaining (Anstey, 2013; Nel et al., 2016).

Trade union membership grew rapidly and the focus of trade unions changed from the political struggle to protecting their members' job security and preventing the erosion of their wages. Trade unions, notably COSATU and its affiliates, also became increasingly involved in broader political and socioeconomic issues through its tripartite alliance status (Nel et al., 2016). The parties now had to deal with the legacy of the apartheid policies in their communities and workplaces. This included racial divisions between skilled and unskilled workers, apartheid wage gaps, poorly educated workers, autocratic management styles, lack of protection for the most vulnerable workers and widespread poverty and unemployment (Finnemore & Joubert, 2013). The fragile employment relationships were put under further strain by the perceived inflexibility of the new labour legislative framework and the perceived tardiness in addressing the needs to diversify the workplace and address skill imbalances (Venter et al., 2014).

Government attempted to address the escalating economic and labour problems by convening a jobs summit with the social partners, effecting major amendments to labour legislation and launching the Strategy for Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) (Nel et al., 2016; Republic of South Africa, 2003). Although these initiatives enjoyed only limited success and were widely opposed and criticised, government reiterated its commitment to creating a people-centred society and eradicating inequality (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). However, South Africa's threefold problem of unemployment, inequality and poverty was growing (fuelled by a global economic crisis) and tensions between the parties in the tripartite alliance were escalating (Nel et al., 2016). The militancy of trade unions grew and there was an increase in strike activities, with working days lost to strike action reaching a record high of more than 20 million in 2010 (Nel et al., 2016).

In an attempt to address the continuing high levels of poverty, unemployment and inequality, the New Growth Path (NGP) was tabled as a new policy direction document in 2010, followed

by the National Development Plan (NDP) outlining mechanisms of policy implementation. In 2012, the NGP was replaced by the National Development Plan 2030 (NDP) which was prepared by the National Planning Commission. Government and its social partners struggled, however, to agree on the appropriate policy framework for South Africa and tensions and societal problems (crime, corruption, poverty, unemployment and equality) thus persisted (Alexander, 2013). The situation was further exacerbated by the global financial crisis in 2007 and 2008. South Africa's economy was slowed down by the international recessionary economic climate. Retrenchments were inevitable and these also affected trade union membership numbers. Greater pressure on organisations meant that employer parties were increasingly deploying strategies for flexible work practices such as casualisation, using measures like outsourcing, subcontracting and informalisation. This was vehemently opposed by the labour movement, most notably COSATU, resulting in the tabling of bills to amend the Labour Relations Act (LRA; Republic of South Africa, 1995), the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA; Republic of South Africa, 1997) and the Employment Equity Act (EEA; Republic of South Africa, 1998) in 2010 as well as the introduction of a new Employment Services Bill. After much deliberation, these bills were eventually passed into law and became effective during the period 2013 to 2015 in an effort to protect vulnerable workers from exploitation (Nel et al., 2016). These deliberations highlighted the changing nature of work and the impact these changes have on employment relations practices.

The high levels of antagonism and conflict in South African employment relations have been unrelenting. Excessive levels of labour unrest remain commonplace (see section 2.2.2.4). Highly emotive events continue to shape the employment relations landscape. This includes, inter alia, the Marikana strike in 2012; the expulsion of COSATU's general secretary, Zwelinzima Vavi, and largest affiliate, the National Union of Metalworkers of South Africa (NUMSA), from the federation in 2015; and the formation of a new trade union federation, the South African Federation of Trade Unions (SAFTU) in 2017 (Alexander, 2013; Anstey, 2013; Bond & Mottiar, 2013; Chinguno, 2013; Manyathela, 2016; SAFTU, n.d.). The political and employment relations landscapes are changing, with opposition political parties and militant trade unions (notably the Association of Mineworkers and Construction Union, AMCU) gaining support (Electoral Commission of South Africa, 2016; Macmillan, 2017; Modjadji, 2014). The tripartite alliance, which has been a driving force in the development and implementation of national employment relations policies, is coming under increased strain (Nkosi, 2017). It is thus clear that over two decades of democracy have not succeeded in eradicating the persistent problems in the South African employment relations environment. It remains afflicted by political and socioeconomic turmoil (Webster, 2015).

It is clear from the above overview of the development of the South African employment relations landscape, that employer-employee relations has a troublesome past, which is largely based on racial divides and inequality. These inequalities persist and are exacerbated by inadequate economic growth, low levels of job creation and growing unemployment (Bendix, 2015). The expectations held following the democratisation of South Africa have not been met and people are voicing their dissatisfaction by means of escalating industrial and protest action (Webster, 2015). The South African labour movement, which has always been intricately involved in political developments in the country, is increasingly showing their its disdain towards the government and the tripartite alliance is coming under increased strain (Nel et al., 2016).

It is thus evident from the above historical overview of employment relations in South Africa that the field is marked by continued adversity and labour disputes, often culminating in industrial action. Although the focus of this study is on reciprocal relations between individual employees and their employing organisations, it is essential to consider trade union representation and collective action as this invariably shapes the context in which the parties to the employment relationship operate, thereby influencing (directly or indirectly) their perceptions, attitudes and behaviour. It is, however, argued, that South Africa's employment relations problems will not be resolved by national policies and social dialogue (although this may certainly contribute to finding and effecting solutions), but that organisational initiatives in terms of interacting with individual employees are essential. It is suggested that real change will only be affected once cognisance is taken of employees' socioemotional needs – hence the urgent need for a more humane approach to dealing with employment relations problems.

The need for such an approach is further accentuated by considering the changing nature of work impacting on the employment relationship as well as the unique challenges experienced in the South African employment relations environment. Consequently, these aspects are elaborated upon in the following section in order to elucidate the metatheoretical context of this research, namely employment relations in a South African organisational setting.

2.2.2 Employment relations challenges in South Africa

Employment relations in South Africa are subject to a number of challenges. As shown in the previous section, these relations continue to be plagued by adversity and high levels of conflict, which well-intended legislative reforms have been unable to eradicate. This contributes to a proneness among workers to resort to industrial and protest actions that are often accompanied by violence and general lawlessness. South Africa's "labour problems"

furthermore include high levels of unemployment, job insecurity and inequality that are exacerbated by changes in the nature of work and globalisation. As one of the aims of this study was to better understand the perceptions, attitudes and behaviour of employees in South African organisations, it was deemed imperative to appreciate the context in which they operate. The challenges affecting employment relations in South Africa are thus briefly outlined in the following sections.

2.2.2.1 Globalisation

Globalisation, in general, and the global financial crisis, in particular, have affected interactions and power relations in organisations changing the landscape of employment relations (Jordaan & Cillié, 2015). Globalisation is regarded as a key contributor to inequality in the labour market (International Labour Organization, 2015b). The implications of globalisation for employment relations furthermore include a predisposition towards the decentralisation of collective bargaining, a decline in trade union membership and the rise of contingent, less stable forms of employment (Barker, 2015; Mückenberger, 2016; Wailes, Bamber, & Lansbury, 2011). In South Africa, globalisation has also produced social tensions that are reflected in increased job insecurity and migration (Meardi, 2014) and sporadic xenophobic attacks on foreign nationals and foreign-owned business blamed for “taking the jobs” of unemployed South Africans (Von Holdt, 2013).

Webster (2015) posits that, in an employment relations context, the main impact of globalisation lies in the extent to which it compels a repositioning of justice at the core of the employment relationship. Hence, employment relations policies need to be revised to enhance social protection for all categories of employment (not only permanent employees) (International Labour Organization, 2015b). In this context, it is furthermore suggested that employers can no longer focus on their needs for employee cooperation and performance (i.e. job-related behaviour) only, but that increasing competitiveness and uncertainty, necessitate greater emphasis on discretionary employee behaviour (i.e. behaviour that goes above and beyond the call of duty) (Webster, 2015). Organisations therefore have to find ways to encourage employees to engage in behaviour that is not only aimed at benefiting themselves, as individuals, but also the organisation and people in it, because this helps to develop and maintain a favourable social and psychological climate while at the same time enhancing organisational efficiency and effectiveness (Lam et al., 2015). Within the context of this study, the employment relations challenges posed by increasing globalisation, such as an upsurge in atypical employment and a decline in unionisation, endorse the expressed need for a broader conceptualisation of employment relations, as well as a relational (as opposed to

transactional or institutional) focus aimed at enhancing justice perceptions and encouraging positive discretionary behaviour.

2.2.2.2 *The changing nature of work*

The world of work and the arrangement of work relationships, in particular, are rapidly changing (Spreitzer et al., 2017). It is no longer the norm for employment to be full-time or permanent (International Labour Organization, 2015b). Informal, flexible and casual labour are becoming commonplace and there is a move towards the individualisation of employment (Eaton, Schurman, & Chen, 2017; Gatrell & Cooper, 2016; Mückenberger, 2016). This holds implications for the nature of employment relationships and employment relations practices in organisations (Piasna & Drahokoupil, 2017; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010) and may influence reciprocal expectations in terms of the exchange relationship (Alcover et al., 2017b; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2014; Persson & Wasieleski, 2015).

The changing nature of work (from production-driven to knowledge-driven) has shifted the focus from task behaviour to a broader view of work behaviour that is essential in dynamic and uncertain organisational contexts (Luth, 2012). Organisations are becoming increasingly dependent on individuals who are willing to contribute to the organisation beyond what is required in their contracts of employment (Pickford & Joy, 2016), and employees tend to be motivated by positive work relationships to engage in such behaviour (Colbert, Bono, & Purvanova, 2016). The changing nature of employment, however, presents challenges in terms of relationship building and the establishment of organisational identification (Epitropaki, 2013). Atypical employment has been linked to widening inequalities between different categories of employment which, if disregarded, may invoke latent costs in the form of the deterioration of organisational trust and commitment (Kwon, Cho, & Kim, 2015; Spreitzer et al., 2017) and a rise in organisational cynicism (Kuo, Chang, Quinton, Lu, & Lee, 2015).

The rise in atypical employment accentuates the need to broaden employment relations research. It is no longer sufficient to focus on long-term (i.e. permanent) employment relationships only. If organisations wish to strengthen employees’ identification with the organisation as a means of encouraging desirable attitudes and behaviour, it is essential to identify innovative ways whereby they can provide support to all categories of workers with due regard for their unique needs and expectations (Spreitzer et al., 2017; Wei & Si, 2013). Employment relations research can also no longer be limited to collective relationships and unionised organisational environments as more diversified work arrangements have made the organisation of workers more challenging (International Labour Organization, 2015b). These

changes are reflected in a gradual decline in trade union membership, as discussed in the next section.

2.2.2.3 Decline in trade union membership

Trade union membership and consequently the power and influence of these collectives are declining internationally (Crouch, 2017; Fairbrother, 2015; Kelly, 2015; Runge, 2017). This may be attributed to increased globalisation, a growth in atypical employment, technological advances and a shift from a mostly industrial-driven economy to a more knowledge-based economy (Barker, 2015; Murphy & Turner, 2016; Spreitzer et al., 2017). The global cultural shift towards vertical individualism, where the focus is on individual achievement and competitiveness rather than the needs of collectives, is also contributing to a decline in the need to belong to collective entities such as trade unions (Sarkar & Charlwood, 2014; Walls & Triandis, 2014).

Although trade unions in South Africa have also come under strain (Beresford, 2012; Webster, 2015), trade union members still comprise a considerable portion of the workforce. The trade union density rate, which conveys the number of union members who are employees as a percentage of the total number of employees (Berglund & Furåker, 2016), was reported as 25.3 per cent in the first quarter of 2018 (Statistics South Africa, 2018) with 190 trade unions registered with the Department of Labour (Department of Labour, 2018). Bhorat et al. (2014) report, however, that union membership in South Africa is disproportionately high in the public sector (with a union density rate of 69.2% in 2014) compared with the private sector (24.4% during the same period).

Although the level of union membership in South Africa does not reflect an unusually highly-unionised labour market (International Labour Organization, 2015a), trade unions remain a strong force in South African employment relations (Beresford, 2012; Bhorat et al., 2014; Webster, 2015). However, the so-called “representational gap” is growing (Purcell & Hall, 2012; Webster & Bishoff, 2011). Trade unions can no longer claim to be the single channel of communication and representation for all working people in the country. Work is seen as increasingly individualistic with less space for collective action, negotiations and social forces in general (Meardi, 2014). Informal arrangements (reciprocal expectations and obligations) are consequently becoming far more significant in the workplace (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011; Guest, 2004). Hence, employment relations research can no longer focus on the collective aspect (trade unions and collective bargaining) only, but should also consider the individual experiences and perceptions that impact on the attitudes and behaviour of working people.

2.2.2.4 *Labour disputes and industrial action*

Although both the South African Constitution (Republic of South Africa, 1996) and labour legislation such as the Labour Relations Act (Republic of South Africa, 1995) provide for the advancement of economic development, social justice, labour peace and the democratisation of the workplace, these morally commendable intentions have not translated to the workplace. The South African government has not succeeded in addressing the persisting exploitation and oppression of workers (Pons-Vignon & Anseeuw, 2009). Disputes are abundant and institutions such as the Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA) and bargaining councils report an ever-increasing caseload (Commission for Conciliation Mediation and Arbitration, 2017; National Planning Commission, 2011).

Workplace disputes are frequently accompanied by industrial action. South Africa has witnessed a surge of industrial and protest action in recent years (see Appendix C) with a dramatic increase in violence during protests (Breakfast, Bradshaw, & Nomarwayi, 2016; Webster, 2015). Industrial action is essentially a power play between uncompromising managers and an increasingly militant workforce (Chinguno, 2013). These actions are often unprotected and mostly unnecessary (Von Holdt, 2013; Webster, 2013). Paret (2015) suggests, however, that the violent tactics that are often used during industrial action – most notably property destruction and social disruption – may be regarded as reciprocal behaviour by employees, resulting from perceived injustice and frustration about not being heard.

2.2.2.5 *Socioeconomic realities*

South Africa's employment relations problems continue to be a detrimental factor influencing foreign investment. This is reflected in the country's ranking (last among 137 countries) in terms of cooperation in labour-employment relations (World Economic Forum, 2018). Inequality and job insecurity, exacerbated by high levels of unemployment, remain the most significant "labour problems" (Hayter, 2015). Global unemployment is at an all-time high (International Labour Organization, 2015b), and South Africa is no exception. Since 1994, South Africa has had an unemployment rate of approximately 25 per cent – one of the highest in the world (Statistics South Africa, 2018; Vermeulen, 2017). In addition, it is suggested that up to 15 per cent of workers are underemployed (i.e. not used to their full capacity) (Beukes, Fransman, Murozvi, & Yu, 2017). This is accompanied by extreme inequalities (Cronje, 2017), reflected in, for instance, the income and social protection disparities between employees at different levels and in different forms of employment (Anstey, 2013; Bhorat et al., 2014; Eaton

et al., 2015). These inequalities are intensified by deteriorating economic growth (Statistics South Africa, 2017) and a drastic increase in restructuring activities, resulting in large-scale retrenchments (Commission for Conciliation Mediation and Arbitration, 2017).

Retrenchment not only impacts greatly on the employees dismissed, but also creates high levels of job insecurity for those employees who remain (Lam et al., 2015). Positive associations between job insecurity and employees' cynicism towards the organisation and its managers have been reported (Kurebwa, 2011; Pugh, Skarlicki, & Passell, 2003) while both job insecurity and cynicism have been linked to a decline in work effort (Brandes et al., 2008). Furthermore, retrenchment and the associated insecurity are likely to be regarded as a psychological contract violation by employees (Epitropaki, 2013), contributing to the widening trust gap between employers and employees and resulting in a loss of interest, commitment and loyalty towards the organisation (Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, & Casier, 2000; Wörnich et al., 2018).

High levels of inequality, as experienced in South Africa, have also been shown to impact on employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Bapuji, 2015). For instance, when there are large income discrepancies in organisations (between various levels or forms of employment), employees tend to be cynical and engage less in OCB (Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Kim, Bateman, Gilbreath, & Andersson, 2009). High levels of inequality also reduce trust and lead to an increase in self-interest and a proliferation of uncooperative and dysfunctional behaviour (Bapuji, 2015; Soylu & Sheehy-Skeffington, 2015).

2.2.2.6 The diversity of the South African workforce

The South African population comprises four population groups: black Africans (79%), coloureds (8.9%), Indians (2.5%) and whites (9.6%) (Statistics South Africa, 2012a). This is reflected in an increasingly heterogeneous workforce contributing to the complexity of employment relationships and the management thereof (Statistics South Africa, 2018). Differences in terms of expected support, justice perceptions and the likelihood of joining trade unions, participating in union activities and engaging in CWB have, for instance, been reported for different population groups (Avery, McKay, & Roberson, 2012; Berry et al., 2007; Fullagar & Barling, 1989; Simpson & Kaminski, 2007). In South African organisations, employers need to take cognisance of inherent differences between employee groups that may arise from their cultural dispositions (Triandis, 1995), while at the same time meeting legal requirements in terms of transformation and representation (i.e. employment equity, affirmative action, black

economic empowerment and skills development) (Commission for Employment Equity, 2017; De Beer, Rothmann Jr., & Pienaar, 2016).

Diversity, however, is not limited to population groups. The transformation of South African workplaces and changing socioeconomic conditions have also resulted in an increasing number of women entering the workplace (Statistics South Africa, 2018; Wörnich et al., 2018). This has compelled employers to reconsider their employment practices in an attempt to prevent gender discrimination in terms of, for instance, remuneration and career advancement opportunities (World Economic Forum, 2016) and assist employees to attain work-life balance by providing family-friendly work arrangements (Jaga, Arabandi, Bagraim, & Mdlongwa, 2018). The need for work-life balance, however, is not limited to female employees (Radcliffe & Cassell, 2015). The shift in gender demographics of paid employment has also resulted in a higher prevalence of dual-career couples with shared family responsibilities (Spreitzer et al., 2017). This has resulted in a call for employer support from male employees who are required to fulfil family responsibility roles (Field, Bagraim, & Rycroft, 2012; Gatrell & Cooper, 2016). Gender does, however, not only influence the support expected by employees but different attitudinal and behavioural tendencies have also been ascribed to men and women (Jayasingam, Govindasamy, & Singh, 2016). Women have, for instance, been found to place greater value on relationships (Wei, Ma et al., 2015) and tend to be more trusting than men (Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Dohmen et al., 2008). They are therefore more likely to judge workplace events in terms of its relational impact (Dulebohn et al., 2016) and, if this impact is seen to be positive, they are more willing to engage in OCB and less likely to resort to CWB (Ariani, 2013; Bowling & Burns, 2015).

The diversity of the South African workforce, as reflected in terms of the age of the workforce, poses further challenges for employment relations. As different generations of people enter the workforce, different sets of values, interests, viewpoints and convictions are introduced (Sappey, Sappey, & Burgess, 2014). The younger generations of employees, for instance, seem to attach less value to collectivist leanings and are less inclined to join trade unions (Beresford, 2012; Nel et al., 2016). They are also more likely to enter into atypical employment contracts (sometimes involuntarily), thereby challenging traditional assumptions about employment relationships and employees' needs and expectations in these relationships (Bencsik, Horváth-Csikós, & Juhász, 2016; Pyöriä, Ojala, Saari, & Järvinen, 2017). These changing generational preferences defy the traditional notion of employment relations as a framework of institutionalised systems, rule orientation, authority and collectivism and emphasise need to adopt a broader view of employment relations incorporating all forms of employment (Sappey et al., 2014).

The diversity of the South African workforce underscores the necessity of considering context when attempting to better understand employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Meardi, 2014). Within a social exchange framework, it is expected that the demographic characteristics of individuals, such as gender, age and population group, may influence their perception of the exchange relationship and the obligations and expectations they regard as essential within these relations. In this study, it was therefore crucial to take cognisance of these variables in the development of the proposed psychological framework. The potential impact of these person-centred variables are further examined in relation to the relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Chapter 3), the antecedents to such attitudes and behaviour (Chapter 4), individuals' trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and managers (Chapter 5) and their disposition towards individualism/collectivism (Chapter 6).

In summary, this section served a twofold purpose. Firstly, a brief historical overview of the development of employment relations as a field of study and practice in South Africa was provided with the aim of outlining the circumstances that shaped the current employment relations environment. Secondly, challenges influencing employment relations in South Africa were identified. These challenges include societal inequalities and dissatisfaction that have spilled over to the workplace, giving rise to labour disputes and industrial action. It was furthermore shown that increased globalisation, accompanied by changes in the nature of work and a decline in trade unionism, necessitates a reconceptualisation of employment relations, as the focus can no longer be on collective relationships and traditional employment contracts only. This supports the proposition in this study that the focus of South African employment relations research and practices needs to be expanded to include all forms of employment and both individual and collective relationships.

It was furthermore argued that cognisance should be taken of the diversity of the South African workforce and that employers should make a sincere effort to meet the specific needs of individuals instead of following a "one size fits all" approach to dealing with their employees. Drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), as proposed in section 2.1.3, it is suggested that by understanding the factors that affect individual attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, employers may find ways of encouraging positive attitudes and behaviour that will not only benefit the organisation but will also meet the tangible and socioemotional needs of employees (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). By promoting fairness and justice and balancing the needs of all role players and stakeholders, organisations will not only ensure more effective employment relations, which in turn contributes to the success of the organisation, but will also contribute to broader societal development (Nel et al., 2016; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012).

2.3 EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS

In this chapter, employment relations in South Africa was established as the metatheoretical context for the study. It was shown how employment relations as a field of study and practice (referred to as industrial relations at the time) originated in response to the class struggle with the onset of industrialisation (Ackers, 2011a). The inherent conflict in the employer-employee relationship was acknowledged, while unionism and collective action were widely accepted as a means of addressing this conflict (Kochan, 1980). Initially, however, the emphasis was not limited to conflict and collective relations, but also on finding ways of balancing individual employee needs, such as the need for job security and fair treatment, with the employer's need for organisational success (Dibben et al., 2011; Kochan, 1980). Over time, however, the focus of employment relations research moved away from workers' socioemotional needs to the attainment of organisational goals (Dunlop, 1958). Management scholars viewed trade unions and their tactics as undesirable, and employment relations research consequently fixated on finding ways of dealing with trade unions and collective conflict in organisations, giving rise to the institutionalisation of employment relations (Kaufman, 2011). Hence, employment relations became highly regulated as a means of managing the predominantly antagonistic relationships between employers and trade unions (Williams, 2014).

In the late 20th century, however, there was a move back to the broadening of the scope of employment relations (Kaufman, 2008; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). Contemporary employment relations literature is not limited to conflict, collective relationships and the institutionalisation and regulation of these relationships, but encompasses all dimensions (i.e. individual and collective; formal and informal) of the employment relationship (Kaufman, 2008; Kirton, 2011). Although this reconceptualisation of employment relations has also found support in South African literature (e.g. Nel et al., 2016; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012), the operationalisation thereof remains largely focused on trade unionism, collective bargaining and the regulation and institutionalisation of employer-trade union relations (Jordaan & Ulrich, 2016).

This study endorses a renewed focus on the employment relationship – in all its complexity and incorporating all its dimensions – as the core of employment relations (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012) as depicted in Figure 2.1. It is furthermore acknowledged that this relationship is characterised by both conflict and cooperation (Finnemore & Joubert, 2013; Mückenberger, 2016). It is postulated that the highly regulated and institutionalised nature of employment relations in South Africa (Chinguno, 2013) and the inability to align the individual and collective dimensions of the employment relationship (Jordaan & Cillie, 2015) are detrimental to building

positive employer-employee relations. While formalisation is important in providing the structure within which individuals and groups interact, a higher premium should be placed on the quality of exchange relationships between the parties (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011; Jordaan & Cillié, 2015).

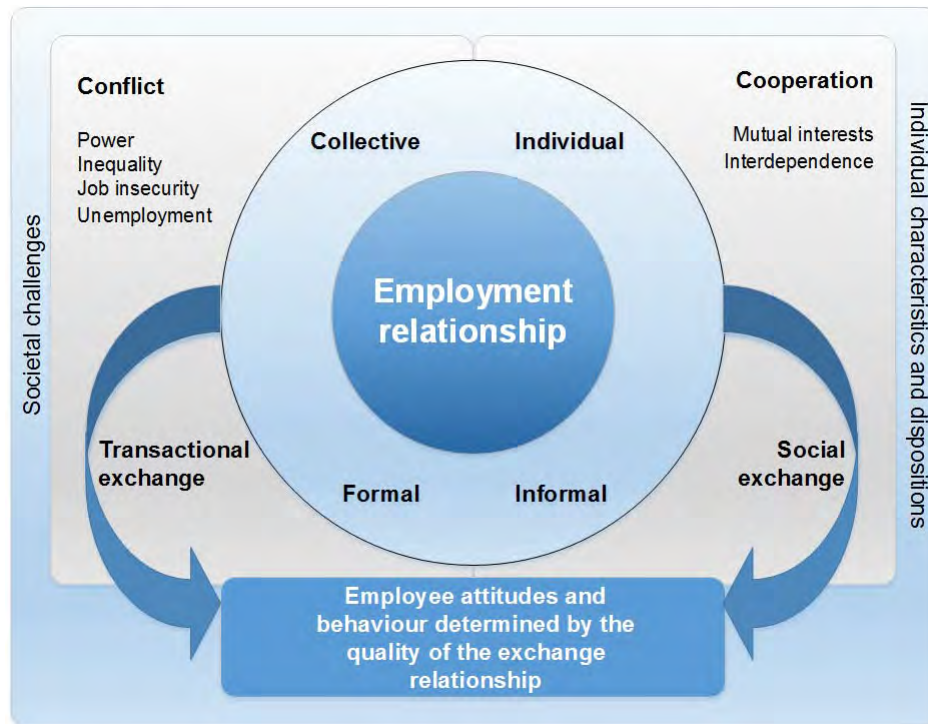


Figure 2.1. Conceptualisation of Employment Relations in a South African Organisational Context

This study draws on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) to advocate the significance of reciprocal exchange in the employment relationship (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). It is suggested that the parties continuously judge the costs and benefits associated with their relationships on the basis of the extent to which their expectations are fulfilled (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). These expectations are not limited to transactional or economic exchanges (e.g. wages and conditions of service in exchange for productivity), but include unspecified and unvoiced expectations and obligations (i.e. social exchange) (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015). High-quality social exchange relationships are assumed when relations are seen to be fair, considerate and trusting (Jordaan & Ulrich, 2016; Mückenberger, 2016; Potgieter et al., 2015). It is anticipated that employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace will inform their views on the quality of their exchange relationships with their employing organisations and that perceived high-quality exchange relationships will be reciprocated by positive attitudes and behaviour (Tremblay et al., 2010).

It was, however, shown in this chapter that employment relations in South Africa are highly adversarial and marked by continued labour unrest – often encouraged by militant trade unions (Beresford, 2012; Bhorat et al., 2014; Webster, 2015). It is thus anticipated that a substantial part of the workforce may hold negative views of the quality of their exchange relationships with their employing organisations. In terms of social exchange theory, it is suggested that the persisting antagonism in South African employment relations may be ascribed to employees' perceptions and experiences of injustice, inequality, abuse or indifference in their workplaces (Bal et al., 2010; El Akremi et al., 2010; Ng et al., 2014). Employers should heed and address these negative perceptions and experiences if they wish to avert undesirable attitudes and behaviour and enhance organisational success (Bal et al., 2010; Quratulain et al., 2016).

It was furthermore argued that employment relations in South Africa are subject to a number of challenges including, inter alia, increasing globalisation that is associated with higher levels of inequality, job insecurity and unemployment; a decrease in unionisation; and a move towards decentralisation of collective bargaining and nonstandard employment (Anstey, 2013; Barker, 2015; Jordaan & Cillie, 2015; Meardi, 2014; Mückenberger, 2016). Although trade union membership has weakened somewhat, trade unions remain significant role players in South African employment relations (Beresford, 2012; Bhorat et al., 2014; Webster, 2015) and collective disputes and disruptive, often violent, industrial action remain commonplace (Breakfast et al., 2016; Commission for Conciliation Mediation and Arbitration, 2017; Von Holdt, 2013). It is thus anticipated that a proportion of the workforce will be inclined to affiliate with trade unions and participate in union activities to express work-related dissatisfaction. Drawing on the work of Triandis (1995), it is suggested that employees' cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism may influence their belief in trade unionism and the extent to which they will rely on trade unions to resolve workplace concerns.

It is anticipated that the changing world of work, where nonstandard employment is escalating and trade unionism is declining, employers can no longer rely solely on labour legislation and collective agreements to regulate employment relations, as this has not succeeded in eradicating the persisting adversity and inequalities in South African organisations. Although organisations implement various rules and regulations in the form of policies and procedures to affect legal directives, the success of these policies and procedures is dependent on how employees perceive and experience them (Linde, Schalk, & Linde, 2008). Trust and commitment cannot be attained by means of rules and regulations and employees will not be willing to “go the extra mile” for their organisations unless they feel valued. It is therefore postulated that organisations should move away from their reliance on laws, rules, procedures

and policies and consider the individuals who ultimately make up the workforce – their dispositions, experiences, perceptions, attitudes and behaviour (i.e. the “soft” issues). This study therefore draws on the social exchange perspective on employment relations, which recognises its economic or legal dimensions but emphasises the reciprocal obligations and expectations between employers and employees (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Dundon & Rollinson, 2011).

On the basis of this conceptual background, it is postulated that employers who wish to enhance employee commitment to and behaviour in support of the organisation must determine how individual employees’ dispositions, perceptions and work experiences impact on the way they regard management, how they feel towards the organisation and ultimately how they behave in the workplace (Van der Vaart, Linde, & Cockeran, 2013). Employers cannot rely on legislation to change behaviour that is anchored in long-standing beliefs and has become entrenched by continuous adversarial, power-based and legalistic approaches by government, employers and trade unions alike. In order for organisations to attain the desired outcomes (long-term success) and contribute to the achievement of the national objectives (National Planning Commission, 2011), they need to consider the perceptions, attitudes and behaviour of their employees. Employers need to have a clear understanding of the individual dispositions, work-related perceptions and work experiences that create their particular worldviews. Considering these “soft” issues may restore trust in the employment relationship and alleviate the increasing levels of cynicism experienced by employees (Jordaan & Ulrich, 2016). This may, in turn, enhance employees’ commitment to the organisation and align their behaviour with its objectives, thereby enhancing positive behaviour and, ultimately, ensuring the sustainability of the organisation (Jordaan, 2013). The intended outcome should be to align employees’ relational attitudes and behaviour with the organisation’s objectives in order to ensure success at organisational level, while also providing for the individual needs of employees. In order to achieve this outcome, industrial and organisational psychologists and employment relations practitioners should develop and implement employment relations interventions aimed at increasing employees’ emotional attachment to their employing organisations (Allen & Meyer, 1990), eliminating behaviour that intentionally harms the organisation or people in it (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, 1997) and encouraging behaviour that collectively promotes the effective functioning of the organisation (Organ, 1988).

With this goal in mind, this study endeavoured to construct a psychological framework focusing on employees relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace and the work-related perceptions (POJ and POS)

and work experiences (psychological contract violation) that give rise to these attitudes and behaviour. It is furthermore posited that the challenges that exist in the South African employment relations environment have culminated in high levels of employee cynicism towards and diminished trust in organisations and their leaders. Organisational cynicism and trust are therefore expected to have a mediating effect on employees' attitudes and behaviours. Furthermore, it is anticipated that, given the cultural diversity of the South African workforce, employees' disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism may play an intervening role in the relationships between employees work-related perceptions and work experiences, the levels of organisational trust and cynicism they experience and their attitudinal and behavioural reactions to organisational events. Finally, it is expected that employees' personal characteristics (e.g. population group, age and gender) may influence employees' experiences in the workplace and the way in which they perceive and react to such experiences (Avery et al., 2012; Berry et al., 2007; Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Dohmen et al., 2008; Fullagar & Barling, 1989; Jayasingam et al., 2016; Sappey et al., 2014; Simpson & Kaminski, 2007).

The emphasis is on the employment relationship, viewed from a social exchange perspective, in a South African organisational setting. It is acknowledged that a host of additional constructs may be identified. It is, however, not possible to incorporate the full spectrum of constructs that may influence employee attitudes and behaviours in the workplace in a single study. The psychological constructs identified reflect those constructs regarded as most relevant within the South African employment relations environment as described in this chapter. The psychological constructs identified are work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour, organisational cynicism and trust as intervening variables, individualism/collectivism as a moderating variable and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviours (OCB and CWB) as relational outcomes (see Figure 1.2 in Chapter 1). The effect of individuals' biographical characteristics (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) are also considered.

2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the metatheoretical context that formed the definitive boundary of the research. The development of employment relations as a field of study was highlighted. This was followed by the conceptualisation of employment relations in a South African organisational context, culminating in the definition of employment relations to be adopted in

this study. The social exchange perspective and its relevance as a conceptual framework to view the nature of employment relations in South African organisations was discussed. In order to understand the specific societal context in which employment relations in South Africa need to be managed, an overview was provided of the development of employment relations as a field of study and application in South Africa as well as the unique challenges facing employment relations in the country. The importance of embracing the individual and informal dimensions of the employment relationship, instead of focusing mainly on the formal (legal and economic) and collective dimensions thereof, was stressed. It was proposed that a psychological framework incorporating the perceptions and work experiences of individuals in the workplace and their effect on relational attitudes and behaviour, as mediated by organisational cynicism and trust, will assist industrial and organisational psychologists and employment relations practitioners to better understand the reciprocal obligations and expectations in the employment relationship. Devising ways to meet individual expectations will, in turn, result in enhanced employee commitment to and behaviour in support of the organisation. It is furthermore proposed that employees' cultural dispositions towards individualism/collectivism may influence the strength of these relationships – a consideration that has not been fully explored in South African employment relations.

The following research aim in terms of the literature review was achieved in this chapter:

Literature research aim 1: To conceptualise employment relations in the South African organisational context

Chapter 3 will address literature research aim 2 intended to conceptualise relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a set of relational outcomes or consequences in employment relations. Chapter 3 therefore explores the theoretical underpinnings of each of the relational attitudes and behaviours deemed as essential within an employment relations context as approached from a social exchange perspective.

CHAPTER 3: RELATIONAL ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR IN THE WORKPLACE

Keywords: affective commitment (AC), continuance commitment (CC), counterproductive work behaviour (CWB), normative commitment (NC), organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), organisational commitment, psychological contract, social exchange theory, union commitment

The aim of this chapter is to conceptualise relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a set of relational outcomes or consequences of employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences in a South African employment relations context. The focus is thus on the dependent variables reflected in Figure 3.1.

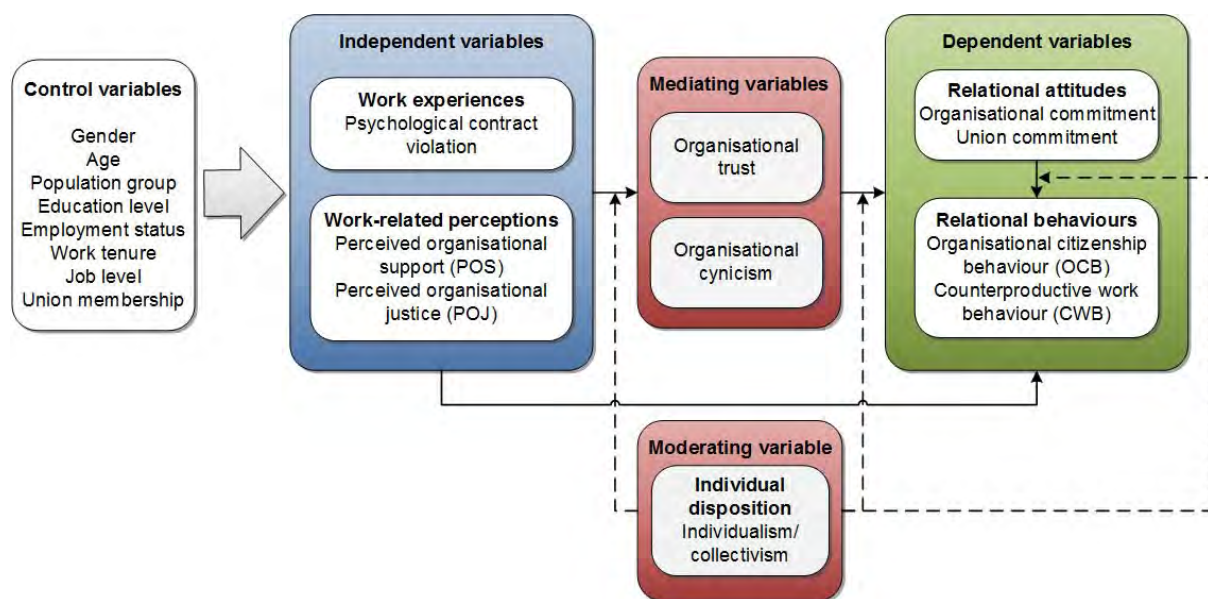


Figure 3.1. An Overview of the Relationships between the Control, Independent, Mediating, Moderating and Dependent Variables

As point of departure, the core theoretical framework (social exchange theory) (Blau, 1964) that is relied upon to examine relational attitudes and behaviour in this study is described. The prominence of the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989, 1995) within this framework is accentuated. It is suggested that a better understanding of employees' unspecified and unvoiced work-related expectations and their reactions to workplace events (reflecting the extent to which these expectations are met) may be gleaned by focusing on the psychological contract (Alcover et al., 2017a).

This is followed by the conceptualisation of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) as opposing forms of discretionary employee behaviour, either in support of or detrimental to their employing organisations and/or individuals in them (Organ, 1997; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The relevant theoretical models are discussed, the relationship between OCB and CWB is investigated, person-centred variables that have been shown to impact on these forms of behaviour are considered and the relevance of employee discretionary behaviour in a South African employment relations context is critically evaluated. The behavioural outcomes serve as the point of departure for the discussion of the constructs of relevance to this study as it is envisaged that these behaviours will not only be affected by the independent, mediating, moderating and control variables (see Figure 3.1 above), but also by employees' relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment).

Organisational commitment is thus presented as a relational outcome as well as a significant predictor of both positive (OCB) (Cetin et al., 2015; Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016) and negative (CWB) discretionary employee behaviour in the workplace (Demir, 2011; Wang, 2015). It is anticipated that employees' discretionary behaviour is not influenced by their affective attachment (affective commitment) to the organisation only, but that this attachment is interrelated with employees' acknowledgement of the potential consequences of leaving the organisation (continuance commitment) and a perceived moral responsibility to remain with the organisation (normative commitment) (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). It is furthermore shown that, in unionised employment relations environments – especially those in which adversarial employer-trade union relationships prevail – trade union members' commitment to their employing organisations and their subsequent behaviour in the workplace may be adversely affected by their commitment to their unions (Angle & Perry, 1986). The constructs of organisational commitment and union commitment are consequently conceptualised in terms of extant literature, relevant theoretical models are investigated and the possibility of achieving dual commitment to the organisation and trade union is explored. Those person-centred variables that have been shown to influence how organisational and union commitment are developed and experienced by individual employees are reported. Finally, the implications of employees' commitment towards their employing organisations and/or trade unions for employment relations in South African organisations are critically evaluated.

3.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR UNDERSTANDING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR IN THE WORKPLACE

Various theoretical perspectives have been relied upon in the literature to gain a better understanding of the relationships between individuals and their employing organisations (Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, & Tetrick, 2012b). In support of the rational choice paradigm adopted in this study (see section 1.6.1), social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) is regarded as an appropriate theoretical foundation for gaining a better understanding of employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Social exchange theory can be regarded as a multidisciplinary theoretical perspective that describes how various kinds of resources (both tangible and intangible) can be exchanged among individuals or other social entities (such as organisations) by following certain rules and how such exchanges determine the quality of relationships (Colquitt et al., 2013, 2014; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). According to Blau's (1964) exchange theory, individuals may engage in economic and social exchanges. Economic exchange is generally short term, and involves the exchange of tangible or economic resources in a *quid pro quo* fashion. In contrast, social exchange is described as the subjective, relationship-oriented interactions between employees and their employing organisations (Lavelle et al., 2007). It involves the exchange of socioemotional benefits with open-ended obligations and is governed by the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960; Loi, Lam, Ngo, & Cheong, 2015). The norm of reciprocity creates a sense of obligation to repay beneficial behaviour in kind (Bernerth & Walker, 2009).

Social exchange reflects the continuous subjective cost-benefit analysis by the parties to the employment relationship and their reactions to perceived imbalances in the relationship (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). It was therefore suggested in Chapter 2 (section 2.1.3) that social exchange theory may be regarded as an appropriate theoretical lens for studying employment relations. It was indicated that employees enter into social exchanges with employers in order to attain tangible and intangible work-related benefits (inducements and resources) in return for particular inputs (work effort and contributions) (Birtch et al., 2016). Hence, both parties to the exchange relationship strive to maintain a balance in terms of the contributions made. Employees do not only consider the costs and benefits of entering into an employment relationship, but also continuously judge whether the balance is maintained, adjusting their contributions accordingly (Tekleab & Chiaburu, 2011).

Social exchange theory therefore posits that employees seek a fair and balanced relationship between themselves and their employing organisations providing a general approach to

understanding how employees are likely to respond when they experience particular events in the workplace (Cropanzano & Baron, 1991; Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewé, & Johnson, 2003a; Li, Feng, Liu, & Cheng, 2014; Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, 2003). Employees become sensitive to events that may threaten the balance in the relationship, often attributing an imbalance to injustice and a lack of support from the employer (Collins, 2017; Suazo, Turnley, & Mai, 2005). In order to restore balance to the exchange relationship, employees reciprocate by adjusting their attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation (Parzefall, 2008).

The reciprocal expectations that employees hold with regard to their relationships with their employing organisations and the extent to which these expectations are perceived as being fulfilled are considered fundamental elements of the social exchange relationship (Collins, 2017). These expectations, which are reflected in the psychological contract, are subjective and individualistic in nature and include not only the benefits to be gained from the relationship, but also the obligations that are expected to be fulfilled (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011; Rousseau, 1995). The psychological contract is thus conceptualised as being central to the social exchange relationship that exists between individuals and their employing organisations (Alcover et al., 2017b; Suazo et al., 2005) and a significant theoretical lens for investigating relationships in the workplace (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2010; Shore et al., 2012a).

The psychological contract, which is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 4 (see section 4.2.1), describes the mutual obligations that employers and employees are committed to in the workplace (Alcover et al., 2017a). The organisation's fulfilment of its obligations and promises is expected to result in the exchange of positive outcomes between employees and their employing organisations and consequently high-quality exchange relationships (Karagonlar et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2018). Thus, when one party makes great efforts to improve the quality of the exchange relationship, the other party is expected to reciprocate by displaying positive attitudes towards the organisation and engaging in behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation (Lv & Xu, 2018). In contrast, employees who perceive that they have made certain contributions to the organisation that have not been reciprocated by the employer may adapt the level of their contributions to the organisation (e.g. by reducing their efforts and performance) or consider leaving the organisation in order to restore the balance in the social exchange relationship (Arshad, 2016; López Bohle et al., 2017).

From the above it may be deduced that social exchange theory, supported by the notion of the psychological contract, provides a sound theoretical framework for understanding attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Lv & Xu, 2018; Ng et al., 2014). It is argued that employment

relationships are complex and that a variety of factors impact on employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Parzefall & Coyle-Shapiro, 2011; Persson & Wasieleski, 2015). In terms of social exchange theory, employees have certain expectations of employers' obligations in the employment relationship. These obligations are not limited to those specified in the formal contract of employment, but are based on a subjective assessment made by the employee and reflected in the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995). In terms of the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), it is anticipated that an employee who perceives that his or her employer fulfils its obligations in terms of the psychological contract will reciprocate by being loyal and committed towards the organisation (McInnis, Meyer, & Feldman, 2009; Rodwell & Ellershaw, 2015) and engaging in activities that benefit it (Chiang et al., 2013; Coyle-Shapiro, 2002). Conversely, if the employee feels that the employer does not fulfil its obligations, he or she may reciprocate by distancing himself or herself from the organisation and engaging in activities that are detrimental to it (Jensen, Opland, & Ryan, 2010; Jepsen & Rodwell, 2010). Employees' actions are thus determined by a cognitive evaluation of the costs and benefits associated with the employment relationship (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). This evaluation is based on their judgements about organisational events and perceived imbalances resulting from this evaluation (Parzefall & Coyle-Shapiro, 2011; Suazo et al., 2005).

It is therefore postulated that, in order to construct an integrated framework reflecting the complexity of employment relations in the workplace, social exchange theory should be regarded as an appropriate theoretical foundation that contributes to a better understanding of employees' relational attitudes and behaviour and their antecedents in the workplace. It is furthermore suggested that the psychological contract elucidates the expectations held by employees in the workplace, and should therefore be considered a core element of social exchange relationships. This chapter therefore draws on social exchange theory and incorporates the role of the psychological contract in expounding employee expectations in the workplace, in order to conceptualise relational attitudes and behaviour that are deemed essential in establishing positive employment relationships in South African organisations. The remainder of this chapter is dedicated to conceptualising relational attitudes and behaviour that are deemed essential in an employment relations context. First, employees' discretionary behaviour (both positive and negative) in the workplace is explored. This behaviour is regarded as a reflection of their observations about the quality of the social exchange relationship and fundamental in shaping the organisational, social and psychological context in which all organisational activities take place (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). This is followed by an analysis of employees' commitment to two potentially contradictory entities, namely their employing organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1988, 1991, 1997)

and trade unions (Gordon et al., 1980a), which are regarded as attitudinal reactions to workplace events and potential predictors of relational behaviour (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Redman & Snape, 2016; Zhao et al., 2007).

3.2 DISCRETIONARY EMPLOYEE BEHAVIOUR

Extant literature shows that it is not sufficient to focus on employees' formal job performance as a means of ensuring organisational effectiveness only, as employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace shapes the organisational, social and psychological context that serves as the catalyst for task activities and formal processes (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). It has been argued that, in the modern workplace, which is characterised by increased competition, nontraditional working conditions, job insecurity and technological advancement, employees' discretionary behaviour is becoming progressively more important (Weikamp & Göritz, 2016).

Discretionary employee behaviour may be either positive (i.e. aimed at benefiting the organisation or people in it) (Carpenter et al., 2014; Organ, 1997; Wang, 2015) or negative (i.e. behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or people in it) (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Skarlicki & Latham, 1997). In this study, these two distinct categories of discretionary behaviour that have been shown to have implications for organisational functioning are referred to as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) (Reynolds et al., 2015).

The extent to which employees engage in both positive (OCB) and negative (CWB) discretionary behaviour in the workplace has gained increasing prominence in organisational research due to its impact on organisational-level outcomes such as productivity and efficiency (Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009; Lee & Allen, 2002; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Various studies have shown that, when employees display frequent OCB, this facilitates greater dissemination of knowledge and expertise and thereby enhances productivity and cooperation which, in turn, enhances organisational effectiveness (Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016; Park, 2018). In contrast, CWB has been shown to have serious economic consequences for organisations (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Shoss et al., 2016) impacting on sustained survival and success (Dalal, 2005; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Spector & Fox, 2005). CWB may furthermore have negative consequences at an individual level, resulting in, for instance, decreased job satisfaction and well-being, increased stress and anxiety and intentions to quit by individuals who are the targets of such behaviour (Berry,

Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012; Cohen, 2016; Shoss et al., 2016; Whelpley & McDaniel, 2016). CWB therefore affects not only the performance and well-being of the employee engaging in such behaviour but also individuals interacting with this employee as well as the organisation as an entity (Whelpley & McDaniel, 2016). Hence, CWB has a detrimental effect on relations in the workplace.

Organisations in competitive and dynamic environments are increasingly relying on their employees' citizenship (i.e. their willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour and refrain from engaging in negative discretionary behaviour) to enhance their social capital and thereby their competitive advantage (Methot et al., 2017). Discretionary employee behaviour has thus become vital for effective organisational functioning (Bester et al., 2015). The social exchange relationship and the parties' reciprocal obligations in terms of this relationship are therefore gaining significance (Moorman & Byrne, 2005; Park, 2018). Discretionary behaviour can, however, by its very nature, not be mandatory or enforced by means of contracts of employment (Methot et al., 2017). Hence, organisations need to find ways in which employees can be encouraged to engage in positive discretionary behaviour and discouraged to engage in behaviour that may be detrimental to the organisation or people in it. Drawing on social exchange theory, it is argued that this can be achieved by creating high-quality exchange relationships between employees and their employing organisations (Cardona, Lawrence, & Bentler, 2004).

In this section, the focus is on employees' voluntary behaviour in the workplace. The constructs of OCB and CWB are conceptualised and the relevant theoretical models outlined. The way in which these constructs may interact with one another in the workplace is explored and their relevance in an employment relations context discussed. The ways in which the high-quality exchange relationships can be created to encourage positive discretionary behaviour and discourage negative behaviour are examined in Chapter 4.

3.2.1 Conceptualisation of organisational citizenship behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has long been regarded as individual employee behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that collectively promotes the effective functioning of the organisation (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Bateman and Organ (1983) were the first to use the term "OCB" to describe behaviour that falls outside the agreed tasks and required performance of employees. OCB was thus initially conceptualised as discretionary, nonrewarded behaviour that contributes to organisational effectiveness (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988).

From the outset, Organ (1988) anticipated some anomalies in the conceptualisation of OCB, which were confirmed by subsequent studies. It was argued, for instance, that what is regarded as discretionary may vary, depending on individual perceptions and different contexts, and that certain behaviours, although not directly rewarded, may result in indirect rewards (e.g. a promotion or salary increase) (Morrison, 1994). Recognising the difficulties associated with his initial conceptualisation of OCB, Organ (1997, p. 91) redefined the construct as employee behaviour that contributes “to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance”. In contemporary literature, OCB therefore encompasses intentional, discretionary employee behaviour that exceeds the minimum requirements of the job and supports the social and psychological work environments resulting in greater organisational effectiveness (Methot et al., 2017).

This modified definition of OCB is similar to Borman and Motowidlo's (1993, 1997) definition of contextual performance (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). Borman and Motowidlo (1997) describe contextual performance as activities that shape the organisational, social and psychological context that facilitates task activities and processes, thereby contributing to organisational effectiveness. These activities include volunteering to perform tasks that are not part of one's formal job requirements; persisting with the enthusiasm and extra effort required to complete one's task activities successfully; assisting and cooperating with others; following organisational rules and procedures even when they are inconvenient; and endorsing, supporting and defending organisational objectives (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). The main difference between Borman and Motowidlo's (1993, 1997) conceptualisation of contextual performance and Organ's (1988, 1997) OCB relates to its antecedents. While Borman and Motowidlo (1993, 1997) theorised that contextual performance is predicted by dispositional factors, Organ (1988, 1997) suggested that, while employees' willingness to engage in OCB may be impacted on by disposition and personality characteristics, its main determinants are attitudinal factors and cognitive assessments of the working environment (Organ & Ryan, 1995).

OCB has also been shown to be closely related to constructs such as prosocial organisational behaviour, organisational spontaneity and extra-role behaviour. Prosocial organisational behaviour refers to social acts performed by individuals in an organisational context which are aimed at contributing towards the well-being of the individuals or groups to whom the behaviour is directed (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Prosocial organisational behaviour is a broader construct than OCB as it encompasses both voluntary and prescribed behaviour. It may also relate to both functional and dysfunctional employee behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; George, 1991; Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995).

Organisational spontaneity, as defined by George and Brief (1992), relates to extra-role behaviours that are performed voluntarily and contribute to organisational effectiveness. Organisational spontaneity may take five distinct forms, namely helping co-workers, protecting the organisation, making constructive suggestions, developing oneself and spreading goodwill (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997). Van Dyne et al. (1995) regard extra-role behaviour as any discretionary behaviour that goes beyond formal role expectations and benefits or is intended to benefit the organisation. Extra-role behaviour is intentional, voluntary and positive in nature. It is not formally rewarded and employees cannot be penalised for not engaging in such behaviour. Employees engage in such behaviour in order to benefit the organisation or individuals in the organisation and not for self-interest (Van Dyne et al., 1995).

Although a certain degree of overlap exists between Organ's (1988) initial conceptualisation of OCB, organisational spontaneity and prosocial organisational behaviour, there are also significant differences (George & Jones, 1997; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). For instance, in contrast to OCB reflecting nonrewarded, voluntary behaviour, both prosocial organisational behaviour and organisational spontaneity include behaviour that is recognised by the formal reward system (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). If, for example, suggestions for improvement by employees are formally rewarded, such behaviour will not be regarded as OCB in terms of Organ's (1988) definition. However, as such suggestions typically do not fall within the ambit of formal role requirements and contribute to the effectiveness of the organisation, they will be regarded as organisational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992).

In terms of Organ's (1997) reconceptualisation of OCB, it remains distinct from obligatory performance (i.e. task performance), but it is recognised that such behaviours may result in indirect rewards (e.g. promotions or higher performance evaluations by supervisors). Organ (1997) maintains, however, that such rewards are not (and should not be) guaranteed and do not form part of the organisation's formal reward policy.

Irrespective of the differences between these constructs, it is clear that the intended focus of OCB is on voluntary behaviours that involve cooperation and helping others in an organisational context in order to facilitate organisational functioning (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, & Laczko, 2006; Yang, Ding, & Lo, 2016). The defining characteristics of OCB are that the behaviour is nonjob-specific and discretionary (Chiaburu, Oh, Wang, & Stoverink, 2017). For the purposes of this study, OCB is thus regarded as positive discretionary employee behaviour in the workplace, and specifically, constructive behaviour that an employee voluntarily engages in, over and above his or her agreed-upon tasks, in support of the organisation and people in it (Carpenter et al., 2014; Organ, 1997).

OCB entails small acts of goodwill towards the organisation or individuals in it that have a cumulative benefit but may not be deemed especially beneficial in isolation (Van Dyne et al., 1995). It consists of behaviours that extend beyond specific role requirements – it may or may not be rewarded (i.e. reward is not certain), but employees should not feel pressured to engage in such behaviour (Bolino, Hsiung, Harvey, & LePine, 2015; Wang & Sung, 2016). OCBs are performed voluntarily and, although they are not critical to the task or job, they serve to facilitate organisational functioning and enhance organisational effectiveness (Lee & Allen, 2002).

3.2.2 Theoretical models of organisational citizenship behaviour

Organ's (1988) five-component model of citizenship behaviour has been described as one of the most well-recognised and influential taxonomies in organisational behaviour literature (LePine et al., 2002). This section therefore commences with a description of Organ's (1988) seminal model of OCB, followed by a brief outline of alternative taxonomies of OCB that have been proposed in extant literature, and concludes with the multifoci view of OCB adopted in more recent studies.

3.2.2.1 Organ's five-component model of organisational citizenship behaviour

Although interest in employees' voluntary behaviour (as opposed to task performance) can be traced back to the work of Barnard (1938), Katz (1964), and Katz and Kahn (1978), Bateman and Organ (1983) were the first to use the term "organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)" for behaviour that falls outside the agreed tasks and required performance of employees. Examples of such behaviour include the following: helping co-workers to resolve job-related problems; readily accepting instructions; enduring temporary burdens without complaining; helping to keep work areas tidy; making constructive comments about the organisation and its people when talking to outsiders; upholding a supportive work climate; minimising distractions resulting from interpersonal conflict; and safeguarding organisational resources. Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) differentiated between altruism and generalised compliance as two separate dimensions of OCB. Altruism was regarded as behaviour aimed at helping individuals in an organisational context, while generalised compliance reflected compliance with rules, norms and expectations (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007).

Organ (1988), building on the work done by Smith et al. (1983), emphasised that OCB encompasses behaviour that does not form part of an employee's formal job responsibilities

and is not explicitly rewarded. Drawing on social exchange theory, Organ (1988) suggested that employees who experience high-quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations are more likely to engage in discretionary behaviour that contributes to organisational effectiveness. Based on prior research (e.g. Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983), Organ (1988) identified the following five different ways in which employees can display OCB:

- **Altruism** (or simply helpfulness) consists of voluntarily actions aimed at helping others with organisationally relevant tasks. This may include voluntarily assisting with the onboarding process when new employees are appointed, sharing useful knowledge or skills with co-workers or showing co-workers effective ways of accomplishing difficult tasks.
- **Conscientiousness** is a discretionary behaviour that goes well beyond the minimum requirements set by the organisation – for instance, not taking extended breaks and working after hours to ensure that tasks are completed on time.
- **Sportsmanship** is the demonstration of willingness to tolerate minor and temporary personal inconveniences and impositions experienced in the workplace without resorting to complaining, lodging grievances or appeals, making accusations or engaging in protest actions, thereby sustaining organisational energies for task accomplishment and easing managers' workloads.
- **Courtesy** is demonstrated by an employee who avoids creating problems or difficulties for co-workers and thereby contributes to upholding low levels of interpersonal and intergroup conflict in the organisation, ensuring that managers do not have to spend valuable time and resources to reactively deal with conflict and strained relations.
- **Civic virtue** is behaviour on the part of an individual that indicates that the employee responsibly participates in, is involved in or concerned about the continued survival of the organisation. This dimension represents a macro-level interest in or commitment to the organisation. It shows willingness to participate actively in managerial events, to monitor the organisation's environment for threats and opportunities and to look out for the organisation's best interests.

Organ (1990b) subsequently proposed that helping behaviour should be regarded as a composite construct incorporating altruism, courtesy and two additional dimensions, namely peacekeeping and cheerleading as these dimensions share a common theme – helping co-workers to solve or avoid work-related problems. Peacekeeping refers to actions that help to prevent, resolve or mitigate dysfunctional interpersonal conflict, while cheerleading involves

the words and gestures of encouragement and reinforcement of co-workers' accomplishments and professional development (Organ, 1990b; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006).

3.2.2.2 *Alternative taxonomies of citizenship behaviour dimensions*

Following the seminal work of Organ and his colleagues (Organ, 1988; Smith et al., 1983), Podsakoff et al. (1990) were among the first researchers to operationalise their dimensions of OCB by developing a measure of OCB that consisted of subscales for each of the dimensions theorised (Mahembe, Engelbrecht, Chinyamurindi, & Kandekande, 2015). This was followed by several other proposed taxonomies of OCB as indicated in Table 3.1. The conceptualisation of the behavioural dimensions included in these taxonomies differs and therefore, although they overlap with each other to various degrees, a direct comparison is not conceivable (LePine et al., 2002).

From the summary provided in Table 3.1, it is evident that researchers have suggested a number of dimensions of OCB. Although the emphasis in these taxonomies has largely been on behaviour intended to help others in the organisation (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Coleman & Borman, 2000; George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997; Graham, 1989; Morrison, 1994; Organ, 1988, 1990a, 1990b; Smith et al., 1983; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; Williams & Anderson, 1991), additional behavioural dimensions, essentially reflecting employees' willingness to engage in voluntary behaviour that benefits their employing organisations, are also reflected. These behaviours include, inter alia, sportsmanship (Morrison, 1994; Organ, 1988, 1990a, 1990b), organisational loyalty (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Graham, 1991; Van Dyne et al., 1994), conscientiousness and initiative (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Morrison, 1994; Organ, 1988, 1990a, 1990b) and organisational involvement (Graham, 1991; Morrison, 1994; Organ, 1988, 1990a, 1990b).

Table 3.1

Taxonomies of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Helping behaviour	Sportsmanship	Civic virtue	Individual initiative	Organisational compliance	Organisational loyalty	Self-development	Persistence in completing own job or task
Smith, Organ and Near's (1983) dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour							
Altruism				Generalised compliance			
Organ's (1988, 1990a, 1990b) model of organisational citizenship behaviour							
Altruism Courtesy Peacemaking Cheerleading	Sportsmanship	Civic virtue	Conscientiousness				
Graham's (1989) four-dimension model of organisational citizenship behaviour (see Moorman & Blakely, 1995)							
Interpersonal helping			Personal industry Individual initiative		Loyalty boosterism		
Graham's (1991) extension of political philosophy (civic citizenship) to organisational citizenship behaviour							
		Organisational participation		Organisational obedience	Organisational loyalty		
Williams and Anderson's (1991) focus on the beneficiaries of organisational citizenship behaviour							
OCB that benefits individuals (OCB-I)	OCB that benefit the organisation in general (OCB-O)						
Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienes's (1994) reconceptualisation of organisational citizenship behaviour in terms of civic citizenship							
Social participation	Loyalty	Obedience					Functional participation
Morrison's (1994) emphasis on understanding employee role definitions when engaging in organisational citizenship behaviour							
Altruism	Sportsmanship	Involvement	Conscientiousness				
		Keeping up with changes					

Helping behaviour	Sportsmanship	Civic virtue	Individual initiative	Organisational compliance	Organisational loyalty	Self-development	Persistence in completing own job or task
George and colleagues' (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997) research on organisational spontaneity and its relationship with OCB							
Helping co-workers		Protecting the organisation	Making constructive suggestions		Spreading goodwill	Developing oneself	
Borman and Motowidlo's (1993, 1997) taxonomy of contextual performance							
Helping and cooperating with others			Persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort Volunteering to carry out task activities	Following organisational rules and procedures	Endorsing, supporting and defending organisational objectives		
Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) refinement of the contextual performance construct							
Interpersonal facilitation	Job dedication						Job dedication
Coleman and Borman's (2000) integrated model of citizenship performance							
Interpersonal citizenship performance	Organisational citizenship performance						Job/task citizenship performance

Source: Adapted from Coleman & Borman (2000, p. 40); LePine et al. (2002, pp. 53–54); Podsakoff et al. (2000, pp. 518–525).

Note: Van Dyne et al. (1994) identified a fifth dimension, namely advocacy participation, which reflects assertiveness and a willingness to be controversial (e.g. challenging others and making suggestions for change). This dimension, however, is not reflected in most conceptualisations of OCB (Coleman & Borman, 2000) and is thus omitted from the above table.

The disparities in the proposed taxonomies are due, in part, to different conceptualisations of OCB (i.e. viewing constructs such as prosocial organisational behaviour, organisational spontaneity and extra-role behaviour as being synonymous with OCB) and difficulties experienced in determining what constitutes in-role (i.e. task performance) and discretionary employee behaviour (Morrison, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Because of the proliferation of OCB dimensions and the overlap that has been shown to exist, researchers have become interested in identifying ways to clarify citizenship behaviour's nomological network (Lavelle et al., 2007). While it has been suggested that OCB should be regarded as a unidimensional construct (Hoffman et al., 2007), this view has received only limited support (Phipps, Prieto, & Deis, 2015). Instead, two approaches to combining behavioural elements into conceptually distinct subgroups have been utilised (LePine et al., 2002). The first approach entails grouping these elements in terms of types of behaviour (e.g. Podsakoff et al., 2000), while the second involves grouping them in terms of the beneficiary of the behaviour (e.g. Coleman & Borman, 2000; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Podsakoff et al. (2000) critically examined various taxonomies of OCB exploring the conceptual similarities and differences between numerous forms of citizenship behaviour. These researchers (Podsakoff et al., 2000) subsequently suggested that, although different taxonomies of OCB exist in the literature, the dimensions of citizenship behaviour that have been identified fall into the following seven categories (see Table 3.1):

- **Helping behaviour:** Voluntarily helping others with or preventing occurrence of work-related problems.
- **Sportsmanship:** Refraining from complaining when inconvenienced by others and feeling offended when suggestions made are not embraced; maintaining a positive attitude and a willingness to sacrifice personal interest for the benefit of the organisation.
- **Civic virtue:** Taking a macro-level interest in or commitment to the organisation as a whole.
- **Individual initiative:** Engaging in task-related behaviours at a level that is so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary flavour.
- **Organisational compliance:** Internalising and accepting the organisation's rules, regulations and procedures, resulting in a scrupulous adherence to them, even when no one observes or monitors compliance.

- **Organisational loyalty:** Promoting the organisation to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats, and remaining committed to it even under adverse conditions.
- **Self-development:** Engaging in voluntary behaviour aimed at improving knowledge, skills and abilities.

As shown in Table 3.1, some taxonomies of OCB include an additional dimension reflecting employees' persistence in completing their own jobs or tasks (Coleman & Borman, 2000; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Coleman and Borman (2000) posit that, although it may be argued that this dimension falls outside the intended scope of OCB (i.e. nontask-related activities), demonstrating citizenship towards one's own job is a logical extension to the notion of expressing citizenship towards others in the organisation or the organisation itself. Nonetheless, the number of citizenship behaviours identified in the literature remain abundant and tend to overlap (Coleman & Borman, 2000; Lilly, 2015; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Grouping these behaviours in terms of the intended beneficiaries of the behaviour and thereby differentiating between explicit forms of OCB (i.e. a target-based conceptualisation of OCB) (e.g. Coleman & Borman, 2000; Lee & Allen, 2002; Williams & Anderson, 1991) has, as a result, gained increased attention and support in extant organisational citizenship literature (Lavelle et al., 2007). In terms of this multifoci approach, it is suggested that employees intentionally direct their voluntary behaviour in the workplace towards particular entities such as peers, supervisors, customers, groups or the organisation (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Lavelle et al., 2007). A more parsimonious two-dimensional approach, focusing on the employing organisation and individuals in it as the beneficiaries of OCB, has therefore been suggested.

3.2.2.3 *A multifoci approach to OCB*

The multifoci approach to OCB has its roots in Smith et al.'s (1983) conceptualisation thereof in terms of altruism and generalised compliance. In terms of this approach, it is presumed that specific OCBs benefit particular entities (Hassan, Azim, & Abbas, 2017). While some behaviours relate to helping individuals, others refer to a more impersonal conscientiousness in relation to the organisation (Yang et al., 2016). The most broadly applicable distinction, adopting a multifoci or targeted approach, is that of Williams and Anderson (1991), which differentiates between the employing organisation or individuals in it as targets of positive discretionary behaviour (Harari, Reaves, & Viswesvaran, 2016).

Williams and Anderson (1991) proposed two broad categories of OCB, namely OCB directed towards the organisation (OCB-O) and OCB directed towards individuals in the organisation (OCB-I). OCB-O includes behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation in general, such as adhering to informal rules devised to ensure an orderly working environment. OCB-I entails behaviour that benefits specific individuals in the organisation thereby indirectly contributing to effective functioning in the organisation, such as providing a co-worker with advice and assistance that will enable him or her to perform better (Williams & Anderson, 1991). This approach does not deter support for Organ's (1988) taxonomy and was in fact supported by Organ (1997) in his reconceptualisation of OCB. It has furthermore been posited that each of Organ's (Organ, 1988, 1990a, 1990b) forms of citizenship behaviour can be regarded as being directed at either individuals in the organisation or the organisation as an entity (Lavelle et al., 2007). While individuals are typically considered to be the most direct beneficiary of altruism and other helping behaviours such as courtesy, peacekeeping and cheerleading, the organisation is commonly regarded as the main beneficiary of civic virtue, sportsmanship and conscientiousness (Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Lavelle et al., 2007; LePine et al., 2002; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Robinson & Morrison, 1995).

Williams and Anderson's (1991) distinction between OCB-O and OCB-I does not only support Organ's (Organ, 1988, 1990a, 1990b) taxonomy of OCB but also accommodates OCB dimensions suggested in alternative taxonomies. For instance, OCB-O may be regarded as encompassing a range of behavioural dimensions relating to sportsmanship, civic virtue, individual initiative, organisational compliance and, to some extent, organisational loyalty (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997; Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Morrison, 1994; Organ, 1997; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCB-O dimension largely correlates with Coleman and Borman's (2000) organisational citizenship performance. OCB-O is mainly driven by extrinsic job cognitions such as perceived justice (e.g. in terms of remuneration remuneration) and support (Lilly, 2015; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

OCB-I, in turn, incorporates behavioural dimensions reflecting individuals' willingness to voluntarily help others in the workplace (Williams & Anderson, 1991), and is similar to Coleman and Borman's (2000) interpersonal citizenship performance dimension. This helping behaviour towards individuals in the organisation essentially corresponds with interpersonal helping (Moorman & Blakely, 1995), social participation (Van Dyne et al., 1994), altruism (Morrison, 1994; Organ, 1988, 1990a; Smith et al., 1983), helping co-workers (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997) and interpersonal facilitation (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

The main determinants of OCB-I relate to intrinsic job cognitions such as satisfaction derived from helping others (Lilly, 2015; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Coleman and Borman (2000) identified a third dimension entitled “job-task citizenship performance”, which refers to behaviour that reflects extra effort and persistence on the job, dedication to the job and the desire to maximise one’s own job performance. Although this dimension does not form part of Organ’s (1988, 1997) notion of OCB, it does correspond to some extent with Van Dyne et al.’s (1994) functional participation dimension and Van Scotter and Motowidlo’s (1996) job dedication. However, Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) emphasise the essential difference between job-related performance and OCB: While job-related performance reflects an individual’s ability to perform his or her tasks effectively, OCB or contextual performance relates to helping others to perform their tasks effectively. OCB thus accentuates interpersonal skills and motivation to interact with others in order to foster positive relationships, which will facilitate organisational efficiency.

Although Williams and Anderson’s (1991) two-dimensional model of OCB has been criticised because of the strong correlation between OCB-O and OCB-I found in some studies (Dalal, 2005; Hoffman et al., 2007; LePine et al., 2002), the clear conceptual distinction between the dimensions and the fact that they are driven by different motives have merited continued use in OCB research (Weikamp & Göritz, 2016). Extant research has shown that OCB-O represents impersonal behaviour that arises from an organisational concern, while OCB-I represents interpersonal behaviour that arises primarily from prosocial values (Bourdage, Lee, Lee, & Shin, 2012; Finkelstein, 2006; Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Ilies et al., 2007; Rioux & Penner, 2001).

In summary, a number of concepts closely related to OCB exist in the literature. Different taxonomies of the nature of OCB and its behavioural dimensions have also been developed. Various researchers have indicated that there is not necessarily a single model that would apply in all contexts and that different models are likely to be more or less useful for different purposes (Coleman & Borman, 2000). Organ’s (1988) five-dimensional framework has, however, received the greatest amount of support in empirical OCB research (LePine et al., 2002). Although it is regarded as appropriate to consider specific OCB dimensions (i.e. forms of behaviour) in isolation when the aim of the research is to gain a better understanding of behaviour that is deemed important in a particular context (LePine et al., 2002), this was not the case in the current study. In this study, categorising various citizenship behaviours in terms of the intended beneficiaries of the behaviour, as advocated by Williams and Anderson (1991), was deemed more appropriate. Williams and Anderson’s taxonomy (1991) has been shown

to incorporate the dimensions of OCB identified in Organ's (1988, 1990a, 1990b) seminal work as well as a number of other forms of OCB described in the literature (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Cetin et al. (2015), in their meta-analysis of 86 studies, confirmed the theoretical and empirical soundness of this relatively simple contextual framework.

For the purposes of this study, OCB is regarded as a general tendency to be cooperative and helpful in an organisational environment (LePine et al., 2002; Motowidlo, 2000; Organ, 1997). This tendency manifests in a variety of behaviours that are beneficial to the organisation or individuals in it (Bolino et al., 2015; Coleman & Borman, 2000; Williams & Anderson, 1991). A distinct but closely related construct to OCB, is CWB, which relates to employee behaviour in the workplace that is detrimental to organisational effectiveness (Harari et al., 2016). In the following sections, CWB as a negative form of discretionary employee behaviour is conceptualised. This is followed by a discussion of theoretical models of CWB adopted in extant literature and an analysis of the relationship between OCB and CWB.

3.2.3 Conceptualisation of counterproductive behaviour

Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) consists of intentional acts that harm organisations or people in them or run counter to an organisation's legitimate interests (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Skarlicki & Latham, 1997). According to researchers, CWB includes, inter alia, conduct such as theft, fraud, aggression, drug and alcohol abuse, sabotage, vandalism, verbal and physical abuse, sexual harassment, withdrawal, cyber loafing, tardiness and disciplinary problems (Carpenter & Berry, 2017; Conlon, Meyer, & Nowakowski, 2005; Greenberg, 1990a, 1993a; Griffin & Lopez, 2005; Ones, 2002; Roberts, Harms, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2007; Sackett et al., 2006; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). CWB may thus be regarded as an umbrella term that encompasses a range of behaviours that are detrimental to the organisation by directly affecting its functioning or property or negatively influencing individual employees' effectiveness (Fox et al., 2001; Klotz & Buckley, 2013).

Although some researchers have questioned the intentionality of such behaviour (e.g. Marcus, Taylor, Hastings, Sturm, & Weigelt, 2016), others have argued that intention is an essential aspect of defining CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005). Intention refers to the voluntary and purposeful nature of CWB (Sackett & DeVore, 2001). Intent in terms of CWB relates to intentional behaviour by an employee and not a specific intent to harm (Spector & Fox, 2005). Accidental acts that cause harm to the organisation or individuals in it are thus excluded from the definition of CWB (Sackett & DeVore, 2001). Furthermore, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) emphasise that

CWB does not only include overtly aggressive acts intended to inflict immediate harm, but also a range of less blatant acts, which collectively and over a longer term cause harm to the organisation or individuals in it.

Research relating to ways in which employees covertly or overtly engage in behaviour that is detrimental to their employing organisations or individuals in them have covered a range of similar constructs based on a variety of theoretical approaches such as the following: workplace aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Neuman & Baron, 1998; O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996); workplace violence (Griffin & Lopez, 2005; LeBlanc & Barling, 2005; Neuman & Baron, 1998); retaliation (Folger & Skarlicki, 2005; Skarlicki, Barclay, & Pugh, 2008; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999); revenge (Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage, & Rohdieck, 2004; Jones, 2009; Restubog et al., 2015); anti-role behaviour (McLean Parks & Kidder, 1994); delinquency (Hogan & Hogan, 1989); anti-social behaviour (Giacolone & Greenberg, 1997; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998; Thau, Crossley, Bennett, & Sczesny, 2007); bullying (Ayoko, Callan, & Härtel, 2003; Peng, Chen, Chang, & Zhuang, 2016); workplace deviance (Hollinger, 1986; Robinson & Bennett, 1995, 1997); counterproductive behaviour (Fox & Spector, 1999) or maladaptive work behaviour (Perlow & Latham, 1993). Although these approaches differ in that they include distinct acts aimed at different targets, they also contain overlapping sets of behaviours (Spector et al., 2006). The common themes are that, from an organisational perspective, these employee behaviours are volitional and harmful to the organisation or individuals in it, thereby negatively impacting on organisational effectiveness (Brooks, 2012; Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema, & Kessler, 2012).

A considerable amount of CWB literature focuses on isolated behaviour (e.g. theft, absence or safety violations). Studying these behaviours separately rather than as part of the broader CWB construct has led to a proliferation of concepts, constructs and definitions (Bowling & Gruys, 2010; Griffin & Lopez, 2005). Extant literature tends to differentiate between two types of CWB, namely deviance and withdrawal (Harari et al., 2016). Deviance is regarded as behaviour that violates organisational norms relating to the quantity or quality of work performed and, as a result, impairs the well-being of the organisation or its members (e.g. counterproductive interpersonal behaviour, theft and loafing) (Carpenter & Berry, 2017). These norms originate from both formal and informal policies, rules and standards (Spector & Fox, 2005). Although workplace deviance and CWB are often regarded as synonyms for the same construct (Marcus et al., 2016), in theory, deviance should be regarded as a narrower construct as it relates only to those harmful behaviours that are normative (Spector & Fox, 2005). Withdrawal can be regarded as a form of CWB where, mainly as a result of

dissatisfaction, an employee physically (e.g. absenteeism or lateness) or emotionally (e.g. silence or disassociation) disengages from the working environment and others in it (Carpenter & Berry, 2017; Howard & Cordes, 2010; Somers, 2009).

Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) should also be differentiated from closely related constructs such as illegal, unethical or immoral behaviours. Illegal behaviour is defined in terms of the laws applicable in a particular organisational context, while immoral or unethical behaviours relate to behaviour in terms of a particular value system (i.e. acts that are morally wrong) (Hollinger & Clark, 1982a; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett & DeVore, 2001).

Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) is thus considered to be an all-encompassing term that reflects a broad range of employee behaviours that are detrimental to the organisation or individuals in it (Marcus et al., 2016; Spector & Fox, 2010). These behaviours include, for instance, deviance, aggression, retaliation, revenge, incivility, emotional and physical abuse and bullying (Marcus et al., 2016; Spector & Fox, 2005, 2010). Although these constructs are conceptually distinct, they are often used interchangeably in the literature, and their operationalisation in the workplace often includes the same or similar behaviours (Spector & Zhou, 2014). This practice of using the term CWB to refer to a broad range of detrimental employee behaviour in the workplace was adopted in this study.

There are two major types of CWB identified in the literature, namely individual- and organisation-directed CWB (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a). Interpersonal CWB (CWB-I) is directed at other employees and may include physical or verbal aggression and other forms of interpersonal mistreatment that can be described as harmful. Organisational CWB (CWB-O) is directed towards the organisation and includes theft, sabotage, withdrawal of work efforts and any other type of behaviour that is harmful to the organisation (Berry et al., 2007; Jensen & Patel, 2011; Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006; Sharkawi, Rahim, & Dahalan, 2013).

3.2.4 Theoretical models of counterproductive work behaviour

CWB research developed in an attempt to better understand and address the wide-ranging negative behaviours that employees may engage in in the workplace (Carpenter & Berry, 2017). Following Hollinger and Clark's (1982a, 1982b, 1983a, 1983b) initial work on employee theft, a number of prominent models of CWB were developed. These models include Robinson and Bennett's (1995, 1997) typology of employee deviance, Sackett and De Vore's (Sackett, 2002; Sackett & DeVore, 2001) hierarchical model of CWB, Gruys and Sackett's (2003) 11-

factor model, Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model and Spector et al.'s (2006) five-dimensional model. These models are briefly outlined below.

3.2.4.1 The origins of CWB research

Early research on deviant behaviour in the workplace focused on either the seriousness of workplace offences (Wheeler, 1976) or its impact on organisational property and production (Hollinger & Clark, 1982a, 1982b, 1983a, 1983b; Mangione & Quinn, 1975). Hollinger and Clark's (1982a, 1982b, 1983a, 1983b) research on employee theft led to a broader conceptualisation of deviant employee behaviour. These researchers (Hollinger & Clark, 1982b, 1982a, 1983b, 1983a) compiled a broad list of deviant behaviours and developed a conceptual framework for interconnecting these behaviours. They suggested grouping deviant behaviours into two broad categories, namely property deviance and production deviance. The former includes misuse of organisational assets (e.g. damaging company property or theft), while the latter relates to the violation of organisational performance norms (e.g. unauthorised absence, tardiness, taking long breaks or substance abuse) (Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Sackett, 2002).

Hollinger and Clark (1982a, 1982b, 1983a, 1983b) used the terms "CWB" and "deviance" interchangeably, which is still customary in contemporary CWB research (Marcus et al., 2016).

3.2.4.2 Robinson and Bennett's typology of employee deviance

Robinson and Bennett (1995) theorised that Hollinger and Clark's (1982a, 1982b, 1983a, 1983b) categories of behaviour are incomplete as they do not provide for deviant acts of an interpersonal nature. Robinson and Bennett (1995) furthermore realised the need to find parsimony and order in terms of the diverse set of behaviours that have been regarded as deviant in early research. These researchers (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, 1997) therefore set out to develop and empirically test a typology of workplace deviance. This typology was intended as a comprehensive classification of deviant behaviours. It furthermore highlighted the similarities and differences between such behaviours and identified their underlying dimensions.

Robinson and Bennett's (1995, 1997) results suggested that workplace deviance varies along two dimensions (target of behaviour and severity of deviance) and that deviant behaviours can be classified into four types, as illustrated in Figure 3.2.

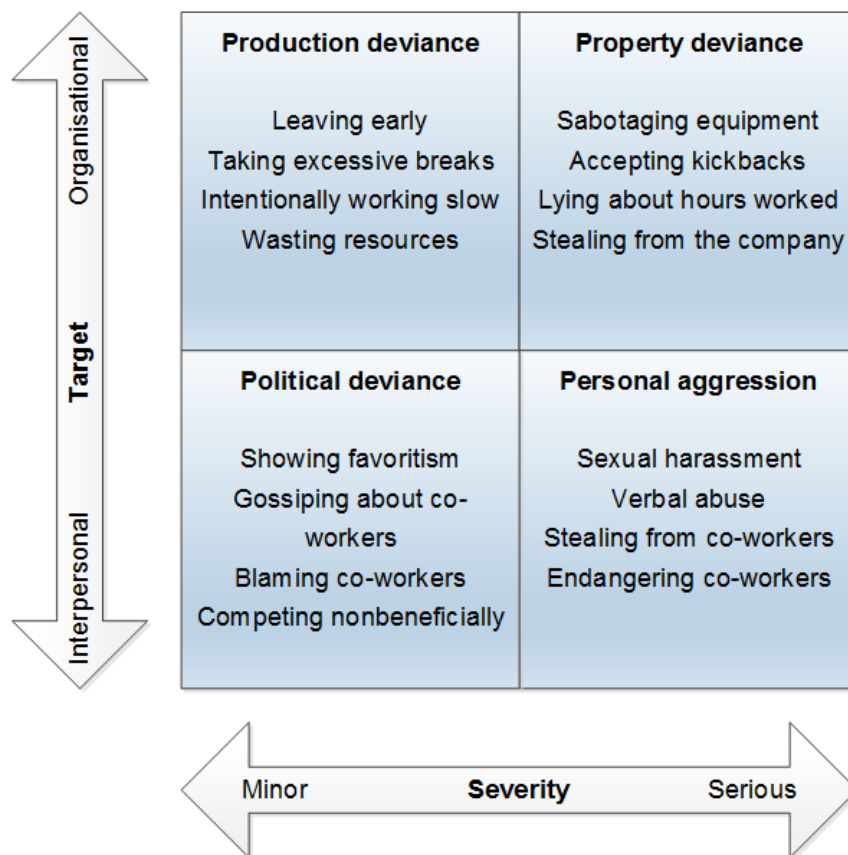


Figure 3.2. Typology of Deviant Workplace Behaviour adapted from Robinson and Bennett (1995, p. 565)

Robinson and Bennett's (1995, 1997) typology of deviant workplace behaviour thus suggests that behaviour may be directed at two targets, namely the organisation and individuals in it. Organisational deviance includes Hollinger and Clark's (1982b, 1983b) production and property deviance, while interpersonal deviance introduces two additional types of deviant behaviour that were neglected in earlier research. Political deviance includes minor interpersonal deviant behaviours (e.g. favouritism, gossip and blaming others for one's mistakes), while personal aggression relates to deviant behaviour of a serious nature aimed at individuals in the organisation such as harassment, abuse and theft from co-workers (Sackett, 2002).

Robinson and Bennett's (1995) research paved the way for the development of integrated theories of workplace deviance. Researchers were encouraged to develop and test theoretical models of categories or types of deviance rather than focusing on specific deviant acts. Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology also enabled more accurate research relating to the

antecedents and outcomes of workplace deviance by positing that different types of deviance are likely to have different predictors and consequences.

Bennett and Robinson (2000a) operationalised Robinson and Bennett's (1995, 1997) typology of deviant workplace behaviour by developing measures aimed at determining the extent to which employees engage in both interpersonal and organisational deviance. They maintained that the behaviour included in both of these categories may range from minor to serious transgressions, but that the severity of the deviant behaviour should not be regarded as an additional dimension of workplace deviance (Gruys & Sackett, 2003). Bennett and Robinson (2000a), abandoning the severity dimension, thus conceptualised workplace deviance as a two-dimensional construct reflecting organisationally directed and interpersonal deviance (Marcus et al., 2016). CWB directed towards the organisation (CWB-O) includes, for instance, retaliatory actions (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) or theft of company property (Greenberg, 1990a), while CWB directed towards individuals in the organisation (CWB-I) includes behaviour such as physical or verbal abuse (LeBlanc & Barling, 2005).

Bennett and Robinson's (2000a) findings were consistent with prior conceptual approaches (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999; Baron & Neuman, 1996; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996; Robinson & Bennett, 1995, 1997; Robinson & Greenberg, 1999; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). However, while earlier research regarded organisational and individually directed deviance as two extremes of the same dimension, these targets of CBW were now conceptualised and empirically validated to be separate constructs (Berry et al., 2007; Dalal, 2005; Marcus et al., 2016).

3.2.4.3 *The hierarchical model of CWB*

Sackett and De Vore (Sackett, 2002; Sackett & DeVore, 2001) regarded CWB as behaviour that runs counter to an organisation's legitimate interests and posited that, while Robinson and Bennett's (1995, 1997) typology is useful when attempting to understand the dimensions that underlie perceptions of deviant behaviour in the workplace, it is also essential to understand the interrelationships between various forms of deviant behaviour. These researchers (Sackett, 2002; Sackett & DeVore, 2001) thus set out to determine whether individuals who engage in one form of CWB would also be more likely to engage in others, suggesting a hierarchical model of CWB. In terms of this model, a general CWB factor is placed at the top of the hierarchy. The next level reflects group factors such as organisational and interpersonal deviance identified by Bennett and Robinson (2000a), which are further divided into specific behavioural domains (e.g. theft, absence, safety violations or substance

abuse) at the next level. Berry et al.'s (2007) meta-analysis supported Sackett and De Vore's (Sackett, 2002; Sackett & DeVore, 2001) proposition that CWB is a hierarchical construct consisting of separate organisational and interpersonal target lower-order factors.

Sackett and De Vore (Sackett, 2002; Sackett & DeVore, 2001) did not dispute Robinson and Bennett's (1995, 1997) findings, but proposed that CWB researchers may focus on different levels of the suggested hierarchy depending on their research objectives.

3.2.4.4 The 11-factor model of CWB

Gruys and Sackett (2003) also examined the dimensionality of CWB with the aim of determining whether individuals who engage in one form of CWB would also be likely to engage in others. Unlike Bennet and Robinson (2000a), they retained the more severe forms of CWB. They categorised a set of 66 CWB items into the following 11 categories: (1) theft and related behaviour, (2) destruction of property, (3) misuse of information, (4) misuse of time and resources, (5) unsafe behaviour, (6) poor attendance, (7) poor-quality work, (8) alcohol use, (9) drug use, (10) inappropriate verbal action, and (11) inappropriate physical action.

Gruys and Sackett's (2003) research provided empirical support for the use of categories of behaviours that were formed on the basis of content themes and contributed towards a better understanding of the dimensionality of CWB and the pattern of interrelationships between various forms of CWB.

3.2.4.5 The stressor-emotion model of CWB

Spector and Fox (2005) defined CWB more broadly, including not only employee actions that harm the organisation, but also those actions that are detrimental to co-workers, customers and other stakeholders. By integrating human aggression and occupational stress theories, Spector and Fox (2005) proposed a stressor-emotion model of CWB. In terms of this model, (see Figure 3.3) external stressors are postulated to provoke emotional reactions that in turn may lead to CWB.

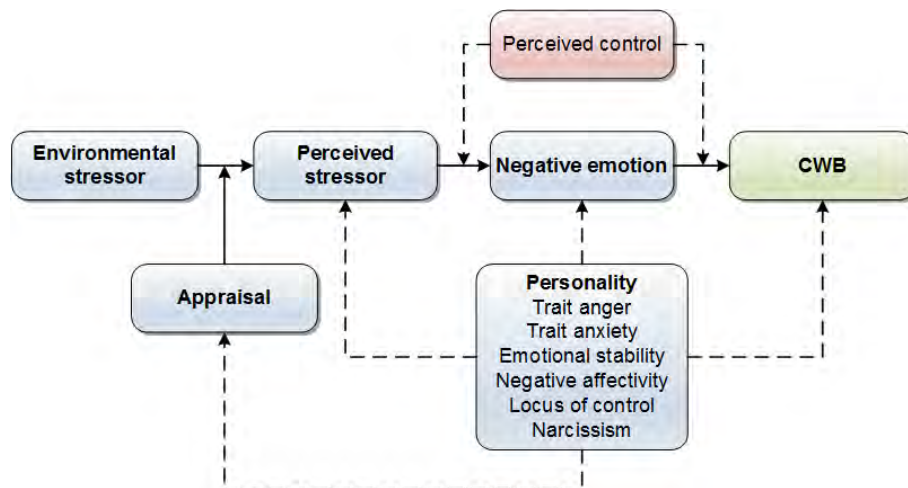


Figure 3.3. Stressor-emotion Model of Counterproductive Work Behaviour adapted from Spector and Fox (2005, p. 158)

Spector and Fox's (2005) model suggests a causal flow from an employee's experience, appraisal and perceptions of stressors in the organisational environment to negative emotions and resultant behaviour. Environmental stressors relate to objective features of the workplace that tend to be perceived as stressors by people – for example, interpersonal conflict, organisational constraints, role ambiguity, role conflict and workload. These stressors may or may not induce a negative emotional reaction (e.g. anger or frustration) depending on how they are perceived and interpreted (i.e. the appraisal process) by individuals.

Perceived control is regarded as a moderator in both the perception-emotion and emotion-behaviour relationships. According to Spector and Fox (2005), controllable situations are less likely to result in negative emotions, as the probability that they will be perceived as stressors is smaller. In contrast, employees who feel powerless experience a loss of control accompanied by more severe emotional reactions and an increased likelihood of negative behaviour.

Personality furthermore impacts on employee perceptions, emotional response and behaviour (i.e. every step in the stressor-CWB process). Personality variables include, for instance, trait anger and trait anxiety (i.e. the tendency to respond to situations with anger or anxiety), negative affectivity, emotional stability, narcissism and locus of control (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Spector and Fox (2005) thus viewed CWB as a negative emotional reaction to stressful work conditions that is also impacted on by personality traits and theorised that a comprehensive understanding of the process leading to CWB is only possible if the motives underlying employee behaviour are considered. Their research focused on a number of potential work

stressors including interpersonal conflict, organisational constraints, role ambiguity, role conflict and workload. They stated that, although perceived injustice may be an important stressor, its reported correlations with CWB vary. Spector and Fox (2005) suggested that there may be additional moderating factors that impact on the relationship between employees' perceptions of justice in their employing organisations and their engagement in negative discretionary behaviour (CWB). In later research, Spector (2011) conceded that, although CWB may have a variety of antecedents, the stressor-emotion model of CWB does not allow for behaviour to occur in response to other predictors, and suggested that employees' emotional and behavioural responses to events in the workplace should be further explored.

3.2.4.6 *The five-dimensional model of counterproductivity*

Spector et al. (2006) analysed the relationships between and antecedents of 45 items regarded as CWB taken from their Counterproductive Work Behaviour Checklist (Fox et al., 2001; Penney & Spector, 2005). They developed five dimensions of counterproductivity based on differing explanatory theories. The first dimension, which essentially overlaps with Bennett and Robinson's (2000a) interpersonal deviance, is abuse, which encompasses harmful behaviours towards individuals in the organisation (e.g. making threats, nasty comments, ignoring a person, undermining a person's ability to work effectively and physical aggression). The other four dimensions (production deviance, sabotage, theft and withdrawal) represent narrower facets of deviant behaviour targeted at the organisation, similar to Bennett and Robinson's (2000a) organisational deviance. Production deviance reflects the purposeful failure to perform job tasks effectively, while sabotage entails vandalising or destroying physical property belonging to the employer. Spector et al. (2006) posits that both theft and sabotage aggression may be regarded as forms of aggression against an organisation. Finally, withdrawal is regarded as behaviour that restricts the amount of time working to less than is required by the organisation, for example, unauthorised absence, arriving late or leaving early and taking extended breaks.

Based on their results, Spector et al. (2006) posited that the tendency in extant literature to regard CWB as a composite construct was inappropriate and that a better understanding of the similarities and differences in underlying causes and consequences of specific types of CWB was needed.

While some of Spector et al.'s (2006) dimensions (e.g. theft and withdrawal) correspond with those proposed by Gruys and Sackett (2003), others are broader. For instance, Spector et al.'s (2006) abuse dimension incorporates Gruys and Sackett's (2003) inappropriate verbal

and physical action dimensions. Furthermore, Gruys and Sackett (2003) identified additional dimensions that are not reflected in any of the other CWB models (Marcus et al., 2016).

Research on the dimensionality and nomological network of CWB has been ongoing and various suggestions have been made. While some researchers have called for a unidimensional or global CWB construct (Marcus, Schuler, Quell, & Hümpfner, 2002; Sackett, 2002; Sackett & DeVore, 2001), others have suggested additional dimensions. For instance, Bowling and Gruys (2010) posit that legality, intent (hostility vs instrumentality) and task-relatedness should be considered as dimensions of CWB, while Brooks (2012) suggests that four distinct dimensions can be used to categorise CWBs. These dimensions include (1) the target of CWB, (2) the vehicle for CWB (task relevance), (3) the social acceptability of the CWB (seriousness or harmfulness), and (4) the scale or quality of CWBs. Although such dimensions allow for more detailed categorisation of CWBs, it was not deemed essential for the purposes of this study, which focuses on employees' perceptions of the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employers and their subsequent discretionary behaviour in the workplace.

In summary, Robinson and Bennett's (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Robinson & Bennett, 1995, 1997) taxonomy and operationalisation of deviant workplace behaviour contributed substantially to the conceptualisation and measurement of CWB. Their two-dimensional model has been well established and verified in numerous studies (Berry et al., 2007; Dalal, 2005; Marcus et al., 2016). In this study, Robinson and Bennett's (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Robinson & Bennett, 1995, 1997) conceptualisation of CWB as a two-dimensional construct consisting of CWB directed to the organisation (CWB-O) and CWB directed towards individuals in it (CWB-I) was thus deemed appropriate. CWB-O and CWB-I are regarded as separate dimensions and not two extremes of a single dimension (Bowling, Burns, & Beehr, 2010; Dalal, 2005). The usefulness of separating CWB into organisational and individually directed behaviour has found both theoretical and empirical support in the literature (Berry et al., 2007). In terms of Sackett's (2002) hierarchical model of CWB, it is deemed incongruous to view CWB as a broad all-encompassing construct and there is no need to focus on specific deviant behaviours. Viewing CWB as a two-dimensional construct consisting of CWB-O and CWB-I would lend more focus to the study while achieving a more parsimonious approach than would be attained by focusing on specific deviant behaviours (Berry et al., 2007).

In order to test the target-similarity approach (Lavelle et al., 2007) to organisational behaviour in terms of CWB (similar to the approach adopted in terms of OCB in this study), it was regarded as essential to differentiate between the potential targets (organisation or

individuals) of deviant behaviour. CWB-O incorporates employee behaviour that is detrimental to the effective functioning (production deviance) and physical infrastructure (property deviance) of the organisation (Carpenter & Berry, 2017; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). CWB-I is composed of political deviance (i.e. relatively minor CWBs such as gossiping and favouritism) and personal aggression, which encompasses more severe CWBs such as physical and verbal abuse (Carpenter & Berry, 2017; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The approach adopted in this study therefore entails a differentiation between the targets of deviant behaviour rather than the content of deviant acts as reflected in the models of Gruys and Sackett (2003) and Spector et al. (2006). It addresses calls in the literature for research on these dimensions, specifically how they relate to one another and to identified antecedents of discretionary employee behaviour (Bowling & Gruys, 2010).

Finally, this study drew on Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model of CWB behaviour to argue that, when employees experience stressors in their working environment such as injustice and a lack of support, they are likely to respond with negative emotions such as those associated with psychological contract violation and cynicism. These negative emotions may, in turn, enhance the likelihood that they will engage in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or people in it (CWB). This is especially true in organisational environments in which employees feel apprehensive and powerless to deal with stressors.

3.2.5 The relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and counterproductive work behaviour

As indicated in the previous sections, OCB and CWB are two forms of employee discretionary behaviour thought to enhance (OCB) or detract from (CWB) organisational functioning (Reynolds et al., 2015). OCB is constructive and plays a positive role in the development of an organisation, while CWB relates to negative behaviour, which leads to the deterioration of organisational productivity and effectiveness (Bukhari & Ali, 2009). Semantically, these constructs can therefore be seen as opposites (Dalal et al., 2009). However, OCB and CWB have been shown to be theoretically distinct constructs and should thus not be regarded as opposite ends of the same continuum (Dalal, 2005; Kelloway, Loughlin, Barling, & Nault, 2002; Ng, Lam, & Feldman, 2016; Sackett et al., 2006). Low levels of OCB are reflected in unwillingness on the part of employees to engage in voluntary behaviour over and above what is required in terms of their job requirements, rather than engaging in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or individuals in it (CWB) (Harari et al., 2016).

Early research on OCB and CWB tended to deal with these constructs separately (Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Spector & Fox, 2002, 2010). More recently, researchers have begun to integrate these two categories of discretionary behaviour, viewing them as components of overall performance, with many of the findings showing that they are related in opposite directions to potential antecedents such as justice, job satisfaction and positive affect, and negatively with one another (Dalal, 2005; Dineen, Lewicki, & Tomlinson, 2006; Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006). However, the results have been inconsistent (Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010). While most studies (Ariani, 2013; Berry et al., 2007; Dalal, 2005; Griep & Vantilborgh, 2018b; Judge, LePine, et al., 2006; Lee & Allen, 2002; Mai et al., 2016; Sackett, 2002; Sackett et al., 2006; Yin, 2018) have reported negative correlations between OCB and CWB, there have been exceptions reporting both nonsignificant (Marcus et al., 2002; Miles, Borman, Spector, & Fox, 2002; Spector et al., 2010) and even as positive relationships (Dalal et al., 2009; Fox, Spector, Goh, & Bruursema, 2007; Fox et al., 2012). Likewise, the strength of the OCB-CWB relationships found tend to differ with some reporting strong (Bennett & Stamper, 2001; Sackett & DeVore, 2001) and others weak (Dalal, 2005; Kelloway et al., 2002; Sackett et al., 2006) relationships.

These differences have been ascribed to measurement features including the overlap of scale items, the measurements used (frequency or agreement) and the reporting objects (self-report or supervisor reports) (Dalal, 2005; Fox et al., 2012; Spector et al., 2010). Spector and Fox (2010) posit that there is growing evidence that the presumption of CWB and OCB being negatively related is an oversimplification. This view supports Dalal's (2005) assertion that the relationship between OCB and CWB is complicated by the fact that both constructs are regarded as multidimensional and both forms of behaviour result from a range of antecedents (which may or may not be the same) and are likely to be moderated by a number of variables. Discretionary behaviour may, for instance, be understood and enacted differently in different cultural contexts (Özbek et al., 2016; Wang, 2015). Furthermore, as both OCB and CWB may be regarded as target specific (i.e. positive or negative behaviour directed towards the organisation or individuals in it), it is plausible that strong relationships exist between the organisational dimensions (OCB-O and CWB-O) and individual dimensions (OCB-I and CWB-I), but that this may not be true for organisational/individual combinations (e.g. OCB-O and CWB-I) (Dalal, 2005; Sackett et al., 2006).

Contradicting findings in terms of the OCB-CWB relationship may also be ascribed to a lack of consideration of employees' emotional reactions to organisational events (Fox et al., 2012; Spector & Fox, 2010). A number of researchers have suggested that negative emotions play a mediating role in the relationships between employees' behaviour in the workplace and the

antecedents to such behaviour (Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006; Lee & Allen, 2002; Perrewé & Zellars, 1999). Workplace events are postulated to evoke emotional reactions which, in turn, influence employees' attitudes towards and behaviour in their organisations (Bal, De Lange, Jansen, et al., 2013; Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008). For instance, it is unlikely that employees who perceive their employers' actions as unfair, selfish and exploitive in nature (i.e. a cynical employee) will engage in OCB (Evans, Goodman, & Davis, 2010). Conversely, employee cynicism will more likely manifest in CWB (Dean et al., 1998; Evans et al., 2010). Yam, Klotz, He, and Reynolds (2016) have contributed to this line of research, reporting that when employees feel compelled to engage in OCB they develop a sense of psychological entitlement, which may in turn serve as a predictor of CWB. It is thus expected that the relationship between OCB and CWB is more complex and cannot simply be regarded as either a positive or a negative reaction to employee perceptions and experiences in the workplace. Hence, it was deemed essential to determine whether OCB and CWB exhibit similar patterns of relationships with the set of antecedents identified in this study.

In order to contribute to the limited research in this area, this study explored the relationship between OCB and CWB in a South African organisational context. It is expected that the relationship between these two forms of discretionary behaviour may depend on the particular context. For instance, in an antagonistic employment relations environment, employees who experience injustice and a lack of support from their employing organisations may resort to trade unionism and engage in trade union activities in an attempt to restore the perceived imbalance (Blader, 2007; Buttigieg et al., 2007; Thacker, 2015). Trade union activities such as strikes and other forms of industrial action may be regarded as CWB (Kelloway et al., 2010). A negative relationship is therefore expected between employees' perceptions of the quality of their social exchange relationship with their employing organisations and CWB. However, a propensity to engage in CWB in the form of collective action does not necessarily mean that such employees will be less inclined to engage in OCB (Fox et al., 2012; Spector & Fox, 2010). If few alternative employment opportunities exist for these employees, which is often the case in South Africa, with its high level of unemployment and low skills levels (see Chapter 2), employees may feel compelled to engage in behaviour beyond what is formally required, expecting to enhance their job security and future career prospects (López Bohle et al., 2017). Furthermore, employees who join trade unions are anticipated to be more collectivistically disposed (Murphy & Turner, 2016). Such employees value relationships and are therefore more likely to engage in behaviour that will maintain relationships with others considered to be part of their in-group (Oyserman, Coon, & Kimmelmeier, 2002), which may be reflected in a higher incidence of OCB-I. These relationships are, however, speculative and have not been empirically tested. The aim of this study was to contribute to both OCB and CWB literature by

exploring the antecedents of these discretionary behaviours as well as the relationship between them in a South African employment relations context. This study also responded to calls in the literature (Dalal, 2005; Klotz & Buckley, 2013) to further explore the dynamic relationship between these types of behaviour (OCB and CWB) and to determine whether the moderators of antecedent behaviour relationships correspond.

3.2.6 Person-centred variables influencing organisational citizenship behaviour and counterproductive work behaviour

Employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace (OCB and CWB) have been shown to be a function of stable dispositions, personality characteristics and self-perceptions (Carpenter & Berry, 2017; Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011; Wu, Liu et al., 2016) as well as their cognitive appraisal of their conditions of employment (Methot et al., 2017; Organ, 1990a). The associations between person-centred variables and both OCB and CWB have been found to be weak or inconsistent (Berry et al., 2007; Chang, Nguyen, Cheng, Kuo, & Lee, 2016; Cohen, 2016; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Zayas-Ortiz, Rosario, Marquez, & Gruñeiro, 2015). Person-centred variables included in OCB and CWB research typically include gender, age, race (minority status), level of education, level of employment, tenure, work experience, job type and income (Al Sahi AL Zaabi, Ahmad, & Hossan, 2016; Berry et al., 2007; Biswas, 2016; Chen & Wen, 2016; López Bohle et al., 2017; Newman, Miao, Hofman, & Zhu, 2016; Özbek et al., 2016; Wang & Sung, 2016). When attempting to better understand the conditions that contribute to a willingness to engage in OCB and deter CWB, it is deemed essential to consider the potential confounding impact of person-centred variables on employees' propensity to engage in positive or negative discretionary behaviour in the workplace. Those person-centred variables that have been reported in extant literature as impacting on OCB and CWB, albeit to a limited extent, are therefore explored below.

3.2.6.1 *Level of education*

A positive relationship between OCB and formal education has been reported in extant literature (Smith et al., 1983), suggesting that higher levels of education may not only result in a better understanding of the interdependence between people in the working environment, but also render an individual more capable of engaging in behaviour that may benefit the organisation or others in it. In support of this view, it has also been argued that employees' level of education serves as an indicator of their alternative job opportunities or job mobility. As unskilled and semi-skilled employees often have fewer alternative job opportunities and

are therefore unable to leave the organisation if they experience dissatisfaction or injustice, they tend to reciprocate by displaying lower levels of OCB (Wu, Liu et al., 2016). Employees' level of education may also impact on the extent to which they resort to CWB in response to dissatisfaction or negative events in the workplace. Restubog et al. (2015) explain this view in terms of sociological research and specifically the assertion that a lack of education may be associated with an increased propensity to engage in criminal activities. When applying this sociological assertion to the workplace, one would expect unskilled or semi-skilled employees to be more likely to engage in CWB in response to perceived injustice or a lack of support (Restubog et al., 2015).

3.2.6.2 *Employment status*

Extant literature shows that temporary (i.e. contract) employees are less inclined to engage in OCB than their permanently employed counterparts (Redman & Snape, 2016; Spreitzer et al., 2017). Empirical support for this observation has been provided by researchers such as Park (2016), who found that permanent employees tend to earn higher wages and engage in OCB more frequently, and Conway and Briner (2002), who reported that temporary employees demonstrate lower levels of organisational commitment and willingness to engage in OCB. The opposite has been shown to apply in terms of CWB. Drawing on psychological contract theory, Mai et al. (2016) posit that employees who have a short-term perspective in terms of their relationships in the workplace (i.e. temporary employees) tend to have a transactional contract orientation and that such an orientation (as opposed to a relational contract orientation) may predict a tendency to engage in CWB when experiencing dissatisfaction or injustice in the workplace.

3.2.6.3 *Age and tenure*

It has been suggested that older workers are more likely to engage in OCB and less likely to engage in CWB than their younger counterparts (Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Lau, Au, & Ho, 2003; Peng, Chen et al., 2016). A number of studies have reported positive relationships between age and OCB (Ng & Feldman, 2008, 2010; Sullivan et al., 2010), while Berry et al. (2007) reported small negative correlations between both age and tenure and the two dimensions of CWB (CWB-O and CWB-I).

Employees' motives for engaging in particular workplace behaviour have been shown to develop over time (Schalk et al., 2010). One can thus expect both age and organisational

tenure to impact on their willingness to engage in discretionary behaviour in the workplace. Methot et al. (2017) suggest that newly appointed employees display low levels of OCB, as they tend to focus on their formal job requirements and have fewer opportunities to engage in extra-role behaviours. The initial stages of employment are typically followed by a rapid upward pattern of OCB as employees become familiar with their working environments and find ways to contribute. Employees in the establishment stage of career development endeavour to enhance their employability and may, as a result, be more inclined to engage in OCB (Zhu, 2016). With extended tenure, employees obtain a more realistic view of their working environment and their expectations. If they find that their expectations are not being met, they may discontinue or reduce their voluntary contributions to the organisation. Methot et al. (2017) furthermore suggest that the type of OCB that an employee is prepared to engage in will change over time. For example, while a younger employee may be willing to spend long hours at the office, older employees may be less willing to do so as a result of work-family conflict.

Results in terms of the effect of tenure on OCB, however, have been contradictory and inconclusive. For instance, Organ and Ryan (1995), in a meta-analytic review of OCB studies, found no significant differences in OCB based on respondents' tenure. However, Morrison (1994) reported a negative relationship between tenure and OCB, ascribing these unexpected results to the way in which employees define their roles within the workplace and arguing that new employees tend to be uncertain about their responsibilities. They are subsequently more likely to regard a broader range of activities as part of their in-role performance, which results in limited engagement in activities that fall outside their perceived role responsibilities (OCB). As their uncertainty diminishes (i.e. longer-tenured employees), their role definitions become more realistic (narrower) and a wider range of behaviours are regarded as discretionary, resulting in lower levels of OCB among longer-tenured employees. It is essential to note, however, that if this reasoning is followed, the behaviour of individuals may be the same – it is only their perceptions of what constitutes in-role and extra-role behaviour that differs.

Researchers have furthermore posited that age and tenure may have a moderating effect on the relationship between selected independent variables and OCB and CWB as outcome variables. For example, Ng and Feldman (2011) reported that organisational tenure moderates the strength of the relationship between organisational commitment and OCB. In contrast, Ng et al. (2016) found no moderating effect of age or tenure in the gender-OCB or gender-CWB relationships.

A concept that relates to both age and tenure is occupational future time perspective or the remaining time and opportunities people perceive themselves as having left in their occupational future (Kooij, Kanfer, Betts, & Rudolph, 2018). Weikamp and Göritz (2016) suggest that, by considering occupational future time perspective, rather than age or tenure, it is possible to gain a deeper understanding of the underlying processes of OCB. It has, for instance, been shown that employees who expect to be part of an organisation for a long period are more likely to engage in OCB (Joireman, Kamdar, Daniels, & Duell, 2006). Weikamp and Göritz (2016) found that employees who perceive themselves as having many remaining opportunities in their occupational future, place greater emphasis on OCB-O, which enables them to enhance their knowledge about the organisation and demonstrates their value for and commitment towards the organisation, than on OCB-I.

3.2.6.4 *Job level*

Van Dyne et al. (1994) postulated that higher levels of employment may be associated with greater autonomy, more opportunities for interaction, involvement in decision making and increased attachment to the organisation. Furthermore, employees in higher-level positions may experience social pressure to “go the extra mile”. Hence, Van Dyne et al. (1994) expected a positive relationship between level of employment and OCB. This relationship could, however, not be empirically confirmed. Van Dyne et al. (1994) found the only significant relationship to be between loyalty (regarded as citizenship behaviour that displays allegiance to the organisation as a whole) and OCB.

The relationship between level of employment and CWB has been viewed from an organisational commitment perspective. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported a positive correlation between level of employment and affective commitment to the organisation and suggested that, given the increased emotional attachment to the organisation, senior employees will be less likely to engage in CWB.

3.2.6.5 *Gender*

Drawing on social role theory (Eagly & Crowley, 1986; Eagly & Steffen, 1984), one might expect female employees, on account of the importance they attach to communal relations, to be more willing to engage in OCB and less likely to resort to CWB. However, this expectation has not yet found unequivocal empirical support. While some researchers have reported gender differences, others have found no or weak correlations (Cohen, 2016). For instance,

Ariani (2013) reported higher levels of both OCB and CWB for males, while Bowling and Burns (2015) found relatively stronger predictor–CWB relationships for men than for women. Researchers who focused on specific behavioural manifestations, such as workplace aggression (Herscovis et al., 2007) and bullying (Baughman, Dearing, Giammarco, & Vernon, 2012), also reported that men were more likely to engage in such negative behaviour. In a meta-analytic review of 395 samples, Ng et al. (2016) found no gender differences in terms of OCB and only weak differences in CWB between males and females.

In an earlier meta-analytic review of OCB studies, Organ and Ryan (1995) reported no significant differences in OCB based on respondents' gender. This finding is supported by Tornau and Frese (2013), who found no relationship between gender and OCB-related concepts such as personal initiative, taking charge behaviour and voice. Some researchers have suggested that males and females are equally likely to engage in OCB, but that the forms of behaviour they elect to engage in differ (Kark & Waismel-Manor, 2005; Kidder & McLean Parks, 2001). Kidder's (2002) research supports this view, suggesting that women are more likely to engage in altruistic behaviour, while men are more inclined to engage in civic virtue behaviour.

Gender, however, has been shown to impact on CWB (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). Berry, Ones, and Sacket (2007) found that gender relates to both CWB-O and CWB-I and that males are slightly more likely to engage in CWB than females. Berry et al. (2007) reported similar results, showing a slight positive correlation between being male and both CWB-O and CWB-I. Herscovis et al. (2007) focused on workplace aggression as a specific form of CWB, reporting that females are less likely to engage in aggressive behaviour in the workplace than males. Spector and Zhou (2014) not only confirmed that men report more CWB than women, but also found gender to be a moderator in the relationships between job stressors (interpersonal conflict and organisational constraints) and CWB as well as personality (trait anger, hostile attribution, conscientiousness, agreeableness and emotional stability) and CWB. Extant research has therefore shown gender differences in CWB, with men being more likely to engage in such behaviour. Such differences are small, however, and are impacted on by personality characteristics and perceived high levels of job stressors. Therefore, although both genders are likely to respond negatively to negative environmental stressors, men are more likely to respond by engaging in CWB (Spector & Zhou, 2014).

3.2.6.6 *Population group*

In their review and meta-analysis of CWB research, Berry et al. (2007) indicated that a number of researchers have investigated differences in terms of minority status (rather than population group), reporting a small positive correlation between being white and both CWB-O and CWB-I. Researchers have not differentiated, however, between all racial groups. Berry et al. (2007) suggest that correlations between population groups should be included in future research on discretionary behaviour in the workplace in order to determine whether differences exist.

In summary, extant literature has therefore shown inconclusive results in terms of the relationships between a range of person-centred variables and employees' engagement in both positive and negative discretionary behaviour in the workplace. Although differences have occasionally been reported in terms of specific forms of behaviour, these differences become less pronounced when investigating OCB or CWB as overall constructs encompassing a range of behaviours (Lau et al., 2003). It is therefore to be expected that employees' personal characteristics play a relatively minor role in determining the likelihood that they will engage in either positive or negative discretionary behaviour in the workplace. In this study, although cognisance was thus taken of the potential impact of these characteristics on OCB and CWB, necessitating the inclusion of personal characteristics as control variables in the proposed psychological framework, it was postulated that employees' propensity to engage in such behaviours would depend more on their work-related perceptions and work experiences, and their emotional and attitudinal reactions to such perceptions and experiences than on these individual differences.

3.2.7 Organisational citizenship behaviour and counterproductive work behaviour in a South African employment relations context

This study was conducted within a South African employment relations context. In line with the broad conceptualisation of employment relations outlined in Chapter 2, the aim is thus to find ways of improving employer-employee relations by addressing conflict and encouraging cooperation and thereby enhancing organisational effectiveness (Finnemore & Joubert, 2013; Mückenberger, 2016; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). It is posited that conflict and cooperation in an employment relations context may manifest in two forms of relational behaviour, namely OCB and CWB.

Firstly, CWB incorporates a range of undesirable employee behaviours that reflect the adversarial nature of employer-employee relations. Such behaviours are intended to harm the organisation or individuals in it, and include individual actions such as theft, sabotage, workplace violence, aggression, incivility and revenge or participation in collective behaviour such as industrial action (Kelloway et al., 2010). Finding ways of dealing with such behaviour has long been the focus of employment relations theory and practice (Nel et al., 2016). However, in South Africa, there has been an over-reliance on laws, rules, procedures and policies as means of correcting undesirable behaviour (Jordaan, 2016; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). The focus has therefore traditionally been on reactively dealing with the consequences of undesirable workplace behaviour rather than finding proactive ways of discouraging such behaviour.

Drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), it is proposed that the reciprocal obligations and expectations between employers and employees should be regarded as the core of the employment relationship (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). Hence, negative discretionary behaviour may be discouraged if organisations find ways of enhancing the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employees. This may be achieved by providing the necessary support and promoting fairness in all employer-employee interactions (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Zhou & Li, 2015). Employees who perceive their employing organisations as unjust and unsupportive will be more inclined to reciprocate by engaging in negative discretionary behaviour (Cohen & Diamant, 2017; Kurtessis et al., 2017).

It is furthermore suggested that the employment relations context in which South African employees function may not only influence the likelihood that they will reciprocate unfavourable working conditions or experiences with CWB, but may also determine the type of CWB they choose to engage in. This suggestion is supported by extant literature which has revealed that the type of behaviour and the strength of the relationships between employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace and the extent to which they are likely to engage in discretionary behaviour differ, depending on the particular context (Özbek et al., 2016). In the South African employment relations context, where perceptions of injustice and inequality are often the norm and unionisation is commonplace (see Chapter 2), employees may, for instance, respond by participating in collective action, often in the form of unprotected strikes, accompanied by unlawfulness and destruction, as a form of protest (Botha & Cronjé, 2015). This is in line with Kelloway et al.'s (2010) proposition that CWB can be viewed as a form of protest behaviour in which individuals or groups attempt to redress, draw attention to or express dissatisfaction with organisational events (e.g. perceived injustice). Kelloway et al. (2010), drawing on Klandermans' (1997, 2002) three-factor model of social protest, posited

that employees are more likely to engage in CWB as a form of protest action if they perceive that such action will be effective in addressing an injustice targeted at a group with whom they identify. For instance, a trade union member who experiences injustice against fellow trade union members may offer support for industrial action (e.g. a strike) if he or she believes that by doing so these injustices will be rectified (Kelloway, Francis, Catano, & Dupré, 2008). Participation in industrial action may thus be regarded as a means of expressing dissatisfaction with the state of affairs or drawing attention to an unjust organisational practice (Kelloway et al., 2010).

In the current study, it was consequently deemed essential to include participation in specific union-related (i.e. collective) activities that may be detrimental to the organisation or individuals in it. This includes any action on the part of union members to withhold work activity, such as strikes, picketing or protest action (Monnot et al., 2011). Although the ultimate aim of these activities is to improve the working conditions of union members (and by implication all employees), they are likely to cause at least temporary harm to the stakeholders in an organisation (Monnot et al., 2011).

A key factor when viewing industrial action as a form of CWB is that employees will only be willing to engage in such behaviour if they strongly identify with the group (i.e. trade union members) that is regarded as the victim of injustice (Kelloway et al., 2010). Therefore, it is anticipated that trade union members and those individuals with a collectivistic disposition will be more inclined to engage in industrial action in response to perceived unfairness in the workplace (Kelloway et al., 2010). In contrast, employees with an individualistic disposition are not only less likely to be union members (Thacker, 2015), but are also expected to rather leave the organisation when they experience injustice or dissatisfaction than resorting to industrial action, which, while intended to benefit all employees in the long term, may have detrimental consequences for individuals (e.g. lost wages or disciplinary action if a strike is unprotected) (Thomas, Au, & Ravlin, 2003; Zagenczyk et al., 2015). The potential intervening effect of employees' disposition towards individualism/collectivism on their behavioural responses to workplace events is further explored in Chapter 6.

The second type of discretionary behaviour, OCB, is regarded as reflecting cooperative employment relations. Drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), it has been shown that employees who perceive their employers to be fair and just will be more likely to reciprocate by engaging in behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation and individuals in it (i.e. OCB) (Van Dijke, De Cremer, Mayer, & Van Quaquebeke, 2012). It has, however, been suggested that this will only apply in instances

where employees regard their relationship with their employing organisations as more than a transactional relationship or a legal contract. Zhu (2016) posits that organisations that aim to enhance employer-employee relationships should not focus on the transactional relationship only. Although the transactional relationship remains significant in terms of employees' economic needs, it does not address their socioemotional needs and is therefore unlikely to result in OCB. In addition, it has been empirically shown that legal compliance by employers does not impact on employees' willingness to engage in OCB (Newman et al., 2016). Hence, organisations wishing to gain a competitive advantage should promote a long-term, open-ended exchange with their employees (i.e. a social exchange relationship) aimed at addressing their socioemotional needs (Karagonlar et al., 2016). When employees perceive a high-quality, interdependent social exchange relationship with their employing organisations, they are more likely to engage in behaviour beyond what is required in terms of their performance contracts (Colquitt et al., 2013). In contrast, when employees perceive that their exchange relationships with their employing organisations are limited to economic obligations and benefits, they may interpret this as a transactional exchange, which is short term and closed-ended in nature (Jackson, Wright, & Davis, 2012). Such contracts do not involve emotional input, and employees who perceive their relationships with their employing organisations as transactional are less likely to engage in OCB and rather focus on the equity between input and reward (Zhu, 2016).

From the above it may be deduced that employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace (both OCB and CWB) may be reflective of the type and quality of their exchange relationships with their employing organisations. It has furthermore been shown that employees' discretionary behaviour shapes the environment in which job-related tasks are performed and therefore greatly impacts on organisational success (Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016; Park, 2018). Thus, high-quality social exchange relationships do not only enhance employer-employee relations in the workplace, but also contribute to organisational success (Karagonlar et al., 2016). OCB, for instance, has been shown to be an important means for building social capital (i.e. strong interpersonal relationships in the workplace) (Harari et al., 2016). Employees who engage in OCB contribute to productivity in and the effectiveness of their employing organisations (Khaola & Coldwell, 2017). In contrast, the costs to both the organisation and individuals in it resulting from negative discretionary behaviour by employees has been widely reported. Extant literature has shown that employees engaging in negative discretionary behaviour (CWB) do not only impede organisational success, but also substantially harm relations between individuals in the workplace (Whelpley & McDaniel, 2016).

In conclusion, this study regards constructive employer-employee relations as being operationalised in a willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour (OCB) and a tendency to refrain from engaging in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation and individuals in it (CWB), as central to sustained organisational effectiveness (Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016). It is posited that more effective employment relations and long-term organisational success can only be achieved by cultivating high-quality social exchange relationships with employees (Colquitt et al., 2013; Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012). Hence, organisations should focus less on the transactional and legal aspects of employment relationships and cultivate an understanding of employees' socioeconomic needs. In an employment relations context it is thus argued that employers should not only strive towards fairness and equity in order to meet legal requirements, but should also create an environment in which employees feel valued and supported (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Appreciating and addressing employees' socioemotional needs are expected to enhance their perceptions of the quality of the social exchange relationships they hold with their employing organisations and ultimately to benefit both the organisation and its employees (Zhang, Qiu, & Teng, 2017).

3.2.8 Summary

In this section, it was emphasised that discretionary employee behaviour in the workplace is of a great significance in an employment relations context as it not only impacts on the environment in which employees are expected to perform their task-related activities, thereby directly affecting organisational success, but also shapes interpersonal and intergroup relations in the workplace. In an employment relations context, it is thus regarded as essential to encourage positive discretionary behaviour (OCB) and discourage behaviour that may be detrimental to the organisation and people in it (CWB) as this will help to maintain positive relations in the workplace.

The significance of employee discretionary behaviour in facilitating organisational effectiveness was highlighted. Discretionary employee behaviour was postulated to be either positive (OCB) or negative (CWB) in nature. It was shown how OCB developed from its initial conceptualisation of individuals' nonrequired, noncompensated contributions to the effectiveness of their employing organisations to the notation that OCB entails employee behaviour that shapes the social and psychological context in which individuals operate and thereby supports task performance. OCB was differentiated from related constructs such as contextual performance, prosocial organisational behaviour, organisational spontaneity and extra-role behaviour. The seminal OCB theories were discussed and it was argued that Organ's (1988, 1990a, 1990b, 1997) formative theoretical conceptualisation and Williams and

Anderson's (1991) subsequent grouping of the OCB dimensions in terms of the beneficiaries of the behaviour were deemed most appropriate for the purposes of this study.

This was followed by a conceptualisation of CWB as intentional acts that harm organisations or people in them or run counter to the legitimate interests of an organisation. The importance of studying CWB as a broad construct, encompassing a range of behaviours, was emphasised and CWB was differentiated from closely related constructs such as withdrawal, illegal, immoral, unethical and deviant behaviours. This was followed by a discussion of the seminal CWB theories. Robinson and Bennett's (1995, 1997) typology of deviant workplace behaviour and Bennett and Robinson's (2000a) operationalisation thereof were regarded as the core theoretical models. In terms of Robinson and Bennett's (1995, 1997) model, a distinction was made between CWB directed towards the organisation (CWB-O) and individuals in the organisation (CWB-I). Drawing on Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model of CWB it was furthermore posited that employees may engage in negative discretionary behaviour following an emotional response (e.g. psychological contract violation and cynicism) to stressors (lack of support and injustice) in the working environment.

The relationship between OCB and CWB was explored indicating that OCB is intended to benefit the organisation and people in it, while CWB is intended to harm these parties, they could be regarded as semantic opposites. However, it was shown that these constructs represent distinct but interrelated constructs rather than two extremes of the same construct. It was furthermore shown that OCB and CWB might be linked to a number of similar predictors, but that the relationships with these predictors are in opposite directions.

Drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), it was argued that employees develop a sense of the quality of their exchange relationships with their employing organisations. A positive perception of this relationship is expected to result in a willingness to engage in behaviour beyond that which is required in terms of their formal contracts of employment (economic exchange). Therefore, employees who perceive their employers as fair, supportive and meeting their obligations in terms of the psychological contract, are expected to be more inclined to engage in OCB. In contrast, employees who regard their social exchange relationship with their employing organisation as negative (i.e. unsupportive, unjust and unable to meet reciprocal obligations), are predicted to be less willing to engage in OCB and, in extreme cases, may even resort to CWB in order to restore the perceived imbalance in the relationship.

It was argued, however, that the OCB-CWB relationship may be more complex and that, under certain conditions, employees might engage in high levels of both OCB and CWB. It was postulated that employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace is not a simple cognitive reaction to a perceived workplace event or work-related perception. Instead, employees' emotional reactions to such perceptions or experiences are expected to influence their behavioural responses. It is thus expected that mediating and moderating variables may exist that influence the relationships between OCB and CWB, as well as the relationships between these discretionary behaviours and their antecedents.

The main theoretical findings relating to organisational citizenship behaviour and counterproductive work behaviour are summarised in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Theoretical Integration: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Counterproductive Work Behaviour

Theoretical models adopted (OCB)	Organ's (1988, 1997) conceptualisation of OCB Williams and Anderson's (1991) differentiation between the beneficiaries of OCB
Definition of organisational citizenship behaviour	Constructive behaviour that an employee engages in, over and above his or her agreed-upon tasks, in support of the organisation and people in it (Carpenter et al., 2014; Organ, 1997)
Core OCB constructs	OCB that benefits individuals in the organisation (OCB-I) OCB that benefits the organisation in general (OCB-O)
Theoretical models adopted (CWB)	Bennett and Robinson's (2000a) operationalisation of Robinson and Bennett's (1995, 1997) typology of deviant workplace behaviour Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model of CWB
Definition of counterproductive work behaviour	Intentional acts that harm organisations or people in them or run counter to the legitimate interests of an organisation (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Robinson & Bennett, 1997; Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Skarlicki & Latham, 1997)
Core CWB constructs	Interpersonal CWB (CWB-I) Organisational CWB (CWB-O)
Person-centred variables impacting on OCB and/or CWB	Employment status Tenure Gender Age Education level
Relevance in enhancing employment relations	Constructive employer-employee relations, as operationalised in a willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour (OCB), and a tendency to refrain from engaging in behaviour that is detrimental to the

organisation and individuals in it (CWB), are central to sustained organisational effectiveness. Organisations should focus less on the transactional and legal aspects of employment relationships and cultivate an understanding of employees' socioeconomic needs. Appreciating and addressing these needs are expected to enhance employees' perceptions of the quality of the social exchange relationships they hold with their employing organisations and ultimately to benefit both the organisation and its employees.

In this section, it was shown that employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace impacts on organisational effectiveness. Given the reported impact of OCB and CWB on critical organisational outcomes, it is important to understand its predictors (Lemmon & Wayne, 2015). Organisations need to find ways to optimise positive discretionary behaviour (OCB) and minimise negative discretionary behaviour (CWB) in the workplace. This can only be achieved by obtaining a clear understanding of the antecedents of such behaviour. It has been shown that, while both OCB and CWB are motivated by employees' reciprocity needs, there is also an affective component to CWB (Lee & Allen, 2002). Employees' affection or emotional attachment towards their employing organisations is expressed as organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1982). When attempting to better understand discretionary employee behaviour in the workplace, it is thus deemed essential to commence by exploring how commitment to the organisation is formed and in what way such commitment impacts on both positive and negative behaviour.

3.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organisational commitment, as a psychological state or mind-set that employees develop as a result of their perceptions and experiences in the workplace (Brown, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1982), has been shown to be a strong predictor of discretionary employee behaviour (Cetin et al., 2015; Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016; Demir, 2011; Wang, 2015). For the purposes of this study (see Figure 3.1), organisational commitment was thus regarded as a relational outcome of employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences as well as a predictor of discretionary employee behaviour (OCB and CWB).

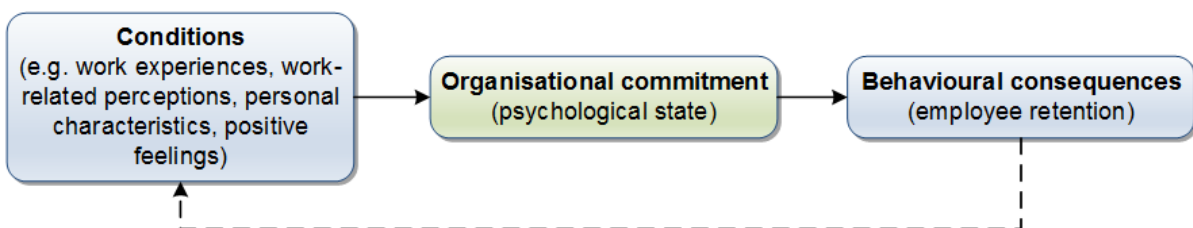
In this section, organisational commitment is conceptualised, followed by a discussion of the relevant organisational commitment theories. This is followed by an examination of a variety of person-centred characteristics that have been shown to influence how organisational commitment is developed and experienced. Finally, organisational commitment is presented

as an antecedent of discretionary employee behaviour in the workplace and the significance of developing high levels of organisational commitment in a South African organisational context is discussed.

3.3.1 Conceptualisation of organisational commitment

Early research on organisation commitment followed either an attitudinal or behavioural approach (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1987, 1991). While attitudinal commitment emphasised the process individuals follow in establishing their relationships with their employing organisations, behavioural commitment reflected employees' inability to leave their current employment for a variety of reasons and the way they deal with such situations (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1982). The main assumptions of these perspectives are depicted in Figure 3.4.

ATTITUDINAL PERSPECTIVE



BEHAVIOURAL PERSPECTIVE

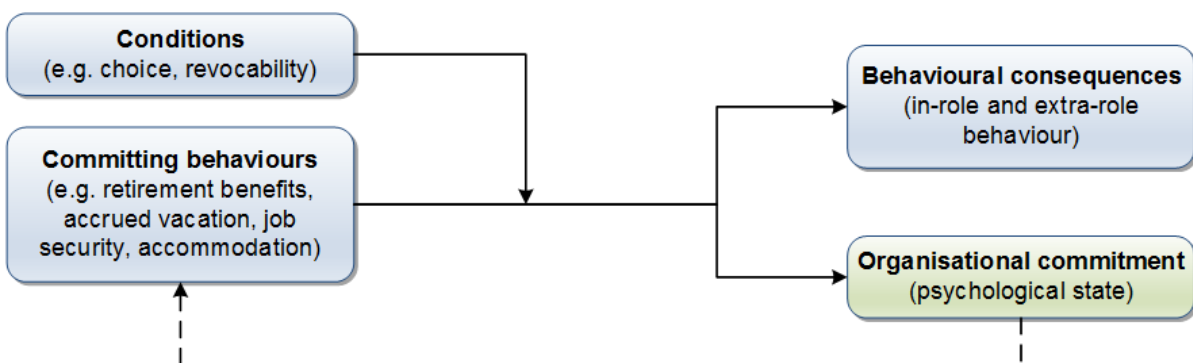


Figure 3.4. Attitudinal and Behavioural Perspectives on Organisational Commitment adapted from Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 63)

The attitudinal approach to organisational commitment draws on Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) theory of planned behaviour whereby affect and cognition are expected to give rise to

behavioural intent, which in turn leads to actual behaviour. As illustrated in Figure 3.4, the attitudinal approach focuses on identifying the antecedents and subsequent behavioural consequences of organisational commitment (e.g. Buchanan, 1974; Steers, 1977). In terms of this approach to organisational commitment, an employee is likely to be committed to an organisation if his or her sense of self is determined by organisational membership or when there is congruence between the individual's goals and those of the organisation (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Organisational commitment, as a psychological state or mind-set, thus develops as a result of employees' work experiences, their perceptions of the organisation, their personal characteristics and positive feelings about the organisation (Brown, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1982).

Researchers who ascribe to an attitudinal approach to organisational commitment regard it as an attitude that an employee holds towards his or her employing organisation, which is reflected in a combination of affect (i.e. emotional attachment to or identification with the organisation), cognition (identification with the organisation's goals, norms and values), and behavioural intent (an undertaking to act in a way that benefits the organisation) (Solinger, Hofmans, & Van Olffen, 2015). The attitudinal approach to organisational commitment relies on exchange theory to explain why individuals with positive work-related attitudes are likely to offer commitment to their employing organisations in exchange for anticipated future rewards (Angle & Perry, 1983). Both affective and normative commitment (see section 3.3.2) have been linked to this approach and are therefore sometimes referred to as attitudinal commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Angle & Lawson, 1993). The common denominator in all organisational commitment theories relying on the attitudinal perspective is the extent to which the organisation succeeds in retaining the employee (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

In contrast to the attitudinal approach to organisational commitment, the behavioural approach relies on cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1954), which emphasises the primacy of behaviour in attitude change. According to the behavioural approach, employees are therefore expected to become committed to a particular course of action or behaviour (e.g. remaining in the organisation) rather than to a specific entity (i.e. the organisation) (Meyer & Allen, 1997). This approach thus emphasises the conditions under which demonstrated behaviour is likely to be repeated and how such behaviour affects individuals' attitudes (e.g. O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981; Pfeffer & Lawler, 1980). The behavioural approach to organisational commitment thus relates to the overt manifestations of commitment (Mowday et al., 1979). An individual will attain a state of commitment as a result of engaging in committing behaviours (e.g. contributing to a nontransferable retirement fund or accruing vacation time) (Brown, 1996). In terms of the behavioural perspective, if the working conditions are favourable, employees are

likely to agree to continue in some chosen course of action in relation to a particular focal party (e.g. exerting effort and continuing employment in a particular organisation). This behaviour results in positive attitude towards the organisation, which, in turn, justifies the behaviour (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981). Continuance commitment (see section 3.3.2) has been associated with a behavioural approach to organisational commitment (Mowday et al., 1982).

Contemporary organisational commitment literature, which informs the integrated approach adopted in this study, incorporates both attitudinal and behavioural elements and reflects three general themes, namely affective attachment to the organisation, the perceived costs of leaving the organisation and obligation to remain with the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1987, 1991). These themes are discussed as part of the overview of the development of organisational commitment literature in section 3.3.2. By incorporating these themes, however, it becomes apparent that organisational commitment is complex and consists of various dimensions that individually and collectively impact on employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. In the following section, the focus is on the development of organisational commitment from a unidimensional construct to being viewed as multidimensional.

3.3.1.1 Organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct

Early organisational commitment researchers conceptualised organisational commitment as unidimensional (Becker, 1960; Brown, 1996; Mowday et al., 1982, 1979; Wiener, 1982). Brown (1996, p. 249) regarded organisational commitment as an employee's continued dedication to and support of his or her employing organisation beyond that which is required in terms of job expectations and rewards. However, Wiener (1982, p. 418) defined organisational commitment as "the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way that meets organisational needs" focusing on employees' identification with their employing organisation's values and their sense of loyalty and duty towards the organisation. Mowday et al. (1979) emphasised shared values (between the organisation and its employees), employees' desire to maintain membership of the organisation and a willingness to exert effort on the organisation's behalf, defining organisational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's emotional attachment (i.e. identification with and involvement in) to a particular organisation (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226).

Some researchers regarded organisational commitment as a two-dimensional construct (Angle & Perry, 1981, 1983, Mayer & Schoorman, 1992, 1998). For instance, Angle and Perry (1981, 1983) conceptualised organisational commitment in terms of employees' commitment

to support the goals of the organisation (i.e. value commitment) and to remain in it (i.e. commitment to stay). Mayer and Schoorman (1992, 1998) relied on the behavioural consequences of commitment to differentiate between their proposed dimensions (value and continuance). They described value commitment as the acceptance of and identification with the goals and values of an organisation and the resultant inclination to exert effort on behalf of the organisation, and continuance commitment as the desire to remain in the organisation (Mayer & Schoorman, 1992, 1998). In both instances (Angle & Perry, 1981, 1983, Mayer & Schoorman, 1992, 1998), the researchers relied on the behavioural consequences of commitment to differentiate between the proposed dimensions (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

A number of researchers conceptualised organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993; Penley & Gould, 1988). Jaros et al. (1993) identified three dimensions of organisational commitment, namely affective, moral and continuance commitment. While both affective and moral commitment relate to an employee's psychological attachment to his or her employing organisation, the expression of this attachment differs. Affective commitment is expressed in terms of feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness and pleasure, while moral commitment is conveyed by internalisation of the organisation's goals, values and missions (Jaros et al., 1993, pp. 954–955). Continuance commitment refers to a sense of entrapment experienced by an employee because of the perceived cost of leaving his or her employing organisation (Jaros et al., 1993, p. 953).

Penley and Gould's (1988) multidimensional framework of organisational commitment was based on earlier work on organisational involvement (Etzioni, 1961). These authors identified three forms of organisational commitment, namely moral, calculative and alienative commitment. Moral commitment relates to individual employees' acceptance of and identification with organisational goals, while calculative commitment results from the perceived balance of inducements received and contributions made by the employee. Alienative commitment refers to instances where an imbalance is observed, but the employee remains in the organisation because of environmental pressures (Penley & Gould, 1988, pp. 46, 48).

Meyer and Allen (1984, 1988) built on the characteristics of organisational commitment that were identified by Mowday et al. (1979), whose definition of organisational commitment gained wide acceptance at the time. Meyer and Allen (1988, 1991) regarded organisational commitment as an employee's affective attachment to his or her employing organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1984), which is characterised by an identification with the goals and values of

the organisation, a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation and an intention to remain with it for an extended period (Meyer & Allen, 1988, 1991). Meyer and Allen (1991) thus conceptualised organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct consisting of three dimensions, namely affective, continuance and normative commitment.

Various conceptualisations of organisational commitment therefore exist in extant literature with some researchers still propagating a one-dimensional approach. For instance, Klein et al. (2012) regard organisational commitment as a psychological bond to a particular target (e.g. the organisation), which is expressed by a dedication to and responsibility towards the target. However, the conceptualisation of organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct is widely supported in contemporary organisational commitment literature (Kabins et al., 2016; Kam, Morin, Meyer, & Topolnytsky, 2016; Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Morin, Meyer, Creusier, & Biétry, 2016; Morin et al., 2015; Stanley, Vandenberghe, Vandenberg, & Bentein, 2013). Becker, Klein and Meyer (2009) stress that there is no single conceptualisation of organisational commitment that is universally regarded as correct, but there seems to be consensus that it relates to a psychological state or mind-set that binds an employee to his or her employing organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). This study relied on Meyer and Allen's (1991) widely accepted definition of organisational commitment, thus regarding organisational commitment as a psychological state or mind-set reflecting employees' affective attachment towards their employing organisations, their acknowledgement of the potential consequences of leaving the organisation and a perceived moral responsibility to remain with the organisation.

3.3.1.2 *Differentiating organisational commitment from related constructs*

Organisational commitment has been shown to be distinguishable from related constructs such as job involvement, job satisfaction, turnover intention, work engagement and job embeddedness (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1979; Riketta & Van Dick, 2009). It can also be differentiated from other workplace commitment constructs such as occupational commitment or job commitment. While organisational commitment relates to employees' commitment to their current employing organisations, occupational commitment relates to their commitment to their profession or vocation, irrespective of where they work (Tsoumbris & Xenikou, 2010; Yalabik, Swart, Kinnie, & Van Rossenberg, 2017). Job commitment is narrower in scope and refers to the likelihood that an employee will be psychologically attached to and remain in a particular position (as opposed to the broader organisation), irrespective of the level of satisfaction he or she derives from doing the job (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983).

The focus or target of commitment may also differ by, for instance, reflecting commitment to a particular entity (e.g. commitment to an organisation, profession, supervisor, top management, work group or even a trade union) (Becker, 1992; Becker & Billings, 1993; Brown, 1996; Gatrell & Cooper, 2016; Meyer & Allen, 1997) or an organisational event (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). For instance, employees may be committed towards the implementation of an organisational change initiative or a new organisational strategy (Kam et al., 2016).

In summary, various definitions of organisational commitment have been proposed in the literature. Klein, Molloy, and Cooper (2009) suggest that these variations may be ascribed to different perspectives as well as the changing nature of work and relationships in the workplace. For the purposes of this study, organisational commitment was regarded as a multidimensional construct defined as an employee's affective attachment to his or her employing organisation, as a single anthropomorphic entity characterised by an identification with the organisation's goals and values, a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation and an intention to remain with it for an extended period (Meyer & Allen, 1988, 1991, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Although it is acknowledged that employees may have multiple commitment foci, this study related to employees' commitment towards the organisation as a whole rather than their commitment towards organisational representatives (e.g. top management, line managers, work units, work teams or team leaders). In an employment relations context, however, it is also important to recognise trade union members' commitment towards their trade unions and the potential impact that dual commitment foci may have on their behaviour in the workplace. Hence, union commitment and its reported relation to organisational commitment is addressed in section 3.4. In the following sections theoretical models of organisational commitment reported in extant literature are outlined, person-centred variables that may impact on organisational commitment are explored and a theoretical overview of the relationship between organisational commitment and employees' discretionary behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace is provided. The section concludes with an overview of the relevance of organisational commitment in enhancing employment relations in South African organisations.

3.3.2 Theoretical models of organisational commitment

Several conceptual frameworks of organisational commitment are found in extant literature. These frameworks tend to differ in terms of their views on the nature of the underlying mind-sets that compel employees to take particular actions (e.g. remain in the organisation and engage in positive behaviour) (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Early organisational literature

studies were conducted mainly in two research streams focusing on either employees' emotional attachment to their employing organisations or the costs associated with continued organisational membership (Somers, 2010). However, contemporary organisational commitment theories typically accept that organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct that relates to a psychological state or mind-set that binds an employee to his or her employing organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Although different dimensions or types of organisational commitment are suggested, they generally include three distinct mind-sets that give rise to particular forms of commitment, namely (1) an affective attachment to the organisation; (2) a means of avoiding costs associated with leaving the organisation; and (3) a perceived obligation to remain in the organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). The nature of these mind-sets has significant implications for the quality of the employees' relationships with their employing organisations and the ensuing behaviour in the workplace (Meyer, 2009). These mind-sets and how they have been incorporated into extant organisational commitment literature are briefly outlined in the sections below.

3.3.2.1 Organisational commitment as an affective attachment

The most prevalent approach in early organisational commitment literature was to view it as an employee's affective or emotional attachment to the employing organisation. Seminal researchers who adopted this approach include Kanter (1968), Buchanan (1974) and Porter and his colleagues (Mowday et al., 1979; Porter, Crampon, & Smith, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Kanter (1968) referred to cohesion commitment which related to the extent to which individuals emotionally attach to a group, while Buchanan (1974) focused on the goals and value of the organisation viewing organisational commitment as an employee's one-sided affective attachment to the goals and values of his or her employing organisation and his or her role in relation to these goals and values. Buchanan (1974) argued that employees become emotionally attached to an organisation for its own sake and not only based on its contributory role in individual need fulfilment (i.e. instrumental worth).

According to Mowday et al. (1979), organisational commitment comprises the following three components: (1) acceptance of the organisation's goals; (2) willingness to work hard for the organisation; and (3) desire to stay with the organisation. These authors (Mowday et al., 1979; Porter et al., 1974, 1976) defined organisational commitment as the relative strength of an individual employee's identification with and involvement in his or her employing organisation. According to Mowday et al. (1979), employees who feel a sense of affective commitment towards their employing organisations accept the organisation's goals and values and are more willing to exert extra effort on the organisation's behalf. By developing an affective

attachment to the organisation, their self-identity becomes entrenched in organisational membership (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Employees with a strong emotional attachment to their employing organisations will therefore be more willing to exert extra effort towards organisational goal achievement.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986, p. 493) also emphasised the psychological attachment that individuals bestow on their employing organisations. These authors (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) believed that employees' commitment towards their employing organisations reflects the extent to which they internalise or adopt the characteristics or perspectives that are distinctive of these organisations. Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 67) regarded affective commitment (AC) as employees' emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation. They (Meyer & Allen, 1991) argued that employees with a strong emotional attachment to their employing organisations would remain with these organisations because they *want* to (and not because they need to or feel they ought to).

Employees' emotional attachment to their employing organisations is incorporated into most models of organisational commitment proposed in the literature, although the terminology used and the basis for the development of the emotional bond may differ (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). For instance, while Jaros et al. (1993) and Meyer and Allen (1991) referred to affective commitment as employees' emotional attachment to their employing organisations, others used terms such as value commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mayer & Schoorman, 1992, 1998), moral commitment (Jaros et al., 1993; Penley & Gould, 1988) and normative commitment (incorporating both identification and internalisation) (Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly, 1990; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991).

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) is frequently used to explain the behavioural effects of affective commitment. It is argued that employees who are treated well by their employing organisations (i.e. they experience trust, fairness and support) are expected to reciprocate with an affective attachment (i.e. high AC) to their employing organisations. These emotional affections to the organisation are, in turn, expected to result in positive workplace behaviour (in-role and extra-role) aimed at benefiting the organisation and people in it rather than only focusing on personal needs (Sinclair, Tucker, Cullen, & Wright, 2005). Employees who are affectively attached to the organisation (i.e. they *want* to be in the organisation) are more likely to exert effort in order to benefit the organisation (Gellatly, Meyer, & Luchak, 2006).

3.3.2.2 *Organisational commitment in terms of perceived costs*

While the above researchers emphasised the emotional aspect of commitment, others (e.g. Becker, 1960; Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Kanter, 1968; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983; Stebbins, 1970) regarded employees' affective attachment to the organisation as less important, indicating that organisational commitment ensues when employees remain in the organisation because the costs of leaving it are too high. Becker (1960) proposed that employees engage in consistent lines of behaviour as a result of inducements (or side-bets) to do so. These side-bets may include a variety of inducements offered by employers to retain their employees, such as job status, seniority and benefits (Sinclair et al., 2005). Becker (1960), along with Farrell and Rusbult (Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983), argued that organisational commitment relates to a tendency by employees to continue engaging in regular activities following their recognition that discontinuation thereof would carry particular costs (e.g. relocation costs or disrupted social networks). Farrell and Rusbult (1981) posited that commitment results from a detached calculation of the costs and benefits associated with organisational membership rather than an emotional attachment to the organisation. For instance, when an employer contributes to an employee's medical insurance, this contribution will cease if the employee leaves the organisation. If the employee regards the cost of losing this contribution as too high, he or she will in all likelihood not leave the organisation. This does, however, not mean that the employee will experience an emotional attachment to the organisation, but rather that he or she is prevented from leaving because of the perceived costs involved in doing so (i.e. entrapment).

In line with this focus on the costs associated with "noncommitment", Kanter (1968, p. 504) regarded "cognitive-continuance commitment" as the balancing of the profit associated with continued participation in the organisation and the cost associated with leaving. Stebbins (1970) linked organisational commitment to individuals' social identity and regarded continuance commitment as the cost involved in changing one's social identity by leaving an organisation. Mayer and Schoorman (1992, 1998) conceptualised continuance commitment as an employee's desire to remain in an organisation. However, the items to measure this dimension of organisational commitment refer mainly to the perceived costs associated with leaving the organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). This corresponds with Meyer and Allen's (1991, p. 67) conceptualisation of continuance commitment (CC) as employees' awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. Employees therefore remain with their employing organisations because they *need* to (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Most multidimensional models of organisational commitment include a dimension that reflects the extent to which employees commit to a particular course of action as a result of the perceived costs associated with refraining from taking such action. This dimension is widely referred to as continuance commitment, reflecting the costs associated with leaving the organisation (Jaros et al., 1993; Mayer & Schoorman, 1992, 1998; Meyer & Allen, 1991), or alienative commitment reflecting a perceived imbalance in the costs to benefits relationship associated with employment, but an inability to leave on account of external pressures (Penley & Gould, 1988).

High levels of CC are often regarded as undesirable as negative relationships between this component of organisational commitment and employees' in-role (performance) and extra-role (OCB) behaviour have been reported (Meyer et al., 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Gellatly et al. (2006) argued that employees who feel obliged to stay in an organisation due to the costs associated with leaving (i.e. high CC) may be less inclined to do more than what is required of them, and that such employees may even reduce their effort as a result of resentment emanating from a sense of entrapment.

3.3.2.3 *Organisational commitment as a perceived obligation*

A less common approach was to view commitment as an individual's belief about his or her responsibility towards the organisation. Marsh and Mannari (1977), for instance, referred to a committed employee as someone who regards remaining in an organisation as the honourable thing to do irrespective of the benefits (e.g. status or job satisfaction) that employees enjoy by remaining. Similarly, Wiener (1982, p. 421) defined organisational commitment in terms of the "internalised normative pressures" that direct employees' behaviour towards the organisation's goals and interests. In terms of this view, employees engage in particular behaviour in the workplace because they believe that it is the morally correct thing to do.

Employees' perceived obligation to pursue a particular course of action (i.e. to stay with the organisation) was identified as a separate dimension of organisational commitment (normative commitment) by Meyer and Allen (1991). According to Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 67) normative commitment (NC) reflects an employee's feeling of obligation to continue employment (i.e. he/she *ought* to remain with the organisation). Drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), employees with a high level of NC towards their employing organisations are expected to demonstrate a willingness to exert effort on the organisation's behalf. However, they are likely to be less inclined to "walk

the extra mile” than those employees with a strong emotional attachment (AC) towards the organisation (Gellatly et al., 2006).

Wider acceptance of the multidimensional nature of organisational commitment gave rise to research aimed at identifying unique antecedents for each component of commitment. However, this was not the main research focus. According to Somers (2010), more attention was directed towards understanding relationships between the three components of commitment (AC, CC and NC) and work outcomes such as employee retention, absenteeism, performance and OCB. Researchers aimed to enhance the understanding of the relative influence of each component of commitment on work outcomes (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Seminal research in this regard includes the three-component model of Meyer and Allen (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984, 1991, 1997) and O’Reilly and Chatman’s (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986; O’Reilly et al., 1991) multidimensional framework. These models are explored in more detail in the sections below.

3.3.2.4 *O’Reilly and Chatman’s multidimensional model of organisational commitment*

O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) regarded commitment as an employee’s attitude (psychological attachment) towards his or her employing organisation and therefore focused on the ways in which individual attitudes develop. The behavioural focus of their work was on employees’ commitment to perform (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Performance in terms of O’Reilly and Chatman’s (1986) model included both in-role (prescribed) behaviour and extra-role (prosocial) behaviour.

Drawing on the work of Kelman (1958), which related to the source of attitudinal changes, O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) initially argued that commitment could take three distinct forms. Firstly, they regarded *compliance* (also referred to as instrumental commitment) as “instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards” (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 493). It therefore occurs when attitudes, and corresponding behaviours, are adopted in order to gain specific rewards. Secondly, *identification* was viewed as employees’ attachment to their employing organisations that results from a desire to establish and maintain a satisfying relationship (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Finally, O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) postulated that, if individuals’ values are compatible with those of the organisation, this would result in *internalisation*. The employees’ attitudes towards and

behaviour in the workplace would thus be aligned with the organisational values and objectives.

O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) multidimensional model of organisational commitment therefore consisted of three dimensions, namely compliance, identification and internalisation, which reflected the distinct forms that the psychological bond between an employee and his or her employing organisation may take. They (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) proposed that an employee's psychological attachment to his or her employing organisation reflects varying combinations of these psychological foundations and that the behavioural outcomes of the various forms of commitment may differ. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) found that identification and internalisation are positively related to organisational citizenship or prosocial behaviour and negatively related to turnover. OCB was thus regarded as a function of identification with the organisation and internalisation of its values rather than instrumental involvement aimed at gaining particular extrinsic rewards.

Although O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) model assisted in gaining broader acceptance of the multidimensional nature of organisational commitment, it was criticised for the high correlation found between two of its dimensions, namely identification and internalisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Following subsequent research, O'Reilly and his colleagues (Caldwell et al., 1990; O'Reilly et al., 1991) thus combined the identification and internalisation items of their model to form what they referred to as normative commitment, resulting in a two-dimensional model of organisational commitment consisting of instrumental (compliance) and normative commitment. O'Reilly, Caldwell, and Chatman's (Caldwell et al., 1990; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; O'Reilly et al., 1991) work served to emphasise the importance of clarifying the aspects of commitment being studied in order to prevent ambiguity in the interpretation of results.

3.3.2.5 *Meyer and Allen's three-component model of organisational commitment*

Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 67) conceptualised organisational commitment as a psychological state which portrays an employee's relationship with his or her employing organisation and determines whether the employee will remain in the organisation over the long term. Meyer and Allen's behavioural focus was therefore employees' commitment to remain in the organisation (i.e. reduced turnover) (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). By incorporating both the attitudinal and behavioural approaches to organisational commitment as well as their complementary relationship, and focusing on the reasons employees have to remain in an organisation, Meyer and Allen (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991) developed the three-component model of organisational commitment. They (Meyer & Allen, 1991) argued

that employees' commitment towards their employing organisation reflects a desire, need and/or an obligation to remain in the organisation and should not be limited to express only feelings and/or beliefs about their relationships with their employing organisation (Mowday et al., 1982).

Meyer and Allen (1991) expanded previous conceptualisations of organisational commitment by proposing that commitment reflects varying combinations of desire, obligation and perceived cost. They introduced three distinguishable components of organisational commitment, namely affective (AC), continuance (CC) and normative (NC) commitment, each reflecting a different psychological state of mind, and argued that employees may experience each of these psychological states to varying degrees (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). They postulated that an employee's commitment to his or her employing organisation is the net sum of the three components (i.e. his or her commitment profile) (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1979). They furthermore proposed that each component develops as a function of different antecedents and differentially impacts on employees' behaviour in the workplace (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 2002).

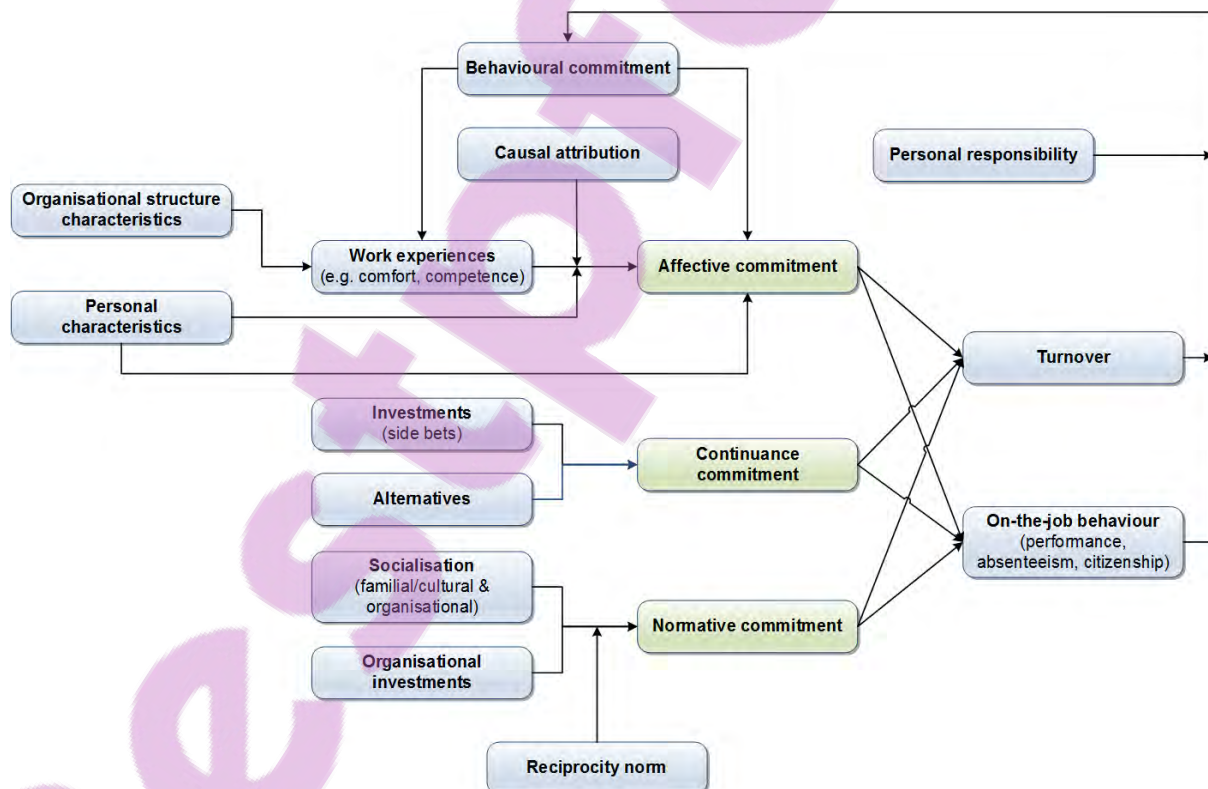


Figure 3.5. A Three-component Model of Organisational Commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 68)

Figure 3.5 is an illustration of Meyer and Allen's (1991) integration and organisation of earlier research relating to organisational commitment. This figure also elucidates their conceptualisation of the three components of organisational commitment and thereby serves as a descriptive framework for the discussion of these components, including their differential antecedents and outcomes, in the rest of this section.

As reflected in Figure 3.5, Meyer and Allen (1991) postulated that affective, continuance and normative commitment, as distinguishable components of commitment, develop in different ways and have divergent consequences in the workplace. These authors (Meyer & Allen, 1991) believed that, although all three components or forms of organisational commitment relate negatively to turnover, they relate differently to other work-related behaviours such as in-role and extra-role performance. Meyer et al. (2002) empirically confirmed these views in their meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates and consequences of affective, continuance and normative commitment, reporting that, while a strong positive relationship exists between AC and positive work outcomes, the relationship between NC and these outcomes remains positive but is weaker. In addition, CC was found to be unrelated or negatively related to desirable work behaviour such as job performance or OCB (Meyer et al., 2002). These relationships are further explored in section 3.3.2.6. The remainder of this section is focused on explaining what the three dimensions of organisational commitment, as conceptualised by Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997), entail and what they regarded as the main contributors to the development of each form of commitment.

(a) Affective commitment

Affective commitment (AC) reflects an employee's emotional reasons for remaining with his or her current organisation. These reasons may include friendships with co-workers, the organisational culture and a sense of enjoyment experienced in the workplace (Colquitt et al., 2017). Meyer and Allen's (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991) conceptualisation of AC is closely related to that of Jaros et al. (1993), who suggested that employees' affective attachment to their employing organisations may originate from feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness and pleasure experiences by employees in the workplace (termed "affective commitment") or the internalisation of organisational goals and values (termed "moral commitment"). It also corresponds with the value commitment dimension incorporated into the models proposed by Angle and Perry (1981) and Mayer and Schoorman (1992, 1998). AC may thus be defined as a desire to remain a member of an organisation because of an emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in that organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Affective commitment arises from personal characteristics, organisational structure characteristics and work experiences (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). Personal characteristics include both demographic characteristics (e.g. age, tenure, gender and education) and personal dispositions (these aspects are further explored in section 3.3.3), while organisational structure characteristics relate to the impact that factors such as the centralisation or decentralisation of decision making or the formalisation and communication of policies and procedures may have on employees' commitment towards their organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). Employees' perceptions of organisational justice and support have also been shown to positively correlate with their affective attachment towards their employing organisations (these antecedents are explored in Chapter 4).

Employees' work experiences have, however, been shown to be the strongest antecedent of their emotional attachment to their employing organisations (Allen & Meyer, 1990, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002). Thus, work experiences that fulfil employees' psychological needs to feel at ease in the workplace and competent in their work roles have been reported to increase their affective commitment towards the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Antecedents of AC that fall in the first category (i.e. feeling comfortable in the organisation) include, for instance, ratification of expectations created prior to or at the commencement of employment, role clarity, equity in the distribution of rewards, the trustworthiness of the organisation, the approachability of managers, and the clarity of mutual expectations and consideration of and support for individual needs (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1991). The second category (i.e. competence-related experiences) includes factors such as personal accomplishments, challenging tasks, autonomy and fairness in reward allocation, fair and considerate treatment by leaders, constructive feedback, as well as opportunities for development and advancement and participation in decision making that may impact on employees' affective attachment to their employing organisations (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). Thus, when organisations provide their employees with positive work experiences they will be more inclined to remain in the organisation and to exert effort towards organisational goal achievement (Meyer & Allen, 1997). This is especially true in instances where employees believe that they will not enjoy similar experiences in other organisations (i.e. the positive experiences are attributed to a particular organisation). By contributing to the organisation's success, employees attempt to maintain equity in their relationships with their employing organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Meyer and Allen (1991) recognised the importance of including behavioural commitment (Mowday et al., 1982) as an antecedent of AC (thus incorporating both the attitudinal and behavioural approaches to organisational commitment in their model). They (Meyer & Allen,

1991, 1997) argued that employees who perform at a high level of proficiency are likely to become committed to that level of performance and, consequently, develop a more positive attitude (AC) towards the organisation. A high level of AC may, in turn, ensure the continuation of a high level of performance in future. Positive work behaviours thus increase behavioural commitment, which in turn leads to higher levels of AC.

(b) Continuance commitment

Employees may also have cost-based reasons for staying with their employing organisations (e.g. salary, benefits, promotions and the costs associated with leaving) (Colquitt et al., 2017). These reasons reflect the employee's continuance commitment (CC) to the organisation, which is described as a desire to remain a member of an organisation because of an awareness of the costs associated with leaving it and/or the lack of comparable alternative employment opportunities (Allen & Meyer, 1990, 1996; Jaros et al., 1993; Meyer & Allen, 1991). The detached balancing of costs and benefits associated with CC is closely related to Penley and Gould's (1988) description of alienative commitment. CC therefore exists when there is a benefit associated with remaining in the current organisation and a cost associated with leaving (Kanter, 1968).

Continuance commitment (CC) exists when the employee is compelled to remain with the organisation because of the need for remuneration (a salary and benefits) or an inability to find another job (Meyer et al., 1993). Allen and Meyer (1990) derived their predictions in terms of the antecedents of CC on the earlier work of Becker (1960), who focused on the investments (side-bets) that employees make in their organisation and the associated cost of leaving, and Farrell and Rusbult (Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983), who postulated that the lack of alternative employment options increases the costs associated with leaving the organisation. Therefore, if an employee does not have many alternative employment options (because of, say, a high unemployment rate or the transferability of his or her skills and competencies) or if alternative employment options are not viable, his or her level of continuance commitment towards the organisation may increase (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The side-bets proposed by Becker (1960) include both work-related (e.g. losing attractive benefits such as nontransferable retirement benefits, job security or accrued vacation) and nonwork-related (e.g. relocation) factors that may be perceived as potential costs that will be incurred when leaving the organisation.

McGee and Ford's (1987) research on the continuance commitment construct has paved the way for some organisational commitment researchers (e.g. Stanley et al., 2013;

Vandenberghe & Panaccio, 2015) to argue that CC should be refined by clearly distinguishing between perceived sacrifice (PS) and few alternatives (FA). It is proposed that PS and FA should be regarded as separate subdimensions of CC reflecting two different psychological states, with PS deriving from the fear of losing economic and socioemotional incentives that are coupled with an employee's organisational membership, while FA relates to an employee's inability to locate more desirable employment opportunities elsewhere (Ali, 2015; Johnson, Chang, & Yang, 2010). Although this perspective has received some empirical support (Johnson et al., 2010; Stanley et al., 2013; Vandenberghe & Panaccio, 2015), it has not been widely incorporated into organisational commitment research. Importantly, however, Meyer and Allen (1997) reiterate that neither investments nor alternatives will have an impact on employees' CC unless they are aware of them and their implications – recognition of the cost of leaving or lack of alternative employment is thus essential.

(c) *Normative commitment*

The third component of commitment, normative commitment (NC), relates to an employee's perceived obligation to stay with his or her employing organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). In other words, the employee feels that he or she has a moral obligation towards an individual (e.g. a supervisor, manager or colleague) in the organisation or the organisation as an entity (Colquitt et al., 2017). NC originates from the employee's personal values and his or her perceived obligations towards the employer (Meyer et al., 1993). These values and obligations are formed by experiences prior to employment (familial/cultural socialisation) and following entry into the organisation (e.g. organisational socialisation and culture) (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Wiener, 1982). Familial socialisation relates to work-related norms imprinted by family members (e.g. parents who stress loyalty to one's organisation), while cultural socialisation refers to cultural dispositions that guide work-related values (e.g. collectivistic employees will be more inclined to remain in an organisation as they value interpersonal relationships) (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Triandis, 1995).

Employees' psychological contracts with their employing organisations and their work experiences also impact on their NC (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Rousseau, 1989, 1995). For instance, when organisations provide support and opportunities to their employees (e.g. payment of tertiary education fees or development opportunities), this may impact on employees' NC as they perceive an imbalance in the exchange relationship and feel that they are expected to reciprocate by remaining with the organisation and contributing to its goals (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Especially those employees with a high exchange ideology will feel compelled to remain in the organisation (NC) in order to restore the balance in the

exchange relationship (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Thus, in terms of the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), employees may also develop a sense of NC in response to positive work experiences (Meyer et al., 1993).

3.3.2.6 *The behavioural consequences of organisational commitment*

There tends to be agreement in extant literature that employees' commitment to their employing organisations is not only inferred by the expression of individual beliefs and opinions, but that it manifests in positive workplace behaviour (Mowday et al., 1979). While the behavioural focus in organisational commitment research has mainly been on the way in which employees' commitment to their organisations influences their willingness to remain in the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 2002), researchers such as Mayer and Schoorman (1992, 1998) argued that the extent to which employees accept and internalise organisational goals and values and are willing to exert effort on behalf of the organisation (i.e. value commitment) impact not only on their willingness to remain in the organisation but also on their performance in the workplace. Contemporary organisational commitment literature therefore also addresses the relationship between employees' commitment to their employing organisations and their behaviour in the workplace, including both in-role and extra-role performance (Morin et al., 2015; Tsoumbris & Xenikou, 2010).

Furthermore, the multidimensionality of organisational commitment has been found to have important implications for its behavioural consequences (Gellatly et al., 2006; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Meyer and Allen (1991) postulated that the process by which organisational commitment is translated into behaviour differs for the three dimensions. Although all three forms of commitment thus contribute to binding an individual to his or her employing organisation and thereby decrease the possibility of leaving, they have different implications for employees' job-related behaviour in the workplace (Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012). While AC and to a lesser extent NC, have been shown to have the strongest relations with desirable work-related outcomes such as OCB, attendance and performance, CC has been found to be either negatively related or unrelated to such behaviours (Meyer et al., 2002; Somers, 2010). This view is supported by the models of organisational commitment presented by Angle and Perry (1981) and O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), where different behavioural outcomes were associated with different forms of commitment. These studies indicated that AC is the strongest and most consistent predictor of turnover intentions and employee turnover with fewer and less consistent relationships observed for OCB and job performance (Meyer et al., 2002). It was furthermore concluded

that, while AC was beneficial to organisations, CC could be detrimental to them (Meyer et al., 2002).

While it is generally accepted in the literature that the various components of organisational commitment (AC, CC and NC) have differential effects on employee behaviour, empirical research on the behavioural consequences of organisational commitment has mainly focused on the independent or additive contributions of the three components (Kam et al., 2016). Researchers such as Jaros (1997), Randall, Fedor, and Longenecker (1990) and Somers (1995) have, however, argued that the three components of organisational commitment may have an interactive or synergistic effect on behaviour.

In order to better understand the complexity of the relationships between the three components of organisational commitment and behaviour, organisational researchers increasingly adopt a person-centred approach (Kam et al., 2016; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Meyer, Stanley, & Vandenberg, 2013; Wang & Hanges, 2011; Zyphur, 2009). In contrast to the more common variable-centred approach where the objective is to explain the direction and magnitude of relationships between predictor and output variables, the person-centred approach involves the identification and comparison of homogeneous subgroups (i.e. groups that share similarities on a set of constructs) within a population (Meyer, Stanley, et al., 2013; Sinclair et al., 2005). Consequently, it treats individuals in a more holistic fashion and allows for the possibility that a particular set of attributes (e.g. components of commitment) might be experienced differently, and have different implications, in combination than they do individually. The person-centred approach allows one to take a different perspective on a phenomenon of interest and serves to complement the variable-centred approach (Kam et al., 2016; Marsh, Lüdtke, Trautwein, & Morin, 2009; Meyer, Stanley, et al., 2013; Wang & Hanges, 2011; Zyphur, 2009). In organisational commitment research, a person-centred approach allows one to explore how commitment components combine to form profiles, how these profiles are experienced and how the three components of organisational commitment (AC, CC and NC) may concurrently influence workplace behaviour (Somers, 2009, 2010).

Seminal research aimed at exploring the interactive or synergistic effect of the three components of organisational commitment on behaviour was conducted by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001). They (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) paved the way for a person-centred approach to organisational commitment research by exploring the interactions between the three components of organisational commitment and the behaviour that may be associated with different commitment profiles.

(a) Meyer and Herscovitch's general model of workplace commitment

In an attempt to better understand the behavioural consequences of organisational commitment, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) explored the processes involved in the development of organisational commitment and investigated not only the behaviour to which individuals are bound (i.e. focal behaviour), but also their discretionary behaviour in the workplace. Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) model evolved from Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) three-component model of organisational commitment and was based on the premise that the same three-component structure could be applied to all commitments, regardless of their focus (e.g. organisation, occupation, union, supervisor, team or customer). This resulted in a proposed model of workplace commitment, as depicted in Figure 3.6.

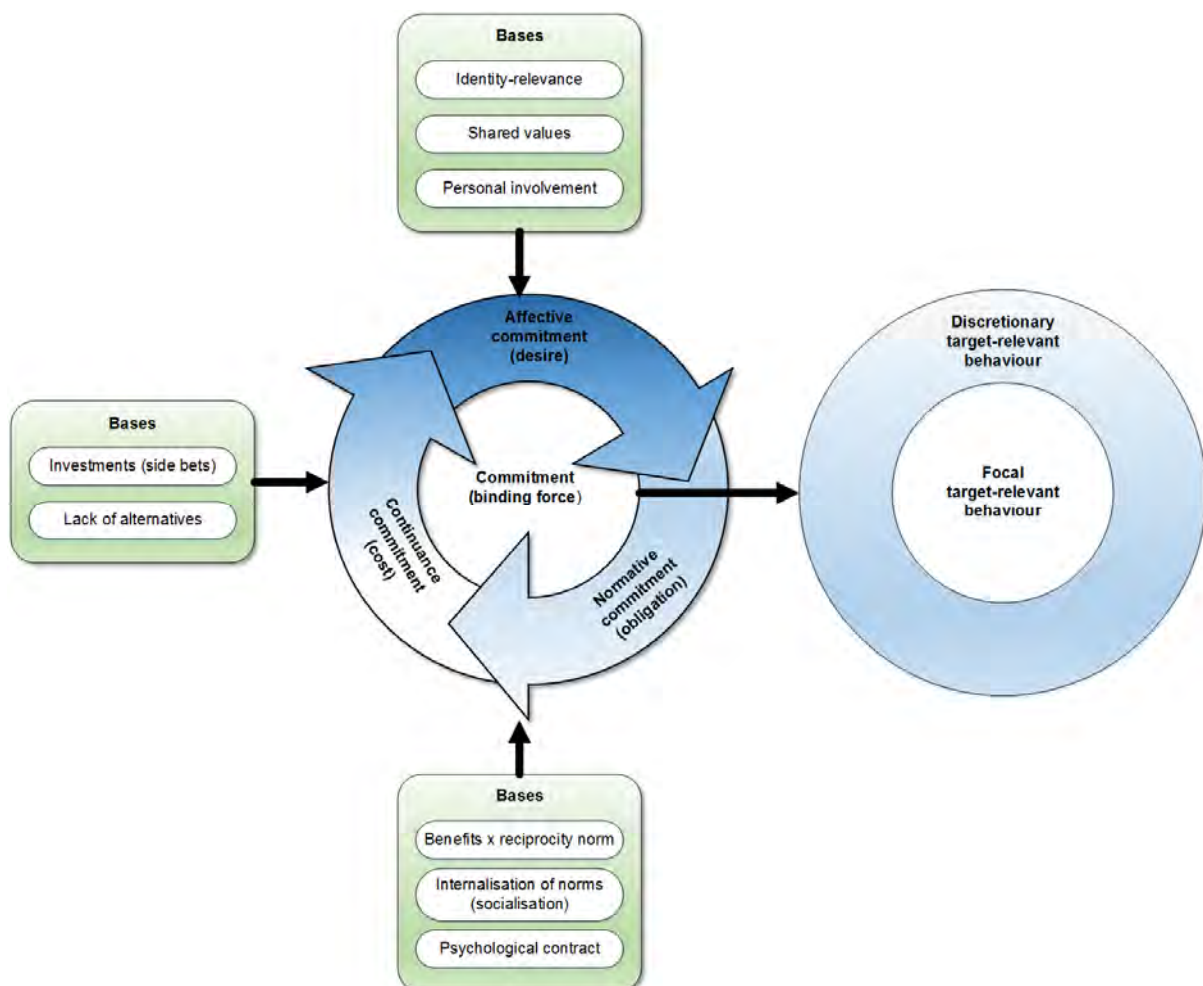


Figure 3.6. A General Model of Workplace Commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 317)

Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) model was based on their predictions relating to the probability of behaviour across commitment profiles and the nature of the interactive influence of the three components of commitment on focal and discretionary behaviour. They (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) suggested that when considering the antecedents of commitment, it is not only essential to differentiate between the mind-sets (desire, perceived costs and felt obligation) that encourage a particular form of commitment, but also to keep in mind that commitment can reflect varying degrees of all three of these mind-sets (i.e. various commitment profiles may exist). By focusing on these mind-sets, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) differentiated as follows between the antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment as follows:

- Affective commitment is characterised by desire (i.e. individuals want to pursue a particular course of action of relevance to a target). This desire may be created by personal or situational variables that encourage involvement and personal identification with an entity or common objectives, and/or reflect shared values (Mayer & Schoorman, 1992, 1998; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1982; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).
- Continuance commitment is associated with the perceived cost of discontinuing a particular course of action (e.g. leaving the organisation). CC develops when a person makes investments (or side-bets) that would be lost if he or she were to discontinue the activity or perceives that there is a lack of available alternatives, which leaves him or her with no other option than to pursue a course of action of relevance to a particular target (Jaros et al., 1993; McGee & Ford, 1987; Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997).
- Normative commitment is characterised by obligation (i.e. a sense of responsibility to pursue a course of action relevant to a target). NC develops when an individual has internalised a set of norms that guide appropriate conduct and/or when he or she believes that reciprocal action is required following the receipt of particular benefits (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Wiener, 1982). NC may also reflect the extent to which an individual recognises and accepts his or her obligations in terms of the psychological contract (Angle & Lawson, 1993; Rousseau, 1989).

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) furthermore proposed that commitment should be regarded as a force that binds an individual to a course of action (e.g. a willingness to remain in the organisation or to exert effort intended to benefit it) that is associated with a target (the organisation or people in it) and accompanied by different psychological states or mind-sets that contribute towards shaping particular behaviour. Drawing on the theoretical probability that every employee may be characterised as being either high or low on each of the three

components of organisational commitment, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) suggested eight possible commitment profiles, ranging from fully committed (high AC, NC and CC) to noncommitted (low AC, NC and CC).

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) referred to the behaviour to which an individual is bound by his or her commitment as focal behaviour and suggested that such behaviour will always be of relevance to specific targets, which may be an entity (e.g. an organisation, manager or union), an abstract principle (e.g. policy) or the outcome of a course of action (e.g. goal attainment or change implementation). They (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) furthermore suggested that the psychological states or mind-sets that give rise to employees' commitment towards their employing organisations have implications for the likelihood that particular behavioural outcomes of commitment will occur. Following this rationale, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) expected the beneficial influence of AC to be attenuated by NC and CC. They (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) postulated that behavioural outcomes will depend not only on the mind-set involved, but also on the centrality of shared values, the magnitude of the costs that would be incurred and the strength of the need for reciprocity. In addition, people may have multiple commitments with conflicting implications for behaviour.

They (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) argued that, while all three mind-sets (desire, cost and obligation) are expected to be positively associated with the focal behaviour, AC is anticipated to have a stronger relationship than NC and CC. Therefore, the focal behaviour displayed by employees is broader when they have an affective attachment to their employing organisations (AC) than in the case of CC or NC. AC is thus expected to predict a wider range of employee behaviours in the workplace because it is accompanied by a mind-set of desire rather than perceived cost (CC) or obligation (NC). The nature of employees' psychological state or mind-set (desire, cost or obligation) therefore impacts on the way they respond to higher levels of commitment in terms of their behaviour in and towards their employing organisations. The differences in the strength of the associations for the respective mind-sets are expected to be even greater in the case of discretionary behaviour. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) argued that, when an individual's AC is high, his or her behaviour is guided by desire or a belief in the meaningfulness and importance of an activity. Such an individual will presumably define the target behaviour extremely broadly and will be more likely to pursue other courses of action that are judged beneficial to the target (e.g. the organisation, manager or union). High NC reflects a sense of obligation to enact the focal behaviour. Whether this obligation leads to other target-relevant behaviours depends on whether the individual views these behaviours as relevant to the fulfilment of his or her perceived obligation. Finally, high CC reflects an evaluation of the costs associated with failing to enact target-relevant behaviour. If, however,

cost avoidance is the only basis for commitment, the individual is unlikely to engage in discretionary behaviour.

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) thus offered a set of propositions concerning how various combinations (profiles) of commitment mind-sets (i.e. incorporating varied levels of AC, NC and CC) would relate to employees' behaviour in the workplace (Kam et al., 2016). They (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) suggested that the optimal profiles from an outcomes perspective would be characterised by strong AC and relatively weak CC and NC. The least desirable outcomes were expected for uncommitted employees (all components low) or those whose profile was dominated by strong CC. In terms of discretionary behaviour, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) expected AC to have the strongest positive correlation with OCB, followed by NC, and furthermore proposed that CC would in all likelihood have the opposite effect (i.e. correlate negatively with OCB). In addition, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) expected that the amalgamation of different forms of commitment may influence behaviour in that the relation between any single form of commitment and behaviour will be greatest when the other forms of commitment are low. For instance, they expected AC to correlate more strongly with the focal behaviour when CC and NC are low.

Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) obtained reasonable empirical support for Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) propositions by reporting higher outcome scores for profiles with high AC and/or high NC, as well as obtaining some evidence for the mitigating effect of CC. However, their empirical research specifically focused on commitment to change and its implications in terms of resistance to organisational change. The need therefore still existed to test the accuracy of their propositions in a broader context. Hence, several studies focusing on the development and behavioural consequences of commitment profiles were conducted (e.g. Gellatly et al., 2006; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Sinclair et al., 2005; Somers, 2009, 2010; Wasti, 2005). These studies generated new insights into the nature and implications of organisational commitment (Kam et al., 2016). Their main findings are briefly outlined in the sections below.

(b) *Wasti's commitment profiles*

Although Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed that an employee could experience the three components of organisational commitment (AC, CC and NC) concurrently, their combined impact was largely ignored in organisational commitment research, which tended to focus on the antecedents and consequences of each of the components of organisational commitment separately. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) were the first to address the gap in research by

making a number of theoretical propositions relating to the mind-sets underlying the development of organisational commitment (including their respective antecedents) and the anticipated behavioural consequences of the interactions between all three forms of organisational commitment. However, Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) propositions required empirical validation. Wasti (2005) responded by empirically testing these propositions in order to determine how the three components of organisational commitment may combine to create commitment profiles. Wasti (2005) furthermore explored the behavioural implications of the different profiles that may emanate from such combinations.

Wasti (2005) conducted two studies using cluster analysis and was able to reproduce five of the eight profiles hypothesised by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) in one sample and six of the eight in another (Sample 1: highly committed; non-committed; neutral; AC-dominant; CC-dominant; and AC/NC-dominant; Sample 2: highly committed; non-committed; AC-dominant; CC-dominant; AC/NC-dominant; and NC/CC-dominant). Wasti (2005) furthermore found that the highly committed, AC/NC-dominant and AC-dominant profiles could be best associated with positive workplace behaviour. In contrast, negative workplace behaviour was linked to the noncommitted and CC-dominant profiles. Wasti's (2005) research therefore accentuated the dominance of AC as a driver of positive workplace behaviour. However, it was emphasised that the positive behavioural consequences are greater when high levels of AC are combined with high NC or when an employee is fully committed (high AC, NC and CC). In addition, AC was found to encourage positive behaviour when combined with low levels of CC (Wasti, 2005). Wasti (2005) furthermore reported that high CC does not contribute significantly towards the execution of desired job-related behaviour (e.g. lower turnover intentions) or discretionary behaviours (i.e. work withdrawal, loyal boosterism and altruism towards colleagues), and thus argued that managerial practices that only build CC may be detrimental to both the organisation and its employees. Wasti (2005) concluded that a better understanding of commitment profiles is essential for predicting both focal and discretionary employee behaviour.

(c) *Sinclair, Tucker, Cullen, and Wright's framework of affective and continuance commitment profiles*

Sinclair et al. (2005), drawing on prior organisational commitment research and configural organisational theory, proposed a framework of affective and continuance commitment profiles, which they defined as the relative levels of commitment for each employee. These researchers expected that distinct groupings of commitment would exist in organisations and,

by using cluster analysis, identified the following commitment profiles: (1) allied (moderate AC and CC); (2) free agents (moderate CC and low AC); (3) devoted (high AA and CC); and (4) complacent (moderate AA and low CC) (Sinclair et al., 2005). They reported that free agents demonstrated lower levels of performance and OCB as well as more antisocial behaviour than the other profile groups (Sinclair et al., 2005).

(d) *Gellatly, Meyer, and Luchak's empirical testing of the combined effects of the three commitment components on behaviour*

Gellatly et al.'s (2006) study was aimed at testing the theoretical propositions advanced by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) concerning the interactive effects of AC, NC and CC on focal (staying intentions) and discretionary (citizenship) behaviour. They used median splits of AC, CC and NC to assign employees to the eight commitment profiles postulated by Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001), and found that the way any single component of commitment relates to behaviour is influenced by the context created by the other components within a commitment profile (Gellatly et al., 2006). For instance, how NC is experienced by an individual and the extent to which it influences his or her behaviour in the workplace may differ from others with similar levels of NC, depending on the strength of AC and CC (Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012).

These authors (Gellatly et al., 2006) therefore suggested that the other components in a profile provide a context that has implications for how a particular component is experienced. Most notably, they found that, when NC is combined with strong AC, it might be experienced as a moral imperative (i.e. a desire to do the right thing). However, when combined with strong CC in the absence of AC, NC may be experienced as an indebted obligation (i.e. a need to do what is expected) (Kam et al., 2016; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012). Gellatly et al. (2006) found that, in contrast to Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) proposition that an AC-dominant profile would be optimal with regard to behaviour, the highest levels of staying intentions and OCB existed for AC/NC-dominant profiles. Gellatly et al.'s (2006) results thus suggested that the influence of any single component of commitment is affected by the levels of the two other components.

(e) *Somers' commitment profiles and their relationships with work outcomes*

Somers (2009, 2010) set out to empirically test Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) proposals and found strong but not indisputable support. By using empirical clustering methods, Somers

(2009) reproduced five of the eight commitment profiles suggested by Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001), namely (1) highly committed; (2) AC/NC-dominant; (3) CC/NC-dominant; (4) CC-dominant; and (5) uncommitted. The AC-dominant, AC/CC-dominant and NC-dominant profiles did not emerge.

Somers (2009) compared these profiles in terms of work outcomes (turnover intentions, job search behaviour, work withdrawal and job stress). Although this study's finding that the AC/NC-dominant profile could be associated with positive work outcomes (most notably lower turnover intentions and lower levels of psychological stress) was in line with previous research, an unexpected result was that the CC/NC-dominant group reported the lowest levels of absenteeism (Somers, 2009). This highlighted the need for further research on the combined influence of the components of commitment (i.e. commitment profiles) on work outcomes.

In a subsequent study, Somers (2010) again sought to replicate Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) commitment profiles by using empirically based clustering methods. Seven of the eight commitment profiles from Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) typology emerged, namely (1) highly committed; (2) AC-dominant; (3) CC-dominant; (4) AC-CC dominant; (5) AC/NC-dominant; (6) CC/NC-dominant; and (7) uncommitted. Somers (2010) tested the relationships between these commitment profiles and a number of outcome variables including turnover, turnover intentions, absenteeism and person-organisation congruence. The finding that normative commitment alone and in conjunction with continuance commitment enhance the benefits of affective commitment were consistent with prior findings (e.g. Gellatly et al., 2006; Wasti, 2005).

Somers' (2009, 2010) findings highlighted the complexity of the commitment processes, implying that the relative levels of commitment for each employee affect how the more general psychological state of commitment is experienced. It emphasised the importance of engaging in further research aimed at exploring the combined influence of the three components of commitment on outcome variables, especially those associated with employee retention and OCB.

(f) Tsoumbris and Xenikou's commitment profiles and their configural effect on work outcomes

Tsoumbris and Xenikou's (2010) research among employees from a variety of Greek organisations was based upon the conceptual association between the multidimensional and

multifocal nature of work-related commitment. They (Tsoumbris & Xenikou, 2010) set out to identify commitment profiles based on the three components of organisational and occupational commitment and to examine their combined effect on fundamental work outcomes, including withdrawal behaviour and desirable discretionary behaviour. Four commitment profiles, incorporating the three components of both organisational and occupational commitment, were identified by using cluster analysis, namely (1) highly committed; (2) CC-dominant; (3) AC/NC-dominant; and (4) noncommitted (Tsoumbris & Xenikou, 2010). These profiles emerged for both organisational and occupational commitment illustrating the compatibility of commitment foci.

Tsoumbris and Xenikou's (2010) main contributions to organisational commitment research related to the validation of occupational commitment as a predictor of work-related variables; the compatibility of occupational and organisational commitment; and the positive effect of the highly committed (i.e. high levels of AC, CC and NC towards both the organisation and the occupation) profile on focal and discretionary behaviour.

(g) Contemporary studies relating to the nature and implications of commitment profiles

The increasing acceptance of and importance ascribed to commitment profiles and the combined impact of the various components of commitment on behaviour in the workplace, have resulted in a number of recent studies aimed at enhancing appreciation of the complexities underlying organisational commitment and its impact on employee behaviour (Kabins et al., 2016; Kam et al., 2016; Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Morin et al., 2016, 2015; Stanley et al., 2013). The aim of these studies was to identify naturally occurring profile groups in a variety of settings in order to establish whether there are particular commitment profiles that may universally apply. Furthermore, these studies collectively contribute to a better understanding of the relationships between commitment profiles and a variety of behavioural outcomes exploring the possibility that an optimal commitment profile exist. By embracing the person-centred approach to organisational commitment (i.e. the existence of commitment profiles and the combined impact of the various components of commitment), these studies tend to rely on latent profile analysis (as opposed to median splits or cluster analysis that was used in earlier studies) to detect naturally occurring subgroups within their samples (as proposed by Sinclair et al., 2005; Somers, 2009, 2010; Wasti, 2005). The main findings of these studies are briefly outlined in Table 3.3 and discussed below.

Table 3.3

Summary of Contemporary Studies Relating to the Nature and Implications of Commitment Profiles in Organisations

Article	Main findings	Commitment profiles
Meyer, Stanley, and Parfyonova (2012)	<p>Developed and tested hypotheses regarding the motivational states associated with different commitment profiles, as well as the implications of these profiles for job performance and employee well-being.</p> <p>Reported that these profile groups differed in terms of need satisfaction, regulation, affect, engagement, OCB and well-being.</p> <p>Found the strongest evidence of context effects for CC.</p>	<p>Six profiles identified by means of latent profile analysis:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) uncommitted (2) CC-dominant (3) moderate commitment (4) low-moderate commitment (5) fully committed (6) AC/NC-dominant
Meyer, Kam, Goldenberg, and Bremner (2013)	<p>Tested the propositions that AC, NC and CC combine to form commitment profiles and that these profiles have different implications for employee behaviour and well-being in a military context.</p> <p>Examined conditions (perceived organisational support, organisational justice, job satisfaction and satisfaction with leadership) that may contribute to the development of commitment profiles.</p> <p>Found that military personnel with profiles reflecting strong AC and NC reported the most favourable work conditions, stay intentions, and well-being, while uncommitted personnel and those with CC-dominant profiles reported the least favourable conditions, were most active in job search activities, and scored highest on anxiety and depression.</p>	<p>Six profiles identified by means of latent profile analysis:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) uncommitted (2) CC-dominant (3) all low-mid (4) all mid (5) AC-dominant (6) AC/NC-dominant

Article	Main findings	Commitment profiles
Stanley, Vandenberghe, Vandenberg, and Bentein (2013)	<p>Used a four-dimensional model of commitment to examine how the affective (AC), normative (NC), perceived sacrifice (PS) and few alternatives (FA) components of commitment combine to form profiles and determine turnover intention and turnover.</p> <p>Proposed that three mechanisms account for how profiles operate, namely the degree to which membership is internally regulated; the perceived desirability and ease of movement; and the within-person contextual effects among profiles.</p>	<p>Six profiles identified by means of latent profile analysis:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) AC-dominant (2) AC/NC-dominant (3) committed (4) continuance-dominant (5) not committed (6) moderately committed
Morin, Meyer, McAnarney, Marsh, and Ganotice (2015)	<p>Extended the application of the person-centred approach to identify profiles of commitment to two interrelated targets (organisation and occupation).</p> <p>Identified seven distinct profiles reflecting both similarities and differences in the nature of the dual commitments across targets, and demonstrated differing patterns of turnover intentions and well-being across the profiles.</p>	<p>Six organisational commitment profiles identified by means of latent profile analysis:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) weak CC-dominant (2) weakly committed (3) strong CC-dominant (4) moderately committed (5) AC-dominant (6) AC/NC-dominant <p>Also identified six occupational commitment profiles and seven dual commitment profiles.</p>
Kam, Morin, Meyer, and Topolnytsky (2016)	<p>Examined changes in profile membership over an eight-month period in an organisation undergoing a strategic change.</p> <p>Tested hypotheses concerning the relationship between perceived trustworthiness of management and employees' commitment profile within and across time, and found that commitment profiles have substantial temporal stability and that trustworthiness positively predicts membership in more desirable commitment profiles.</p>	<p>Six profiles identified by means of latent profile analysis:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) AC/NC-dominant (2) AC dominant (3) All mid with AC dominant (4) All mid with CC dominant (5) CC dominant

Article	Main findings	Commitment profiles
Morin, Meyer, Creusier, and Biétry (2016)	Proposed a six-step process that may be used in person-centred analyses to systematically and quantitatively assess the extent to which a latent profile solution generalises across diverse samples, or the extent to which interventions or naturalistic changes may impact the nature of a latent profile solution.	Five profiles identified by means of latent profile analysis: (1) CC-dominant (2) moderately committed (3) AC/NC-dominant (4) NC-dominant (5) AC-dominant
Meyer and Morin (2016)	<p>Demonstrated, by summarising the findings of extant research, that a person-centred approach may be effectively utilised when testing aspects of commitment theory not easily addressed using the more traditional variable-centred techniques, particularly those involving complex interactions among variables.</p> <p>Introduced various basic and advanced analytic strategies that may be used to address a wide range of organisational research questions.</p> <p>Discussed the practical implications of taking a person-centred approach to commitment research to supplement the more traditional variable-centred approach.</p>	<p>By summarising the profiles identified in published research, established that the following profiles emerge regularly:</p> <p>(1) CC-dominant (2) AC-dominant (3) AC/NC-dominant</p> <p>The following profiles are often found but less frequently than those above:</p> <p>(1) weakly committed (2) fully committed (3) AC/CC-dominant</p>
Kabins, Xu, Bergman, Berry, and Willson (2016)	<p>Used a meta-analytic approach, combined with multilevel latent profile analysis (LPA) that accounts for both within- and between-sample variability, to examine the antecedents and outcomes of commitment profiles.</p> <p>Found that high levels of bases of commitment were associated with value-based profiles, whereas low levels were associated with weak commitment profiles. Additionally, value-based profiles were associated with older, married and less educated participants than the weak commitment profiles.</p>	<p>Five profiles identified by means of latent profile analysis:</p> <p>(1) low commitment (2) moderate commitment (3) AC-dominant (4) AC/NC-dominant (5) high commitment</p> <p>(1) and (2) regarded as weak profiles (i.e. negative outcome profiles). (3), (4) and (5) regarded as value-based profiles (i.e.</p>

Article	Main findings	Commitment profiles
	Reported significant relationships between commitment profiles and focal behaviours (e.g. performance, tenure and turnover) and discretionary behaviour (e.g. OCB). Value-based profiles were found to have higher levels of both focal and discretionary behaviours.	resulting in strong positive outcomes).

Meyer, Stanley, and Parfyonova's (2012) observations support the notion expressed by Gellatly et al. (2006) that a commitment profile provides a context that determines how the individual components are experienced. They found the strongest evidence of context effects for CC, reporting that strong CC (in isolation) may reflect entrapment because of the lack of alternatives or the economic costs of leaving. However, when combined with strong AC and NC, CC is postulated to reflect awareness of the costs associated with the loss of desirable work and/or work conditions. Therefore, when combined with strong AC and NC, CC should not be regarded as negative (entrapment), but rather associated with positive motivational states (greater autonomous regulation and need satisfaction) and outcomes (OCB and well-being). Meyer, Stanley, and Parfyonova (2012) reported that, when AC and NC are also strong, employees with strong CC appear satisfied, self-directed and engaged in their work. In addition, CC, when combined with strong AC and NC, is associated with greater in-role performance and OCB. Thus, the implications of CC were shown to be determined by its relative strength within the full commitment profile. Meyer, Stanley, and Parfyonova's (2012) research stresses that, while negative consequences are expected when employees are uncommitted (i.e. low AC, NC and CC), the CC-dominant group may be more challenging as they are unlikely to engage in any form of positive discretionary work behaviour (OCB). Furthermore, the negative consequences of high CC are reported to be stronger when this is combined with weak AC. Although Meyer, Stanley, and Parfyonova's (2012) findings contradict Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) proposition that strong CC would mitigate the effects of strong AC, it confirms the findings of subsequent studies (Somers, 2009, 2010; Wasti, 2005) and supports the notion that the mind-set and outcomes associated with CC can vary with context (Gellatly et al., 2006).

Meyer, Kam, et al. (2013) identified similar (although not identical) profiles than those reported by Meyer, Stanley, and Parfyonova (2012). Although Meyer, Kam, et al.'s (2013) study relates to a specific occupational group (military) and may therefore not be generalisable, it has contributed to a growing body of evidence suggesting that some commitment profiles (e.g. AC-dominant, CC-dominant and AC/NC-dominant) are particularly prevalent across samples.

Meyer, Kam, et al.'s (2013) findings support the argument that the three components of organisational commitment should be considered in combination rather than individually. It furthermore strengthens the argument that some commitment profiles are superior to others in terms of their relationship to positive employee behaviour and that, instead of focusing on finding ways to encourage AC only (which has traditionally been the norm), organisations need to determine the optimal commitment profiles that will encourage desired employee behaviour in their particular environments.

Meyer, Kam, et al. (2013) also set out to determine whether membership of different profile groups could be predicted on the basis of individuals' perceptions of their work-related perceptions and work experiences. They found that POS, job satisfaction and satisfaction with leadership were positively associated with the likelihood of having one of the more desirable profiles (i.e. AC-dominant or AC/NC-dominant), and thus concluded that positive work conditions may contribute to both a desire to remain in the organisation and a moral imperative to do so (Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013). They concluded that AC and NC might have synergistic effects dedicated to fostering a strong sense of moral duty towards the organisation, which is likely to be more advantageous to the organisation than a pure emotional attachment to it (AC).

Stanley et al. (2013) made a unique contribution to the research relating to organisational commitment profiles by not only using a four-dimensional model of commitment (AC, NC, PS and FA), but also identifying three psychological mechanisms that were shown to guide the formation of profiles and contribute in different ways when predicting turnover intention and actual turnover behaviour. These psychological mechanisms include the extent to which the drive associated with membership is internally regulated (i.e. relative salience of internal drive); the perceived desirability and ease of movement; and the within-person contextual effects among profiles. Stanley et al. (2013) reported that the AC-dominant, AC/NC-dominant and committed profiles displayed lower turnover intention than the continuance-dominant and no committed profiles. Furthermore, the continuance-dominant profile and the profiles in which AC was high displayed lower turnover rates than the not committed profile. Stanley et al.'s (2013) research thus contributed to a better understanding of how the various components of commitment may combine to collectively influence behaviour in the workplace.

Kam et al. (2016) set out to determine how commitment profiles form and whether they remain stable over time. They focused on perceived trustworthiness as a potential contributor to profile formation and change. Kam et al.'s (2016) analyses revealed five commitment profiles, all of which were similar to profiles identified in previous research, suggesting that the potential

number of profiles are limited and therefore manageable when attempting to understand their antecedents and relations with behaviour. They (Kam et al., 2016) furthermore found that although commitment profiles remain relatively stable over time, even during conditions of organisational change, they may still be sensitive to management interventions (e.g. management trustworthiness). Kam et al. (2016) contributed to emerging theory on desired or optimal commitment profiles by reporting that turnover intention was lowest for employees in the AC/NC-dominant profile group. This finding supports previous reports relating to the positive relations between the AC/NC-dominant profile and desirable outcomes such as retention, job performance and OCB (Somers, 2009, 2010; Wasti, 2005). Kam et al. (2016) thus supported the arguments raised by contemporary organisational commitment researchers that the value and contribution of NC in encouraging positive workplace behaviour may have been underestimated. It is thus argued that a combination of obligation (NC) and desire (AC), rather than a pure affective attachment to the organisation (AC), may be more likely to encourage behaviour that is beneficial to both the organisation and the individual.

Morin et al. (2016) endeavoured to provide organisational researchers with a comprehensive systematic approach that could be used to examine the similarity (or generalisability) of commitment profiles, their antecedents and their outcomes across subgroups. In order to illustrate the application of this approach, they conducted a cross-cultural comparison of organisational commitment profiles using samples from France and North America. In addition to determining how AC, NC and CC combine to form profiles, they (Morin et al., 2016) explored the relations between profile membership and employees' demographic characteristics (gender, tenure and level of education), their perceptions of HRM practices as antecedents and turnover intentions and work exhaustion as outcomes. Although the value of their research mainly related to the proposed process of analysis, Morin et al. (2016) contributed to the organisational commitment literature by identifying particular commitment profiles and thereby strengthening the argument for the existence of generalisable profiles that may be identified across diverse samples.

Finally, Meyer and Morin (2016) reported that (as reflected in Table 3.3) most studies that have adopted a person-centred approach to organisational commitment report between five and seven commitment profiles reflecting various subpopulations within their samples. The following profiles tend to emerge (Meyer & Morin, 2016):

- AC-dominant – employees are emotionally committed to their organisations
- AC/NC-dominant – employees experience moral commitment (i.e. a desire [AC] to do the right thing [NC])

- CC-dominant – employees feel trapped (unable to leave) in their organisations
- NC-dominant – employees feel obliged to the organisation
- CC/NC-dominant – employees feel indebted to the organisation (i.e. it will be costly [CC] if they fail to live up to their obligations [NC])
- AC/CC-dominant – employees feel invested (i.e. they experience personal benefits [AC] from a relationship that would be costly to lose [CC])
- fully committed (strong AC, NC and CC) – employees see the costs (CC) associated with failure to follow through on their moral commitment (AC/NC)
- moderately committed – employees experience the same state as fully committed employees, but to a lesser degree

Kabins et al. (2016) warn, however, that as profile names are devised on the basis of within-study comparison among profiles by comparing their relative levels and shapes, it is not always possible to compare profiles across studies. Both Kabins et al. (2016) and Meyer and Morin (2016) thus set out to devise ways of comparing profiles across studies. While Meyer and Morin (2016) compared the profiles that have emerged regularly across studies in terms of shape, elevation and scatter, Kabins et al. (2016) relied on a meta-analytic approach. While both Meyer and Morin's (2016) and Kabins et al.'s (2016) research confirmed that a limited number of profiles tend to emerge across studies, the profiles identified differed slightly. Meyer and Morin (2016) reported that the CC-dominant, AC-dominant and AC/NC-dominant profiles were the most prominent, while Kabins et al.'s (2016) meta-analysis revealed three value-based (high commitment, AC/NC-dominant and AC-dominant) and two weak profiles (low and moderate commitment). The CC-dominant profile, which consistently emerged in a number of studies, was not found in Kabins et al.'s (2016) meta-analysis. Further research is required to determine why the profiles identified in individual (Meyer & Morin, 2016; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012) and multilevel (Kabins et al., 2016) analyses differ, but this falls outside the scope of this study. Both Kabins et al. (2016) and Meyer and Morin's (2016) research, however, suggest that commitment profiles reflecting meaningful psychological states that may affect employees' relationship with their employing organisations, and subsequently their behaviour in the workplace may be identified.

Meyer and Morin's (2016) results also suggest that extant literature linking individual mind-sets to outcome variables may be somewhat misleading in light of the more recent findings endorsing the use of compound mind-sets to better understand the complexity of organisational commitment and its impact on employees' behaviour in the workplace. Meyer and Morin's (2016) analysis furthermore suggests that the optimal commitment profiles from

an outcomes perspective are the fully committed, AC/NC-dominant, and AC-dominant profiles. The poorest outcomes tend to be associated with the uncommitted and CC-dominant profiles (Kam et al., 2016; Morin et al., 2015). This view was supported by Kabins et al.'s (2016) meta-analytic findings indicating that value-based profiles (i.e. highly committed, AC/NC-dominant and AC-dominant) have the strongest relationship with positive work outcomes and that this positive effect was more pronounced for discretionary behaviour (OCB and CWB) than focal behaviour (e.g. job performance and tenure).

Kabins et al. (2016) relied on Meyer, Becker, and Van Dick's (2006) dichotomy of value- and exchange-based commitments to enhance understanding of the positive and negative effects that can be linked to different commitment profiles. Meyer et al. (2006) regarded value-based commitments as indicative of shared ideologies, beliefs and deep identification between the individual and the organisation, while exchange-based commitment was seen to reflect a transactional mind-set, whereby the individual's sense of membership is based on the fulfilment of a contract and/or performance is contingent on an exchange of goods or services.

The above studies provide new insights into the manner in which employees develop and experience commitment towards their employing organisations. The findings confirm the existence of commitment profiles (i.e. the way the components of organisational commitment combine to form homogeneous subgroups) and emphasise the importance of considering context when examining the implications of organisational commitment for employee behaviour. These studies furthermore accentuate the view that the ways in which employees experience organisational commitment and the manner in which this impacts on their behaviour in the workplace may differ, depending on their unique combinations of AC, NC and CC (i.e. commitment profiles). They also suggest that there may be an optimal commitment profile (most likely the AC/NC-dominant profile), which implies that the almost exclusive focus on AC in research attempting to understand the relationships between organisational commitment and behaviour is inadequate and most likely inaccurate. Finally, they propose that there may be particular drivers that are key to fostering desirable commitment profiles, calling for further research aimed at identifying such drivers.

In summary, organisational commitment is regarded as a psychological state that binds an individual employee to his or her employing organisation, thereby reducing the likelihood of leaving (Allen & Meyer, 1990). In terms of the three-component model of organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997), organisational commitment consists of three interrelated components, each reflecting different mind-sets or reasons employees may have to remain with their current organisations. AC reflects emotion-based reasons (they *want* to

stay), while CC reflects cost-based reasons (they *need* to stay) and NC reflects obligation-based reasons (they *ought* to stay) (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Colquitt et al., 2017; Meyer & Allen, 1991). These three components of organisational commitment combine to create an overall sense of psychological attachment to the employing organisation (Colquitt et al., 2017), which may be regarded as an employee's commitment profile (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

It has been well established in extant literature that different mind-sets or psychological states develop as a result of different antecedents (Meyer & Allen, 1997). For instance, while positive work experiences and work-related perceptions (e.g. POS, organisational justice, job satisfaction and positive leadership) have been shown to strongly correlate with high levels of AC (and to a lesser extent with NC), they have been reported to be unrelated to CC (Meyer et al., 2002). Although these differing antecedents of the respective mind-sets remain undisputed, it is essential, when adopting a person-centred view of organisational commitment, to explore the suggestion that particular commitment profiles develop when conditions conducive to individual mind-sets prevail (Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013). A particular profile is therefore expected to result from the co-occurrence of conditions found to contribute to the individual mind-sets (desire, obligation and cost). In addition, a single condition can contribute to multiple mind-sets, depending on how an individual perceives it (Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013).

Although Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that a better understanding of employees' relationships with their employing organisations can be obtained by considering all three dimensions of organisational commitment simultaneously as each component develops as a result of different experiences and has different implications for employees behaviour in the workplace, research relating to the combined impact of the three components has only gained support in more recent studies (e.g. Gellatly et al., 2006; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Sinclair et al., 2005; Somers, 2009, 2010; Wasti, 2005). While a variable-centred approach has traditionally been used to gain a better understanding of the additive and interactive effect of the components of organisational commitment (i.e. AC, CC and NC) on behaviour (Meyer et al., 2002; Morin et al., 2016), contemporary studies advocate that such an approach should be supported by a person-centred strategy as this will enable researchers to gain a better understanding of the nature and implications of commitment (Meyer et al., 2015; Meyer, Stanley, et al., 2013).

Contemporary research findings suggest that it is possible to identify one or more optimal commitment profiles that will encourage desirable employee behaviour in a particular workplace (Kabins et al., 2016). For instance, the AC/NC-dominant profile has been shown to

have the strongest positive relationship with employee behaviour (including in-role and extra-role behaviour) (Kam et al., 2016; Somers, 2009, 2010; Wasti, 2005). Kam et al. (2016) suggests that the combination of obligation (NC) with desire (AC) may be regarded as an optimal combination of employee self-interest and collective interest. Employees with an AC/NC-dominant profile are therefore expected to be more willing to exert effort on behalf of the collective (the organisation and people in it) beyond what is formally required (Meyer et al., 2015). The development of this profile is likely to be influenced by personal and situational factors (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). This includes not only employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Rousseau, 1995; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993), but also their personal dispositions such as cultural values (e.g. individualism/collectivism) (Kam et al., 2016). Reported relations between demographic variables and the various components of organisational commitment have neither been strong nor consistent (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Morin et al., 2015). It does, however, remain crucial to consider the potential confounding impact of employees' personal characteristics on their commitment towards their employing organisations, and the impact of such characteristics that have been reported in the literature are therefore highlighted below.

3.3.3 Person-centred variables influencing organisational commitment

The antecedents to organisational commitment reported in extant literature can be divided into four broad categories, namely personal characteristics, role-related characteristics, work experiences and structural characteristics (Meyer & Allen, 1988; Mowday et al., 1982). The development of commitment profiles may be impacted on by situational factors (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997) or work-related perceptions and work experiences such as POS (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002), POJ (Colquitt et al., 2001) and trust (Colquitt et al., 2007). Personal characteristics include both demographic attributes and individual dispositions (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Individual dispositions that have been shown to impact on employees' commitment to their employing organisations include, for example, personality traits (e.g. emotional stability, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness), locus of control, personal work ethic and the need for achievement, affiliation and autonomy (Choi, Oh, & Colbert, 2015; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997; Phipps et al., 2015; Vandenberghe & Panaccio, 2015). The value that employees assign to achievement, affiliation and autonomy is closely related to their cultural dispositions in terms of individualism and collectivism (Triandis, 1995). It is thus argued that employees' individual dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism may impact on the extent to which they are inclined to become

committed towards their employing organisations and more specifically their affective attachment to their organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1991). For instance, employees with an individualistic disposition will value independence and individual accomplishments (Triandis, 1995). They are therefore expected to be more likely to become committed towards the organisation if their contributions to it are acknowledged and rewarded. However, as their focus is mainly on the transactional contract with their employing organisations, fulfilment of their needs for acknowledgement and reward are more likely to increase their normative commitment towards the organisation (i.e. the costs and benefits associated with remaining in the organisation are regarded as balanced). In contrast, employees with a collectivistic disposition will place greater value on the relational aspects of employment (Triandis, 1995). Their focus is on the socioemotional needs, and therefore their commitment to the organisation is more likely to increase if their needs for belonging and acceptance are met (Hofstede, 2001; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Triandis, 2004). Such employees are less likely to view their relationship with their employing organisation as a social exchange and, because of their valuation of communal relationships, will be less likely to leave their organisations even if their needs are not met (Triandis, 1995). It is therefore postulated that collectivistic employees will be more inclined to adjust their behaviour in and towards the organisation if their needs are not met (i.e. low affective commitment) rather than leaving the organisation.

Although some research has been conducted aimed at exploring the impact of cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism on employees' commitment towards their employing organisation (see Chapter 6), research focusing on understanding the contextual effects of commitment profiles on behavioural outcomes and most notably discretionary behaviour remains limited (Meyer & Morin, 2016). Furthermore, although similar profiles have been reported in different cultural settings (Kam et al., 2016; Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, et al., 2012; Morin et al., 2015; Stanley et al., 2013; Wasti, 2005), it has not yet been determined whether cultural differences result in diverse commitment profiles. One of the aims of this study was therefore to contribute to the literature relating to the development of commitment profiles by determining whether profiles similar to those identified in other studies emerge in South African organisations – a cultural setting that has not yet been explored in person-centred organisational commitment research. It was anticipated that the commitment profiles would correspond with those identified in other settings, but that individuals with different cultural dispositions (individualists vs collectivists) might be more likely to adopt a particular compound mind-set based on their cultural values. The relationship between individuals' cultural disposition and their commitment towards the organisation is further explored in Chapter 6.

It has been well established that individuals have various reasons for being involved in and remaining with their employing organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). The reasons may be grounded in emotion (AC), cost (CC) or obligation (NC). It is thus expected that the weight that individuals place on particular reasons for remaining in an organisation and engaging in positive work behaviour will be impacted on by their individual characteristics (Maia, Bastos, & Solinger, 2016). For example, an employee who is more emotional and intuitive in nature will base his or her decision to remain with the organisation on his or her emotional attachment to it rather than a calculated assessment of the costs and benefits associated with the particular employment relationship (Colquitt et al., 2017). Although one would therefore expect employees' personal characteristics to impact on the development of the various components of organisational commitment, extant literature has reported no or weak relationships between demographic variables and AC, CC and NC (Chang, Nguyen et al., 2016; Morin et al., 2015). For instance, Sehunoe, Viviers, and Mayer (2015) found no significant differences in the experience of organisational commitment based on gender, race, age or level of education in a South African sample. However, to ensure that all variables that might impact on employees' commitment to their employing organisations were considered, some instances in the literature where relationships (albeit weak) have been reported are briefly outlined below.

3.3.3.1 Age and level of education

Positive, albeit weak, correlations between age and all three components of organisational commitment have been reported in empirical studies (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002; Mowday et al., 1982; Sherer & Morishima, 1989). Meyer and Allen (1997), however, stress that positive relations between age and commitment should be interpreted with caution. Employees' affective commitment to their employing organisations may, for instance, be confounded by age-related variables such as extended tenure and higher levels of employment, reflecting more positive work experiences for older workers. It has also been reported that older employees perceive that they have fewer alternative employment opportunities and that they find it more difficult to change jobs, which indicates higher levels of CC (Mayer & Schoorman, 1998).

Age has furthermore been shown to be a buffer against negative work experiences (e.g. psychological contract breaches), implying that older employees' affective commitment to the organisation is less likely to be negatively affected by such experiences (Bal et al., 2008; Maia et al., 2016).

Research relating to individual differences as antecedents of organisation commitment commonly reveal an inverse relationship (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). These findings typically reflect the affective dimension of organisational commitment and imply that employees who are highly educated are less likely to experience a strong emotional bond to their employing organisations. It has been argued (e.g. Lok & Crawford, 2001) that this inverse relationship might be attributed to the high expectations held by educated individuals. If these expectations are not met, it has an adverse effect on their commitment to their employing organisations. The impact of employees' level of education on organisational commitment has also been explained in terms of their opportunities for alternative employment. One would expect highly educated employees to have more alternative employment options, which might result in them more easily moving from one employer to another. Therefore, the need to remain with their current organisations is weaker for more educated workers, which implies that they will be less likely to display high levels of CC (Meyer et al., 2002). Hence, it has been postulated that there will be a negative relationship between employees' level of education and CC (Kabins et al., 2016; Mayer & Schoorman, 1998).

Morin et al. (2016) reported that, although level of education had hardly any implications in terms of membership of organisational commitment profiles, one exception was found: The likelihood of membership in an AC/NC-dominant profile relative to a moderately committed profile was significantly greater for individuals with higher levels of education. Since the AC/NC-dominant profile is widely regarded as one of the optimal profiles in terms of desirable workplace outcomes (Kam et al., 2016; Morin et al., 2015), one would expect employees with higher levels of education to be more likely to fit such a profile and therefore more likely to engage in positive workplace behaviour.

3.3.3.2 *Employment status*

The relationship that organisations have with various types of employees (permanent vs temporary) may differ substantially as the contributions they are expected to make to the organisation vary (Conway & Briner, 2002). It has, for instance, been indicated that employment relationships with permanent employees tend to be relational, while relationships with temporary employees are more transactional in nature (Rousseau, 1989). Because of these differences, one would expect employees to also develop and experience commitment to their employing organisations in different ways. For example, while the development of emotional attachment (AC) may be essential in building long-term relationships with permanent employees, it will be less important for temporary employees who are more likely

to demonstrate higher levels of NC as their relationships with the employer relate mainly to the fulfilment of mutual obligations (Cooper et al., 2016).

According to Wasti et al. (2016), to remain employed, temporary employees are dependent on employers to fulfil their obligations, which are mostly transactional in nature (i.e. employing them for a particular period and remunerating them for work done). However, these employees generally enjoy less protection by labour laws and are often not represented by unions. Thus, they may perceive greater NC towards an organisation as they feel indebted towards the organisation for affording them an opportunity to work. In addition, as these employees are often less qualified than their permanently employed counterparts, they are likely to perceive fewer job alternatives, which may increase their CC towards the organisation.

Cooper et al. (2016) set out to determine whether relationships exist between employees' employment status (standard employment vs alternative employment arrangements) and specific commitment profiles. Although their research related to the formation of commitment profiles based on multiple foci of commitment (organisation, profession, supervisor and job) rather than the various commitment mind-sets, their findings remain relevant to this study as it emphasises the potential differences in terms of the development of commitment profiles for standard and atypical employees. They (Cooper et al., 2016) suggested, for instance, that temporary (fixed-term) employees may consciously develop lower levels of commitment (most notably AC) to their organisations as a means of protecting themselves from feelings of loss at the end of their contract.

3.3.3.3 *Gender*

Gender is often used as a control variable in organisational commitment studies owing to the different behavioural tendencies ascribed to men and women (Jayasingam et al., 2016). It has been argued that gender roles impact on what individuals regard as important in terms of job attributes (e.g. autonomy, rewards and flexibility) and may therefore enhance or weaken employees' commitment to their organisations (Marsden, Kalleberg, & Cook, 1993). In support of this argument, some researchers (e.g. Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982) have reported significant effects of gender on the levels of organisational commitment. Khalili and Asmawi (2012) found that, although men and women have the same level of AC, CC and overall commitment to their employing organisations, women show higher levels of NC. Their research, however, was conducted in an extremely specific sample (a private SME in Iran), which means that the results may not be generalisable for other populations.

Contradictory findings have also been reported. For instance, meta-analytic research has shown that gender and affective commitment are unrelated (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Furthermore, a number of researchers (e.g. Ng, Butts, Vandenberg, DeJoy, & Wilson, 2006; Ngo & Tsang, 1998; Van der Velde, Bossink, & Jansen, 2003) have reported no significant effects for gender on the levels of commitment. It is postulated that the potential impact of gender on organisational commitment may vary in different cultures as gender roles differ (Ibrahim & Perez, 2014) – hence the need to consider the impact that an employee's gender may have on his or her commitment to the organisation in the South African organisational context.

3.3.3.4 *Tenure*

It has been suggested in organisational commitment literature that the importance of the three commitment mind-sets may vary over the course of an individual's career. For example, an employee in the early stages of employment may prioritise AC. However, as the employee's priorities change (e.g. starting a family or becoming more established in a community), his or her reasons for remaining with a particular organisation may increasingly relate to the transactional (cost-based) factors associated with his or her relationship with the organisation (Colquitt et al., 2017). Declining levels of AC are often reported among employees in the early stages of employment. This may be ascribed to feelings of being overwhelmed and new employees' tendency to hold unrealistic expectations of the workplace (Gao-Urhahn, Biemann, & Jaros, 2016; Maia et al., 2016). In contrast, employees with longer tenure in an organisation are more likely to experience higher AC as they have established a sense of belonging and are more likely to focus on the positive aspects of their work (Gao-Urhahn et al., 2016; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1982). Meyer and Allen (1997) proposed that employees' commitment to their employing organisations stabilises over time, thus becoming less susceptible to the influence of short-term changes in work experiences. Therefore, employees' work experiences play a crucial role in the development of work attitudes during the early stages of employment and may therefore have a greater impact on their commitment to their organisations during this period (Caldwell et al., 1990).

Although a positive relationship between tenure and organisational commitment has been reported by various researchers (Meyer et al., 2002), the interpretation of this relationship has not been consistent. It has, for instance, been proposed that longer-tenured employees may be more committed to the organisation on account of their increased status in the organisation or that their elevated levels of commitment may be a way of justifying their decision to remain in the organisation for an extended period (Meyer & Allen, 1991). A positive relationship

between tenure and affective commitment may simply reflect the fact that, over time, those employees who do not develop a strong affective attachment to the organisation choose to leave it, and thus only the more highly committed employees remain (i.e. longer-tenured employees tend to be more affectively committed towards their employing organisations). It has, however, also been argued that longer-tenured employees who have acquired extensive knowledge and skills may find it easier to find alternative work and may therefore be less committed to their current organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Social exchange theory suggests that, as an employee's AC increases, he or she is more likely to view organisational actions as positive, which, in turn, reciprocally influences AC, creating a positive feedback loop (Gao-Urhahn et al., 2016).

The link between tenure and commitment profiles has also been considered in the literature. For instance, Morin et al. (2015) reported that longer tenure could be linked to both AC-dominant and CC-dominant organisational commitment profiles. Morin et al.'s (2016) results confirm that increased tenure may be associated with the increased likelihood of membership in an AC-dominant profile and, to a lesser extent, a CC-dominant profile. These results imply that both a strong sense of entrapment and an equally strong sense of moral commitment may take time to develop.

In summary, personal and work-related characteristics such as age, gender, level of education, employment status and tenure have been found to correlate with affective, continuance and normative commitment to various degrees. Contemporary organisational research studies have also linked characteristics such as education, employment level and tenure with the development of particular commitment profiles (Cooper et al., 2016; Morin et al., 2016, 2015). However, reported relationships between person-centred variables and organisational commitment have been weak and inconsistent (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Morin et al., 2015). Various researchers (e.g. Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002) have reported that employees' work experiences are stronger predictors of their commitment towards their employing organisations than their personal characteristics and that demographic variables therefore play a relatively minor role in the development of organisational commitment, regardless of its form (Choi et al., 2015). Although cognisance is thus taken of the potential impact of these characteristics on employees' affective attachment to the organisation, their acknowledgement of the potential consequences of leaving the organisation and the extent to which they feel morally obliged to remain with the organisation, necessitating the inclusion of personal characteristics as control variables in the proposed psychological framework, it is postulated that employees' commitment to their employing organisations (AC, CC and NC)

will depend more on their work-related perceptions and work experiences than on these individual differences.

Extant literature has focused on a variety of perceptual and experiential predictors of organisational commitment, such as the following: leadership (Chênevert et al., 2015; Jackson, Meyer, & Wang, 2013; Lee & Wei, 2017; Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang, & Shore, 2012); work design (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007); psychological empowerment (Jaiswal & Dhar, 2016; Krog & Govender, 2015; Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011); person-organisation fit (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005); organisational trust (Eğriboyun, 2015; Goh & Low, 2014; Krog & Govender, 2015); organisational justice (Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, & Walker, 2007; Colquitt et al., 2001); co-worker support (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008); perceived organisational support (Kim, Eisenberger, & Baik, 2016; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Meyer et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and psychological contract breach or violation (Zhao et al., 2007). In this study, the focus was on specific work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) that may contribute to the value employees ascribe to their social exchange relationships with their employers. POS, POJ and psychological contract violation are therefore regarded as potential antecedents of organisational commitment that need to be managed by organisations in order to ensure positive workplace behaviour and more effective employment relations. These antecedents to organisational commitment and discretionary employee behaviour are explored in Chapter 4. In the next section, the focus is on the relationship between organisational commitment and employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace. It is argued that it is necessary to encourage positive discretionary workplace behaviour as a means of enhancing employment relations and that organisational commitment may be regarded as an essential antecedent of such behaviour.

3.3.4 Organisational commitment as an antecedent of discretionary employee behaviour

Extant organisational commitment literature has focused mainly on turnover, turnover intentions and absenteeism as behavioural outcomes of organisational commitment (Coetzee, Schreuder, & Clinton-Baker, 2015). However, positive work outcomes such as motivation and involvement, expressions of positive affect and loyalty, job satisfaction, job performance and OCB have also been linked to employees' commitment towards their employing organisations (Choi et al., 2015; Sehunoe et al., 2015; Simons & Buitendach, 2013). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) differentiate between focal and discretionary behaviour and indicate that the effect of

commitment will differ, depending on the kind of behaviour. While focal behaviour relates to the extent to which an employee feels bound to the organisation (e.g. low turnover and high tenure) and specific behaviour required in terms of the employee's conditions of employment (i.e. job performance), discretionary behaviour relates to any behaviour that is not explicitly required in terms of performance standards. Such behaviour may be beneficial (i.e. OCB) or detrimental (CWB) to the organisation and/or people in it (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Owing to the relational focus of this study and its intention to find ways by which employment relations in South African organisation may be enhanced, it is argued that the emphasis should not be on employees' focal behaviour (i.e. remaining with the organisation and performing their work in line with the expected standards), but rather on their discretionary (positive or negative) behaviour as this has been shown to better reflect employees' motivational states and is therefore expected to have a greater impact on relations in the workplace (Chênevert et al., 2015).

Although several studies have reported that organisational commitment is a strong predictor of positive discretionary behaviour (OCB) (Cetin et al., 2015; Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016), fewer researchers have considered the relationship between organisational commitment and negative behaviour in the workplace (CWB) (Demir, 2011; Wang, 2015). In order to gain a comprehensive understanding of employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, it was thus deemed essential to examine the relationship between organisational commitment in relation to both positive (OCB) and negative (CWB) discretionary behaviours in the workplace.

Furthermore, research relating to the relationship between organisational commitment and employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace (OCB and CWB) has mainly relied on AC as an indication of their commitment towards their employing organisations (Chênevert et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2016). However, as advocated in contemporary organisational commitment research (Kabins et al., 2016; Kam et al., 2016; Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Morin et al., 2016, 2015; Stanley et al., 2013), focusing on a single dimension of organisational commitment when attempting to understand employee behaviour is no longer sufficient. As reported by Gellatly et al. (2006), the components in a commitment profile (i.e. the levels of AC, CC and NC) provide a context that has implications for how a particular component is experienced. It is thus expected that the different dimensions of organisational commitment will not only differentially impact on employees' behaviour, but that the interaction between these dimensions will also influence how employees experience and react to organisational commitment.

Drawing on Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) propositions and Gellatly et al.'s (2006) empirical research, it is thus expected that employees' commitment profiles will impact on their likelihood to engage in both focal and discretionary behaviour. This view is supported by Kabins et al. (2016), who postulate that exchange-based profiles (i.e. no emotional attachment to the organisation) will merely engender employees to meet the minimum standards of focal behaviour necessary to maintain the relationship, whereas value-based profiles (i.e. high levels of emotional attachment to the organisation) encourage employees to go above and beyond the minimum standards. Although AC is therefore expected to be the greatest determinant of the likelihood that employees will engage in discretionary behaviour, it is essential to incorporate both NC and CC as these mind-sets have been shown to improve both focal and discretionary behaviour if they are experienced with high levels of AC (Gellatly et al., 2006; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Sinclair et al., 2005; Wasti, 2005).

In order to gain a comprehensive understanding of the extent to which organisational commitment may predict employees' discretionary behaviour in and towards their employing organisations, it is therefore essential to consider not only the relationships between organisational commitment as an overall indication of employees' attitudes towards their employing organisations, but also to explore the differential impact and interaction effects of the three dimensions of organisational commitment on employees' discretionary behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace. These relationships, as reported in extant literature and supported by empirical evidence, are outlined in the sections below.

3.3.4.1 Organisational citizenship behaviour

Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997) argued that simply retaining employees (i.e. binding them to the organisation), as emphasised in theories adopting the attitudinal perspective to organisational commitment, is not sufficient. Maintaining a stable workforce does not guarantee organisational success. In order to prosper, organisations do not only need employees who perform their assigned duties efficiently – they must also be willing to engage in activities beyond their specific job requirements that are aimed at benefiting the organisation or individuals in it (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Several researchers have examined the relationships between organisational commitment and employees' discretionary behaviour aimed at advantaging the organisation or people in it (OCB) (Wang, 2015). Significant positive correlations between organisational commitment and OCB have been reported and more specifically between organisational commitment and OCB aimed at benefiting the organisation (OCB-O) (Cetin et al., 2015). The focus in OC-OCB

research, however, has mainly been on the affective dimension of organisational commitment (Ng, 2015). Both OCB and OCB-O have consistently been found to positively correlate with AC (Chênevert et al., 2015; Guh, Lin, Fan, & Yang, 2013; Lau, McLean, Lien, & Hsu, 2016; Ng & Feldman, 2011; Wang, 2015). This supports O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) assertion that employees who report increased identification with and internalisation of organisational values are more likely to engage in OCB and more likely to adopt those behaviours aimed at enhancing organisational efficiency.

Positive relationships between NC and OCB have also been reported, but these relationships were weaker and less consistent than the AC-OCB relationship (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Cetin et al., 2015; Chan, Nadler, & Hargis, 2015; Dalal, 2005; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Morrison (1994) postulated that the variance in the strength and direction of the relationships between the affective and normative dimensions of organisational commitment and OCB may be explained in terms of the ways in which employees define their jobs. Employees with strong AC or NC tend to define their jobs more broadly. These employees are therefore more likely to regard behaviour as in-role behaviour (i.e. nondiscretionary), while employees with lower levels of AC or NC are likely to view the same behaviour as extra-role (i.e. discretionary) behaviour resulting in an unwillingness to participate in such behaviour (Allen & Meyer, 1996). While the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) may be used to explain employee behaviour stemming from both AC and NC, the nature of the reciprocity motive differs. Employees who feel an affective attachment to the organisation (AC) may engage in positive behaviour as a means of contributing to the organisation's well-being, thereby ensuring the mutual benefit for both parties (employer and employee), while those with a high NC towards the organisation engage in positive behaviour in order to do what is right (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees' affective and normative commitment towards their employing organisations therefore not only impacts on the likelihood that they will engage in positive discretionary behaviour, but also on what they regard as discretionary (as opposed to focal) behaviour in the workplace.

The dimension of organisational commitment that has received the least attention in organisational behaviour research is CC. Some researchers, however, have reported either no relationship or a negative one between CC and OCB (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Cetin et al., 2015; Chan et al., 2015; Cohen & Keren, 2008; Gautam, Van Dick, Wagner, Upadhyay, & Davis, 2005; Meyer et al., 1993, 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Shore & Wayne, 1993). According to Meyer, Stanley, and Parfyonova (2012), CC has generally been viewed as a negative form of commitment – although employees feel compelled to comply with a particular course of action (e.g., staying with an organisation), they are typically seen as being less willing than

those with strong AC or NC to engage in discretionary actions (e.g. OCB) for the benefit of the organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

The relationship between organisational commitment and OCB becomes more complex when all three dimensions of organisational commitment are considered simultaneously (Wang, 2015). For instance, Gellatly et al. (2006) found that NC correlated positively with OCB when it was combined with strong AC. The opposite, however, was found to be true when NC was combined with strong CC and weak AC (i.e. NC correlated negatively with OCB). Johnson, Groff, and Taing (2009) reported that high levels of AC and CC had synergistic effects on OCB, while Wasti (2005) found OCB to be greatest among employees with a fully committed profile (i.e. high AC, NC and CC), followed by those with AC-dominant and AC/NC-dominant profiles. Sinclair et al. (2005), focusing on AC and CC only, found OCB to be lowest among employees with moderate CC and low AC.

While the reported findings that uncommitted employees and those with a dominant-CC profile will be unlikely to engage in positive forms of discretionary work behaviour (Gellatly et al., 2006; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012) may be anticipated, other findings have been unforeseen. For instance, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) proposed that the sense of entrapment experienced by employees with high levels of CC towards an organisation would carry over and mitigate the otherwise positive effects of AC for employees for whom AC and CC were both strong. However, Meyer, et al.'s (2012) findings suggest that this is not necessarily the case. These authors (Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012) found that, when AC and NC are also strong, employees with strong CC appear satisfied, self-directed and engaged in their work. Thus, from a theoretical perspective, the implications of CC for work-relevant behaviour must be viewed in light of the strength of the other components, and the nature of the costs that are perceived to follow from the discontinuation of a course of action (Gellatly et al., 2006). Based on these findings, it is proposed that organisations hoping to encourage positive employee behaviour in their workplaces by enhancing organisational commitment, should consider the prevalence, development and experience of various commitment profiles rather than individual dimensions of organisational commitment in isolation (Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012).

It has thus been shown in extant literature that, although the positive relationship between AC and OCB is largely undisputed, it becomes more complex when the other dimensions of organisational commitment (CC and NC) are also considered. Contemporary organisational commitment research contends that the three dimensions of organisational commitment should not be studied in isolation. In order to promote a better understanding of relational

behaviour in the South African organisational context, this study thus incorporated all three dimensions of organisational commitment and considered their individual and combined relationship with positive discretionary behaviour (OCB).

3.3.4.2 *Counterproductive work behaviour*

Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) is regarded as any behaviour by employees intended to harm the organisation or individuals in it (Bai, Lin, & Wang, 2016). Such behaviour therefore does not include an employee's inability to meet job-related performance objectives, but relates to negative behaviour motivated by a targeted malicious intent towards the organisation or people in it. Although CWB has received much less attention in organisational commitment literature than its more positive counterpart, OCB, some researchers have relied on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to illustrate that employees who experience low-quality social exchange relationships with their employees (i.e. relationships marked by low levels of trust, loyalty and commitment) will be more likely to engage in CWB (Banks, Whelpley, Oh, & Shin, 2012). Empirical research has confirmed the existence of a negative relationship between organisational commitment and CWB (Banks et al., 2012). Similar relationships were reported between organisational commitment (or specific dimensions thereof – most notably affective commitment) and specific forms of CWB such as sexual harassment (Chan, Chun, Chow, & Cheung, 2008; Kath, Swody, Magley, Bunk, & Gallus, 2009; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007), bullying (O'Driscoll et al., 2011), absenteeism (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002) and rule breaking (Sims, 2002). Negative (albeit weak) relationships have been reported between all three dimensions of organisational commitment and CWB (Demir, 2011), with some reporting that the strength of the relationships varies across dimensions (Brooks, 2012).

For the purposes of this study, it was proposed that uncommitted employees or employees displaying low levels of commitment would be more inclined to engage in negative discretionary behaviour (CWB) aimed at harming the organisation or people in it as a means of reciprocating their perceived low-quality exchange relationship with their employing organisations. Building on the dominance ascribed to employees' emotional attachment to their employing organisations (AC) in guiding their behaviour in the workplace (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Gellatly et al., 2006; Meyer & Allen, 1997), one would expect a strong negative correlation between AC and CWB. While a negative relationship between NC and CWB is also expected, this relationship is anticipated to be weaker. In contrast, it is argued that a positive relationship between CC and CWB may exist. If employees feel trapped in their organisations due to an inability to leave (e.g. due to specialised skills or a lack of alternative employment

opportunities), they may resort to other ways of expressing their frustration, which may result in behaviour aimed at disadvantaging the organisation or people in it.

The aim of this study was not only to gain a better understanding of the relationships between employees' commitment towards their employing organisations and their discretionary behaviour in the workplace, but also to investigate the antecedents of organisational commitment in order to assist employment relations practitioners and industrial and organisational psychologists in devising ways of enhancing commitment and thereby encouraging positive employee behaviour that benefits the organisation and people in it. It is postulated in Chapter 4 that employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) shape their opinions in terms of the quality of the social exchange relationship with their employers. This, in turn, serves as an antecedent to relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and OCB).

3.3.5 Organisational commitment in a South African employment relations context

The retention of a committed workforce is widely accepted as being key to organisational survival and success (Quratulain et al., 2016). It is furthermore argued that positive employer-employee relations are only possible if employees are emotionally attached to their employing organisations. Hence, the emphasis in organisational commitment research has traditionally been on AC as an indication of employees' emotional affection towards their organisations. However, contemporary organisational commitment research has established that focusing on a single component of commitment may lead to inaccurate conclusions relating to the ways in which employees experience and react to organisational commitment. It is thus argued that, when aiming to devise ways of improving employment relationships, it is essential to consider not only employees' emotional attachment towards their employing organisations, but also to contemplate the context in which this commitment is experienced. Employers who are able to create positive work conditions that encourage both a desire to remain in the organisation (AC) and a moral imperative to do so (NC) are more likely to succeed in fostering positive employer-employee relations and increasing the likelihood that employees will engage in desired behaviour (Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013). This is especially true in the South African organisational environment, which is often characterised by high levels of disputes and industrial action, inequality and insecurity (see section 2.2.2) reflecting negative reciprocal

norms (i.e. distrust and self-interest govern the employment relationship) (Quratulain et al., 2016).

3.3.6 Summary

In this study, Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) three-component model of organisational commitment was regarded as most appropriate for obtaining a more comprehensive understanding of the link between an employee and his or her employing organisation and its influence on the employee's behaviour in the workplace. This model has become the dominant theoretical framework in organisational commitment research and has been used in a variety of cultural settings (Klein et al., 2012; Wasti et al., 2016). Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) model draws on the work by Mowday et al. (1982, 1979) in which they emphasised that organisational commitment does not entail merely a passive employee loyalty towards the organisation, but a willingness to go beyond the call of duty in order to contribute to the organisation's success. Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) three-component approach to organisational commitment therefore not only embraces the widely acknowledged view of organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct reflecting employees' active relationship with the organisation, but has also undergone extensive empirical evaluation in a variety of contexts (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer et al., 2002). According to Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) three-component model, employees' commitment to their employing organisations can take various forms. Each of these forms is regarded as a component of organisational commitment characterised by different psychological states or mind-sets. While AC reflects an emotional attachment and desire to remain with the organisation, NC is experienced as a sense of obligation to remain, and CC reflects an awareness of the costs associated with leaving.

Although Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) three-component model of organisational commitment has been tested extensively and is widely supported in extant organisational commitment literature (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer et al., 2002), the focus has mainly been on the independent or additive impact of the three components on employee behaviour rather than on their collective impact. To address this gap in research, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) proposed that there should be eight profile groups, each characterised by a combination of high or low scores on AC, NC, and CC. They (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) developed a set of propositions about the nature, development and behavioural consequences of these commitment profiles which were subsequently tested by a number of researchers (most notably Gellatly et al., 2006; Sinclair et al., 2005; Somers, 2009, 2010; Wasti, 2005). Gellatly et al.'s (2006) most notable contribution was the finding that the way in which a single

component of organisational commitment is experienced and relates to behaviour may depend on the context created by the other components within the particular commitment profile. This contextual view was supported by the results obtained in other studies reporting, for instance, that employees' in-role and extra-role behaviour tends to be more positive if they experience high levels of NC and/or CC combined with strong AC (Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, et al., 2012; Wasti, 2005).

Hence, contemporary organisational commitment studies increasingly adopt person-centred research strategies, in support of the more traditional variable-centred approach, to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of the complexities involved in the development and experiencing of organisational commitment. Researchers have resorted to using cluster or latent profile analysis with the aim of detecting naturally occurring subgroups (reflecting different commitment profiles) within samples (Kabins et al., 2016; Kam et al., 2016; Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, et al., 2012; Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Meyer, Stanley, et al., 2013; Somers, 2009, 2010; Stanley et al., 2013; Wasti, 2005). The common element in these studies is the emphasis on the importance of considering the combined influence of the three components of organisational commitment (AC, NC and CC) on employees' behaviour in the workplace. It is argued that, while each of the components has been shown to develop and affect employee behaviour in different ways, they also have a combined impact in that the effect of each component is dependent on the strength of the others. The emphasis in these studies, however, has mainly been on the outcomes of commitment profiles with only limited attention paid to how they develop (Kabins et al., 2016). In order to contribute to a better understanding of organisational commitment and its influence on behaviour, it is therefore not only essential to explore the existence of distinguishable commitment profiles in various settings, but also to determine the antecedents of organisational commitment. It is hoped that this study will contribute to extant literature by exploring the dominant commitment profiles in a South African organisational context. Furthermore, the link between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and their work experiences (psychological contract breach) will be examined in order to determine whether employees' perceptions of the quality of their exchange relationships influence the likelihood of belonging to the identified profile groups.

The main theoretical findings relating to organisational commitment are summarised in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

Theoretical Integration: Organisational Commitment

Theoretical models adopted	Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) three-component model of organisational commitment Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) typology of commitment profiles
Definition of organisational commitment	Organisational commitment is a psychological state that portrays an employee's affective attachment to his or her employing organisation as a single anthropomorphic entity (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). This psychological state is characterised by three mind-sets reflecting an identification with the organisation's goals and values, a willingness to exert effort on the organisation's behalf, and an intention to remain with the organisation for an extended period (Meyer & Allen, 1988, 1991, 1997).
Core constructs	Affective commitment (AC) Continuance commitment (CC) Normative commitment (NC)
Person-centred variables impacting on organisational commitment	Employment status Tenure Gender Age Education level
Behavioural outcomes of organisational commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive relationships between both AC and NC and OCB. • No or a negative relationship between CC and OCB. • Negative relationships between all three dimensions of organisational commitment (AC, CC and NC) and CWB.
Relevance in enhancing employment relations	When aiming to devise ways of improving employment relationships, it is essential to consider not only employees' emotional attachment towards their employing organisations, but also to contemplate the context in which this commitment is experienced. Employers who are able to create positive work conditions that encourage both a desire to remain in the organisation (AC) and a moral imperative to do (NC) so, are more likely to succeed in fostering positive employer-employee relations and increasing the likelihood that employees will engage in desired behaviour.

In this section, it was emphasised that organisational commitment should be regarded as a multidimensional construct in order to gain a comprehensive understanding of how employees' commitment to their employing organisations impacts on their behaviour in the workplace. It has, however, also been suggested in the literature (e.g. Angle & Perry, 1986; Becker, 1992; Klein et al., 2012; Liden et al., 2003; Meyer et al., 1993, 2015; Meyer & Morin,

2016; Redman & Snape, 2016; Reichers, 1985) that employees' behaviour is not influenced only by their commitment to a single entity (the organisation). Their commitment to, say, their occupation (Morin et al., 2015; Tsoumbris & Xenikou, 2010) or other entities such as their supervisors, work groups or trade unions, may impact on their behaviour (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer & Morin, 2016). Contemporary organisational commitment research emphasises the significance of dual commitment (e.g. commitment towards the organisation and an occupation or the organisation and a supervisor) or multiple commitments (e.g. commitment to the organisation, top management, supervisor and workgroup) when considering the impact of commitment on behaviour in the workplace (Becker & Billings, 1993; Cooper et al., 2016; Lavelle et al., 2007; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Meyer et al., 2015; Morin et al., 2015; Tsoumbris & Xenikou, 2010).

As the aim of this study was to better understand and improve relations between employees and their employers in South African organisations, specifically in an employment relations context, and given the prominence of trade unions in many South African workplaces and employment relations in general (see Chapter 2), it was deemed essential to consider not only employees' commitment to their employing organisations, but also the extent to which trade union members commit to their trade unions. Although commitment to the organisation and commitment to other entities (e.g. an occupation) have been shown to be compatible (Morin et al., 2015; Tsoumbris & Xenikou, 2010), it is unlikely that similar results will be obtained when considering employees' commitment to their employing organisations and trade unions. It is expected that higher levels of trade union commitment will not only negatively impact on employees' commitment to their organisations, but that employees who are highly committed to their trade unions will also have different expectations of their employers than their counterparts who are not union members. It is suggested that these differences will result in diverse perceptions of employer actions in terms of fairness and support and opposing emotional and behavioural reactions to negative perceptions and experiences. In the following section, the focus is therefore on union commitment. The construct is conceptualised and relevant theoretical models are discussed. This is followed by an exploration of the relationship between organisational and union commitment aimed at determining whether dual commitment is feasible. Individual characteristics that may impact on employees' propensity to join a trade union and to direct their loyalty and efforts towards the trade union and its activities are considered. Finally, the potential impact that trade union commitment may have on employees' discretionary behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace and its effect on the quality of employer-employee relations are examined.

3.4 UNION COMMITMENT

Union commitment essentially relates to trade union members' sense of identification with and loyalty to a trade union (Redman & Snape, 2016). In the previous section, it was established that a sample could be heterogeneous with regard to the nature of commitment to the employing organisation experienced by individuals in the sample (i.e. their organisational commitment profiles). Meyer and Morin (2016) stress, however, that a sample may also be heterogeneous in terms of the target of commitment. In other words, employees may have commitments towards various foci (e.g. commitment towards the organisation, a trade union, occupation, supervisor or job) and these commitments may be compatible or in conflict across targets (Cooper et al., 2016; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Olsen, Sverdrup, Nesheim, & Kalleberg, 2016). Commitment to a particular target is therefore not independent of commitment to other targets (Cooper et al., 2016). Extant research suggests that the way in which commitment to a single target (e.g. the organisation) is experienced may depend on the relative degree of commitment to other targets (e.g. one's profession or a trade union) (Cooper et al., 2016). As many potential foci of employee commitment thus exist, it is essential to consider how such commitments may interrelate and influence behaviour (Meyer, Stanley, et al., 2013).

Although the existence of multiple commitments has been widely acknowledged in extant literature, the majority of commitment research has focused on a single target (most notably the organisation) or compatible dual targets such as the organisation and a profession (Cooper et al., 2016; Tsoumbris & Xenikou, 2010) or the organisation and a supervisor (Meyer et al., 2015). There seems to be a dearth of research on the consequences of potentially conflicting commitments (e.g. organisational and union commitment), how these conflicts should be handled and how they impact on behaviour in the workplace (Redman & Snape, 2016; Yalabik et al., 2017). In an employment relations context, it is deemed crucial to consider trade union members' commitment to their unions as the potential conflict between the organisation and union as foci of commitment may be problematic for both organisations and employees (Olsen et al., 2016).

It has been reported in extant literature that highly unionised environments – especially those marked by antagonistic employer-employee relations – may be susceptible to unilateral commitment to a trade union (Redman & Snape, 2016; Wasti et al., 2016). It may thus be expected that employees who experience their working environments as hostile will be more likely to express high levels of union commitment that may be detrimental to their commitment to their employing organisations. However, researchers have found that commitment is not a zero-sum phenomenon, and the existence of dual commitment has been widely reported (e.g.

Angle & Perry, 1986; Cohen, 2005; Fukami & Larson, 1984; Kim & Rowley, 2006; Reed, Young, & McHugh, 1994; Robinson, Griffeth, Allen, & Lee, 2012; Snape & Chan, 2000). The relationships between organisational and union commitment and behavioural outcomes are thus likely to be more complex, which necessitates further investigation given the prominence of unions in the South African employment relations context.

Within the South African organisational environment, which is often characterised by high levels of trade unionism and antagonistic employment relationships (see Chapter 2), it is deemed essential to determine whether trade union members' commitment towards their unions has implications for their commitment towards their employing organisations and how the interaction of these potentially conflicting commitments may affect their subsequent behaviour in the workplace. In the following section the conceptualisation and dimensionality of union commitment as well as the likelihood of dual commitment to both the organisation and union, as reported in extant literature, are explored. The antecedents and outcomes of both union and dual commitment are also considered in order to establish possible relationships between union commitment and discretionary behaviour in the workplace (OCB and CBW), either directly or through its impact on organisational commitment.

3.4.1 Conceptualisation of union commitment

The essence of union and organisational commitment is similar and basically relates to employees' sense of identification with and loyalty to the particular entity (Redman & Snape, 2016). Gordon et al. (1980a), in their seminal work on union commitment, defined it as the extent to which the individual (1) desires to retain membership in and is loyal to the union, (2) is willing to work for the union, (3) feels a sense of responsibility to the union, and (4) believes in the objectives of organised labour. These authors (Gordon et al., 1980a) therefore conceptualised union commitment as an attitudinal variable reflecting a union member's psychological attachment to his or her union, based on identification with the union's goals and values and an appreciation of the services it renders.

Kelloway, Catano, and Southwell (1992), supported Gordon et al.'s (1980a) definition of union commitment, describing it as a sense of pride in belonging to the union and an appreciation for the benefits of union membership; preparedness to assume the day-to-day responsibilities of union membership; and a willingness to engage in activities above and beyond those required of all members. However, Kelloway et al. (1992) emphasised that this view of union commitment essentially reflects Mowday et al.'s (1982) conceptualisation of organisational commitment as an affective attachment to an entity (the organisation). It does not reflect Allen

and Meyer's (1990) normative and continuance dimensions of commitment. Kelloway et al. (1992) suggested that, in a trade union context, normative commitment may be regarded as an ideological commitment to the union, while continuance commitment reflects a mandatory commitment to the union (e.g. a closed-shop agreement where employees are compelled to join the union). While the former is reflected in Gordon et al.'s (1980a) reference to an individual's belief in and acceptance of the goals of the union, the latter (i.e. continuance commitment in a union context) has not yet been explored in a union commitment context.

3.4.2 Theoretical models of union commitment

Conceptual theories of union commitment drew on organisational commitment theory applying it to a trade union as the target of commitment. However, although there are some commonalities, organisational and union commitment tend not to share common predictors or outcomes, which necessitated the development of different models for these two foci of commitment (Fullagar & Barling, 1991). Seminal union commitment theorists (Barling, Fullagar, & Kelloway, 1992; Friedman & Harvey, 1986; Fullagar, 1986; Gordon et al., 1980a; Klandermans, 1989; Ladd, Gordon, Beauvais, & Morgan, 1982; Tetrick, Thacker, & Fields, 1989; Thacker, Fields, & Tetrick, 1989) concur that, in order to meet their objectives, trade unions rely on their members' belief in trade unionism, their loyalty towards their trade unions and their willingness to voluntarily perform actions in support of the trade union. However, there has been considerable variation in terms of the conceptualisation and dimensionality of union commitment. This section aims to provide a summary of seminal research on union commitment in order to substantiate the conceptualisation and dimensionality of the construct adopted in this study.

3.4.2.1 Union commitment as a four-dimensional construct

To define the construct of union commitment, Gordon et al. (1980a) drew on Mowday et al.'s (1979) definition of organisational commitment as being an attitude characterised by (1) a strong desire to remain a member of the particular organisation, (2) a willingness to exert high levels of effort on the organisation's behalf, and (3) a definite belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organisation. Gordon et al. (1980a) therefore regarded union commitment as an individual's desire to remain a member of the union, a willingness to exert effort on the union's behalf and a belief in and acceptance of the union's goals. They (Gordon et al., 1980a) postulated that, in terms of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), trade union members would display higher levels of commitment

towards their unions if they perceived them as satisfying their salient needs in an organisational environment.

Gordon et al. (1980a) conceptualised and provided empirical evidence of union commitment as a multidimensional construct consisting of the following four orthogonal dimensions: (1) union loyalty; (2) responsibility to the union; (3) willingness to work for the union; and (4) belief in unionism. The first dimension, union loyalty, reflects a sense of pride in the association with the union and its membership and a clear awareness of the benefits accruing to the individual stemming from union membership. Individuals who express high levels of loyalty towards their trade unions perceive the union as advancing their work-related interests and are therefore more inclined to maintain their union membership. The second and third dimensions represent trade union members' tendency to behave in a manner that will provide service to the union. Responsibility to the union relates to the extent to which trade union members are willing to fulfil the day-to-day obligations and duties of a member in order to protect the interests of the union, while the willingness to work for the union indicates the preparedness of union members to exert extra energy in the service of the union (i.e. beyond what is required in terms of membership). The fourth dimension reflects the extent to which trade union members believe in the concept of unionism. Trade union members with a strong belief in unionism regard the union as essential in safeguarding the workers' interests in the continuous struggle with management.

The main criticism of Gordon et al.'s (1980a) model related to the belief in unionism dimension. It was argued that, while Gordon et al.'s (1980a) widely accepted definition of union commitment reflects commitment to a particular entity (the union to which the individual belongs), the belief in unionism dimension relates to an ideological belief in unionism (Fullagar, 1986; Klandermans, 1989; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995). When determining trade union members' commitment to their trade unions, the focus, however, should be on the congruence between individuals' goals and values and those of their trade unions rather than their beliefs in unionism in general (Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995).

A further limitation of Gordon et al.'s (1980a) research was their sample, which represented white-collar nonprofessional workers only within an environment where strike action was prohibited by law. More research was therefore required in order to test the generalisability of their results in a broader setting. Ladd et al. (1982) addressed this limitation by administering Gordon et al.'s (1980a) union commitment measure to a sample of both professional and nonprofessional white-collar union members. Ladd et al.'s (1982) results replicated the same dimensions of union commitment identified by Gordon et al. (1980a), suggesting that the

dimensions conceptualised in the original research were consistent and generalisable across broader populations (engineers, technicians and nonprofessional workers who were skilled members of white-collar unions). Although Ladd et al. (1982) confirmed the stability of Gordon et al.'s (1980a) dimensions of union commitment in a broader sample, both studies included white-collar workers only. Further research was therefore required to test the generalisability among blue-collar workers.

Following Gordon et al.'s (1980a) seminal work, a number of researchers challenged their conceptualisation of union commitment as a four-dimensional construct. Subsequent conceptualisations ranged from two to five dimensional models, with some proposing associations between the dimensions and others suggesting uncorrelated dimensions (Barling, Fullagar, & Kelloway, 1992; Friedman & Harvey, 1986; Fullagar, 1986; Gordon et al., 1980a; Klandermans, 1989; Ladd et al., 1982; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995; Tetrick et al., 1989; Thacker et al., 1989). The findings reported in seminal research on the dimensionality of union commitment are summarised in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5

Conceptualisation and Dimensions of Union Commitment

Article (sample)	Definition	Dimensions
Gordon et al. (1980a) (white-collar workers, USA)	An individual's desire to remain a member of the union, a willingness to exert effort on the union's behalf and a belief in and acceptance of the union's goals (Gordon et al., 1980a).	Four orthogonal dimensions: (1) Union loyalty (2) Responsibility to the union (3) Willingness to work for the union (4) Belief in unionism
Ladd et al. (1982) (professional white-collar workers, USA)	Support Gordon et al.'s (1980a) definition of union commitment.	Support Gordon et al.'s (1980a) four orthogonal dimensions.
Friedman & Harvey (1986) (white-collar workers, USA – see Gordon et al., 1980)	Propose a two-factor approach to the measurement of union commitment, but do not offer a revised theoretical conceptualisation of what union commitment entails.	Two oblique dimensions: (1) Attitude towards the union (2) Behavioural intentions

Article (sample)	Definition	Dimensions
Fullagar (1986) (blue-collar workers, South Africa)	Supports Gordon et al.'s (1980a) definition of union commitment.	Five orthogonal dimensions: (1) Union loyalty (2) Responsibility to the union (3) Organisation/work loyalty (4) Belief in the union (5) Union instrumentality
Klandermans (1989) (blue-collar workers, Netherlands)	Supports Gordon et al.'s (1980a) definition of union commitment.	Identified five dimensions but recommended the use of only two: (1) Union loyalty (2) Willingness to work for the union
Thacker et al. (1989) (blue-collar workers, USA)	Support Gordon et al.'s (1980a) definition of union commitment.	Four oblique dimensions: (1) Union loyalty (2) Responsibility to the union (3) Willingness to work for the union (4) Belief in unionism
Tetrick et al. (1989) (blue-collar workers, USA – see Tacker et al., 1989)	Support Gordon et al.'s (1980a) definition of union commitment.	Four oblique dimensions (stable over time): (1) Union loyalty (2) Responsibility to the union (3) Willingness to work for the union (4) Belief in unionism
Kelloway et al. (1992) (blue- and white-collar workers, Canada)	Support Gordon et al.'s (1980a) definition of union commitment.	Three oblique dimensions: (1) Union loyalty (2) Responsibility to the union (3) Willingness to work for the union
Sverke & Kuruvilla (1995) (blue-collar workers, Sweden)	Support Gordon et al.'s (1980a) definition of union commitment, but question whether the dimensions are aligned with the definition.	Two dimensions: (1) Value rationality-based commitment (2) Instrumental rationality-based commitment

It is evident from the above summary that, although Gordon et al.'s (1980a) definition of union commitment as a psychological construct is widely accepted, there are variations in terms of its dimensionality. These differences may be ascribed to variances in terms of measurement and sample characteristics as well as the national employment relations contexts in which the studies were conducted (Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995). The following section provides an overview of the seminal studies relating to the dimensionality of union commitment, concluding with the theoretical approach adopted in this study.

3.4.2.2 *Challenges to Gordon et al.'s conceptualisation of union commitment*

Friedman and Harvey (1986) challenged Gordon et al.'s (1980a) conceptualisation of union commitment as a four-dimensional construct suggesting that a more parsimonious model was plausible. Following further analysis of Gordon et al.'s (1980a) data, they (Friedman & Harvey, 1986) proposed a two-oblique-factor solution to the measurement of union commitment encompassing trade union members' attitude towards the union and their behavioural intentions. The first dimension (i.e. trade union members' attitude towards the union) closely resembles a combination of Gordon et al.'s (1980a) loyalty and belief in unionism dimensions, while the second (i.e. trade union members' behavioural intentions) represents a combination of Gordon et al.'s (1980a) responsibility to the union and willingness to work for the union dimensions. These authors (Friedman & Harvey, 1986) did not offer a revised theoretical conceptualisation of what union commitment entails.

Following Friedman and Harvey (1986), various researchers (Fullagar, 1986; Klandermans, 1989; Thacker et al., 1989) set out to test the validity of Gordon et al.'s (1980a) conceptualisation of union commitment and its dimensions in samples of blue-collar workers. Although these researchers supported Gordon et al.'s (1980a) conceptualisation of union commitment as a multidimensional construct, they reported different factor structures.

Klandermans (1989), in testing and evaluating different combinations among the four factors presented by Gordon et al. (1980a), ultimately found support for two robust factors, a loyalty dimension and a willingness dimension. Klandermans' (1989) results thus supported Friedman and Harvey's (1986) call for more parsimonious dimensionality in the conceptualisation and measurement of union commitment. Nevertheless, Fullagar (1986) identified five orthogonal dimensions. The first two dimensions, union loyalty and responsibility to the union, were similar to those reported by Gordon et al. (1980a) and Ladd et al. (1982). Fullagar (1986) furthermore confirmed previous assertions regarding loyalty towards the union as the most prominent characteristic of union commitment (Gordon et al., 1980a; Ladd et al., 1982). Three new dimensions, however, were introduced, namely organisation/work loyalty, belief in the union and union instrumentality (Fullagar, 1986). The third dimension, loyalty to the employing organisation and work, reflected an underlying belief that loyalty to work, rather than the union, is instrumental in achieving individual success. This dimension was not identified by Gordon et al. (1980a) and Ladd et al. (1982) and served to highlight the possibility of dual allegiance to both the employing organisation and the trade union (see section 3.4.4). The fourth dimension, belief in the union, related to the extent to which trade union members identify with their union's goals and belief in the value of continued union involvement in its activities. This dimension differed from that of Gordon et al.'s (1980a) belief in unionism

dimension as it related to members' belief in their own union as opposed to a belief in the ideology of unionism. The final dimension, perceived union instrumentality, revealed the extent to which union members perceived the union as being instrumental to the achievement of expected benefits, the dissemination of useful information and the satisfaction of their needs (Fullagar, 1986).

Fullagar (1986), furthermore, tested the relations between the dimensions of union commitment and the association between these dimensions and behavioural variables (involvement in union activities and length of union membership). Although Fullagar (1986) and Gordon et al. (1980a) differed in terms of the number of dimensions identified, they agreed that there was no relationship between the dimensions of union commitment.

In subsequent research, Fullagar and colleagues (e.g. Barling, Fullagar, Kelloway, & McElvie, 1992; Barling, Wade, & Fullagar, 1990; Fullagar & Barling, 1989, 1991; Fullagar, McCoy, & Shull, 1992) focused on union loyalty, which was consistently found to be the most stable dimension of union commitment across various samples, accounting for the most variance in union commitment (Fullagar, 1986; Gordon, Beauvais, & Ladd, 1984; Gordon et al., 1980a; Ladd et al., 1982). Fullagar and Barling (1989) defined union loyalty as an affective attachment to the union characterised by a positive attitude towards the union, affiliation with its goals and values, a sense of pride resulting from trade union membership and a desire to remain a trade union member. Their focus was mainly on identifying the antecedents and consequences of union loyalty in order to assist unions in achieving their goals (Barling, Fullagar, Kelloway, et al., 1992). This approach, focusing on union loyalty as a sense of pride in belonging to a union and an appreciation for the benefits of union membership, rather than the broader concept of union commitment, was subsequently adopted by a number of researchers (Bemmels, 1995; Deery et al., 2014; Fuller & Hester, 2001; Goslinga & Sverke, 2003; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Kim & Rowley, 2006; Lee, 2004; Morishima, 1995; Reed et al., 1994; Tetrick, Shore, McClurg, & Vandenberg, 2007; Zacharewicz, Martínez-Íñigo, & Kelloway, 2016). Barling et al. (1992) conceded, however, that it is essential to consider all dimensions of union commitment when attempting to understand its association with employee attitudes and behaviour as research suggests that the outcomes of the four dimensions of union commitment differ.

Thacker et al. (1989) compared the factor structures presented by both Gordon et al. (1980a) and Friedman and Harvey (1986) using a sample of blue-collar workers. They (Thacker et al., 1989) found that the best fitting, most parsimonious structure was a modification of Gordon et al.'s (1980a) four-factor solution allowing for correlation among factors (i.e. an oblique solution). Thacker et al.'s (1989) results furthermore indicated that viewing these four factors

(loyalty to the union, responsibility to the union, willingness to work for the union and belief in unionism) as reflecting a single higher-order factor or two higher-order factors, as proposed by Friedman and Harvey (1986), did not substantially increase any of the fit indices. The interrelationships between the dimensions could therefore not be explained by uncovering higher-order factors. Thacker et al. (1989) thus confirmed the validity of Gordon et al.'s (1980a) dimensions of union commitment, but suggested that moderate to strong correlations exist among the dimensions. They (Thacker et al., 1989) further concluded that combining the four factors into a multidimensional composite variable of union commitment is warranted, depending on the focus of one's research.

While previous work replicating Gordon et al.'s (1980a) research on the dimensionality of union commitment (e.g. Ladd et al., 1982; Thacker et al., 1989) succeeded in confirming its stability across samples, the stability of the four factors over time had not yet been determined. Tetrick et al. (1989) thus conducted a longitudinal study aimed at addressing this need. The results of their study confirmed that the four dimensions of union loyalty, responsibility to the union, willingness to work for the union and belief in unionism as measured by an abbreviated version of Gordon et al.'s (1980a) Commitment to the Union Scale are stable and reliable over time. However, Tetrick et al. (1989) also questioned the orthogonal nature of the dimensions reported by Gordon et al. (1980a).

Tetrick et al.'s (1989) results revealed that belief in unionism is the most stable of the four dimensions over time and that it influences trade union members' loyalty and responsibility to the union. These results supported Barling, Fullagar, and Kelloway's (1992) suggestion that belief in trade unionism may develop prior to any work experience as well as in early socialisation experiences, and may thus be the most resistant to change. Loyalty to the union was found to be somewhat less stable across time than the other three dimensions of union commitment, which may be reflective of the affective nature of this dimension (Tetrick et al., 1989). Affect is generally considered to be more volatile than beliefs and would therefore be expected to vary across time, depending on recent experiences (Tetrick, 1995). Tetrick et al. (1989) went on to suggest that trade union members' responsibility towards their union is influenced by their belief in unionism rather than loyalty to the union or willingness to engage in union activities. In addition, responsibility towards the union was not directly related to loyalty but did influence willingness to work for the union. As a result of these interrelations between the dimensions of union commitment, it was suggested that the dimensions should be considered separately when examining their relationships with other constructs (Sinclair et al., 1995). In subsequent research, Tetrick (1995) postulated, on the basis of conceptual

distinctions, as well as empirical support for the four dimensions (Gordon et al., 1980a; Tetrick et al., 1989; Thacker et al., 1989), that these dimensions are distinct but interrelated concepts.

In an attempt to verify the dimensionality of union commitment, Kelloway et al. (1992) used both the commitment scales developed by Gordon et al. (1980a) and Friedman and Harvey (1986) to examine the existence of various plausible models of union commitment. Kelloway et al.'s (1992) results implied that union commitment could be best described by means of three dimensions, namely (1) loyalty; (2) willingness to work for the union; and (3) responsibility to the union. These dimensions were predicted from and found to be consistent with Gordon et al.'s (1980a) first three dimensions. Kelloway et al. (1992) described the first dimension, union loyalty, as trade union members' affective attachment to the union. Union loyalty therefore reflects a sense of pride in being a union member and an awareness of the instrumental nature of union membership. The second dimension, responsibility to the union, relates to trade union members' sense of duty to the union and a willingness to undertake the day-to-day responsibilities of union membership. Kelloway et al. (1992) emphasise the conceptual difference between behavioural intention, as depicted by trade union members' willingness to work for the union, and actual participation. Finally, the third dimension, willingness to work for the union, reflects a willingness to go above and beyond the requirements of union membership. Although Kelloway et al. (1992) supported the definition of union commitment advanced by Gordon et al. (1980a), they suggested the possibility that there may be a causal structure ordering the three dimensions of union commitment identified in their study. They (Kelloway et al., 1992) proposed that both responsibility towards and willingness to work for the union may be outcomes of affective commitment to the union rather than dimensions of union commitment.

Although several researchers have thus replicated Gordon et al.'s (1980a) research in a variety of samples and contexts (Gordon et al., 1984; Ladd et al., 1982; Tetrick et al., 1989; Thacker et al., 1989), a common understanding of the construct and its underlying dimensions had not yet emerged. Sverke and Kuruvilla (1995) argued that, in order to address this problem, it was essential to re-examine the underlying theory. They (Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995) furthermore emphasised the necessity of developing solid definitions for the construct and its dimensions and to examine how the dimensions relate to one another. Sverke and Kuruvilla (1995) subsequently developed a new conceptualisation of union commitment based on the integration of two theories – the theory of reasoned action and the rationalistic approach to commitment.

In terms of the theory of reasoned action, a direct causal relationship between behavioural intentions and actual behaviour exists, while attitudes and subjective norms only influence behaviour through the behavioural intentions (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Sverke and Kuruvilla (see Kuruvilla & Sverke, 1993; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995) applied the theory of reasoned action to union commitment, by postulating that union commitment consists of two causally related dimensions, namely union attitudes and opinions and pro-union behavioural intentions. While union members' pro-union behavioural intentions directly impact on their participation in union-related activities, their beliefs about their trade union shape their behaviour intentions, which may then result in particular behaviour in support of the trade union. Although individuals' behavioural intentions may be influenced by subjective norms (e.g. their beliefs about unionism in general), this does not imply that such beliefs constitute a dimension of the union commitment construct. Support for the application of the theory of reasoned action in union commitment literature has been shown by various researchers, such as Klandermans (1989), Kelloway and Barling (1993), Kuruvilla and Sverke (1993) and Mellor (1990).

The rationalistic approach to commitment draws on Weber's (1968) theory of social action whereby it is postulated that social action can be oriented in terms of instrumentality or value. In the context of union commitment, the rationalistic approach gives rise to two dimensions of union commitment, namely instrumental rationality-based commitment and value rationality-based commitment (Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995). Instrumental rationality-based commitment to a union reflects a union member's attachment to the union resulting from a positive assessment of the costs and benefits associated with membership, while value rationality-based commitment develops when there is congruence between individual goals and values and those of the union (Sverke & Sjöberg, 1995). When applying the rationalistic approach to union commitment it is thus suggested that commitment to a union develops not only as a result of the perceived benefits of membership in relation to the costs incurred, but also as a consequence of the extent to which the union is perceived as reflecting individuals' ideological beliefs (Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995).

By integrating the two theories (the theory of reasoned action and the rationalistic approach to commitment) and obtaining empirical support for their propositions, Sverke and Kuruvilla (1995) posited that union commitment is composed of two dimensions, one based on union instrumentality (instrumental rationality-based commitment) and the other on ideology (value rationality-based commitment), which are causally related to pro-union behavioural intentions and, in turn, to union participation. It was furthermore postulated that these two dimensions have different behavioural outcomes (Sverke & Sjöberg, 1995).

In summary, although Gordon et al.'s (1980a) conceptualisation of union commitment as a four-dimensional construct has been widely accepted in extant literature (Ladd et al., 1982; Tetrick et al., 1989; Thacker et al., 1989), some alternative views have been offered. The first major alternative is Friedman and Harvey's (1986) suggestion that union commitment is a two-dimensional construct consisting of one attitudinal (attitude towards the union) and one behavioural (behavioural intentions) dimension. Friedman and Harvey's (1986) conceptualisation of union commitment was supported by subsequent studies, most notably those of Eaton, Gordon, and Keefe (1992), Kuruvilla and Sverke (1993) and Klandermans (1989). Sverke and Kuruvilla (1995) also supported a two-dimensional view of union commitment, but they proposed a new conceptualisation of the construct based on union instrumentality and ideological beliefs held by union members. The second major alternative was offered by Kelloway et al. (1992), who suggested that union commitment consists of one attitudinal dimension (union loyalty) and two intentional dimensions (responsibility to and willingness to work for the union). These authors (Kelloway et al., 1992) posited that Gordon et al.'s (1980a) fourth dimension, belief in unionism, was invalid. Additional dimensions of union commitment (union instrumentality, organisation/work loyalty and belief in a specific union) were also identified by Fullagar (1986), although these dimensions did not fit into an attitude-behaviour pattern.

Although it is thus acknowledged that a common understanding of union commitment and its dimensions has not yet been established, it was deemed appropriate for the purposes of this study to accept Gordon et al.'s (1980a) widely supported definition of this construct. It is, however, regarded as essential to differentiate between the dimensions of union commitment and explore the possible interactions between these dimensions. Because the relationships between each of the dimensions and employee behaviour may differ, it is necessary to include all four dimensions in the proposed psychological framework. It is expected that loyalty towards the union will be the main predictor of union commitment, but that this loyalty will only impact on trade union members' behaviour in the workplace insofar as it impacts on their pro-union behavioural intentions (responsibility to the union and willingness to work for it). It is also expected that trade union members' ideological belief in unionism is closely aligned with their cultural disposition (i.e. collectivistic employees are expected to have a higher regard for unions and the values these entities ascribe to – see Chapter 6), and that the interaction between and the outcomes of the different dimensions of union commitment may differ from those reported in other studies due to the unique South African employment relations context (Bamberger, Kluger, & Suchard, 1999) as described in Chapter 2.

3.4.2.3 *Comprehensive models of union commitment*

Initial research on union commitment focused on the conceptualisation and measurement of the construct, as outlined in the previous section. In the 1990s, attention shifted to the development of more comprehensive models of union commitment including its antecedents (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, union instrumentality and pro-union attitudes) and consequences (union participation) (Barling, Fullagar, & Kelloway, 1992; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Newton & Shore, 1992).

Barling et al.'s (1992) model proposed that job satisfaction, organisational commitment, pro-union attitudes and union instrumentality all have direct and independent effects on union commitment, which, in turn, influence union participation. Newton and Shore (1992) also regarded job satisfaction and organisational commitment as direct antecedents of union commitment. However, they postulated that, although union instrumentality perceptions shape union commitment, their impact is not direct. Rather, union instrumentality perceptions were deemed to result in the formation of pro-union attitudes, which, in turn, shape union commitment. Newton and Shore (1992) therefore regarded pro-union attitudes as a mediator in the relationship between union instrumentality perceptions and union commitment. Iverson and Kuruvilla (1995), for their part, suggested that, while pro-union attitudes and union instrumentality perceptions may directly impact on union commitment, the effect of job satisfaction on union commitment is fully mediated by organisational commitment.

Bamberger, Kluger, and Suchard (1999) tested these three theoretical models of commitment and participation (i.e. Barling, Fullagar, & Kelloway, 1992; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Newton & Shore, 1992) along with an integrative model incorporating both the direct and mediated effects of job satisfaction and perceptions of union instrumentality (see Figure 3.7). They (Bamberger et al., 1999) found that the integrative model offered a significantly better fit to the data than the other models, suggesting that the effect of job satisfaction on union commitment is partially mediated by organisational commitment, while pro-union attitudes partially mediate the relationship between perceived union instrumentality and union commitment. In addition, Bamberger et al. (1999) reported that the effect of pro-union attitudes on union commitment is equal to, if not stronger than, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Bamberger et al.'s (1999) research demonstrated that different models of organisational commitment (Barling, Fullagar, & Kelloway, 1992; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Newton & Shore, 1992) complement rather than compete with one another. Monnot et al. (2011), in a meta-analytic study, confirmed Bamberger et al.'s (1999) results, but postulated that it is necessary to differentiate between militant and nonmilitant union participation. Militant participation relates

to actions by union members that may be detrimental to the organisation (e.g. strikes and other forms of industrial action), while nonmilitant participation refers to union-related actions that do not cause harm to the organisation or individuals in it (e.g. voting in union elections, reading union literature or standing for election as a trade union representative) (Monnot et al., 2011).

Bamberger et al. (1999) also revealed that the most dominant antecedents of union commitment, namely pro-union attitudes (social exchange) and instrumentality (economic exchange), are union based. This view was supported by Tetrick (1995) who, drawing on social exchange theory, suggested that trade union members' commitment to the union relates to the fairness of treatment they receive from the union, the instrumentality of the union in meeting their objectives, the support they perceive to receive from the union and the extent to which they are able to influence their psychological contracts with their unions. Both Tetrick (1995) and Bamberger et al. (1999) emphasised, however, that multivariate union commitment models may vary according to the nature and composition of the workforce examined, as well as environmental forces such as the employment relations context (e.g. ER climate, level of unionisation and union recognition).

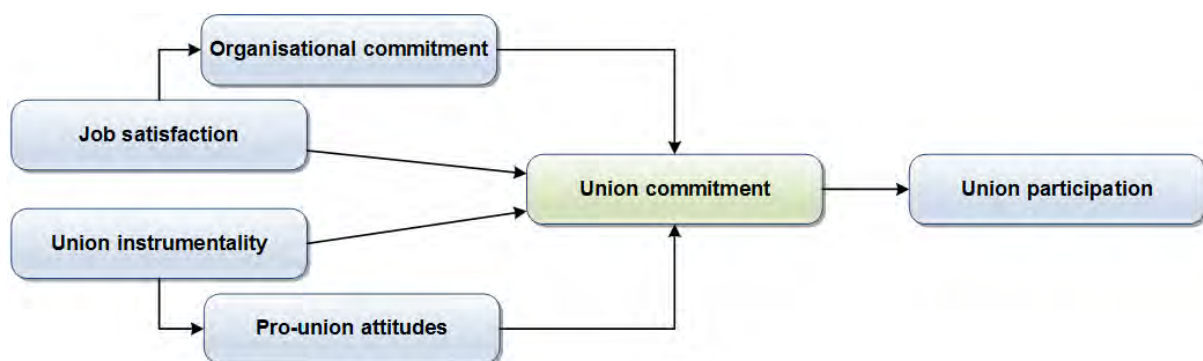


Figure 3.7. An Integrative Model of Union Commitment adapted from Bamberger et al. (1999, p. 307)

The main focus in union commitment research has thus been on its union-related antecedents (i.e. what unions can do to promote commitment) and the relationship between union commitment and participation in union activities (i.e. union citizenship behaviour). This study, however, did not set out to address union commitment in a union context, but rather in an organisational context. In an attempt to better understand the social exchange relationships between employees and their employing organisations and how employees' perceptions of the quality of their exchange relationships with their employing organisations may affect their

attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, it was deemed essential to explore the existence of and relationship between the two foci of commitment (i.e. organisation and union).

While the above models rely on both economic exchange (trade union instrumentality) and social exchange (pro-union attitudes) theories to account for specific union-related antecedents of union commitment, the focus in this study was on social exchange, and more specifically the relationship between employees' perceptions of the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employing organisations and their commitment to these foci. In the following sections, potential antecedents of union commitment as well as person-centred variables influencing union commitment, as reported in extant literature, are considered. The relationship between organisational and union commitment and the possibility of dual commitment to these targets are also explored.

3.4.3 Antecedents to union commitment

Research on union commitment has focused largely on the antecedents thereof, including union beliefs or values (Aryee & Chay, 2001; Bamberger et al., 1999; Fullagar & Barling, 1989, 1991; Fullagar et al., 1992; Fuller & Hester, 2001; Kelloway & Barling, 1993; Monnot et al., 2011; Tan & Aryee, 2002; Tetrick et al., 2007) and how these values correspond with those of employees, as well as pro-union attitudes held by employees (Bamberger et al., 1999; Fullagar & Barling, 1989; Fullagar et al., 1992). Trade union members' perceptions of the extent to which the union impacts on their work conditions (e.g. wages and benefits, and job satisfaction), thus defining the employment relationship (i.e. perceived union instrumentality) and the level of support they receive from the union (i.e. perceived union support), have also been shown to be strong predictors of union commitment and the extent to which trade union members actively engage in union-related activities (Bamberger et al., 1999; Deery et al., 2014; Fiorito, Padavic, & DeOrtentiis, 2015; Fullagar & Barling, 1989, 1991; Fuller & Hester, 2001; Tetrick et al., 2007; Zacharewicz et al., 2016).

Although the above antecedents of union commitment relate to the relationship between trade union members (their attitudes towards and perceptions of the trade union) and the union (i.e. union-related variables), it has also been reported in extant literature that variables relating to the employing organisation show significant correlations with union commitment (Bamberger et al., 1999; Monnot et al., 2011). For instance, trade union members' dissatisfaction with both intrinsic and extrinsic conditions of employment has been shown to positively correlate with their commitment towards their unions (Fullagar & Barling, 1989; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Kim & Rowley, 2006). These dissatisfactions may be ascribed to negative work experiences

and job characteristics such as meaningless and repetitive work, lack of power or control and a lack of opportunities for participation or self-actualisation (Fullagar & Barling, 1989). Klandermans (1986), drawing on frustration-aggression theory, posited that employees' work-related dissatisfactions (e.g. dissatisfaction about income, working conditions or opportunities to participate in decision making) are related to their willingness to join a trade union and actively participate in its activities. In addition, based on rational choice theory, employees consider the costs and benefits associated with union membership and participation. If they regard the perceived consequences of their trade union membership and participation in union activities as beneficial, they will be more likely to engage in such activities (Klandermans, 1986).

Both positive and negative correlations between job satisfaction and union commitment have been reported (Fuller & Hester, 1998). While employees often attribute their dissatisfaction in the workplace to their employing organisation, and may therefore turn to a union to address their dissatisfaction (if employed in a unionised organisation), this is not true of all employees and all organisational contexts (Akoto, 2014; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995). Union commitment is more likely to follow dissatisfaction when the trade union is seen to be instrumental in alleviating employees' concerns (Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995). Furthermore, employees' reactions to dissatisfaction in the workplace have been shown to be moderated by the ER climate (Fuller & Hester, 1998). The ER climate reflects the extent to which the employer-employee relationship is regarded as cooperative or antagonistic (Snape & Redman, 2012). In a unionised environment, a negative ER climate is often characterised by a unilateral commitment to a trade union or noncommitment to either the organisation or trade union (Angle & Perry, 1986; Deery et al., 2014). A significant decline in union commitment has also been reported in instances where the ER climate was perceived as positive (e.g. Deery et al., 1994). Relying on frustration-aggression theory, Klandermans (1986) posited that trade union participation occurs in reaction to dissatisfaction and division in the workplace. It is thus expected that, in adversarial ER climates, employees will be more likely to engage in union activities and to display unilateral commitment to the union (Magenau et al., 1988; Snape & Redman, 2012).

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) has also been relied upon to argue that employees reciprocate perceived union support and instrumentality by joining unions and participating in union-related activities (Deery et al., 2014; Gordon et al., 1980a). Employees assess the benefits they may derive from union membership and, if these benefits exceed the costs of membership, they direct their loyalties to the union (Newton & Shore, 1992; Shore et al., 1994). In light of these arguments and the suggestion that union commitment is a precursor of

participation in union activities (Bamberger et al., 1999), one would expect a positive relationship to exist between employee dissatisfaction and union commitment. Therefore, it is postulated that employees who experience high levels of dissatisfaction in their workplaces, especially in hostile employment relations environments, will be more likely to join and to direct their loyalties to trade unions (Barling et al., 1990).

In summary, although it is accepted that a number of union-related antecedents of union commitment exist (most notably union instrumentality and attitudes towards unions), it is deemed plausible that employees' perceptions of their relations with their employing organisations may impact not only on their commitment towards these organisations, but also on their commitment towards trade unions (Angle & Perry, 1986; Barling et al., 1990; Magenau et al., 1988). This study relied on social exchange theory to argue that employees who experience high-quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations will reciprocate by displaying high levels of organisational commitment. It is furthermore argued that employees' views on the quality of their exchange relationships are determined by their work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) (see Chapter 4). Therefore, it is postulated that employees who experience dissatisfaction in their workplaces (due to a lack of support, injustice or psychological contract violation) will be less likely to be committed to their employing organisations. If this dissatisfaction occurs in an adversarial, unionised employment relations environment, it is furthermore expected that high levels of union commitment will ensue. It is therefore necessary to determine not only whether these proposed antecedents of employee commitment (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) impact on both foci of commitment, but also to establish whether a relationship exists between organisational and union commitment in the South African organisational environment. It is acknowledged that employees may experience commitments to different foci simultaneously and that a high commitment to a specific target does not necessarily entail lesser commitment towards the other. This aspect of dual commitment to the organisation and a trade union is therefore further explored in the following section.

3.4.4 Dual commitment to the organisation and trade union

Meyer and Allen (1997) emphasised that dependencies may exist between an employee's workplace commitments. A key question that needs to be addressed in organisational behaviour research, especially in a highly unionised employment relations environment such as that in South Africa, is therefore in what way dual commitment to the organisation and a trade union is possible and to what extent such dual commitment may impact on trade union

members' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Gordon & Ladd, 1990; Redman & Snape, 2016).

Dual commitment to the organisation and union has been a subject of interest to behavioural scientists because of implications it has for workplace relations (Gordon & Ladd, 1990). The origins of this line of research can be traced back to Purcell (1954, p. 49), who defined dual allegiance as the extent to which employees support the existence, objectives and overall policies of both the organisation and the trade union. Although early studies investigating dual allegiance to both the employing organisation and trade union attempted to address a common question, namely whether employees who joined trade unions and expressed favourable feelings about the union would be precluded from expressing the same sentiments towards their employing organisations (Dean, 1954; Purcell, 1960; Stagner, 1954), they lacked a clear conceptualisation of the construct, using the concepts of dual allegiance, dual loyalty and dual commitment interchangeably (Angle & Perry, 1986; Fullagar & Barling, 1989; Kim & Rowley, 2006; Reed et al., 1994; Thacker & Rosen, 1986). Dual commitment has subsequently been conceptualised as employees' positive attachment to their employing organisations and the trade unions that represent them (Gordon & Ladd, 1990).

Dual commitment to the organisation and trade union presumes that it is possible to attain harmonious relations between all parties (management, employees and trade unions) in the workplace (Barling et al., 1990). Early work on dual commitment supported this view, suggesting that most employees perceive their work situation as a unit (i.e. there is no clear differentiation between the roles of management and the union) and may therefore display equal levels of commitment to their employing organisations and trade unions (Dean, 1954; Purcell, 1960; Stagner, 1954). Researchers such as Barkin (1950) and Kornhauser (1961) contended, however, that dual commitment is impossible due to the fundamental differences between the objectives of management (as representatives of employers or capital) and labour (represented by trade unions). Angle and Perry (1986) held that it is difficult to have simultaneous commitments to entities that are in conflict with one another.

Arguments and empirical evidence in support of (e.g. Angle & Perry, 1986; Fukami & Larson, 1984; Snape & Chan, 2000) and against (e.g. Conlon & Gallagher, 1987; Deery et al., 1994) the existence of dual commitment to the organisation and trade union have thus been reported. One explanation for these conflicting results was offered by Angle and Perry (1986), who postulated that, although dual commitment is possible when relations between management and unions are positive, the presence of high levels of conflict and antagonism tends to impose unilateral commitment to either the organisation or union. Magenau et al.

(1988) supported this view, arguing that dual commitment is only possible where positive management-union relations exist, and where these positive relations are attributed to the joint actions of both parties.

Extant commitment literature supports a social exchange view of dual commitment, suggesting that if a particular entity (organisation or trade union) is perceived as satisfying employees' salient needs in the workplace, they will reciprocate by directing their loyalties towards the entity perceived as being responsible for the satisfaction of these needs (Cohen, 2005). Hence, if cooperative relations between management and the trade union exist, employees will likely attribute the satisfaction of their needs to both the employer and the trade union, resulting in dual commitment to these entities. However, if relations between these parties are adversarial, employees' loyalties will be directed to the party seen as instrumental in satisfying their salient needs. Unilateral commitment to either the organisation or trade union is thus likely to follow.

It has therefore been established in extant literature that dual commitment to the organisation and union may emerge in particular circumstances. However, the measurement and operationalisation of dual commitment have been problematic. While some researchers have conceptualised dual commitment as a distinct construct and measured it independently (e.g. Angle & Perry, 1986), the validity of direct measures of dual commitment has not been established (Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Robinson et al., 2012). Three main approaches to operationalising dual commitment by measuring commitment to the organisation and trade union separately are reported in extant literature. Firstly, the dimensional approach is based on the assessment of correlation between organisational and union commitment (Gordon & Ladd, 1990). A positive correlation is indicative of dual commitment (Angle & Perry, 1986; Conlon & Gallagher, 1987). Secondly, the taxonomic approach to dual commitment (see Figure 3.8) categorises individuals (union members) into taxons or groupings based on self-reports about their commitment towards their employing organisations and trade unions (Gordon & Ladd, 1990). Dual commitment is thus regarded as either a positive correlation between organisational and union commitment (dimensional approach) or the percentage of workers who exhibit commitment to both these entities (taxonomic approach) (Beauvais, Scholl, & Cooper, 1991). Finally, the parallel model approach attempts to determine the extent to which the predictors of organisational and union commitment correspond (Reed et al., 1994). These approaches and their application in dual commitment research are briefly described below.

3.4.4.1 *The dimensional approach*

The most commonly used approach to measuring and operationalising dual commitment is the dimensional or correlational approach (Robinson et al., 2012). According to this approach to dual commitment, a positive correlation between organisational and union commitment is indicative of dual commitment (Reed et al., 1994). The dimensional approach thus enables researchers to obtain information about the direction, form and strength of the relationship between organisational and union commitment in a particular setting (i.e. individuals who represent a meaningful group) (Gordon & Ladd, 1990).

Various researchers (Angle & Perry, 1986; Barling et al., 1990; Conlon & Gallagher, 1987; Fukami & Larson, 1984; Gallagher, 1984; Martin, Magenau, & Peterson, 1986; Sherer & Morishima, 1989) have relied on this approach to determine dual commitment to the organisation and trade union. Substantial variation in terms of dual commitment, using the dimensional approach, however, has been reported in extant literature (Reed et al., 1994). Reported relationships differ in terms of significance and direction, including both positive (e.g. Angle & Perry, 1986; Beauvais et al., 1991; Fukami & Larson, 1984; Gallagher, 1984; Magenau et al., 1988; Sherer & Morishima, 1989; Thacker & Rosen, 1986) and negative (Fullagar & Barling, 1991) correlations. In more recent research, Redman and Snape (2016) relied on the dimensional approach to report no significant correlation between organisational and union commitment, suggesting that commitment to the one target does not necessarily imply a lack of commitment to the other.

Although the dimensional approach to dual commitment has therefore been widely used, it has been criticised as not being aligned with the conceptualisation of dual commitment as favourable reactions to both the organisation and trade union rather provide an indication of the comparable affective reactance towards both targets of commitment (Thacker & Rosen, 1986). A significant positive correlation between organisational and union commitment does not necessarily imply that both commitments are high, but rather that, in a specific sample, individuals' convictions about their employing organisation match their convictions about their union (Cohen, 2005). Furthermore, the dimensional approach focuses on dual commitment as an organisational phenomenon rather than providing an indication of individual differences (Bemmel, 1995; Cohen, 2005; Gordon & Ladd, 1990).

In their meta-analytic study of dual commitment research, Reed et al. (1994) contended that the dimensional approach to dual commitment relies on the assumption that organisational and union commitment have equal importance. While the dimensional approach therefore

allows researchers to determine whether employees in a particular sample have high levels of dual commitment, it does not provide a suitable means for comparison among or within samples (Beauvais et al., 1991). The dimensional approach, however, is appropriate when the aim is to investigate a situational characteristic rather than the relationship between organisational and union commitment in a particular organisation (Reed et al., 1994).

3.4.4.2 Taxonomic approach

The taxonomic approach focuses on the individual as the unit of analysis (Bemmel, 1995; Gordon & Ladd, 1990). In terms of this approach, individuals are categorised into four groupings (as illustrated in Figure 3.8), namely dual commitment (i.e. high levels of commitment to both the organisation and the union), unilateral commitment to either the organisation or the union and dual disaffection (low commitment to both the organisation and the union) (Redman & Snape, 2016). Following this categorisation, additional traits are identified that are characteristic of the members of each group (Gordon & Ladd, 1990).

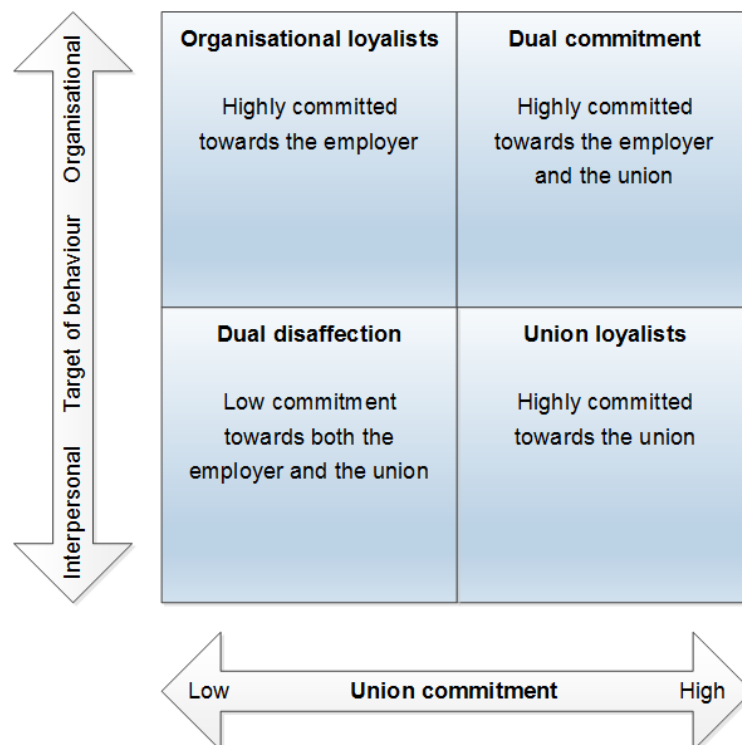


Figure 3.8. Taxons of Organisational and Union Commitment adapted from Redman and Snape (2016, p. 65)

Researchers who apply a taxonomic approach to dual commitment research measure organisational and union commitment separately, and then use the proportion of employees

showing strong or moderate positive responses to both these targets of commitment as an index of dual commitment. High- and low-commitment groups are formed by using scale means, median split or midpoint comparisons to group individuals (e.g. Beauvais et al., 1991; Bemmels, 1995; Fullagar & Barling, 1991; Gallagher, 1984; Lee, 2004; Magenau et al., 1988; Martin et al., 1986; Robinson et al., 2012; Thacker & Rosen, 1986).

By adopting a taxonomic approach to studying dual commitment, it is possible to examine not only the extent to which employees are equally committed (either high or low) to the organisation and trade union, but also the existence of unilateral commitment to either the union or organisation (Thacker & Rosen, 1986). This approach, however, has not been without criticism. For instance, Gordon and Ladd (1990) argued that using a median split process inevitably guarantees four groups of respondents (as indicated in Figure 3.8) while more or less may actually exist (e.g. a neutral grouping indicating neither high or low levels of commitment to both the organisation and the union). Bemmels (1995) argued that the cut-off scores used to categorise individuals are arbitrary and therefore inconsistent across studies. In addition, by using this approach, sample-specific groupings are formed, which makes comparison across samples difficult (Gordon & Ladd, 1990).

3.4.4.3 The parallel models approach to dual commitment

Another stream of research in dual commitment is the parallel models approach where researchers seek to engender dual commitment by identifying common predictors of both organisational and union commitment (Deery et al., 1994; Gordon & Ladd, 1990). Seminal work in this regard was done by Fukami and Larson (1984), who examined the effect of personal characteristics, job characteristics and work experiences on organisational and union commitment. Although these authors (Fukami & Larson, 1984) tested a range of variables, no common predictors of both organisational and union commitment could be found. Subsequent studies (e.g. Barling et al., 1990; Fullagar & Barling, 1991; Sherer & Morishima, 1989; Snape & Chan, 2000) replicated Fukami and Larson's (1984) work, confirming their finding that organisational commitment and union commitment represent two divergent models.

Workplace commitment studies have thus generally reported different antecedents for union and organisational commitment with organisational commitment seen as the result of work-related perceptions and work experiences, while union commitment relates to perceptions of the union's performance (Redman & Snape, 2016). However, one predictor has been shown to relate to the development of commitment to both the organisation and a trade union, namely

the ER climate or the extent to which employment relations are regarded as cooperative or adversarial (Angle & Perry, 1986; Deery & Iverson, 2005; Deery et al., 1994).

A number of USA-based studies (e.g. Angle & Perry, 1986; Beauvais et al., 1991; Magenau et al., 1988) have reported that cooperative employment relations or a positive ER climate may be associated with dual commitment. It has been posited that, when a cooperative ER climate exists, employees are likely to ascribe the attainment of valued outcomes to both the organisation and trade union (Beauvais et al., 1991; Sinclair et al., 1995; Snape & Redman, 2012). In such environments, employees who experience their working environments as positive are therefore more likely to be dually committed to both the organisation and the union (Angle & Perry, 1986). Dual commitment may thus be seen as a feature of a harmonious employment relations environment (Beauvais et al., 1991; Redman & Snape, 2016; Thacker, 2015).

In contrast, dual commitment has been shown to be less likely in employment relations environments marked by hostility and conflict (Bemmels, 1995; Lee, 2004; Martin et al., 1986). Little evidence of dual commitment has, for example, been found in more adversarial employment relations contexts such as the UK (Guest & Dewe, 1991), Australia (Deery et al., 1994) and Korea (Lee, 2004). In an adversarial ER climate, activities by either the organisation or the union that influence employees' perceptions of the extent to which these entities care about their well-being may increase commitment to either the organisation or the union (i.e. whichever entity is regarded as supportive) (Sinclair et al., 1995; Snape & Redman, 2012). These findings suggest that, in a negative ER climate, employers and trade unions compete for the commitment of employees. When adversarial employment relations conditions prevail, employees are compelled to direct their loyalties to either the organisation or trade union, or even to commit to neither of these entities (Lee, 2004).

Theories of role conflict and cognitive dissonance have been used to explain these findings. Firstly, it has been argued that union members face behavioural demands from their employing organisations and trade unions. If an adversarial relationship exists between the organisation and trade union, these demands will be in conflict, culminating in commitment to either the organisation or trade union (Pohler & Luchak, 2015; Redman & Snape, 2016). As the interests of organisations and unions are often seen to be in competition, the very nature of union membership implies that trade union members' behaviour (e.g. actively supporting the union or participating in industrial action) may bring the individual into conflict with the employer (Deery et al., 2014). At the very least, the individual may face a choice in allocating time and energy to behaviours that express support for the union or the organisation (Deery

& Iverson, 2005; Redman & Snape, 2016). If, however, the ER climate is cooperative, role conflict is eliminated and dual commitment is therefore possible (Angle & Perry, 1986; Deery et al., 1994; Magenau et al., 1988). Secondly, in terms of cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1954), it is expected that trade union members who attempt to remain loyal to both the organisation and union, while an adversarial relationship between these entities exist, are likely to experience cognitive dissonance. In order to reduce this discomfort, these individuals need to choose between the two conflicting commitments, resulting in unilateral commitment to either the organisation or the trade union (Lee, 2004).

By applying the parallel models approach, researchers have therefore confirmed that organisational and union commitment have different predictors and should be treated as distinct constructs. It has also been shown that trade union members may be equally committed to both their employing organisations and trade unions and that a high level of commitment to the one does not necessarily preclude commitment to the other (Monnot et al., 2011; Redman & Snape, 2016). It has, however, been shown that dual commitment to the organisation and union is only plausible in a positive ER climate. In instances where adversarial employment relationships prevail, it is expected that employees will view either the organisation or trade union as instrumental in achieving valued outcomes and will thus direct their loyalties towards this entity, resulting in unilateral commitment to the organisation or trade union. Noncommitment is likely to occur when neither of these entities is perceived to be addressing employee needs.

From the above discussion, it was evident that this study would need to explore not only the extent to which employees in South African organisations are committed to both their employing organisations and trade unions, but also what the interactive effect of these potentially conflicting commitments would be for employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace.

3.4.5 Union commitment as an antecedent of discretionary employee behaviour

Extant commitment research has relied on target similarity theory (Lavelle et al., 2007) to argue that reciprocal behaviour is directed at specific social exchange partners (e.g. the organisation and the union) (Chan, Tong-Qing, Redman, & Snape, 2006). Thus, when behaviour is regarded as target specific, organisational commitment is likely to be reciprocated by OCB and lower turnover intentions (i.e. behaviour intended to benefit the organisation),

while union commitment is more likely to be linked to loyalty towards the union and engagement in union activities (i.e. pro-union behaviour) (Redman & Snape, 2016).

Regardless of how union commitment has been conceptualised, a willingness to participate in union activities has consistently been posited as the main outcome of union commitment (Bamberger et al., 1999; Barling, Fullagar, Kelloway, et al., 1992; Deery et al., 2014; Kelloway & Barling, 1993; Snape, Redman, & Chen, 2000; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995; Tan & Aryee, 2002; Wöcke & Marais, 2016). Such participation may include participation in both formal and informal union activities (Fullagar, Gallagher, Clark, & Carroll, 2004). Formal union activities relate to structured and administrative activities, often regulated to some extent by the structure and constitution of the union, such as voting in union elections, attending union meetings, filing grievances and serving as trade union representatives (Fullagar, McLean Parks, Clark, & Gallagher, 1995; Fullagar et al., 2004; Kelloway & Barling, 1993; McLean Parks, Gallagher, & Fullagar, 1995). Informal union activities occur on a day-to-day and unstructured basis (Fullagar et al., 2004). Such informal participatory behaviour includes, for instance, regular compliance with minimal role expectations and behaviour that supports other union members in both union- and job-related matters (Aryee & Chay, 2001; Deery et al., 2014; Tan & Aryee, 2002).

Informal union participation (also referred to as union citizenship behaviour or UCB) and OCB share several defining characteristics in that both types of behaviour are discretionary in nature and beneficial to the entity (organisation or union) and its members (fellow employees or trade union members) (Deery et al., 2014). Furthermore, members (employees or trade union members) cannot be contracted to or penalised for not engaging in such behaviour (Aryee & Chay, 2001; Fullagar et al., 1995; McLean Parks et al., 1995; Skarlicki & Latham, 1997; Tan & Aryee, 2002). Extant literature has demonstrated a positive relationship between union commitment and union citizenship behaviour – defined as discretionary behaviour by trade union members that is beneficial to the union as an entity or organisation (UCB-O) or individual members of the union (UCB-I) (Akoto, 2014).

While extant commitment literature therefore widely confirms that the targets of commitment and behaviour typically correspond, it has also been shown that commitment to one target may impact behaviour directed at a different target (Meyer et al., 1993; Meyer, Stanley, et al., 2013; Vandenberghe, 2009). This possibility has, nevertheless, received only limited attention in extant union commitment literature (see Deery et al., 2014; Redman & Snape, 2016), which tends to focus on the relationships between union commitment and union-related outcomes. Redman and Snape (2016) reported an unexpected positive relationship between union

commitment and OCB towards both the organisation (OCB-O) and individuals in it (OCB-I). Deery et al. (2014) also found that employees who are highly committed to their trade unions are more motivated to help others in the organisation (not only limited to trade union members), suggesting that an individual's commitment to a trade union does not necessarily impede commitment to the organisation or participation in activities that are beneficial to it. These results may be explained by Flavin and Shufeldt's (2016) argument that, by advancing the principles of democracy in the workplace, trade union membership promotes more interested and involved citizenship. Redman and Snape (2016) posited that these positive relationships may be attributed to trade union members' prosocial tendency to help others, and argued that this would apply to both union-related and general work areas.

A further example of this cross-over effect relates to militant pro-union behaviour that is intended to be detrimental to the functioning of the organisation in the short term, but aimed at meeting union members' needs in the long term (Monnot et al., 2011). Such behaviour may include strikes or other forms of industrial action aimed at expressing trade union members' grievances and/or needs (Monnot et al., 2011). All trade union members, however, are not equally willing or inclined to participate in union-related activities such as strikes and protest actions that may be detrimental to the organisation (Fiorito et al., 2015). Barling, Fullagar, and Kelloway (1992) postulated that trade union members who are loyal towards their unions but also express high levels of commitment to their employing organisations will be less inclined to engage in union activities that are detrimental to the organisation. Meyer and Morin (2016) support this view suggesting that, when both organisational commitment and union commitment are high, this is expected to have a synergic effect leading to increased OCB.

Meyer and Morin (2016) emphasised the importance of understanding the interactive effect of commitment towards the organisation and trade union, suggesting that high levels of union commitment are likely to result in an unwillingness on the part of employees to engage in positive discretionary behaviour when they are not equally committed to the organisation. Bemmels (1995) suggested that, if dual commitment is conceptualised as the result of the interaction between organisational and union commitment, both these types of commitment should moderate the relationships between commitment to the other entity and its behavioural outcomes (Bemmels, 1995). Therefore, the relationship between organisational commitment and workplace behaviour directed towards the organisation is expected to be moderated by union commitment, while the relationship between union commitment and union-related behaviour should be moderated by organisational commitment.

3.4.6 Person-centred variables influencing union commitment

It has been shown in the previous sections that employees' commitment to trade unions is mainly determined by the extent to which they perceive the union as instrumental in achieving their goals and the level of support they receive from the union. Personal characteristics such as age, gender, race and level of education, as well as work-related variables such as level and status of employment and tenure, however, have also been shown to influence their propensity to join and commit to trade unions (Barling, Fullagar, Kelloway, et al., 1992; Barling et al., 1990; Bemmels, 1995; Berglund & Furåker, 2016; Bryson & White, 2016; Chaison & Dhavale, 1992; Deery et al., 1994; Fiorito & Greer, 1982; Flavin & Shufeldt, 2016; Fullagar & Barling, 1989; Gallagher, Tansky, & Wetzel, 1997; Kim & Rowley, 2006; Lee, 2004; Loni, 2012; Martin & Peterson, 1987; Monnot et al., 2011; Mumford & Smith, 2004; Sherer & Morishima, 1989; Smit, De Beer, & Pienaar, 2016). Although the reported associations between these person-centred variables and union commitment tend to be weak (Fullagar & Barling, 1989; Gordon et al., 1980a; Kim & Rowley, 2006), implying that there is no single profile of employee who would be more inclined to display higher levels of union commitment, it remains essential to consider the potential impact of these variables on trade union members' level of commitment towards their unions in order to anticipate their potential confounding influence on the relationships between the variables in the proposed psychological framework (Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995). Therefore, those person-centred variables that have been reported in the literature to impact on employees' propensity to join trade unions and their levels of commitment towards their unions are outlined below.

3.4.6.1 *Union membership*

Although a positive correlation between union membership and commitment is rationally anticipated, Conlon and Gallagher (1987) suggested that, when investigating union commitment, both current and past union membership status may be a significant consideration. These authors (Conlon & Gallagher, 1987) postulated that three subgroups of employees exist in unionised organisations, namely (1) employees who are not and have never been union members; (2) employees who are union members; and (3) employees who were union members but relinquished their membership. When considering union commitment and its relationship to organisational commitment as well as its influence on workplace behaviour, it is essential to differentiate between these groupings of employees as they may have different views about and display different levels of commitment to trade unions. It is expected that trade union members will report higher levels of union commitment as they

made an explicit, voluntary choice to join the union. Although both those who have never been union members and those who have relinquished membership are expected to show low levels of union commitment, it is suggested that those employees who were trade union members but chose to cancel their membership will display lower levels of union commitment – especially those whose decision to leave resulted from perceived union inefficiency and lack of support (Conlon & Gallagher, 1987).

Reports on the organisational commitment of these groupings of employees, however, seem to be in conflict, with some reporting the same level of commitment between union members and nonmembers (Conlon & Gallagher, 1987). Conlon and Gallagher (1987) emphasised that trade union membership should not be regarded as an indication of high union commitment or low organisational commitment, and that withdrawing from a trade union does not necessarily imply increased commitment towards the organisation.

3.4.6.2 Race, job level and education

One demographic characteristic that has consistently been regarded as impacting on unionisation is race. Kochan (1980) reported that black workers are more willing to join unions than their white counterparts, while Fullagar and Barling (1989) found race to be a moderator in terms of both the strength and nature of the relationship between certain predictor variables and union commitment. Fullagar and Barling (1989) further suggested that black and white workers had different reasons for displaying union commitment. Owing to the inequalities and discrimination experienced by black workers in South Africa, they would be more inclined to resort to unions in an attempt to facilitate political and economic change, whereas white workers tend to rely on unions to protect their employment and status in the labour market (Fullagar & Barling, 1989).

The relationship between race and unionism is argued to be the result of the oppression and discrimination and fewer opportunities for employment experienced by black workers, especially in South Africa with its dual system of employment relations (Fullagar & Barling, 1989). Historically, there has been an imbalance in terms of representation of black and white workers at different levels of employment (Fullagar, 1986). This still holds true today, with whites occupying the majority of top and senior management positions (generally not unionised), while a large portion of black workers (including coloureds and Indians) remain employed in semi-skilled and unskilled jobs (Commission for Employment Equity, 2017).

Research has indicated that unskilled or semi-skilled blue-collar employees (those who earn lower wages) are more likely to resort to unionism if they experience dissatisfaction compared with their skilled, higher-earning, white-collar counterparts (Fullagar & Barling, 1989; Gordon et al., 1980a; Martin et al., 1986; Monnot et al., 2011; Sherer & Morishima, 1989). These findings are supported by Deery et al. (1994), who found that highly educated employees are less committed to unions. This may be ascribed to the increased employment opportunities available to skilled employees. While these employees may accept alternative employment if they are dissatisfied with their working conditions, unskilled or semi-skilled employees often do not have alternative employment opportunities and they are consequently more inclined to resort to trade unions to resolve their discontent.

Lee (2004) postulated that, as higher-level employees (managers and supervisors) are required to act as representatives of the employer in the workplace, they are unlikely to be committed to a trade union. It has also been argued that white-collar employees have more influence in the organisation than their blue-collar counterparts (Monnot et al., 2011). As a result, they have access to means other than unionism to address their concerns and are more likely to disregard radical trade union activities such as strikes aimed at addressing trade union members' needs but inadvertently harm the organisation (Monnot et al., 2011).

3.4.6.3 *Gender*

Positive relationships between female gender and union commitment have been reported (Martin et al., 1986; Sherer & Morishima, 1989). Extant research suggests that, although males tend to be more active trade unionists than females, female union members display higher levels of commitment to their unions than their male counterparts (Bemmel, 1995; Chaison & Dhavale, 1992; Fiorito & Greer, 1982; Gordon et al., 1980a). These findings can, however, be attributed to the way in which individuals experience their social and occupational roles. Women traditionally bear a disproportionate share of family-related responsibilities. As a result, they have fewer opportunities to enter into formal employment and, if they are employed, to participate in union activities (Barling, Fullagar, Kelloway, et al., 1992). Barling et al. (1990), however, has suggested that gender differences are likely to be minimal in instances where management-labour relationships are highly adversarial.

3.4.6.4 *Employment status*

Sherer and Morishima (1989) posited that permanent employees typically have greater investments in unions as they often hold union positions and stand to gain more from union membership. Consequently, they tend to be more committed to unions. These findings are supported by Gallagher et al. (1997) as well as Martin and Peterson (1987), who found higher levels of union commitment among full-time employees. Redman and Snape (2016) reported a negative relationship between temporary employment and union activism suggesting that trade union members who are employed on a part-time basis will be less inclined to engage in union activities. The negative correlation between temporary employment and unionism may be ascribed to the reluctance of temporary employees to join trade unions. This reluctance may be attributed to a fear of victimisation, which is intensified by the inherent vulnerability of their positions; the cost of union membership as they tend to earn meagre wages; and a lack of continuity of employment (Loni, 2012).

However, contradictory results have also been reported. For instance, Goslinga and Sverke (2003) found no differences in union commitment in terms of either employment status (full-time vs part-time) or contract type (permanent vs temporary). It is expected that the relationship between union commitment and employment status will differ, depending on the employment relations context. For instance, labour legislation in South Africa has recently been amended to afford protection to atypical employees. These legislative changes also make it easier for trade unions to obtain organisational rights in workplaces employing high numbers of temporary or fixed-term employees, and may thus result in an increase in union membership and commitment among such employees (Nel et al., 2016). It was thus postulated in the current study that, while union membership and commitment are expected to differ substantially among permanent and temporary employees, these differences will decline as the effects of the amended legislation become apparent.

3.4.6.5 *Tenure*

Trade unions aim to ensure higher levels of job security for their members by protecting them from unfair dismissal and engaging with employers about proposed retrenchments. The mere presence of a strong trade union in a workplace has been shown to positively correlate with enhanced job security and better working conditions (Berglund & Furåker, 2016). Trade union members furthermore report higher levels of job satisfaction than nonmembers (Flavin & Shufeldt, 2016; Smit et al., 2016). Trade union members thus tend to have longer tenure than

nonmembers as the latter group of employees are more inclined to be dissatisfied and to leave their organisations in response (Berglund & Furåker, 2016; Mumford & Smith, 2004).

It has also been suggested that longer-tenured employees (job tenure and union) are more likely to have invested a lot of time, effort and money in the trade union and are therefore more likely to display high levels of union commitment (Barling et al., 1990; Kim & Rowley, 2006; Lee, 2004).

3.4.6.6 Age

It has been reported that generational differences exist in terms of union membership and commitment (Nel et al., 2016). Older employees tend to have a strong belief in the ideology of unionism, remain loyal to their trade unions and actively participate in union activities. Younger workers, in contrast, tend to view trade unions as a means of protection in the workplace. Although they rely on trade unions to represent them in disciplinary or grievance matters and provide them with advice when needed (e.g. legal advice), they do not necessarily ascribe to collective action and tend not to participate in union activities.

In summary, extant research has shown that trade union commitment is mainly determined by union-related factors such as union instrumentality and support. However, some personal and work-related characteristics have also been shown to impact on employees' commitment to their trade unions. Although the reported associations have been weak, it has been suggested that the following person-centred variables may be associated with higher levels of union commitment: race and gender (blacks and women are more likely to be committed to trade unions), age (older trade union members are more committed than younger members are), lower levels of employment and education and longer tenure. Owing to the weak correlations that have been reported, it is expected though that employees' personal characteristics play a relatively minor role in the development of union commitment. However, cognisance is taken of the potential effect that these characteristics may have on employees' loyalty towards unions, their willingness to engage in both formal and informal union activities and the extent to which they believe in unionism as a means to resolving their work-related dissatisfactions.

Although the reported differences in terms of person-centred characteristics necessitate the inclusion of these control variables in the proposed psychological framework, it is expected that employees' commitment to unions will be influenced by the work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) that shape their perceptions of the quality of their relationships with their employing organisations rather than

by these individual differences. POS, POJ and psychological contract violation are thus regarded as potential antecedents of union commitment. It was deemed essential in this study to investigate not only the interplay between organisational and union commitment but also how these commitments develop and how they influence employee behaviour in the workplace. These antecedents to union commitment and discretionary employee behaviour are explored in Chapter 4.

3.4.7 Union commitment in a South African employment relations context

The employment relations environment in South Africa is characterised by perceptions of unfairness and injustice and remains highly adversarial (Di Paola & Pons-Vignon, 2013; Pons-Vignon & Anseeuw, 2009; Webster, 2013) (see Chapter 2). Although trade union membership has declined in some sectors, organised labour continues to play a prominent role in South African organisations (Bhorat et al., 2014). It is thus essential for organisations to determine their strategies in terms of dealing with employment relations matters. These strategies communicate management's intentions in terms the investments they are willing to make in the employment relationship, and may range from individualistic strategies aimed at eliminating or avoiding trade unions to highly collectivistic employment relations strategies empowering trade unions (Pohler & Luchak, 2015; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). In order to determine the most effective employment relations strategy for a particular organisation, it is necessary to consider a variety of factors, including not only the levels of trade unionism and legislative imperatives, but also individual employees' perceptions, experiences and attitudes (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011; Nel et al., 2016). Organisations need to establish the levels of commitment towards trade unions that exist among their employees, understand how these commitments develop and how this may interact with their commitment towards the organisation and influence their subsequent behaviour in the workplace. Notably, levels of union commitment should not be determined in order to find ways to eliminate such commitment as this would be in contempt of employees' rights as enshrined in the Constitution (Republic of South Africa, 1996) and the Labour Relations Act (Republic of South Africa, 1995). However, in order to better understand employee behaviour in the workplace, it is necessary to explore how union commitment may impact on and interact with employees' commitment towards the organisation and whether dual allegiance is possible (Redman & Snape, 2016). The aim is to find ways in which organisational commitment can be maintained even when trade unions are present.

Although dual commitment to organisations and trade unions has been shown to be possible, this is only feasible in workplaces where positive relationships between management and

unions prevail (e.g. Angle & Perry, 1986; Fullagar & Barling, 1991; Lee, 2004; Magenau et al., 1988; Purcell, 1960; Stagner, 1954). The overall negative ER climate in South Africa and poor employer-employee relations in many organisations imply that employees who are committed to a trade union will in all likelihood be less committed to their employing organisations. This view draws on the classic unitarist perception of employment relations where employees are expected to share common interests and values with their employers (Williams, 2014). However, the pluralist perspective of employment relations, which recognises that employers and employees have different but reconcilable interests, has gained growing acceptance (Nel et al., 2016; Redman & Snape, 2016). By embracing this perspective, employers may come to understand that employees have unique needs and, while some of these needs may be addressed by embracing fair and supportive employment relations practices, trade unions often play an indispensable role in addressing essential employee needs. By accepting the role of trade unions and fostering positive relationships with them, employees' perceptions of the quality of management-union relations may change, which may, in turn, enhance the likelihood of dual commitment to both these entities (Redman & Snape, 2016).

Hence, although it has been shown that organisational and union commitment can coexist, this is unlikely in a hostile employment relations environment (Angle & Perry, 1986). It is thus suggested that organisations need to devise ways to establish higher-quality exchange relationships with their employees by providing support and dealing with them fairly. Although this may not necessarily reduce employees' need to belong or result in lower levels of union commitment, it is more likely that employees will refrain from engaging in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation. Organisations will also benefit by embracing strategies aimed at trade union recognition and empowerment (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). Such strategies may be regarded as a form of support (i.e. the organisation caring for the needs of its employees) and fairness, which may, in turn, increase employees' perceptions of the quality of their relationships with the employer (see Deery et al., 2014; Redman & Snape, 2016).

If employees regard employment relations in unionised organisations as positive, they are likely to credit both the employer and the trade union for the positive outcome (Redman & Snape, 2016). Drawing on social exchange theory, one could then expect these employees to reciprocate by increasing their commitment towards the organisation and the union, which would be seen as working towards outcomes that would benefit both the organisation and its employees (Deery et al., 2014). This, in turn, is likely to result in positive workplace behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation and individuals in it. Hence, rather than searching for ways to circumvent trade unions in the workplace (i.e. decreasing union commitment), employers may benefit by embracing them as a positive correlation between these two foci of

commitment, and this would be likely to result in a positive ER climate where active participation in union-related activities is not discouraged but regarded as essential in building better employer-employee relations (Fuller & Hester, 1998).

3.4.8 Summary

In this section, it was revealed that, although Gordon et al.'s (1980a) conceptualisation of union commitment has received widespread support in extant literature, consensus had not been reached in terms of the dimensionality of the construct. A great deal of early research on union commitment confirmed and relied on Gordon et al.'s (1980a) conceptualisation thereof as a four-dimensional construct (e.g. Friedman & Harvey, 1986; Fullagar, 1986; Gordon et al., 1984; Kelloway et al., 1992; Ladd et al., 1982; Tetrick et al., 1989; Thacker et al., 1989). These dimensions, however, were obtained through exploratory factor analysis using data collected from a sample of nonprofessional white-collar workers (Gordon et al., 1980a). Gordon et al.'s (1980a) model was subsequently generalised to white-collar professionals (Ladd et al., 1982) and blue-collar workers (Thacker et al., 1989) and its stability over time was confirmed (Tetrick et al., 1989). However, the four dimensions have been found to be moderately to strongly correlated with each other (Gordon et al., 1980a; Tetrick et al., 1989; Thacker et al., 1989), which prompted debate on whether the four dimensions are actually distinct (Friedman & Harvey, 1986). Based on conceptual distinctions as well as empirical support for the four dimensions (Gordon et al., 1980a; Tetrick et al., 1989; Thacker et al., 1989), Tetrick (1995) postulated that the four dimensions are distinct but interrelated concepts.

In this study, Gordon et al.'s (1980a) conceptualisation of union commitment as a reflection of an individual's desire to remain a member of the union, a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the union and a belief in and acceptance of the goals of the union was accepted. Union commitment is thus regarded as a four-dimensional construct. It is expected, however, that these dimensions will have a synergistic effect on trade union members' behaviour in and towards their employing organisations (Kelloway et al., 1992; Tetrick et al., 1989; Thacker et al., 1989).

In addition to the interactive effect of the four dimensions of union commitment, the two foci of commitment (organisation and union) are expected to be interrelated. It was thus deemed essential to determine to what extent trade union members' commitment to their unions impacts on their commitment to their employing organisations. Although dual commitment to these two entities has received a fair share of research interest, there are different approaches

to the measurement and operationalisation of dual commitment. Robinson et al. (2012) posit, however, that it is not necessary for all researchers to adopt a common approach as the appropriateness of the approach is determined by the research question that needs to be answered. In this study, the aim is to determine to what extent union commitment interacts with organisational commitment and how this interaction affects employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace (OCB and CWB). It was thus deemed appropriate for the purposes of this research to examine the correlation between organisational and union commitment, which serves as an indication of dual commitment as a situational variable.

It is acknowledged that different antecedents exist for organisational and union commitment. However, the relationship between employees' perceptions of the labour-management relationship and dual commitment towards the organisation and union have been well established (Angle & Perry, 1986; Redman & Snape, 2016; Wasti et al., 2016). It is thus postulated that those relational variables that contribute towards employees' perceptions of the quality of their exchange relationship with their employing organisations (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) will impact on their commitment towards the organisation as well as the trade union. Trade union members who experience a positive employment relations environment, are likely to attribute this to both the union and the employer. It is therefore expected that high-quality exchange relationships, marked by high levels of organisational support and justice and fulfilment of employee expectations in terms of the psychological contract, will encourage dual commitment (i.e. high commitment to the organisation and union) in a unionised environment. In contrast, it is argued that employee perceptions of a poor-quality exchange relationship with their employing organisations (i.e. low levels of trust, lack of support and fairness, and disregard for reciprocal obligations) will place a higher value on trade union membership as the union is regarded as being instrumental in addressing the negative aspects of the employment relationship. This, in turn, will force a unilateral commitment to the union (Beauvais et al., 1991).

In this study, the aim was to explore the existence of dual commitment to the organisation and trade union in South African organisations, thus addressing the dearth in research in this regard (Bemmels, 1995; Gordon & Ladd, 1990; Redman & Snape, 2016; Robinson et al., 2012). This study focuses on how individual experiences and perceptions affect employees' commitment to either the organisation or the union and the combined effect of the various dimensions of organisational and union commitment on employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace.

This study furthermore applied Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) three-component model of organisational commitment in a dual commitment context. Although extant literature on dual commitment to the organisation and trade union has attracted a fair amount of research interest, this research has mainly relied on Mowday et al.'s (1982) conceptualisation and measurement of organisational commitment. Only one study (Cohen, 2005) embraced the multidimensional nature of both organisational and union commitment (Gordon et al., 1980a; Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). Cohen (2005) postulated that utilising only single dimensions of these constructs (e.g. affective commitment and union loyalty) may result in the loss of valuable information and only a partial understanding of dual commitment. For instance, it is plausible that an employee may display a high level of CC towards his or her employing organisation (due to a lack of alternative employment alternatives), while at the same time believing in the ideology of unionism and expressing willingness to participate in union activities (both formal and informal). Although one of the dimensions of organisational commitment is high, such an employee cannot be regarded as being dually committed to both entities as his or her commitment to the organisation is related to the cost of leaving only without any moral obligation towards the organisation (i.e. AC and NC are low). It is expected that such a commitment profile will negatively correlate with organisational citizenship behaviour as employees in this category will not be inclined to "walk the extra mile" for their employers. At the same time this profile is expected to positively correlate with counterproductive work behaviour as these employees will not hesitate to engage in behaviour such as strikes or other forms of industrial action if they believe that it will benefit union members. It is postulated that the strength and direction of the relationships between different permutations of commitment profiles (including the dimensions of both organisational and union commitment) and employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace (OCB and CWB) will vary, providing a better understanding of the relationship between employee commitment and behaviour in the workplace. As the various dimensions are expected to have an interactive effect on how the other dimensions develop and how they are experienced, it was regarded as essential to include all dimensions in the proposed framework.

The main theoretical findings relating to union commitment are summarised in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6

Theoretical Integration: Union Commitment

Theoretical model adopted	Gordon, Philpot, Burt, Thompson, and Spiller's (1980a) conceptualisation and operationalisation of union commitment	
Definition of union commitment	Union commitment reflects an individual's desire to remain a member of the union, a willingness to exert effort on the union's behalf and a belief in and acceptance of the union's goals (Gordon et al., 1980a).	
Core constructs	Union loyalty Responsibility to the union Willingness to work for the union Belief in unionism	
Person-centred variables impacting on union commitment	Employment status Job level Age Education level	Tenure Gender Population group Union membership
Behavioural outcomes of union commitment	Positive relationships between union commitment and OCB have been shown, but the main influence of union commitment on organisation-related behaviour lies in its interaction with organisational commitment.	
Relevance in enhancing employment relations	Employers should find ways to contribute towards the development of positive employer-employee relationships. When a cooperative ER climate prevails, employees' commitment to their employing organisations can be maintained even when trade union are present. In a unionised environment, dual commitment to the organisation and trade union is more likely to result in positive workplace behaviour than unilateral commitment to either entity.	

It has been shown in this section that employees may be equally committed to their employing organisations and trade unions – being committed to one does not automatically preclude commitment to the other. While it can reasonably be expected that dual commitment to the organisation and trade union is possible in organisational environments where cooperative relationships exist between management and unions, the same cannot be said for employment relations environments marked by conflict and antagonism. In instances where negative management-labour relations exist, it is expected that employees will be compelled to choose the target of their affection – either the organisation or the trade union. It is postulated that, if the trade union is perceived as instrumental in attaining employees' goals and supportive of their needs, employees will be more inclined to join and commit to the trade union. In such instances, unilateral commitment to the union will prevail. Employees who are highly committed to their trade unions only with no or limited commitment to their employing organisations, are expected to only engage in discretionary behaviour if it is beneficial to their

fellow trade union members. They may even resort to counterproductive work behaviour in the form of strikes or other forms of collective action if they regard such action as being supportive of their trade unions and beneficial to their fellow trade union members.

The implication is that, instead of finding ways of decreasing employees' commitment towards their trade unions, employers should find ways to build positive exchange relationships with their employees. If employees perceive these relationships as positive, their commitment to a trade union is unlikely to result in negative behavioural outcomes (CWB). Conversely, it has been shown in the literature (Redman & Snape, 2016) that, in a positive ER climate, employees who demonstrate high levels of commitment towards both their employing organisations and trade unions are more likely to engage in behaviour that benefits both the organisation (OCB-O) and individuals in it (OCB-I).

3.5 EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS

This chapter draws mainly on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), as supported by psychological contract theory (Rousseau, 1989, 1995) to gain a better understanding of how relationships between employees and their employing organisations develop and how positive employment relationships can be maintained. The focus is on the social or informal dimension of the employment relationship as this dimension has been found to be neglected in favour of the formal and collective aspects of the relationship – especially in the South African employment relations context, which is highly regulated and where unions continue to play a prominent role.

It is postulated that employees' perceptions of the quality of their exchange relationships with their employers drive the manner in which they develop and experience commitment towards their employing organisations (i.e. their organisational commitment profiles) and behave in and towards these organisations. The behavioural focus is on employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace including both positive (OCB) and negative (CWB) voluntary behaviour. It is argued that these forms of behaviour have substantial implications, not only for the maintenance of positive employment relations, but also for the organisation's long-term functioning and success (Dalal et al., 2009; Lee & Allen, 2002; Podsakoff et al., 2009). These behaviours are of specific concern in terms of the relational focus of this study as they have been shown to shape the organisational, social and psychological contexts in which employees are required to operate (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994).

It is posited that, by focusing on the social exchange relationships with their employees (rather than the transactional relationship only), employers will create a positive employment relations environment in which employees will be willing to invest in the organisation by engaging in behaviours aimed at benefiting the organisation or individuals in it. Employees who are emotionally invested in their organisations and who experience high-quality social exchange relationships in their workplaces are also expected to be less likely to engage in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or people in it. Employers should therefore find ways of encouraging positive discretionary behaviour (OCB) and discouraging negative discretionary behaviour (CWB) in the workplace. This requires an understanding of the predictors of these behaviours. One such predictor that has been identified in extant literature is organisational commitment.

Employees' commitment to their employing organisations has been shown to be a strong predictor (in opposite directions) of both OCB (Cetin et al., 2015; Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016) and CWB (Demir, 2011; Wang, 2015). However, research relating to the predictive role of organisational commitment on OCB and CWB has mainly relied on AC as an indicator of employees' commitment towards their employing organisations (Chênevert et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2016). As shown in this chapter, however, contemporary organisational commitment research (Kabins et al., 2016; Kam et al., 2016; Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Morin et al., 2016, 2015; Stanley et al., 2013) advocates that it is no longer regarded as accurate to rely on a single dimension of organisational commitment only when attempting to better understand its impact on employee behaviour in the workplace. Rather, it is expected that different dimensions of organisational commitment (AC, CC and NC) will differentially impact on employees' behaviour and that the interaction between these dimensions will influence how employees experience and react to organisational commitment (Gellatly et al., 2006).

It is furthermore suggested that employees, especially those with a collectivistic disposition, who experience poor-quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations, may resort to trade unionism in an attempt to restore balance. Such employees may develop a high level of commitment towards their trade unions, especially in instances where these unions are perceived as instrumental in meeting their socioemotional needs, which may, in turn, have a detrimental effect on their commitment to their employing organisations. It was shown in this chapter that, in adversarial employment relations environments, it is unlikely that trade union members will be equally committed to their employing organisations and trade unions (Pohler & Luchak, 2015; Redman & Snape, 2016). One would therefore expect that the ways in which employees experience and react to commitment in an organisational context may not only be

based on the interaction between the three dimensions of organisational commitment, but that, in unionised organisations, trade union members' commitment to their unions may reveal a fourth dimension that interacts with AC, CC and NC to shape their overall commitment profiles.

It is thus posited that, by applying a person-centred approach to both organisational and union commitment as multidimensional constructs, homogeneous groups reflecting particular sets of attributes (relating to both organisational and union commitment) may be identified. Such groupings, reflecting employees' commitment profiles, would enable the researcher to explore the interactive or synergistic effect of the various components of organisational and union commitment, and the behaviour that may be associated with different commitment profiles.

If organisations wish to enhance positive behaviour and deter detrimental behaviour in the workplace, they should be able to determine optimal commitment profiles relevant to their particular environments and devise interventions that will encourage the development of these profiles. The next chapter explores POS, POJ and psychological contract violation as determinants of employees' perceptions of the quality of their exchange relationships with their employing organisations and the role of these perceptions in developing various forms of organisational commitment and encouraging positive or negative discretionary behaviour. It is postulated that, when attempting to understand the development and consequences of commitment, it is no longer sufficient to rely on a variable-centred approach aimed at understanding the relationships between variables only. Instead, a variable-centred approach should be combined with a person-centred approach, as this will promote a better understanding of the intricacies involved in the relationships between commitment (to both the organisation and trade union) and its antecedents (work-related perceptions and work experiences) and consequences (discretionary behaviour) in the workplace (Meyer & Morin, 2016).

Therefore, this study combines the traditional variable-centred approach with a person-centred approach in attempt to better grasp the complexity of the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences and their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Somers, 2009). By relying on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) as well as empirical results (Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013), it is postulated that positive work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract fulfilment) may contribute not only to employees' desire to remain in their organisations (which has been the prominent behavioural outcome in organisational commitment research), but also to the likelihood that they will be willing to

engage in behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation and individuals in it (OCB), while refraining from engaging in behaviour that may be detrimental to the organisation (CWB).

Although social exchange theory is traditionally associated with AC, suggesting that a high-quality social exchange relationship between an employee and his or her employing organisation is likely to have a positive influence on the employees' emotional attachment to the organisation (Sharma & Dhar, 2016), it has been clearly demonstrated in this chapter that organisational commitment research can no longer rely on measures of AC only. Since employees' experiences of organisational commitment are dependent on the interaction between all three dimensions of commitment (AC, CC and NC), or the commitment context (Gellatly et al., 2006), it is essential to include all three of these components when attempting to better understand the relationships between the extent to which employees' are committed to their employing organisations and the relation of their commitment to their relational behaviour in the workplace. In a unionised context, it is also imperative to consider the extent to which trade union members are committed to their unions, and in what way commitment to two potentially conflicting targets impacts on one another. It is thus postulated that social exchange theory is not relevant to AC only, but, because AC also influences (and is influenced by) an employee's experience of CC and NC, social exchange theory can be relied upon as a theoretical foundation to explore the relationships between organisational commitment, union commitment and its antecedents and outcomes in South African organisations.

Drawing on social exchange theory, it is posited that positive work-related perceptions in terms of support and justice, accompanied by fulfilment of employer obligations in terms of the psychological contract, will result in increased trust towards the organisation and individuals in it. At the same time, employees with such positive perceptions of and experiences in their workplaces will be less likely to be cynical towards their employing organisations and their managers. Hence, these employees will be more inclined to reciprocate by means of increased commitment to and identification with the organisation and will be less likely to join trade unions and participate in union activities. Employees who experience high-quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations are furthermore expected to be more willing to engage in OCB, which has been empirically shown to enhance the effectiveness of the organisation (Podsakoff et al., 2000). In contrast, employees who experience poor-quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations are expected to display distrust and cynicism towards the organisation and its managers. These employees are unlikely to form an emotional attachment to their employing organisations and may revert to trade unions to address their socioemotional needs. They are expected to be less willing to engage in OCB and to resort to CWB, especially in instances where they feel

powerless to effect change by normative means. The relationships between POS, POJ and psychological contract violation, as indicators of the quality of the social exchange relationship, and employees' relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), as reported in extant literature, are explored in Chapter 4. In chapter 5, the mediating effect of organisational cynicism and trust in these relationships is also considered.

3.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In an employment relations environment, economic exchange relates to the formal, economic and collective dimensions of the employment relationship. It entails the reward received by individuals in exchange for labour and is regulated by contracts of employment, legislation and, in unionised organisations, collective agreements with trade unions. In the previous chapter, it was argued that the overemphasis on the formal, collective and economic dimensions of employment relations is partly to blame for the persistent animosity between the parties. It was suggested that, by adopting a broader perspective to employment relations (i.e. including the informal and individual dimensions), employers will not only be able to align individual employees' attitudes and behaviour with the organisation's goals, but will also create an environment in which individual, organisational and societal needs are met. The need for a better understanding of the informal (social) dimension of employment relations was accentuated. The emphasis in this study was thus on the socioemotional needs of employees (as opposed to more tangible needs), and how the extent to which employers understand and address these needs may result in positive outcomes for both parties in the employment relationship.

In this chapter, it was advocated that social exchange theory is an appropriate theoretical framework to gain a better understanding of the dynamics of employer-employee relations in the workplace. It was furthermore suggested that psychological contract theory may provide support for social exchange in the workplace, and that these two theoretical frameworks should be included in exploring employees' attitudinal and behavioural responses to workplace events.

The behavioural focus in this chapter was on both positive (OCB) and negative (CWB) discretionary behaviour in the workplace. It was argued that, when setting out to better comprehend employer-employee relations in the workplace, the focus should be on discretionary (i.e. extra-role) behaviour rather than task performance or in-role behaviour as these forms of behaviour are more indicative of employees' perceptions and motivations in the workplace and also determine the context in which organisational activities occur.

Furthermore, two specific attitudinal responses to workplace perceptions and experiences were highlighted, namely organisational commitment and union commitment. It was posited that employees who experience high-quality social exchange relationships with their employing organisations would display higher levels of organisational commitment, which, in turn, would be expected to give rise to a willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour. A contrasting scenario was also suggested, namely that employees who experience poor-quality social exchange relationships with their employing organisations, would be less inclined to engage in OCB and might even reciprocate by engaging in CWB. CWB was shown to include any undesirable behaviour by employees that is intended to harm the organisation or people in it. Moreover, it was argued that participation in some union activities such as strikes or other forms of industrial action might also be regarded as a form of CWB. It was therefore deemed imperative, also in light of the crucial role that trade unions play in the South African employment relations environment, to consider the extent to which employees who experience dissatisfaction in their working environments may resort to trade unionism, and in what way trade union members' commitment to their unions may impact on their commitment to their employing organisations and their subsequent behaviour in the workplace.

The following research aims in terms of the literature review were achieved in this chapter:

Literature research aim 2: To conceptualise relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a set of relational outcomes or consequences in employment relations.

Literature research aim 6: To determine how the biographical characteristics of individuals (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) relate to their individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism, work-related perceptions and work experiences, their cynicism towards and trust in the organisation and their relational attitudes and behaviour (partially achieved).

Chapter 4 addresses literature research aim 3, namely to conceptualise work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) as a set of antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour. Chapter 4 therefore outlines the antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace with specific reference to work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation). The interrelationships between these antecedents, as well as the relationships between POS, POJ and psychological contract violation and the relational attitudes and

behaviour discussed in this chapter, as reported in extant literature, are explored. The implications of individuals' work-related experiences and perceptions for employment relations practices are critically evaluated.

CHAPTER 4: ANTECEDENTS OF RELATIONAL ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR

Keywords: distributive justice, interactional justice, perceived organisational justice (POJ), perceived organisational support (POS), procedural justice, psychological contract, psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation

The aim of this chapter is to outline the antecedents of relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace with specific reference to work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) relevant to the employer-employee relationship. The focus is thus on the independent variables reflected in Figure 4.1.

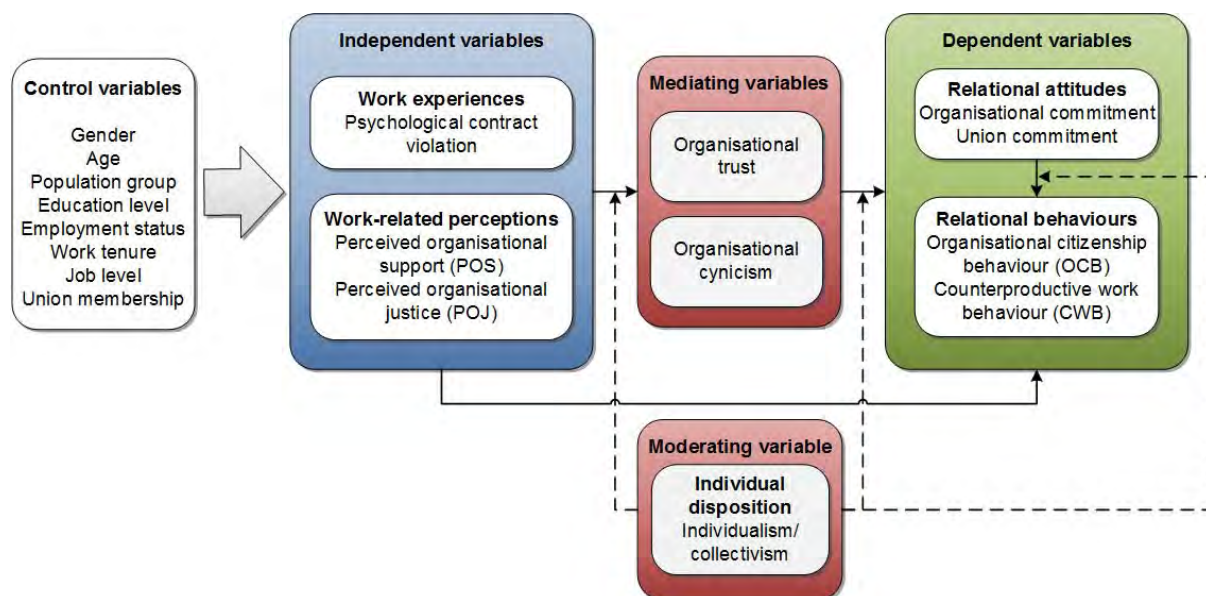


Figure 4.1. An Overview of the Relationships between the Control, Independent, Mediating, Moderating and Dependent Variables

These work-related perceptions and work experiences are conceptualised as interconnected indicators of the quality of the social exchange relationship between employers and employees, which collectively influence employees' attitudes towards and behaviour in their employing organisations. The impact of individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences on their attitudes towards and behaviour in their employing organisations, and ultimately the implications thereof for employment relations practices, are critically evaluated.

In Chapter 3 it was argued that employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace are impacted on by social exchange processes (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Rhoades &

Eisenberger, 2002; Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, Chen, & Tetrick, 2009). The centrality of reciprocity in the social exchange relationship was also highlighted, arguing that employees will respond with increased effort and loyalty towards their organisations if they perceive their employers to be upholding their obligations in the employment relationship (e.g. fair pay, support and recognition) (Blau, 1964; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, et al., 2009). The focus in this chapter is on the operationalisation of the social exchange process in an organisational context. A number of antecedents (psychological contract violation, POJ and POS) of individual attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) resulting from this exchange process that have been identified in the literature and are deemed essential in improving employer-employee relationships in the workplace are explored.

4.1 REPORTED ANTECEDENTS OF RELATIONAL ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR IN THE WORKPLACE

There appear to be noticeable similarities between the antecedents of OCB and CWB identified in extant literature (Dalal, 2005). The relationships between the precursors of behaviour and the two forms of discretionary behaviour have been explained mainly in terms of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) and psychological contract theory (Rousseau, 1989, 1995).

Discretionary behaviour in the workplace (OCB and CWB) has been posited to be a function of stable dispositions, personality characteristics and self-perceptions. In other words, individuals, through social identification, view their employing organisations as part of their self-concept and consequently possess an intrinsic reason to engage in OCB and refrain from engaging in CWB (Carpenter & Berry, 2017; Chiaburu et al., 2011; Wu, Liu et al., 2016). Individual dispositions include, for instance, cultural and affective dispositions. An individual's cultural disposition impacts not only on what is regarded as in-role and extra-role behaviour (Hassan et al., 2017), but also influences the likelihood that he or she will engage in such behaviour (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2015; Gorodzeisky & Richards, 2016; Grijalva & Newman, 2015; House et al., 2004; Kabasakal, Dastmalchian, & Imer, 2011; Moorman & Blakely, 1995). This likelihood is also determined by an individual's affective disposition, with positive relationships reported between positive affect and OCB (Watson & Clark, 1984), as well as negative affect and CWB (Dalal, 2005). This relationship between affect and behaviour is also demonstrated in Spector and Fox's (2002) model, which posits that positive affect is the main cause of OCB, while negative affect is the main cause of CWB.

Research has furthermore shown that personality traits such as a proactive personality, agreeableness, openness and a prosocial orientation (Chiaburu et al., 2011; Methot et al., 2017; Ning, Jian, & Crant, 2010) and general self-efficacy (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001; Yang et al., 2016) predict OCB. Sackett et al. (2006) found four of the Big Five personality traits, namely agreeableness, openness, extroversion and conscientiousness, to be predictors of OCB. Personality has also been shown to be a precursor to CWB (Phipps et al., 2015). Direct negative relationships between all of the Big Five personality traits and CWB have been reported, with agreeableness, conscientiousness and emotional stability showing the strongest correlations (Berry et al., 2007, 2012; Sackett et al., 2006). More recently, researchers have also examined relationships between the so-called “dark triad traits” and CWB, reporting weak to moderate relationships with psychopathy, Machiavellianism and narcissism (Cohen, 2016; Grijalva & Newman, 2015; O’Boyle et al., 2012). Additional personality traits such as hostile attribution bias and trait anger have also been shown to predict CWB (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Fox & Spector, 1999; Spector & Zhou, 2014). Although researchers caution that the impact of personality traits may differ in different cultural contexts (Cohen, 2016), research conducted in different contexts with diverse samples has maintained that conscientiousness is the personality trait that shows the most significant correlations to both OCB and CWB (Phipps et al., 2015).

Although it is thus acknowledged that employees’ personal dispositions and personality characteristics may influence their propensity to engage in either positive or negative discretionary behaviour in the workplace, empirical research has shown that individuals’ behaviour over the long term relates more closely to their cognitive appraisal of their conditions of employment than to disposition or personality characteristics (Methot et al., 2017; Organ, 1990a). OCB has been shown to be a function of individual job attitudes, such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceptions of fairness and trust, envy and organisational identification, as well as perceived situational factors (e.g. job characteristics, leadership behaviour, organisational culture and climate, organisational control systems and job insecurity) (Al Sahi AL Zaabi et al., 2016; Bateman & Organ, 1983; Becker, 1992; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Ko, Moon, & Hur, 2017; Lam et al., 2015; Lilly, 2015; López Bohle et al., 2017; Moorman, 1991; Morrison, 1994; Organ, 1990a; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Park, 2018; Podsakoff et al., 1990, 2000; Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Smith et al., 1983; Suifan, 2016; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Wang & Sung, 2016; Wu, Wu, & Wang, 2016; Yang et al., 2016). Similar results have been reported for CWB, with the main antecedents reported as job stressors (interpersonal conflict and organisational constraints) (Fox et al., 2001; Shoss et al., 2016; Spector & Zhou, 2014), job attitudes, such as job dissatisfaction (Berry et al., 2012; Lau et al., 2003) and organisational commitment (Dalal, 2005; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), and work-related

perceptions and experiences, such as organisational injustice, poor leadership and workplace bullying (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Peng, Chen et al., 2016; Schyns & Schilling, 2013).

It has been shown in extant literature that employees who are satisfied with their jobs have high levels of commitment to their employing organisations, experience good interpersonal relations in the workplace and feel that they are treated fairly, are more motivated to engage in behaviour that has favourable consequences for the organisation (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Konovsky, 2000; Lavelle et al., 2007; Özbek et al., 2016). This is especially true for those employees who hold a strong relational contract orientation (Mai et al., 2016; Zhu, 2016). In contrast, employees who experience their working environments as unjust and unsupportive are more likely to withhold positive discretionary behaviour as a means of retribution (Alfonso, Zenasni, Hodzic, & Ripoll, 2016; Rupp, Shao, Thornton, & Skarlicki, 2013; Thornton & Rupp, 2016). Such employees are also more likely to reciprocate by engaging in CWB, which may result in significant costs for the organisation (Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano, Byrne, et al., 2001; Lavelle et al., 2007; Lee & Allen, 2002; Thornton & Rupp, 2016). Mai et al. (2016) argue, however, that a strong relational orientation may mitigate the likelihood that employees will engage in CWB as they risk losing established relationships in the process. Diehl, Richter, and Sarnecki (2018) support this view, indicating that employees' inherent moral standards and a fear of retribution (especially those in low power positions) may prevent them from engaging in CWB. It is thus expected that employees will reciprocate perceived injustice or a lack of support by their employing organisations by limiting their engagement in OCB and that they will only resort to CWB in extreme situations (i.e. no alternative means for restoring the balance in the exchange relationship exist).

The extent to which employees' commitment to their employing organisations impacts on their discretionary behaviour in the workplace was explored in Chapter 3 (see section 3.3.4). In this chapter, it is posited that organisational commitment should be seen not only as a predictor of employee behaviour (OCB and CWB), but also as an outcome of individual work-related perceptions and work experiences. The extent to which the selected antecedents of OCB and CWB also predict organisational commitment will therefore be explored. It was, further argued in Chapter 3 that, in unionised organisations, employees who experience dissatisfaction may resort to trade unionism in an attempt to restore the balance in the employment relationship. The importance of understanding the interactive effect of commitment towards two potentially opposing entities (the organisation and trade union) was emphasised, and it was suggested that high levels of union commitment are likely to result in an unwillingness by employees to engage in OCB when they are not equally committed to the organisation (Meyer & Morin,

2016). This study did not set out to address the main antecedents of union commitment, as they have been shown to relate mainly to the relationships that exist between trade union members and their unions (e.g. the extent to which the union succeeds in ensuring better conditions of employment or higher wages) (Bamberger et al., 1999; Deery et al., 2014; Fiorito et al., 2015; Fullagar & Barling, 1989, 1991; Fuller & Hester, 2001; Tetrick et al., 2007; Zacharewicz et al., 2016). However, given the anticipated interaction between organisational and union commitment, it is posited that those work-related perceptions and work experiences that are associated with organisational commitment, may also relate to union commitment although the relationships will be in opposite directions. This view is supported by reports in extant literature showing significant correlations between variables relating to the employing organisation (e.g. a lack of organisational support and perceptions of injustice) and union commitment (Bamberger et al., 1999; Monnot et al., 2011).

In this chapter, specific antecedents to employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace that are deemed essential in an employment relations context are identified in the literature. These antecedents reflect individuals' cognitive appraisal of their conditions of employment and, more specifically, the quality of the social exchange relationships that exist between employees and their employing organisations (Methot et al., 2017; Organ, 1990a). They include work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation). Psychological contract violation and perceptions of organisational justice and support have been identified in the literature as key, closely related but independent, constructs when studying employment relations, and specifically relational outcomes in the workplace (Conway & Briner, 2002; Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). The impact of these constructs on employees' attitudes and behaviour has been studied within various theoretical frameworks. In this study, the main theoretical framework relied upon to study these relationships, namely social exchange theory (Alcover et al., 2017b; Au & Leung, 2016; Bal et al., 2010; Colquitt et al., 2013; Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Dawson, Karahanna, & Buchholtz, 2014; Jepsen & Rodwell, 2010; López Bohle et al., 2017; Suazo, 2011) was adopted. In addition, psychological contract theory is included as it is regarded as a way in which employees comprehend their social exchange relationship with their employing organisations (Karagonlar et al., 2016).

The aim of this study was to promote a better understanding of employees' affective, attitudinal and behavioural responses to work-related perceptions and work experiences following an integrated approach. Employees' perceptions of the extent to which their expectations in terms of their psychological contracts with their employees are fulfilled and the levels of support and justice in the organisation are therefore examined in terms of the influence of these

perceptions on the quality of the exchange relationship drawing on social exchange and psychological contract theories. A better understanding of the interplay between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), will enable employers to amend their employment relations policies, practices and procedures to enhance positive employee attitudes and behaviour and to address factors that may give rise to negative attitudes and behaviour. It is expected that employees who do not observe breaches in terms of their psychological contracts and perceive their employing organisations as supportive and fair will enjoy high-quality social exchange relationships with their employing organisations. Such relationships are expected to foster trust in the organisation and its managers and lead to positive reciprocative attitudes and behaviour. In contrast, employees who regularly observe breaches in terms of their psychological contracts are likely to question the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employing organisations – especially when these breaches are accompanied by negative emotions (e.g. anger and frustration), perceived injustice or a lack of support. It is anticipated that poor-quality social exchange relationships will promote organisational cynicism, which, in turn, will enhance its negative impact on employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. These theoretical grounds for these expectations are explored in the remainder of this chapter.

4.2 PERCEIVED PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT BREACH AND VIOLATION

When considering employment relations from a social exchange perspective, the psychological contract as a reflection of the parties' expectations in terms of their reciprocal obligations in the employment relationship must serve as the point of departure. In this section, an explanation is thus provided of what the psychological contract entails, followed by a critical assessment of the impact of perceived violations of the psychological contact on employees' attitudes and behaviour in and towards their employing organisations.

4.2.1 The psychological contract

The origin of the psychological contract can be traced to the seminal work of Argyris (1960), Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl, and Solley (1962) and Schein (1965), who used the term to refer to the expectations about the reciprocal obligations that constitute an employee-organisation exchange relationship (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). This was followed by a reconceptualisation of the construct by Rousseau (1989, 1995), who developed psychological

contract theory as a framework for understanding the employment relationship (Shore et al., 2012a; Zhao et al., 2007).

The psychological contract is defined as an individual's beliefs about the mutual obligations between the individual, as an employee, and his or her employer in the workplace, in addition to those outlined in the formal contract of employment (Rousseau, 1989). While the psychological contract may be operationalised in terms of both employer obligations (e.g. remuneration, training, career development, concern for employees' well-being and support) and employee obligations (e.g. in-role and extra-role performance, loyalty and flexibility), its application in an employment relations context mainly relates to employee perceptions of employer obligations (Alcover et al., 2017b; Payne, Culbertson, Lopez, Boswell, & Barger, 2015). This study followed a similar approach by viewing the psychological contract in terms of employees' perceptions of their employing organisations obligations and the extent to which these obligations are fulfilled.

In this sense, the psychological contract thus helps to delineate employees' perceptions of their employing organisations' obligations in the employment relationship, thereby extending the relationship beyond the formal contract of employment (Dawson et al., 2014). Drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), it may be anticipated that the employers' fulfilment of these promissory obligations, which are both economic and socioemotional in nature (O'Donohue, Martin, & Torugsa, 2015), will result in the fulfilment of reciprocal obligations by the employee (Boey & Vantilborgh, 2015; Coyle-Shapiro & Parzefall, 2008). In this study, the focus was thus on employees' understanding of the employer's obligations in the exchange relationship and their reactions if these obligations are not met. Although the significance of the economic exchange relationship is not denied, the emphasis is on social exchange.

In this study, the psychological contract and the extent to which employers are perceived as meeting their obligations in terms of this contract, is used as a means of fostering a better understanding of employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Hence, it is deemed essential to comprehend the unique characteristics of the psychological contract that distinguishes it from related constructs such as implied contracts or legal contracts. Firstly, psychological contracts are developed and executed through interactions between an employee and specific organisational representatives (e.g. executives, line managers, supervisors, recruiters, employment relations practitioners and mentors) (Alcover et al., 2017a; Sherman & Morley, 2015; Shore & Tetrick, 1994). They are unwritten and implicit, perceptual and idiosyncratic in nature (Coyle-Shapiro & Neuman, 2004; Dawson et al., 2014; Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994). The employee views the contract as being between

him or her and the organisation as a single entity (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Thus, the organisation takes on an anthropomorphic identity as a party to the psychological contract (Cropanzano, Byrne, et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Lavelle et al., 2007). Each employee therefore holds particular beliefs (which may differ vastly from that of another employee in the same organisation) about the organisation's obligations (e.g. fair remuneration, opportunities for promotion and advancement, recognition for performance, long-term job security, sufficient power and responsibility, training and career development) in the exchange relationship and how well the organisation has fulfilled those obligations (Boey & Vantilborgh, 2015; Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993). The organisation (or its representatives) does not necessarily share the employee's beliefs about the obligations underlying the employment relationship (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

A second feature of the psychological contract is that it is based on perceived promises (rather than general expectations), where a promise is defined as any communication of future intent (Karagonlar et al., 2016; Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau & Greller, 1994; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993). The employees therefore believe that a promise has been made, either explicitly or implicitly, and conveyed to him or her from any one of several sources, including communications with organisational representatives and colleagues, observations of others in the organisation, organisational practices and policies, professional standards and societal norms (Karagonlar et al., 2016; Schmidt, 2016; Sherman & Morley, 2015). These varied sources imply that the psychological contract is an extremely broad construct, encompassing not only obligations established via a formal or an implied contract, but also perceived obligations resulting from more implicit means (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

The distinction between a promise and an expectation in terms of psychological contract theory is significant. Fu and Cheng (2014) explain the difference as follows: Mutual expectations refer to assumed unspoken agreements between employers and their employees. These expectations are implicit and unspoken and reflect employees' cognitive frameworks of what an employment relationship should entail. Thus, they are usually formed prior to employment and evolve as the relationship between an employer and employee develops. A promise, in contrast, relates to a specific undertaking believed to have been made (implicitly or explicitly) by an employer or its representative. It has been reported that a perceived unfulfilled promise is a stronger factor in triggering negative behavioural outcomes than that of a perceived unfulfilled expectation (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Therefore, unfulfilled expectations will not necessarily activate negative behaviour by employees unless the employer had also failed to fulfil its promises that gave rise to such expectations. In this

study, the psychological contract is therefore viewed as reflecting employees' perceptions of the promissory obligations held by their employers and not their general preconceived expectations of the employment relationship (Dawson et al., 2014; Fu & Cheng, 2014). All references to expectations should therefore be seen as resulting from the promises made (either implicitly or explicitly) by the employer prior to and during the employment relationship.

Thirdly, employees hold the psychological contract. While organisational representatives (e.g. supervisors or employment relations practitioners) may have their own understanding of the psychological contract between an employee and the organisation, they are not actually parties to that contract (Robinson et al., 1994; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Shore & Tetrick, 1994). The contract exists between an individual employee and the organisation as a single entity.

Finally, there is an important distinction in the literature between transactional psychological contracts and relational psychological contracts. The transactional psychological contract emphasises the tangible and task-oriented aspects of the employment relationship (i.e. economic inducements), while the relational psychological contract revolves around the intangible, socioemotional aspects of the employment relationship (Boey & Vantilborgh, 2015; Callea et al., 2016; Rousseau, 1990). The former has an extrinsic focus, a close-ended timeframe, a static character, a narrow scope and a public, easily observable tangibility, while the latter has a more intrinsic focus, an open-ended time frame, a dynamic character, a pervasive and comprehensive scope and a subjective tangibility (Boey & Vantilborgh, 2015; O'Donohue et al., 2015; Rousseau, 1990). Employees' psychological contracts include both transactional and relational components to various degrees (Christian & Ellis, 2014; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2014). The transactional component of the psychological contract relates to the exchange of time, skills and effort by the employee for compensation by the employer (the economic dimension of the employment relationship). The relational component of the psychological contract concerns the more humane side of the employment relationship, indicating the extent to which an employee believes that his or her organisation is obliged to offer inducements such as job security, training and development opportunities and promotion prospects in return for loyalty, commitment and extra-role behaviour (Boey & Vantilborgh, 2015; Walker, 2013). Additional psychological contract types, such as balanced, transitional (Rousseau, 1995) and ideological or value-driven psychological contracts (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003; Vantilborgh et al., 2014) have also been introduced in the literature. Nonetheless, the transactional-relational distinction remains the most frequently used typology in extant literature (Boey & Vantilborgh, 2015; Fu & Cheng, 2014). The distinction between transactional and relational contracts has implications for both the likelihood of an employee

perceiving that his or her contract has been breached and the way in which the employee responds to this perception (Fu & Cheng, 2014; Jensen et al., 2010; Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

To conclude, psychological contracts reflect employees' beliefs and perceptions about the implicit and explicit undertakings that form the basis for their relationships with their employers, and therefore define what they expect to receive from their employer and what they are obliged to contribute in return (Alcover et al., 2017b). The psychological contract thus constitutes an implicit exchange agreement between the employee and his or her employer (Rousseau, 1995). Therefore, the psychological contract perspective highlights the reciprocal nature of the employment relationship (Robinson & Morrison, 1995) and provides a conceptual and analytical framework, which enables researchers to better understand employees' work-related feelings, attitudes and behaviour (Andersson, 1996; Coyle-Shapiro & Parzefall, 2008; Van der Vaart et al., 2013). This is especially relevant in instances where employees perceive that the organisation has failed to fulfil its obligations in terms of the psychological contract, which is often inevitable in the modern workplace (Agarwal, 2014; Robinson & Morrison, 2000).

In the next sections, the constructs of psychological contract breach and violation, as conceptualised in the literature, as well as the relevant theoretical model are outlined. A clear distinction is made between employees' perceptions of psychological contract breach and their concomitant reactions to such perceptions (i.e. psychological contract violation). Person-centred variables that have been reported to impact on employees' perceptions of psychological contract breach and violation are considered. Finally, psychological contract violation as an antecedent of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace and its influence on employment relations in South African organisations are discussed.

4.2.2 Conceptualisation of psychological contract breach and violation

Perceived violation of the psychological contract is regarded as the emotional response of an employee following the belief that the organisation has failed to meet one or more of its promised obligations in terms of the psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). It relates to an employee's affective reaction to the perception that his or her employer has failed to meet its obligations in terms of the exchange relationship (i.e. breached the psychological contract), even though this perception may be neither accurate nor valid. Thus, it is inherently perceptual and subjective in nature (Bal, De Lange, Zacher, et al., 2013; Robinson, 1996; Schmidt, 2016).

It is essential to differentiate between perceived violation of the psychological contract and psychological contract breach. While psychological contract breach occurs when an employee perceives that an employer has not met its implicit or explicit undertakings in the exchange relationship (i.e. a cognitive perception), violation entails the emotional reaction (negative and relatively intense) to a perceived breach (Alcover et al., 2017a). Psychological contract violation therefore follows an individual's cognitive and rational assessment of his or her psychological contract (Dawson et al., 2014). If the employee perceives an imbalance in the social exchange relationship (i.e. a psychological contract breach) this may manifest (it is not always the case) in feelings of frustration, betrayal, anger, resentment, a sense of injustice and wrongful harm (Griep, Vantilborgh, Baillien, & Pepermans, 2016). The employee feels disadvantaged as he or she perceives that the organisation has failed to fulfil its obligations, irrespective of the fact that the individual fulfilled his or her obligations towards the organisation (Bal et al., 2010; Coyle-Shapiro & Parzefall, 2008). Thus, the employee's relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace are impacted on by his or her belief that a breach of contract has occurred, regardless of whether that belief is valid or whether an actual breach took place, and his or her affective reaction to such a breach (Robinson, 1996; Suazo et al., 2005).

It is necessary to distinguish psychological contract breach from psychological contract fulfilment. It has been emphasised in the literature that, although psychological contract breach and fulfilment lie on a continuum, referring to the belief that the other party has or has not upheld its side of the agreement (Lambert, Edwards, & Cable, 2003; Rousseau, 1995), their effects on outcomes differ in that breach, compared with fulfilment, has a magnified effect on outcomes (Conway, Guest, & Trenberth, 2011). In other words, breach and fulfilment are theorised to differentially affect outcomes, with breach having a more damaging effect on outcomes compared with the positive effects of fulfilment on outcomes (Conway et al., 2011; Rodwell, Ellershaw, & Flower, 2015). It has therefore been suggested that the effects of psychological contract breach and fulfilment should be evaluated separately (Conway & Briner, 2002; Conway et al., 2011; Lambert et al., 2003; Rayton & Yalabik, 2014). In this study, the focus is specifically on employees' perceptions of inequality and unfairness in the employment relationship and the resulting adversarial employer-employee relations in South African workplaces. It is therefore deemed necessary to focus on employees' perceptions of imbalances in the exchange relationship (i.e. psychological contract breach) and their emotional reactions to these perceptions (psychological contract violation) as this has been shown to have a greater impact on attitudes and behaviour in the workplace than perceptions of psychological contract fulfilment.

4.2.3 Theoretical model of psychological contract breach and violation

In early research, failures by the organisation to meet its obligations in terms of the psychological contract were labelled psychological contract violation. However, Morrison and Robinson (see Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 2000) later distinguished between the cognitive evaluations of deviations (i.e. breach of the psychological contract) and the affective feelings ensuing from these cognitions (i.e. psychological contract violation). This conceptual distinction (i.e. violation as an outcome of breach) is widely accepted in the psychological contract literature (Zhao et al., 2007).

Morrison and Robinson (see Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 2000) argued that, because of the potential negative effect of perceived psychological contract violation on the employment relationship, it is necessary to understand the conditions under which it occurs. They (Morrison & Robinson, 1997) suggested a model outlining the process that occurs prior to an employee's experience of psychological contract violation. Figure 4.2 illustrates the dynamics of psychological contract breach and violation that were anticipated (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

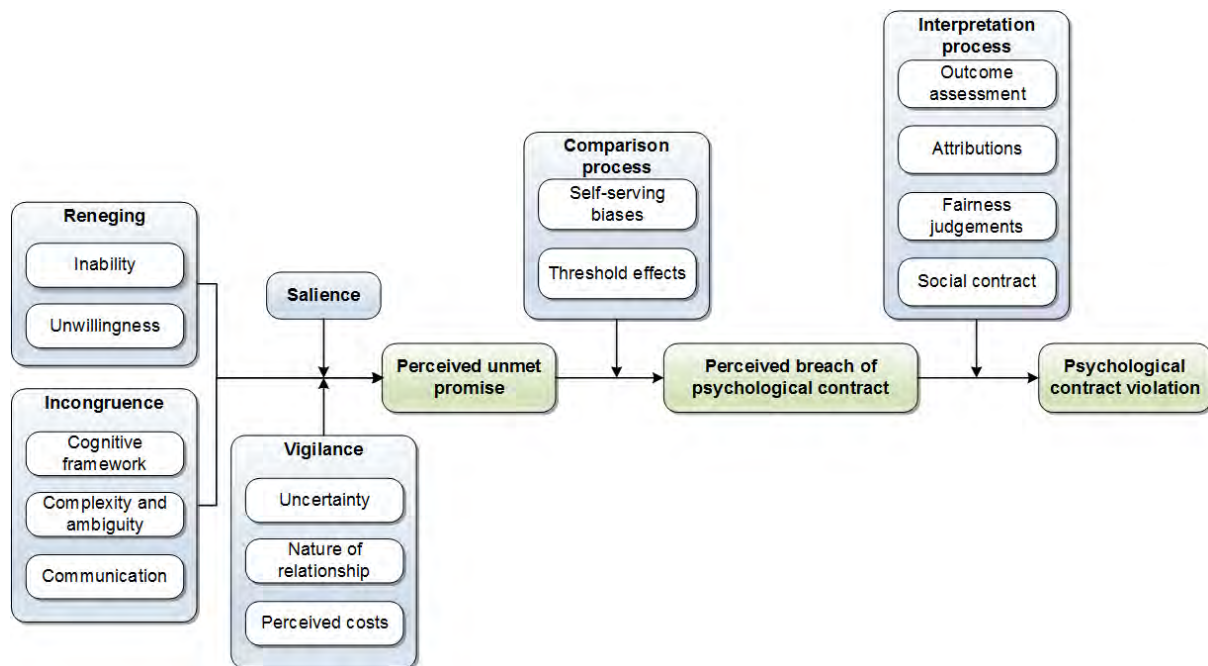


Figure 4.2. Factors Predicting Psychological Contract Breach and Violation adapted from Morrison and Robinson (1997, p. 232) and Robinson and Morrison (2000, p. 527)

The process involved in the development of psychological contract violation, as postulated by Morrison and Robinson (1997) and Robinson and Morrison (2000) and illustrated in Figure 4.2, is briefly outlined below.

Perceived breach of the psychological contract refers to an employee's perception that the organisation has failed, proportionate to his or her contributions, to meet one or more obligations in terms of the psychological contract. It therefore represents a cognitive assessment of contract fulfilment based on an employee's perception of what each party has promised and provided to the other. In comparison, violation of the psychological contract relates to the affective state that may, under certain conditions, follow from an employee's belief that his or her employing organisation has failed to adequately maintain the psychological contract. Violation of the psychological contract is thus regarded as an emotional reaction (e.g. disappointment, anger, frustration, resentment or bitterness) to a cognitive interpretation of a perceived contract breach (Bal et al., 2008). It is important to note that psychological contract violation is conditional upon the perception of psychological contract breach (i.e. violation feelings cannot exist without a preceding breach) (Griep et al., 2016). Furthermore, perceived psychological contract breach does not always result in violation as it is dependent on the employee's evaluation and interpretation of the perceived breach (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Parzefall & Coyle-Shapiro, 2011; Suazo et al., 2005).

Morrison and Robinson (1997) identified two conditions that may give rise to violation of the psychological contract, namely reneging and incongruence. Reneging occurs when a representative of the organisation (e.g. a line manager, supervisor or employment relations practitioner) recognises that the organisation has a particular obligation to the employee but knowingly fails to fulfil this obligation. Reneging may result either from the organisation's inability to fulfil a promise because of external reasons (e.g. financial difficulties) or from an unwillingness to do so (i.e. the employer deliberately chooses to breach the psychological contract even though it has the ability to honour it) (Alcover et al., 2017b). The consequences of reneging in the latter instance tend to be particularly severe as a result of the emotional reaction to feelings of betrayal, which is regarded as a serious violation of the norms and expectations of an exchange relationship (Alcover et al., 2017b; Elangovan & Shapiro, 1998).

Incongruence means that the employee and organisational representative(s) have different understandings about the existence and/or nature of the organisation's obligations in terms of the psychological contract. Even though the employer may therefore make a sincere effort to meet its obligations, psychological contract breach may be inevitable as a result of divergent employer and employee interpretations of their respective obligations in the employment relationship (Alcover et al., 2017b). Incongruence is largely a result of the inherently perceptual nature of the psychological contract (i.e. it is based on the employee's experience and interpretation and not on objective reality). Incongruence can exist when an obligation is first established, or it can develop over time as the psychological contract evolves or as

perceptions become distorted in memory. The following three primary factors play a role in creating incongruence: (1) the degree to which an employee and organisational representative's cognitive frameworks (i.e. an individual's general values about reciprocity and views on what the employment relationship should entail) differ; (2) the complexity or ambiguity of the obligations between the two parties; and (3) the lack of sufficient communication about obligations (truthful and accurate communication regarding expected obligations minimises incongruence).

Either incongruence or renegeing may lead to a perceived breach of the psychological contract by creating a discrepancy between an employee's understanding of what was promised and his or her perception of what he or she has actually received or experienced. The distinction between these two origins of psychological contract breach is essential as it has been shown in the literature that employees react more intensely to a contract breach resulting from renegeing than one caused by a misunderstanding or misinterpretation of obligations (Chaudhry, Wayne, & Schalk, 2009; Parzefall & Coyle-Shapiro, 2011; Payne et al., 2015). Furthermore, an unfulfilled promise is not inevitably regarded as a breach of the psychological contract (Persson & Wasieleski, 2015). This reflects the perceptual and idiosyncratic nature of the psychological contract. Whether an employee recognises an unfulfilled promise as a psychological contract breach depends on the prominence of the discrepancy as well as the employee's vigilance in observing such discrepancies. A discrepancy will become more prominent when it has been unequivocally stated, is regarded as significant by the employee and has a substantial impact on the employment relationship.

Vigilance refers to the extent to which the employee actively monitors how well the organisation is meeting the terms of his or her psychological contract. Vigilant employees are more likely to detect instances of contract breach (empirically confirmed by Griep et al., 2016). Vigilance relates to the following three factors: (1) uncertainty; (2) the amount of trust underlying the employment relationship; and (3) the potential costs of discovering an unmet promise. Employees are more likely to vigilantly monitor the extent to which their employing organisations fulfil their psychological contracts during periods of uncertainty (e.g. restructuring); when they distrust the intention of their employing organisation or its representatives (i.e. believe that they will engage in actions that are detrimental to their interests); and when an employee has attractive employment alternatives (Turnley & Feldman, 1999).

Morrison and Robinson (1997) posit that, in addition to the prominence awarded to the discrepancy and the vigilance of the employee, the likelihood of a perceived discrepancy being

regarded as a psychological contract breach is further impacted on by a comparison process, whereby the employee considers how well each of the parties has upheld its respective promises or obligations in the exchange relationship. A perceived breach of contract is more likely to result if the employee perceives that he or she has contributed as promised, but those contributions have not been adequately reciprocated. The comparison process underlying the detection of a breach of contract is subjective and imperfect, influenced by cognitive biases, personal dispositions and the nature of the relationship (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Hence, an employee may determine that a contract breach has occurred, even when an objective evaluation of the situation would not support this conclusion. Conversely, there are conditions under which an employee may perceive that a promise was not upheld but not define this as a contract breach.

Finally, whether a perceived contract breach leads to violation (i.e. leads to an emotional reaction of anger and betrayal) depends on the meaning the employee attaches to the breach (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). The link between perceived contract breach and violation is moderated by an interpretation process. This process entails an assessment of outcomes (the magnitude and implications of the contract breach); attributions for why the contract breach occurred (employees will experience more intense feelings of violation following a perceived breach if they attribute it to reneging rather than incongruence); judgements about fairness of treatment (the relationship between psychological contract breach and violation is stronger in case of perceived interactional unfairness); and the governing social contract (i.e. the assumptions, beliefs and norms about appropriate behaviour in a particular social unit). For instance, if an employee deems the breach to have been unintentional and necessitated by external circumstances (e.g. poor economic conditions resulting in lower than expected pay increases), or believes he or she was dealt with fairly (e.g. not singled out for breach), it is likely that the perceived breach will not lead to violation (Dawson et al., 2014). Each of these factors therefore moderates the relationship between contract breach and violation. Because these factors are judgements, they are inherently subjective and prone to perceptual and cognitive biases. This emphasises the need to take into account personal and situational (or relational) factors affecting employees' experience of psychological contract breach (Lee, Chaudhry, & Tekleab, 2014).

Robinson and Morrison (2000) used the proposed framework (Morrison & Robinson, 1997) as a point of departure to identify specific conditions that are likely to create the dynamics underlying perceived violation of the psychological contract and to demonstrate the empirical relationship between these conditions and the perception of a psychological contract breach. They (Robinson & Morrison, 2000) did not attempt to empirically test the model in its entirety,

but rather to identify a set of testable hypotheses relating to the development of perceptions of psychological contract breach. It was found that perceived contract breach was more likely when organisational performance and self-reported employee performance were low; the employee had not experienced a formal socialisation process; the employee had little interaction with organisational representatives prior to being appointed; the employee had a history of psychological contract breach with former employers; and the employee had many employment alternatives at the time of appointment (Robinson & Morrison, 2000). Furthermore, Robinson and Morrison (2000) reported that perceived breach was associated with more intense feelings of violation when employees both attributed the breach to purposeful renegeing by the employer and felt unfairly treated in the process.

This model, proposed by Morrison and Robinson (1997) and Robinson and Morrison (2000), is widely used in research on the influence of employees' perceptions of the extent to which their employers fulfil their obligations in terms of the psychological contract and their resulting attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (see Bal et al., 2008; Restubog et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2007). For the purposes of this study, the primary contribution of Morrison and Robinson's (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 2000) theory is its distinction between psychological contract breach and violation as it has been found that employees are more likely to display undesirable attitudes and behaviour in response to a breach of the psychological contract, if this breach is accompanied by a affective reaction (e.g. feelings of frustration, betrayal, anger and resentment) towards their employing organisations (Griep et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2007). Therefore, although some researchers still use the terms "breach" and "violation" synonymously, it is argued that the conceptual distinction between them, which has been widely accepted in extant literature (Zhao et al., 2007), is essential. The value of the distinction, according to Suazo (2011), lies in its ability to add precision to the research on employees' reactions (attitudes and behaviour) to perceived discrepancies in the psychological contract.

In this study, it is recognised that a psychological contract violation can only occur following a perceived breach of the psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). A breach of the psychological contract is therefore regarded as a core component of the psychological contract violation construct. Hence, psychological contract violation is conceptualised as a work experience consisting of the following two core components: (1) an employee's perception of a discrepancy in the exchange relationship (i.e. perceived breach of the psychological contract) and (2) an employee's emotional reaction to a perceived breach (Coyle-Shapiro & Neuman, 2004; Robinson et al., 1994). Both psychological contract breach and violation are included in the proposed framework in order to explore the differential impact

of these constructs on employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Employees' emotional reactions are expected to elicit more severe relational consequences than the mere observation of a psychological contract breach (Restubog et al., 2015). For instance, it has been reported that, while perceived psychological contract breach may not have undesirable outcomes, employees who experience emotions of anger and resentment towards their employing organisations (i.e. psychological contract violation) following a breach, are more likely to retaliate by holding negative attitudes and engaging in adverse behaviour (Suazo et al., 2005). Perceived psychological contract violation has also been found to be a mediator in the relationship between psychological contract breach and employee attitudes (Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson, & Wayne, 2008; Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004) and behaviour (Suazo, 2011).

Morrison and Robinson's (1997) understanding that the employee views the psychological contract as being between him or her and the organisation as a single entity is also adopted in this study. A contrasting view has been expressed, with some researchers arguing that multiple relationships simultaneously and successively exist between an employee and various individuals as representatives of the organisation or employer and that these relationships all contribute to the development of psychological contracts (Alcover et al., 2017a; Dawson et al., 2014; Lapalme et al., 2011). These researchers propose that multiple concurrent relationships between employees and different organisational representatives impact on employees' attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation (Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2008; Tekleab & Chiaburu, 2011). However, although the complexity of organisational relations is acknowledged, the aim of this study is not to differentiate between different forms of social exchange (i.e. exchanges with the organisation and exchanges with various organisational representatives) (Tekleab & Chiaburu, 2011). Instead, the focus is on the relationship between the employee and his or her employing organisation as a single entity with an anthropomorphic identity, which may be represented by several organisational representatives such as managers, supervisors or employment relations practitioners (Eisenberger et al., 1986). In terms of this approach, employees view the actions of organisational representatives as an indication of the organisation's motives rather than solely the representatives' personal intentions (Karagonlar et al., 2016). As argued by Morrison and Robinson (1997), from an individual employee's perspective, there is a contract between him or her and the organisation and not specific representatives of the organisation. An employee who perceives an imbalance in the exchange relationship is likely to react negatively if he or she regards this imbalance as significant in terms of his or her continued employment. The employee's reaction to the perceived breach is not dependent on the source of the breach (i.e. the organisational representative), but rather on the cause of the

breach (reneging and incongruence), the value the employee assigns to the particular obligation that has been breached and the way an employer responds to a perceived (often unavoidable) breach by, say, displaying fairness, honesty and respect (Robinson & Morrison, 2000).

From the above it may thus be deduced that the psychological contract fulfils an essential role in employer-employee relations as it highlights the reciprocal nature of the employment relationship (Robinson & Morrison, 1995). It was shown in this section that employees have specific beliefs about their employing organisations' obligations in the employment relationship (Rousseau, 1989). These beliefs are not limited to those obligations explicitly stated in the formal contract of employment (Dawson et al., 2014; Morrison & Robinson, 1997), but may also be socioemotional in nature (O'Donohue et al., 2015). Drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), it may thus be posited that employees who perceive an imbalance in their social exchange relationships with their employers will be less inclined to display desirable attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Andersson, 1996; Coyle-Shapiro & Parzefall, 2008; Van der Vaart et al., 2013). Employees' reactions to a perceived imbalance do, however, not reflect a cognitive assessment of the extent to which their employers failed to meet their apparent obligations in terms of the psychological contract only (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 2000). It may be intensified by an emotional response such as disappointment, anger, frustration, resentment or bitterness (Bal et al., 2008). In this study, it is anticipated that this emotional response to a psychological contract breach may be reflected in increased cynicism towards the employing organisation (Andersson, 1996; Kanter & Mirvis, 1989; Meyerson, 1990; Wanous, Reichers, & Austin, 1994), which is further explored in Chapter 5. In the following section, person-centred variables that may influence employees' perceptions of imbalances in the exchange relationship (i.e. a psychological contract breach) as well as their emotional reactions to such perceptions are investigated.

4.2.4 Person-centred variables influencing psychological contract breach and violation

Psychological contract breach is a subjective experience based on individual perceptions (Rousseau, 1995; Schmidt, 2016; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). Thus, individual differences may impact on employees' affective reactions (psychological contract violation) to a psychological contract breach and may, in turn, influence their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Arshad, 2016; Dulac et al., 2008; Rode, Huang, & Flynn, 2016). To minimise the negative

effect of psychological contract breaches on employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, it is thus essential to gain a better understanding of the individual characteristics that may influence employees' reactions to perceived imbalances in the exchange relationship (Restubog et al., 2015). It has, for instance, been shown that an understanding of the influence of employees' cultural values is essential as it impacts on their perceptions of and responses to breaches of the psychological contract (Chiu & Peng, 2008; Kickul, Lester, & Belgio, 2004; Zagenczyk et al., 2015). One dimension of cultural differences involves an employee's personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism, which is explored in Chapter 6. Additional person-centred variables that have been shown to influence how an individual experiences and reacts to a psychological contract breach are explored below.

4.2.4.1 Gender

The focus and duration of the psychological contract are shaped by both biological and social contexts (Rousseau, 1995). Wei, Ma et al. (2015) postulate that, owing to the differences emanating from their respective milieus, male and female employees have different views in terms of the inducements they anticipate receiving from their employers. While females are more relationship oriented (i.e. they prefer long-term employment relationships and value organisational support), males place a higher value on the transactional component of the psychological contract appreciating instant rewards and recognition. Males and females therefore interpret and respond to the same working situation in different ways.

4.2.4.2 Age

It has been reported that psychological contracts and the effect of perceived violation thereof on work outcomes differ for employees depending on their age (Bal, De Lange, Jansen, et al., 2013; Bellou, 2009; Farr & Ringseis, 2002; Ng & Feldman, 2009). As indicated in section 4.2.3, employees develop cognitive frameworks about their psychological contracts as a result of a broad range of sources, including societal influences (e.g. social contracts and norms) and formative pre-employment factors (e.g. motives and values) (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Rousseau, 2001). These frameworks affect the creation of meaning around reciprocity and mutuality that parties to the contract should demonstrate (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004). Owing to the fact that people of different ages are influenced by different events and circumstances, they develop different cognitive frameworks about the world they live and work in (Lub et al., 2016). These cognitive frameworks are likely to differentially affect the impact of psychological contract breach on younger and older

employees as they contribute to the development of divergent perceptions of perceived employer obligations (Hess & Jepsen, 2009; Lub et al., 2016; Lub, Nije Bijvank, Bal, Blomme, & Schalk, 2012) and responses to perceived psychological contract breaches (Lub et al., 2016). For instance, younger workers may perceive insufficient provisions of training and development opportunities, career advancement and challenging work as a psychological contract breach, while older workers are more likely to perceive discrepancies around job security as a psychological contract breach (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2014; Turnley & Feldman, 1999).

However, it is not the age of employees in itself that impacts on their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, but rather age-related changes in psychological variables that occur over time (Bal, De Lange, Zacher, et al., 2013; Lub et al., 2016). For instance, older employees generally tend to have more realistic and stable psychological contracts (Rousseau, 2001). They are more emotionally mature and therefore exercise better emotional control in the event of perceived contract breach (Löckenhoff & Carstensen, 2004; Ng & Feldman, 2009). Furthermore, older workers focus more on positive aspects of their relationship with the organisation, and are thus less affected by negative events, such as contract breach (Bal et al., 2008; Bal, De Lange, Jansen, et al., 2013). In contrast, young people, who are generally in the early stages of their career, mainly focus on growth and knowledge-related goals. They react strongly to negative events such as perceived breach of the employment contract as they view such events as detrimental towards their future career prospects (Bal, De Lange, Jansen, et al., 2013). Age also relates to employees' future time perspective and as a result their perceptions of obligations in the employment relationship. Younger employees, who are in the early or transitional career stages, are more likely to reciprocate anticipated future fulfilment of promises than older employees in the later career stages (Lam & De Campos, 2015). Changes in the employment relationship or conditions that are interpreted as a breach of the psychological contract therefore have less of an impact on older than younger employees (Bal et al., 2008; Rousseau, 2001).

Bal et al. (2008) confirmed in their meta-analysis of age as a moderator in the relationship between psychological contract breach and work-related attitudes that older workers respond differently to contract breaches than younger employees. When employees perceive that the organisation has breached the psychological contract, older workers may respond by experiencing a strong decrease in job satisfaction, whereas young employees respond by lowering their level of trust in and commitment to the organisation (Bal et al., 2008). Therefore, older employees may experience similar emotions to younger employees immediately following a perceived psychological contract breach, but their attitudinal and behavioural

reactions differ and are less intense than those of younger employees (Bal, De Lange, Jansen, et al., 2013; Kunzmann et al., 2005; Kunzmann & Richter, 2009). Younger employees may be more inclined than their older colleagues to experience psychological contract violations and their reactions to contract breaches are also likely to be more severe (Bal et al., 2008).

4.2.4.3 *Tenure*

The psychological contract is dynamic in nature and evolves in terms of form and quality as organisations and individuals develop over time (Persson & Wasieleski, 2015). When an employment relationship is initially entered into, the psychological contract tends to be limited because, from the outset, the parties are unable to detail all the obligations that exist in the relationship or that will exist in future (Dawson et al., 2014; Rousseau, 2011). Employees enter the workforce with preconceived, high and often unrealistic expectations and gradually adapt their expectations according to reality (De Vos, Buyens, & Schalk, 2003; Payne et al., 2015; Sherman & Morley, 2015). Their perceptions of mutual obligations in the employment relationship evolve over time due to personal and environmental changes (Berry et al., 2007; Mayfield, Tombaugh, & Lee, 2016; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2014; Robinson et al., 1994). Employees who have been with an organisation for a longer period therefore tend to have more realistic expectations about employer obligations than those with shorter tenure (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Thomas & Anderson, 1998).

Employees' perceptions of employers' obligations in terms of the employment relationship and their expectations of this relationship therefore evolve over time. In addition, employees' tenure also influences their reaction to a perceived imbalance in the exchange relationship (i.e. psychological contract breach). Payne et al. (2015) suggest that new employees are often inexperienced and have a limited understanding of the employment relationship. Hence, they do not necessarily regard an imbalance in the exchange relationship as a psychological contract breach, but rather as an indication that their expectations were inaccurate. They will therefore react by adjusting their expectations in terms of their own and/or the employer's obligations rather than altering their attitudes and behaviour (Payne et al., 2015). In contrast, employees with extended tenure in an organisation generally have high levels of expertise and expect more from their employer (Bal, De Lange, Zacher, et al., 2013). They tend to have a sense of entitlement towards their organisation expecting a lot in return for the value they bring to the organisation in terms of knowledge and skills (Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993), resulting in more elaborate psychological contracts with their employers (Sherman & Morley, 2015). These employees more rigorously monitor the inducements they receive from their organisation in return for the value they add, and owing to this increased vigilance, they are

more likely to experience psychological contract breaches (Bal, De Lange, Zacher, et al., 2013; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Wright & Bonett, 2002).

Employees' expectations of their employers and therefore the formation of their psychological contracts are, however, not only influenced by their tenure in their current organisations. Employees' experiences with previous employers contribute to shaping their cognitive frameworks and as a result also impact on their future expectations in terms of the employment relationship (Sherman & Morley, 2015). An employee with considerable work experience in various organisations may therefore hold markedly different views in terms of the exchange relationship between employers and employees than an employee who has only worked in a single organisation. A cognitive framework shaped by negative work experiences in previous workplaces (such as retrenchment) will influence an employee's perceptions and expectations of the new employment relationship. It is thus necessary to consider not only an employee's tenure in his or her current organisation, but also in prior employment because this may impact both the formation of his or her psychological contract and his or her reaction to a breach or violation of the contract (Sherman & Morley, 2015).

4.2.4.4 Employment status

Employment practices have changed worldwide, reflecting a decrease in traditional permanent employment and an increase in nonstandard employment relationships, including temporary, part-time and flexible contracts (Alcover et al., 2017b; Callea et al., 2016; Lemmon et al., 2016). South Africa is no exception with only 62 per cent of the labour force reported to be employed in terms of a permanent contract of employment (Statistics South Africa, 2018). Given the increasing diversity of work arrangements, it is deemed essential to consider the impact of employment status, as determined by the type of contract or agreement with the employer, on employees' psychological contracts and individual workplace outcomes (Callea et al., 2016; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2014). As permanent and temporary employees have different work expectations and are often treated differently in terms of the inducements they receive and the contributions they are expected to make to the organisation (Conway & Briner, 2002), it is plausible that they will also have different views on what constitutes a psychological contract breach and will react differently to a perceived breach (Callea et al., 2016). Furthermore, temporary employees are often engaged in more complex employment relationships if they are employed through temporary employment services (labour brokers). Their psychological contracts will therefore be impacted on by the complexity of the triangular system of employment between the employee, the employer (labour broker) and the organisation (client of the labour broker). Although these employees are likely to hold dual

psychological contracts (one with the labour broker and one with the organisation), a psychological contract breach experienced in one instance will most likely also impact on the other (Lapalme et al., 2011).

It has been reported that temporary employees are less likely to be concerned with establishing interpersonal relationships in the workplace, with the result that their psychological contracts tend to be mostly transactional in nature while permanent employees tend to have relational psychological contracts with their employers (Chambel, Carvalhom, & Martinez, 2016; Sherman & Morley, 2015). Temporary employees have a clearly defined, narrow, finite set of obligations to their employing organisations as opposed to the obligations of permanent employees that are often more broadly defined, ambiguous and infinite (Lemmon et al., 2016; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2014). This differentiation is significant as it impacts on employer obligations and leads to differences in the likelihood of employees perceiving organisational events as a breach or violation of their psychological contracts. Organisations have fewer obligations towards temporary workers and, as these obligations are mainly transactional in nature (i.e. short term and tangible), they are easier to fulfil. As temporary employees tend to spend less time in the workplace and consequently have less interaction with organisational representatives, they tend to have fewer expectations in terms of employer obligations (i.e. promises made by organisational representatives) which, in turn, reduces the likelihood of perceiving a psychological contract breach (Conway & Briner, 2002). Furthermore, because temporary workers have limited expectations of their employing organisations, workplace occurrences that may be perceived as psychological contract violations by permanent employees (e.g. job insecurity or limited development opportunities) are not regarded as such by temporary employees who do not harbour these expectations (Chambel et al., 2016).

Reciprocal attitudes and behaviour also differ between permanent and temporary employees. It has, for instance, been argued that, while the attitudes and behaviour of permanent employees are strongly influenced by events in the organisation, this influence is less severe for temporary employees as they spend less time in the workplace and have fewer expectations of the employer (Conway & Briner, 2002). As temporary employees do not have a long-term expectation of employment, their means to reciprocate to perceived psychological contract breach are limited to decreased performance (Lemmon et al., 2016). However, as decreased performance may have monetary consequences, they are less likely to reciprocate in this way and may therefore not react to perceived psychological contract breach (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002). In contrast, permanent employees have higher expectations of their employing organisations' obligations in the exchange relationship (Conway & Briner, 2002). If

they perceive that these expectations are not being met, they have more ways of reciprocating by, say, withholding effort and decreasing their loyalty and commitment towards the organisation (Lee et al., 2018).

In summary, it has been shown in the literature that employees may hold different psychological contracts based on individual differences (e.g. gender, age, tenure, employment status), and that these differences impact on the likelihood of them perceiving negative events in the workplace as psychological contract breach or violation. These perceptions in terms of psychological contract breach or violation, in turn, influence their reciprocal attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. It is therefore not the individual differences that explain employees' attitudes and behaviour, but rather the way that these differences affect employees' perceptions of the employment relationship and the psychological contract guiding this relationship.

In this study, gender, age, tenure and employment status are regarded as person-centred variables that may potentially influence individuals' perceptions of their employers' obligations in the employment relationship and their reaction when these obligations are not met. Although additional variables such as level of education, work experience, level of employment, organisational size and industry have been used as control variables in psychological contract research (Biswas, 2016; Callea et al., 2016; Chambel et al., 2016; Karagonlar et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2014; Lv & Xu, 2018; Ng et al., 2014), variations in perceptions of psychological contract breach or violation have not been reported as a result of these differences.

4.2.5 Psychological contract breach and violation as antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour

The psychological contract literature suggests that employees' beliefs about the terms and status of their psychological contracts will affect their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Fu & Cheng, 2014; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989; Suazo et al., 2005; Zhao et al., 2007). Drawing on the principles of social exchange (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), it has been shown that perceived breaches in the psychological contract may affect employees' beliefs (e.g. the employer is seen as insincere and uncaring) and ultimately cause changes in their attitudes towards their employing organisations and behaviour in the workplace (Bal et al., 2008; Bashir & Nasir, 2013). Employees who perceive that they have made certain contributions to the organisation that have not been reciprocated

by the employer, may adapt the level of their contributions to the organisation by, say, reducing their efforts and performance (Arshad, 2016; López Bohle et al., 2017). Conversely, when the organisation is perceived as fulfilling its promised obligations, employees are expected to reciprocate with positive attitudes and behaviour (Lv & Xu, 2018; Zhao et al., 2007). Such employees may be motivated to engage in discretionary behaviour, including increased effort and organisational citizenship (Colquitt et al., 2014; Coyle-Shapiro, 2002; Turnley et al., 2003). Hence, as proposed by Alcover et al. (2017a), the existence of both positive and negative instances of reciprocity must be considered in order to fully understand employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

Extant research on the impact of the psychological contract on employee attitudes and behaviour has mainly focused on examining the negative impact of psychological contract breach on, for instance, employees' job satisfaction, in-role performance, engagement and trust towards the organisation, often disregarding the essential differentiation between psychological contract breach and violation (Alcover et al., 2017b; Suazo et al., 2005). A need for further investigations into the impact of psychological contract violations (i.e. incorporating employees' emotional reaction to a perceived breach) on outcomes other than those traditionally focused on has, however, been expressed (Biswas, 2016; Suazo & Turnley, 2010). While the focus of this study is therefore not on testing a comprehensive nomological network of known outcomes of psychological contract breach and/or violation, it does aim to enhance understanding of how perceived psychological contract violations influence selected relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) exhibited by employees in the workplace. These attitudes and behaviour were selected on account of their deemed importance in an employment relations context, as outlined in Chapter 3. In the following sections, the roles of psychological contract breach and violation as antecedents of each of these relational outcomes, as reported in extant literature, are briefly outlined.

4.2.5.1 Psychological contract breach and violation as antecedents of organisational commitment

Organisational commitment may be regarded as an employee's volitional contribution and dedication to the organisation (Klein, 2016). From a social exchange perspective, organisational commitment can therefore be viewed as an exchangeable currency – an employee determines what he or she expects from the organisation and how much contribution and future investment should be devoted to the organisation in return (Rodwell &

Ellershaw, 2015; Rousseau, 1995). High organisational commitment usually signals favourable psychological contracts, while low commitment usually signals compromised or dissolved psychological contracts (Solinger, Hofmans, Bal, & Jansen, 2016).

There is abundant research consistently showing that psychological contract breach is related to reduced organisational commitment, supporting the norm of reciprocity (e.g. Bal et al., 2008; Cassar & Briner, 2011; Kulkarni et al., 2010; Ng & Feldman, 2012; Raja et al., 2004; Rodwell & Ellershaw, 2015; Zhao et al., 2007). Employees who perceive that their psychological contracts with their employing organisations have been breached are therefore less likely to identify with and remain committed to these organisations as reflected in lower levels of attitudinal commitment (Quratulain et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2007). However, it has been shown that, in uncertain labour markets such as South Africa, where labour market conditions are weak and employment opportunities are limited, employees who have experienced a psychological contract breach may hold high levels of continuance commitment due to the lack of alternative employment options (Wei, Ma et al., 2015). The converse is also true in that perceived fulfilment of the psychological contract by the employer is reciprocated by the employee with higher commitment towards the organisation (Bal, De Lange, Zacher, et al., 2013).

The direct relationship between psychological contract breach and organisational commitment is therefore widely reported and undisputed. Fewer researchers, however, have investigated the indirect relationship between these constructs as mediated by psychological contract violation (Cassar & Briner, 2011), although it has been shown that psychological contract breach and violation are distinct, yet related, constructs differentially impacting on employee attitudes and behaviour and that a psychological contract breach will not necessarily result in violation (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 2000). It may thus be anticipated that, although there is a direct relationship between perceived psychological contract breach and organisational commitment, there will also be an indirect relationship between these constructs, with psychological contract violation as an intervening variable, as depicted in Figure 4.3.

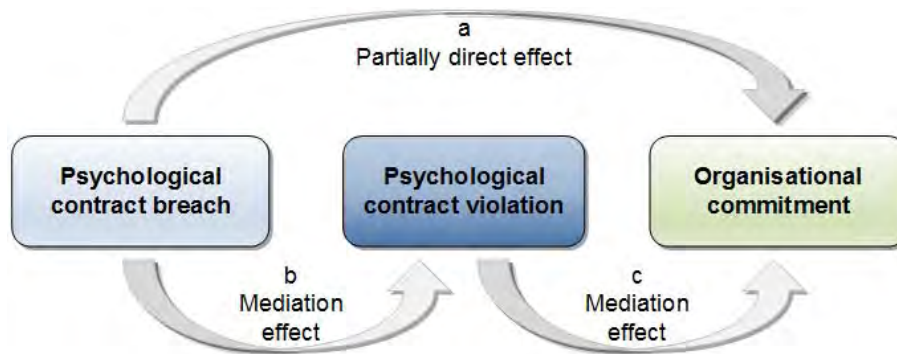


Figure 4.3. Partially Direct and Mediation Effects between Psychological Contract Breach and Organisational Commitment

In Figure 4.3, the partial direct effect between psychological contract breach and organisational commitment is denoted as a. As theorised by Morrison and Robinson (1997), an employee's cognitive assessment of a perceived psychological contract breach may be (but is not always) followed by an affective reaction (psychological contract violation) denoted as b, and psychological contract violation, in turn, results in decreased commitment towards the organisation, denoted as c. Meta-analytic research has shown that the negative impact of psychological contract violation on organisational commitment is much stronger than the relationship between perceived psychological contract breach and organisational commitment (Zhao et al., 2007).

4.2.5.2 *Psychological contract breach and violation as antecedents of union commitment*

Increased global competition and technological advancements have necessitated changes in terms of the inducements offered to employees. Trends such as restructuring, retrenchment, increased reliance on contract workers or temporary employment services have become commonplace in South African organisations, and employers are finding it increasingly difficult to offer inducements such as salary increases, bonuses, healthcare and retirement benefits (Di Paola & Pons-Vignon, 2013; Marais & Hofmeyr, 2013). Employees generally regard continued employment, competitive salaries and certain levels of benefits as employer obligations in terms of the psychological contract. If these obligations are not met, they are likely to view these actions by employers as a breach of their psychological contracts. In terms of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), such actions by employers may not only decrease employees' commitment to their organisations, but may simultaneously increase their interest in and their loyalty to trade unions (Bashir & Nasir, 2013; Turnley et al., 2004).

The extent to which organisations fail to meet their obligations in terms of the exchange relationship (i.e. psychological contract breach) may therefore be positively related to union commitment (Fiorito, 2001). Thus, it is postulated that employees in highly unionised organisations or industries who experience a psychological contract breach will be inclined to direct their loyalties towards the trade union rather than the organisation. Drawing on Morrison and Robinson's (1997) theory (see section 4.2.3), it is furthermore expected that employees who experience negative feelings such as betrayal, anger, resentment and frustration following a psychological contract breach (i.e. psychological contract violation) may find refuge in the trade union, which can be regarded as a means of retaliation against the employer for not meeting its obligations in the exchange relationship.

Turnley et al. (2004) explain that, in a unionised context, the trade union is a mechanism through which an employee may attempt to restore equity to the employment relationship following a perceived psychological contract breach. An employee who has perceived an imbalance in the exchange relationship may therefore resort to the trade union in an attempt to force the employer to meet its obligations. Although perceptions of psychological contract breach are individualistic in nature and employees may attempt to restore the balance in the relationship by withholding effort, loyalty and commitment, individuals seldom have enough power in the employment relationship to rectify the event that caused the imbalance. For instance, employment relations procedures, policies and practices that are perceived as unfair or unsupportive will not be changed following a reaction by a single employee. However, collective action resulting from affiliating with a trade union may give employees a means of restoring the imbalance.

As with organisational commitment, the direct relationship between perceived psychological contract breach and union commitment, as well as the indirect relationship between these constructs with psychological contract violation as intervening variable, as depicted in Figure 4.4, is examined in this study. In addition, the differential direct and indirect effects of these constructs (psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation) on organisational and union commitment are considered.

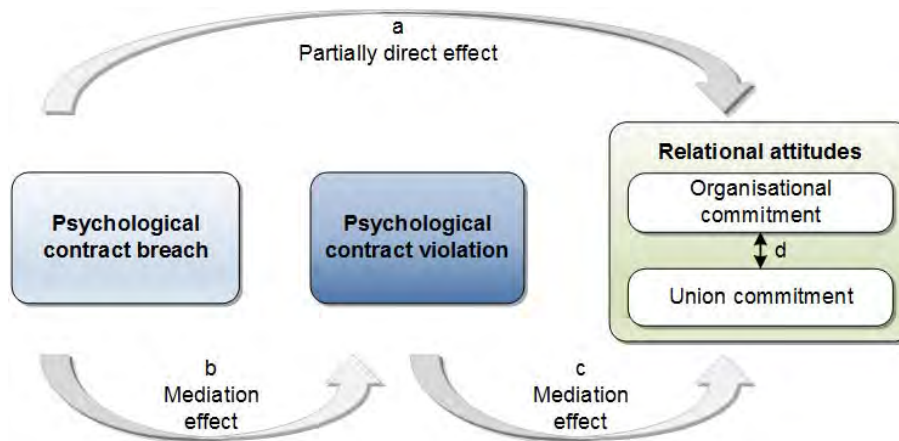


Figure 4.4. Partially Direct and Mediation Effects between Psychological Contract Breach and Organisational and Union Commitment

In Figure 4.4, the partial direct effect between psychological contract breach and organisational and union commitment is denoted as a. The employee's emotional reaction to a perceived psychological contract breach (i.e. psychological contract violation) is denoted as b, while the theorised influence of a perceived psychological contract violation on employees' relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) is denoted as c. The differential direct and indirect effects of these constructs (psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation) on organisational and union commitment are denoted as d. The expectation is that, in a highly unionised industry or organisation, trade union members who perceive a psychological contract breach and respond with negative emotions may reciprocate by increasing their commitment to their trade unions and reducing their commitment to their organisations. Union commitment is postulated to be higher in the event of an experienced psychological contract violation than when a perceived psychological contract breach occurs without the ensuing affective reaction.

4.2.5.3 *Psychological contract breach and violation as antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour*

As indicated in Chapter 3, OCB refers to behaviour that is beneficial to an organisation or people in it, but discretionary in nature – it does not form part of an employee's formal job description (Organ, 1988, 1997). Because OCB is not explicitly required by the job, there are no formal sanctions for not engaging in such behaviour and OCB can therefore be regarded as an indication of employees' perceptions of the quality of their employment relationship and their reactions to the extent to which their employers fulfil their obligations in this relationship (Zhao et al., 2007). In terms of social exchange theory, an employee's OCB (or extra-role

behaviour) mirrors his or her perception of how well the organisation is fulfilling its obligations in terms of the psychological contract (Dawson et al., 2014). If the exchange relationship is perceived as unbalanced (i.e. the employee feels that the employer is not fulfilling its obligations), the employer-employee relationship becomes negative, resulting in an unwillingness by employees to engage in OCB (Biswas, 2016; Suazo, 2011; Zhao et al., 2007). If this perception is accompanied by feelings of anger and betrayal (i.e. psychological contract violation), the employee will be unlikely to engage in behaviour that is not explicitly required in terms of his or her formal contract of employment (Dawson et al., 2014; Robinson & Morrison, 2000). The converse is also true. Employees who experience the social exchange relationship with their employers as positive will feel a relational obligation towards their employing organisation and co-workers, and will consequently be more inclined to engage in OCB (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Lavelle, Brockner, et al., 2009; Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Both direct and indirect (mediated through psychological contract violation) relationships between psychological contract breach and OCB have been reported (Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2007; Zhao et al., 2007). Researchers have relied mainly on social exchange theory (Chiang et al., 2013; Colquitt et al., 2014; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Jepsen & Rodwell, 2010; Lee et al., 2014; Li et al., 2014) to justify these associations. It is therefore postulated that there will be a partially mediated relationship between psychological contract breach and OCB that reflects both direct and mediated effects (Dawson et al., 2014).

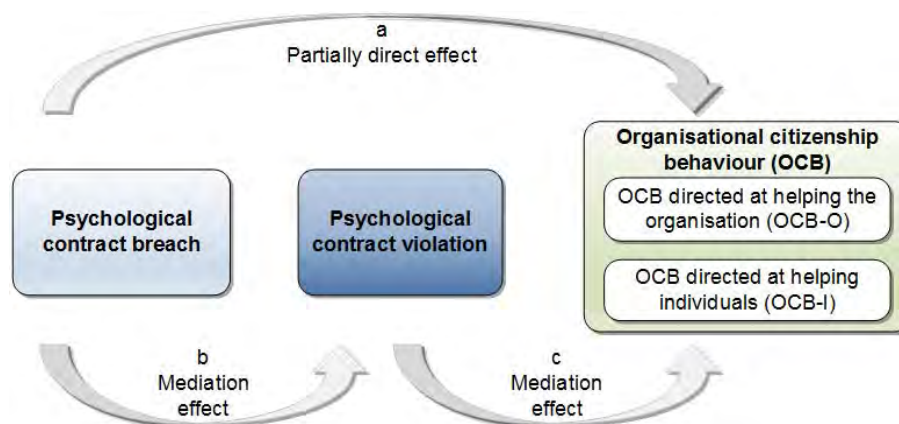


Figure 4.5. Partially Direct and Mediation Effects between Psychological Contract Breach and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

In Figure 4.5, the partial direct effect between psychological contract breach and OCB is denoted as a. The employee's emotional reaction to a perceived psychological contract breach (i.e. psychological contract violation) is denoted as b, while the associated decrease in OCB is denoted as c.

The negative relationship between psychological contract breach and OCB can be explained in terms of the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) in that employees who feel that their organisation has failed to provide what is due to them, tend to reciprocate with less helping behaviours towards the organisation (Lee et al., 2014). It is essential to differentiate between extra-role behaviour that benefits the organisation (OCB-O) and behaviour that benefits specific individuals in the organisation (OCB-I) (Rodwell & Ellershaw, 2015; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Because the psychological contract consists of beliefs about obligations on the part of the organisation rather than particular individuals, a perceived breach of the psychological contract is expected to impact organisationally directed OCB rather than OCB directed at individuals in the organisation such as supervisors or colleagues (Lee et al., 2014). Thus, if employees perceive that the organisation has breached the psychological contract, they are likely to reciprocate by reducing their discretionary contributions to the organisation, in the form of reduced organisationally directed OCB (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Turnley et al., 2003), most notably a reduction in civic virtue, as this dimension of OCB is most clearly directed towards the organisation (Robinson & Morrison, 1995). A negative relationship between psychological contract breach and OCB-O is therefore expected in terms of social exchange and psychological contract theory and has been empirically confirmed (Restubog & Bordia, 2006; Restubog et al., 2007). While a psychological contract breach may also impact negatively on employees' behaviour towards other individuals in the organisation, the negative impact of a psychological contract breach is expected to be smaller for OCB-I (Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2006; Turnley et al., 2003). In both instances (OCB-O and OCB-I), psychological contract violation is expected to serve as an intervening variable, decreasing the level of OCB as a negative emotional reaction to a perceived imbalance in the employment relationship, and is likely to affect not only an employee's willingness to engage in extra-role behaviour, but also his or her willingness to engage with and assist colleagues.

4.2.5.4 Psychological contract breach and violation as antecedents of counterproductive work behaviour

The relationship between psychological contract violation and CWB has been well documented (Bordia et al., 2008; Hsu, Yang, & Lai, 2011; Jensen et al., 2010) and can be explained in terms of the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). In terms of these theories, an employee who feels wronged in the employment relationship may reciprocate by causing harm to individuals or the organisation deemed responsible for the perceived imbalance in the exchange relationship (Chiu & Peng, 2008; Gouldner, 1960; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003). An employee may attempt to restore balance to

the relationship by either reducing his or her positive behaviour (e.g. OCB) or by displaying negative behaviour (CWB) as a form of revenge for the employer's perceived unwillingness or inability to meet its obligations (Mai et al., 2016; Restubog et al., 2015; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003).

Past research has also suggested that psychological contract breach has a positive indirect relationship with CWB (Chiu & Peng, 2008). In terms of Morrison and Robinson's (1997) conceptualisation of psychological contract breach and violation, a perceived psychological breach may elicit employees' negative emotional reactions (i.e. psychological contract violation), which may, in turn, trigger negative behavioural outcomes, such as CWB. This view is corroborated by Dalal et al.'s (2009) research relating to within-person differences in discretionary work behaviour. Dalal et al. (2009) suggested that employees' desire is to experience positive emotions. Therefore, if they experience negative emotional reactions to organisational events, such as psychological contract violation, they engage in behaviour aimed at restoring their positive emotional state. Such behaviour may include, say, aggression or confrontation (actively addressing the problem) or withdrawal (avoiding the problem), both of which are regarded as forms of CWB. It is therefore postulated that there will be a partially mediated relationship between psychological contract breach and CWB that reflects both direct and mediated effects (Dawson et al., 2014).

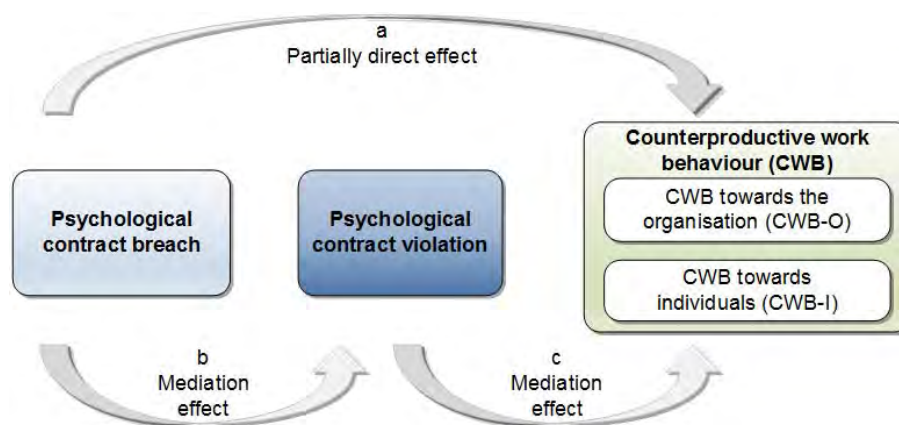


Figure 4.6. Partially Direct and Mediation Effects between Psychological Contract Breach and Counterproductive Behaviour

In Figure 4.6, the partial direct effect between psychological contract breach and CWB is denoted as a. The employee's emotional reaction to a perceived psychological contract breach (i.e. psychological contract violation) is denoted as b, while the associated increase in CWB is denoted as c.

Most of the research reporting on the relationship between psychological contract breach or violation and CWB relies on a composite measurement of CWB (e.g. Hsu et al., 2011) or on specific behaviour, such as withdrawal (e.g. Jensen et al., 2010). However, Griep et al. (2016) argue that, when investigating CWB as a consequence of psychological contract violation, using a composite score of CWB might obscure certain relationships as an individual can direct CWB towards the organisation (CWB-O) or towards individuals in it (CWB-I). Since the psychological contract is seen as the reciprocal exchange relationship between an individual and his or her organisation (Rousseau, 1989), the distinction between CWB-O and CWB-I is important. In the case of perceived psychological contract breach, an employee concludes that his or her employer has failed to fulfil its promised obligations in terms of the employment relationship. Because an employer is the main representative or owner of the organisation, it is expected that when perceiving psychological contract breach by the employer, an employee may hold the organisation (rather than his or her co-workers) accountable (Chiu & Peng, 2008). The retaliatory behaviour of an employee who perceives that his or her psychological contract has been breached will therefore be targeted towards the source of the violation (i.e. the organisation). This implies that there will be a positive relationship between perceived violation of the psychological contract and CWB-O but not necessarily between violation and CWB-I.

In summary, it has been established that employees' perceptions relating to their psychological contracts with their employers – most notably breach or violation of these contracts – affect their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989; Suazo et al., 2005; Zhao et al., 2007). It was postulated that a potential disparity might exist in terms of employees' responses to a psychological contract breach (as a cognitive evaluation of the employment relationship), as opposed to an emotional reaction to a perceived breach (i.e. psychological contract violation) (Griep et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2007). It is thus deemed necessary to differentiate between these constructs when attempting to understand the antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. In this study, a clear distinction is therefore made between these two related but independent constructs (psychological contract breach and violation) and their relative impact on selected relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) exhibited by employees in the workplace. These attitudes and behaviour were selected on account of their deemed importance in an employment relations context and in response to calls in extant literature relating to psychological contract violation for investigations into the impact of such violations on outcomes other than job satisfaction, in-role performance and turnover intentions, which have been the main focus in psychological contract research (Biswas, 2016; Suazo & Turnley, 2010). The following section highlights the

relevance of psychological contract theory, and most notably perceived breach and violation of the psychological contract, as a means to better understand and enhance employer-employee relationships.

4.2.6 Psychological contract breach and violation in a South African employment relations context

As outlined in Chapter 2, the South African employment relations environment is influenced by contemporary workplace trends such as restructuring, downsizing, outsourcing, increased reliance on informal, flexible and casual employment and demographic diversity, largely due to increased globalisation and competitiveness, which necessitate constant and rapid organisational changes that impact on employer-employee relations (Callea et al., 2016). While psychological contracts in the workplace were generally regarded as positive in the past, they are increasingly being replaced with psychological contracts about which employees are wary and unsure regarding the return on their affective investments towards their employers (Biswas, 2016). Owing to the turbulent and uncertain environment in which organisations operate, employers find it increasingly difficult to fulfil their traditional obligations in terms of the psychological contract (Agarwal, 2014; Kiazad, Seibert, & Kraimer, 2014). Employers can no longer guarantee employees' job security, career advancement or reward in response to hard work and loyalty, which results in an increased perception among employees that they are being wronged (López Bohle et al., 2017; Lv & Xu, 2018). Employee expectations of what they hope to gain from the employment relationship have also changed (Baker, 2009). In the modern workplace, opportunities for development and flexibility are often regarded as more important than the more traditional needs for stable and secure long-term employment (Agarwal, 2014).

These changes are reflected in the psychological contracts that employees hold with their employing organisations, which delineate employees' beliefs and perceptions regarding the implicit and explicit obligations at the core of the reciprocal employment relationship (Rousseau, 1995). As such, these contracts help to define mutual duties and obligations between employers and employees, and thus the dynamics of the employment relationship beyond the formal contract (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004). Unlike legal contracts or agreements between employers and employees, which as a rule regulate the formal, economic and collective dimensions of the employment relationship, psychological contracts address the informal and individual dimensions, in essence filling in the gaps of formal employment contracts (Dawson et al., 2014). Because the psychological contract reflects the employee's

beliefs about the employment relationship, it is a primary lens through which employee experiences are filtered, making it central to understanding employer-employee relations in the workplace (Alcover et al., 2017a; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2014; Shore et al., 2012a).

The reality of employment relations in the workplace is not based on legal rights and duties, but emerges through the daily interaction and interpersonal relationships formed between the parties in the relationship. Employers and employees continuously assess the working environment in order to determine what they must do to keep their side of the bargain and what they expect in return (Obuya & Rugimbana, 2014). Expectations are sometimes explicitly stated (e.g. during a performance review or counselling session), but it more often takes the form of actions and reactions through which the parties explore and draw boundaries of mutual expectations (Karagonlar et al., 2016; Schmidt, 2016; Sherman & Morley, 2015).

If an employer fails to fulfil its obligations to employees that are agreed upon in the formal contract of employment or collectively negotiated agreements, there are various legal recourses (e.g. courts of law, dispute resolution by statutory or bargaining councils or the CCMA or industrial action) and organisational procedures (e.g. grievance procedure) available to employees to resolve such discrepancies (Nel et al., 2016). Although these interventions are costly in terms of time, resources and often reputation for the employer, they provide the parties with means to amicably resolve matters of mutual interest. It is, however, equally important for employers to find ways of addressing the negative attitudinal and behavioural responses that often follow employees' perceptions of unfulfilled social obligations in terms of the psychological contract (i.e. the more informal and individual dimensions of the employment relationship) (Dawson et al., 2014). When an employer is perceived as failing to meet its psychological contract obligations, either deliberately (reneging) or unknowingly (incongruence), it has negative consequences, including reductions in organisational commitment and OCB and increased union commitment and CWB. A better understanding of the psychological contract and more specifically the impact of perceived breach or violation thereof on employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace is therefore needed to promote more positive and sustainable employment relationships (Persson & Wasieleski, 2015).

4.2.7 Summary

In the preceding sections it was postulated that social exchange theory, supported by psychological contract theory, serves as a valid theoretical lens for studying the antecedents of employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the South African organisational context. By focusing on the relational component of the psychological contract, employees' perceptions

in terms of the reciprocal obligations of the parties in the employment relationship as well as their reactions when they perceive that these obligations have not been met may be better comprehended.

In this context, the process of how a perceived psychological contract breach may influence work-related outcomes was explained as follows (Bal, De Lange, Jansen, et al., 2013; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Zhao et al., 2007): Negative events at the workplace, such as a perceived psychological contract breach, directly impact on employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Such events may, however, also evoke strong emotional reactions, resulting in a stronger impact on employees' attitudes and behaviours (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Thus, a perceived psychological contract breach defines an employee's cognitive evaluation of the employment relationship and results in a negative view of his or her employer's ability and inclination to fulfil its obligations. Based on the value that the employee attaches to the obligations that have not been fulfilled, he or she may react by displaying negative emotions such as frustration or anger and bitterness towards the employer. The employee's cognitive evaluation of the imbalance in the employment relationship is therefore followed by an emotional response in the form of a perceived psychological contract violation (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). The employee will then adapt his or her attitudes and behaviour in the workplace in an attempt to restore the balance in the exchange relationship. This may entail either adjusting his or her expectations in terms of employer obligations or alternatively adapting his or her effort in and commitment towards the organisation.

The differentiation between psychological contract breach and violation, as postulated by Morrison and Robinson (1997), is essential as it has been reported that employees' behaviour is impacted on by their affective reaction (e.g. feelings of frustration, betrayal, anger, resentment) to perceived breaches of their psychological contracts by their employing organisations rather than the perceived breach in itself (Griep et al., 2016). Although it is not always possible to avoid employees' perceptions that their psychological contracts have been breached, their feelings of anger and betrayal (i.e. psychological contract violation) can be mitigated if organisational representatives deal with perceived contract breach in a fair, honest and respectful manner (Robinson & Morrison, 2000).

It was furthermore emphasised that individual differences such as age, gender, tenure and employment status may impact on the effect that psychological contract breach will have on employees' affective reactions (psychological contract violation) and, in turn, on their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Arshad, 2016; Dulac et al., 2008). The impact of each of these

person-centred variables on individuals' perceptions of their employers' obligations in the employment relationship and their reaction when these obligations are not met, as reported in the literature, were discussed. Understanding these differences and their relationship with employees' perceptions of psychological contract breach and violations in the workplace is necessary on account of the highly idiosyncratic nature of the psychological contract (Suazo & Turnley, 2010). Employees (even those in the same organisation or department) may therefore have vastly different perceptions of the obligations held by their employer and the extent to which those obligations have been fulfilled (Schmidt, 2016).

Although it has been indicated in the literature that the distinction between transactional and relational contracts has implications for both the likelihood of an employee perceiving that his or her contract has been breached and the way in which the employee responds to this perception (Chen & Lin, 2014; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Walker, 2013), this distinction is not made in this study as the focus is on employer-employee relations and therefore the emotional reaction that an employee may have following a perceived contract breach irrespective of the nature of the contract.

The main theoretical findings relating to psychological contract breach and violation as antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour and its relevance in enhancing employment relations are summarised in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Theoretical Integration: Psychological Contract Breach and Violation

Theoretical model adopted	Morrison & Robinson's (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 2000) conceptualisation of and differentiation between psychological contract breach and violation
Definitions of psychological contract breach and violation	<p>Psychological contract breach refers to an employee's perception that the organisation has failed to meet one or more of its obligations in terms of the psychological contract even though the employee upheld his or her side of the agreement (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).</p> <p>Perceived violation of the psychological contract is regarded as the emotional response of an employee following the belief that the organisation has failed to meet one or more of its obligations in terms of the psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).</p>
Core constructs	<p>Psychological contract breach</p> <p>Psychological contract violation</p>



Person-centred variables impacting on psychological contract violation	Employment status Tenure Gender Age
Relational outcomes of psychological contract breach and violation in an ER context	<p>Positive relationships between psychological contract breach and violation and</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • union commitment • counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) <p>Negative relationships between psychological contract breach and violation and</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • organisational commitment • organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) <p>Stronger attitudinal and behavioural reactions are expected in response to perceived psychological contract violations.</p>
Relevance in enhancing employment relations	The psychological contract perspective highlights the reciprocal nature of the employment relationship and provides a conceptual and analytical framework for understanding employees' work-related perceptions, attitudes and behaviour. A better understanding of the psychological contract and more specifically the impact of perceived breach or violation thereof on employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace is therefore needed to promote more positive and sustainable employment relationships.

Employees' perceptions of and reaction to psychological contract breach and violation are dependent on a sense-making or evaluation process (Parzefall & Coyle-Shapiro, 2011). During this process, employees compare their own situation with that of their colleagues and also consider their overall work experiences (Dulac et al., 2008; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). Their perceptions of the quality of the exchange relationship are therefore not only influenced by the extent to which their employers' are perceived to fulfil their obligations in terms of the psychological contract, but also the perceived levels of justice demonstrated by and support received from the organisation (Alcover et al., 2017a; Rosen, Chang, Johnson, & Levy, 2009; Tekleab, Takeuchi, & Taylor, 2005). Employees who perceive that their psychological contract with their employers has been breached or violated are more likely to also experience a sense of injustice and lack of support from their organisations (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2010). In the following sections, these constructs (perceived organisational justice and perceived organisational support) are therefore conceptualised, the relevant theoretical models are discussed and the impact of perceived injustice and lack of support on relational attitudes

(organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), as reported in the literature, is outlined.

4.3 PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE (POJ)

Employees' perceptions of justice in the workplace have been shown to be central to the development of employment relations as a field of study and practice and the maintenance of high-quality social exchange relationships (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011; Nel et al., 2016; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). When studying employee attitudes and behaviour in an employment relations context, it is thus deemed essential to include justice as a core component. Employees' perceptions of justice in their working environments are expected to significantly influence their attitudes and behaviour in and towards their employing organisations. In this section, the construct of organisational justice is conceptualised and the development of organisational justice theory explored, culminating in an explanation of the approach to organisational justice adopted in this study.

4.3.1 Conceptualisation of perceived organisational justice

Organisational justice concerns itself with the relationships between fairness and people's work attitudes and behaviour (Brockner, Wiesenfeld, Siegel, Bobocel, & Liu, 2015). Perceived organisational justice (POJ) refers to employees' perceptions of the fairness of treatment received from the organisation and their reactions (attitudes and behaviour) to those perceptions in an organisational context (Greenberg & Tyler, 1987; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013). POJ is therefore reactive (Greenberg, 1987) and subjective in nature (Greenberg, 1987; Taggar & Kuron, 2016).

There are three types or dimensions of justice commonly described in the literature, namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice (Colquitt, 2001, 2012; Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). Distributive justice refers to the fairness of outcomes received by employees (e.g. pay, rewards, promotions and the outcome of dispute resolutions) and requires the equitable distribution of work and resources (Adams, 1965; Colquitt et al., 2005; Greenberg, 1987; Leventhal, 1976). Procedural justice relates to the fairness of procedures used to determine the outcomes received by employees (Thibaut & Walker, 1975) and requires ethical, fair and consistent application of legal provisions, employment contract stipulations and workplace policies and procedures (Colquitt et al., 2005). Procedural justice can be attained by being open to voice and input and promoting consistency, impartiality,

accuracy, credibility, representivity and ethical conduct (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Interactional justice relates to the fairness of treatment in terms of the distribution of resources and everyday interactions provided by the organisation or its representatives, which requires the demonstration of trustworthiness, reliability and general fairness in organisational relationships (Bies, 2001; Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt et al., 2005). Interactional justice includes social actions such as how a supervisor treats an employee, listening to employee concerns, providing employees with information about decisions, and being empathic towards employees (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Although interactional justice is often viewed as a single construct (Karriker & Williams, 2009) (which is the approach adopted in this study), some researchers prefer to regard interactional justice as consisting of two types of interpersonal treatment, which Greenberg (1990a, 1993b) termed “interpersonal” and “informational” justice. The former refers to the extent to which organisational representatives treat employees with respect, politeness and dignity, and the latter to the timeliness and accuracy of the information communicated (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1993b).

4.3.2 The development of organisational justice theory

The term “organisational justice” was first used by Greenberg (1987) in reference to the theories of social and interpersonal justice used to advance understanding of employee behaviour in organisations. The development of organisational justice theory in the social sciences can, however, be depicted as four major phases during which different dimensions of organisational justice impacting on affective and attitudinal reactions to justice judgements were examined (Colquitt et al., 2005). It has recently been suggested that a fifth phase of organisational justice research, aimed at examining the antecedents of justice perceptions rather than the consequences thereof, which has been the primary focus to date, is currently emerging (Brockner et al., 2015).

These phases, as illustrated in Figure 4.7, highlight the meaning ascribed to justice and the criteria used to make justice judgements at the time. During the first phase, ranging from the 1950s through the 1970s, the main focus was on individual’s assessments of fairness in the distribution of resources (i.e. distributive justice) (Adams, 1965; Blau, 1964; Homans, 1961; Leventhal, 1976; Stouffer, Suchman, De Vinney, Star, & Williams, 1949; Walster, Berscheid, & Walster, 1973). This was followed by a second phase, starting in the mid-1970s and continuing through the mid-1990s, which saw a move towards the fairness of the procedures used in making reward distributions (i.e. procedural fairness) (Folger, 1977; Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Then, beginning in the mid-1980s and until around 2010, researchers mainly focused on the interpersonal aspects of justice (i.e. interactional justice)

(Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1990b; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Moorman, 1991). Concurrently with this focus on interactional justice, another stream of theory and research sought to integrate aspects of the various organisational justice dimensions (Colquitt et al., 2005). The integrative phase examined multiple elements of fairness simultaneously, for example, their joint and interactive effects on employees' attitudes and behaviour (Brockner et al., 2015). Although some studies still focus on particular dimensions of organisational justice, depending on the research question and context, this emphasis on the integration of justice dimensions embodies the bulk of the current organisational justice research (Colquitt, 2012).

The five phases, as illustrated in Figure 4.7, and the corresponding dimensions of organisational justice, are used as a contextual framework in the remainder of this section to elucidate the conceptualisation of organisational justice as a construct, consisting of various dimensions, which can be used to explain employees' evaluation of fairness in the employment relationship and their affective, attitudinal and behavioural reactions to perceived justice or injustice.

4.3.2.1 Phase 1: Distributive justice

The earliest theories of social justice related to distributive justice (i.e. the fair distribution of resources) of which the most influential theories were Stouffer et al.' (1949) relative deprivation theory, Homan's (1961) distributive justice theory, Adams' (1965) equity theory, Walster et al.'s (1973) refinement of the equity theory and Leventhal's (1976) justice judgement model. These theoretical perspectives were influenced by more general organisational behaviour theories, at this stage most notably Blau's (1964) social exchange theory. The essence of each of these theories is briefly outlined below.

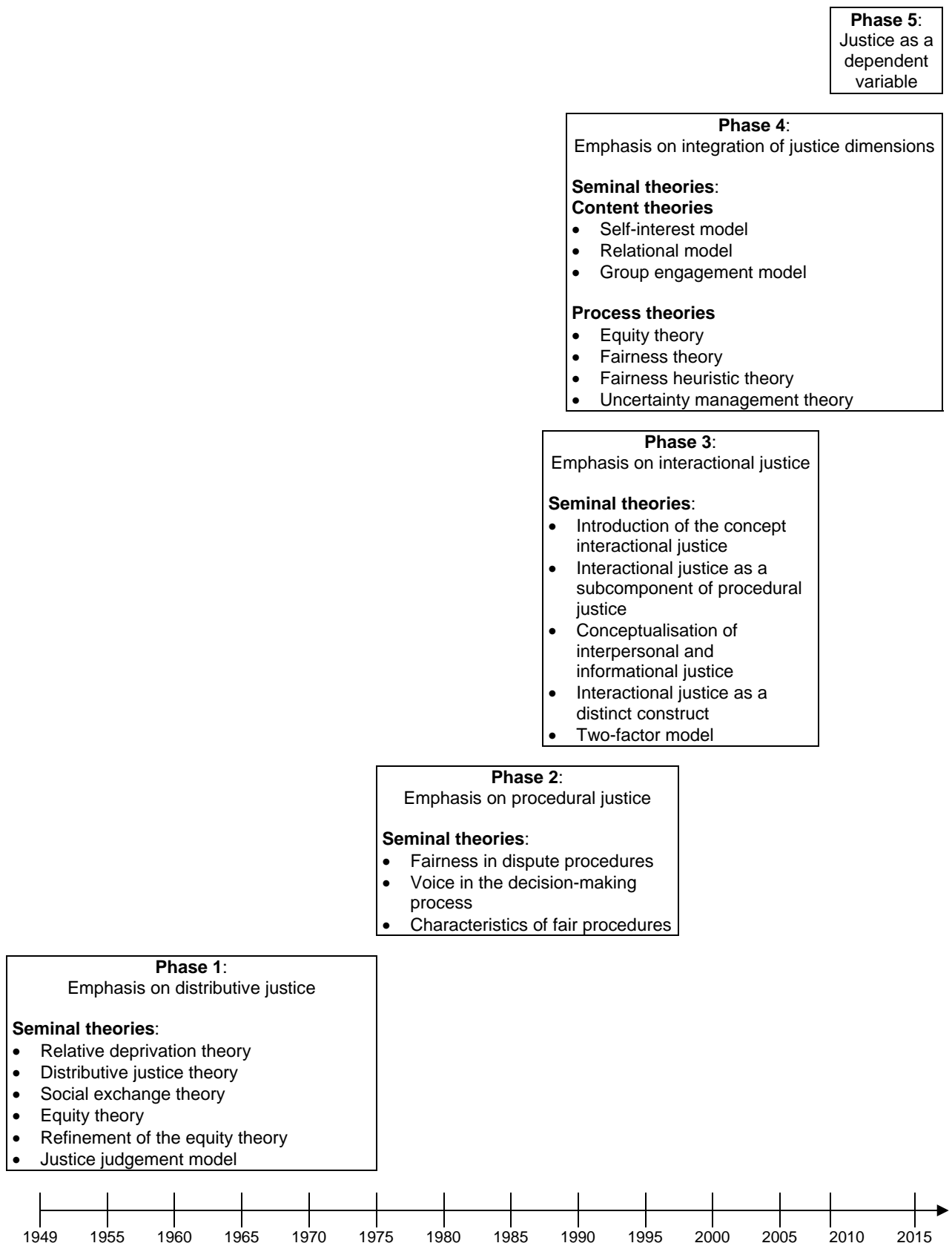


Figure 4.7. The Development of Organisational Justice Theory adapted from Brockner et al. (2015), Colquitt et al. (2005), Heffernan (2012) and Tyler, Boeckmann, Smith, and Huo (1997)

Stouffer et al. (1949) postulated that individuals' reactions to outcomes depend less on the absolute level of those outcomes than on how they equate to the outcomes received by comparative individuals or groups. The relative deprivation theory (Stouffer et al., 1949) therefore established the importance of social comparison processes in judging satisfaction with outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2005). Its main focus was on how individuals respond to negative comparisons in terms of outcome distributions and it was therefore classified as a reactive content theory of distributive justice (Greenberg, 1987). Although this emphasis on the relativity of justice perceptions was an important contribution to the development of organisational justice theory, the principles used to make these comparisons were not yet clear (Heffernan, 2012). The focus of researchers consequently shifted to equity in exchange relationships.

Homans (1961), in what was described as the distributive justice theory, postulated that the participants in an exchange expect a return that is proportional to their investments. If this expectation is met, the exchange is perceived as fair. Distributive injustice occurs whenever returns fall short of investments (resulting in anger) and whenever returns exceed investments (resulting in guilt) (Colquitt et al., 2005). The parties involved in a social exchange may reach different conclusions about distributive justice because of the inherently subjective nature of the perceptual processes involved. Homan's (1961) distributive justice theory therefore emphasised the subjectivity of the comparison process in social exchanges (Colquitt et al., 2005).

Similar to psychological contract theory, organisational justice theory presupposes the existence of exchange relationships and emphasises the role of expectations (Colquitt et al., 2005). In terms of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), satisfaction with exchange relationships depends on the perceived benefits received relative to the expectations held by the parties. These expectations are not only driven by individual differences and experiences (as demonstrated in the psychological contract theory above), but are also influenced by an awareness of the resources or benefits received by others. Blau (1964), like Homans (1961), noted that expectations are particularly dependent on the benefits of a particular reference group, making satisfaction with exchanges more relative than absolute (Colquitt et al., 2005).

Central to Blau's (1964) theorising was the distinction between several different types of expectations (Colquitt et al., 2005). These include general expectations, which are driven by prevailing societal norms and standards and particular expectations, which centre on the beliefs that a specific exchange partner will (1) conform to acceptable codes of conduct; and (2) provide rewards for association that exceed what could be obtained from other exchange

partners. The latter belief is clearly distributive in nature, while the former relates to procedural justice and interactional justice, which only became the focus of organisational justice research in the mid-1970s. Blau (1964) also identified comparative expectations (termed “fair exchange”), which he distinguished from Homans's (1961) conceptualisation of distributive justice, by arguing that they take into account more general societal norms of fair behaviour excluded by Homans (1961).

Although Blau's (1964) view of fairness in exchange relationships was similar to that of Homans (1961), another aspect of his theorising has had a more unique impact on justice literature. Specifically, Blau (1964) distinguished between two types of exchanges, namely economic exchanges, which are contractual in nature and stipulate in advance the exact quantities to be exchanged, and social exchanges, which involve future obligations that are discretionary in nature. The development of social exchange relationships has become one of the most commonly expressed explanations for the effects of justice perceptions on work behaviour (Colquitt et al., 2005; Colquitt & Zipay, 2015).

In his equity theory, Adams (1965) asserted that the outcome one receives should be proportional to the inputs one contributes. Adams (1965) embraced the notion of comparison postulated in the relative deprivation theory (Stouffer et al., 1949) and agreed with the views expressed by Homans (1961) and Blau (1964) that any exchange relationship could potentially be perceived as being unfair to the parties involved. According to Adams (1965), people are more concerned with the fairness of an outcome than the actual outcome obtained (Colquitt et al., 2001). He (Adams, 1965) therefore focused on the causes and consequences of inequity. Although Adams (1965) incorporated Homans' (1961) idea that comparisons in an exchange relationship may result in people perceiving themselves as being inequitably overpaid relative to another, resulting in feelings of guilt, or inequitably underpaid relative to another, resulting in feelings of anger, he differed from Homans (1961) in terms of the effects of perceived unfairness. While Homans (1961) restricted his argument to the effects of unfairness on satisfaction, in his model, Adams (1965) incorporated more specific and varied reactions to perceived unfairness.

In terms of Adams' (1965) equity theory, employees compare their own perceived outcome/input ratio to the corresponding ratios of others in the organisation, or to themselves at an earlier time, with the aim of achieving a condition of fairness or equity (Greenberg, 1990b). Outputs include, for example, pay, rewards intrinsic to the job, satisfying supervision, seniority benefits, fringe benefits, job status and status symbols, while inputs include factors such as education, intelligence, experience, training, skill, seniority, age, sex, ethnic

background, social status and the effort an employee disburse on the job (Colquitt et al., 2005). Adams (1965) postulated that equal outcome/input ratios yield equitable states and associated feelings of satisfaction, while inequity in the perceived ratios creates a sense of psychological tension or distress that prompts individuals to restore balance by adjusting their behaviour or cognition (Colquitt et al., 2005). Equity theory therefore specified conditions under which inequity would be perceived and what employees would be likely to do to reduce it (Colquitt et al., 2005). Adams (1965) argued that inequity can be addressed by either cognitive (e.g. re-evaluating outcomes or inputs or changing the comparison other) or behavioural reactions (e.g. altering one's own outcomes or inputs, acting on the comparison to alter his or her outcomes or inputs or withdrawing from the relationship).

Although Adams (1965) made an undeniable contribution to the development of organisational justice literature, promoting the concepts of equity and justice in an organisational environment, his model was not accepted without criticism (Colquitt et al., 2005). For instance, Walster et al. (1973) questioned Adams' (1965) formula for computing the equity ratio, arguing that it led to counterintuitive predictions when handling negative inputs. They (Walster et al., 1973) also distinguished between two ways of restoring perceived inequity, namely (1) restoring actual equity, which involves amending one's own or another's outcomes and/or inputs, and (2) restoring psychological equity, which means cognitively distorting reality in a manner that restores equity (Colquitt et al., 2005). Walster et al. (1973) furthermore emphasised that there are inherent differences in formal power between parties in organisational settings, which make for considerable opportunities for exploitation, and proposed that reactions to injustice among victims of exploitative relationships should be analysed (Colquitt et al., 2005).

Further criticism of Adams' (1965) equity theory was raised by Leventhal (1976) specifically relating to the one-dimensional conceptualisation of distributive justice. Leventhal (1976), in his justice judgement model, argued that justice perceptions should not only be determined by employees' reactions to pay inequities, but that the conditions under which people proactively employ various justice norms should also be considered (Greenberg, 1990b). Leventhal (1976) conceptualised justice as multidimensional arguing that equity is one of many values that underlie individuals' assessments of distributive justice (Heffernan, 2012). He (Leventhal, 1976) argued that other norms could also be used to make fairness evaluations. For instance, equality could be regarded as a more valid norm to determine fairness in the distribution of resources when the aim is to promote social relations within a group (Colquitt, 2012). Leventhal (1976) proposed a more proactive perspective, shifting the focus from the reactions of reward recipients to the behaviour of reward allocators and

advocated uses of alternative allocation norms, thereby significantly broadening the scope and definition of distributive justice (Colquitt et al., 2005). Leventhal (1976) defined distributive justice as the degree to which the appropriate allocation norm is used when making fairness decisions.

Despite the potential insight into organisational processes derived from both the reactive (Adams, 1963, 1965) and proactive (Leventhal, 1976) approaches to distributive justice, they were criticised for dealing only with what decisions were made (i.e. distributive justice) and not how these decisions were made (procedural justice). The research focus therefore shifted to the perceived fairness of the policies and procedures used to make decisions in organisations (Colquitt et al., 2005).

4.3.2.2 Phase 2: Procedural justice

Pioneering studies on procedural justice include Thibaut and Walker's (1975) theory of fairness in dispute procedures, Folger and colleagues' (Folger, 1977; Folger, Rosenfield, Grove, & Corkran, 1979) work on voice in the decision-making process and Leventhal's (1980) research on how the characteristics of procedures and the nuances of interpersonal behaviour impact on procedural justice.

Thibaut and Walker (1975) introduced the procedural justice construct by combining law and social psychology ideologies to investigate the fairness of decision-making processes, specifically in terms of dispute resolution (Colquitt, 2012). They (Thibaut & Walker, 1975) argued that the value of justice lies in the sense of control and predictability that it provides over the long term (Colquitt, 2012) and distinguished between the following two specific forms of control: (1) decision control was described as the degree to which a disputant could influence the outcome of a dispute; and (2) process control referred to the extent to which a disputant could voice his or her views and arguments during a procedure (Colquitt et al., 2005; Heffernan, 2012). They contributed to the procedural fairness literature by identifying the optimal dispute resolution model as one that offers process control to disputants, but reserves decision control for a neutral third party (Colquitt et al., 2005; Greenberg, 1990b). A decision-making process would therefore be regarded as fair when disputants were afforded an opportunity to voice their concerns (i.e. are granted an opportunity and sufficient time to present their case) in an effort to influence the decision outcome (Colquitt, 2012).

A limitation of Thibaut and Walker's (1975) work in terms of organisational justice theory is that it focused exclusively on dispute resolution (i.e. procedural justice in a legal context). In

order to address this limitation, Folger (1977) examined how procedural differences in opportunities for voice (i.e. any manner of communicating with a decision maker) influence people's reactions to their experiences (Heffernan, 2012). Folger (1977) found that being afforded an opportunity to express one's opinion influences the perception of justice even if it has no or a minimal impact on the final decision (Heffernan, 2012).

While Thibaut and Walker (1975) emphasised the importance of process control in a legal setting, Leventhal (1980) focused on structural components that should be considered when judging the fairness of procedures in a nonlegal setting as well as the procedural justice rules that should be used to evaluate whether a procedure is fair (Greenberg, 1990b; Heffernan, 2012). Leventhal and colleagues (Leventhal, 1980; Leventhal, Karuza, & Fry, 1980) identified the following seven structural components: (1) the selection of decision makers; (2) the setting of ground rules for evaluating potential rewards; (3) the methods of gathering information; (4) the outlining of the structure for making the decision; (5) the granting of appeals (6) safeguarding against the abuse of power; and (7) the availability of change mechanisms (Colquitt et al., 2005; Greenberg, 1990b). Leventhal's (1980) most significant contribution was his delineation of the following specific procedural rules that can be used to evaluate these structural components (Colquitt et al., 2005):

- **Consistency.** Procedures should be consistent across people and time.
- **Bias suppression.** Procedures should be neutral and should not be affected by personal self-interest or existing preconceptions.
- **Accuracy.** Procedures should be based on as much valid information and informed opinion as possible, with a minimum of error.
- **Correctability.** Procedures should contain some opportunity to correct flawed or inaccurate decisions by allowing for appeals and reviews.
- **Representativeness.** Procedures should reflect the basic concerns, values and outlooks of individuals and subgroups impacted by the allocation.
- **Ethicality.** Procedures should be consistent with the fundamental moral and ethical values held by the individuals involved.

Research offered support for the principles of and multifaceted nature of procedural justice (Greenberg, 1986). Furthermore, the literature indicated that justice judgements are made by considering both the outcomes received (distributive justice) and procedures followed to determine these outcomes (procedural justice) (Heffernan, 2012). However, researchers started to realise that fairness judgements were also impacted on by informal sources that

have not yet been explored. This paved the way for the next period of organisational justice research focusing on interactional justice.

4.3.2.3 *Phase 3: Interactional justice*

Bies and Moag (1986) built on Leventhal's (1980) theory by observing that decision making entails the following three sequential events: (1) a procedure, (2) an interpersonal interaction during which that procedure is implemented, and (3) a decision or outcome (Colquitt, 2012). In what was termed the "agent-system model", they (Bies & Moag, 1986) introduced the term "interactional justice" to capture the fairness of the personal interaction referring to people's sensitivity to the quality of interpersonal treatment they receive during the enactment of organisational procedures (Colquitt et al., 2005, 2013). Bies and Moag (1986) argued that interactional justice was promoted when decisions were made in an unbiased and consistent manner considering employees' views, the details of the procedure used in reaching the decision were communicated to employees respectfully and appropriately and decisions were justified by means of truthful and honest information (Colquitt, 2012). By introducing the concept of interactional justice, Bies and colleagues (see Bies & Shapiro, 1987, 1988; Folger & Bies, 1989; Greenberg, Bies, & Eskew, 1991; Tyler & Bies, 1990) stressed the importance of considering the way procedures are implemented beyond simply the manner in which they are structured (Colquitt et al., 2005). They furthermore linked employees' perceptions of interactional justice to attitudinal outcomes in the workplace (Colquitt et al., 2005). Bies and colleagues (see Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Tyler & Bies, 1990) were among the first to differentiate between the influence of structural justice (i.e. voice) and informational justice (i.e. providing mitigating justifications) in making justice judgements, showing that individuals are more tolerant of unfavourable outcomes if they receive an adequate justification for reaching a particular decision (Heffernan, 2012).

Following Bies and Moag's (1986) initial conceptualisation of the interactional justice construct, organisational justice scholars turned their attention to differentiating interactional justice from procedural and distributive justice. While some researchers viewed interactional justice as a distinct justice construct, others regarded it as a subcomponent of procedural justice (i.e. social aspects of the procedure) (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Greenberg (1990b, 1993a) supported the latter approach and made a significant contribution to the organisational justice literature by conceptualising the terms "interpersonal justice" and "informational justice" as two distinct dimensions of interactional justice (Heffernan, 2012). Interpersonal justice captured the respect and propriety rules from Bies and Moag (1986), describing the social aspects of distributive justice, whereas informational justice captured the

justification and truthfulness components (i.e. the social aspects of the procedure) (Colquitt et al., 2005).

Moorman (1991) conducted seminal research in this regard by building on Leventhal's (1980) interactional justice items and Thibaut and Walker's (1975) rules of fairness in dispute procedures. Moorman's (1991) results contradicted those of Greenberg (1990b, 1993a), showing that interactional justice was distinct from procedural and distributive justice, and furthermore indicated that interactional justice was a better predictor of citizenship behaviour than either procedural or distributive justice.

In an attempt to clarify the contradictions, Colquitt (2001) validated a new justice measure including interactional items assessing respect, propriety, truthfulness and justification (based on literal interpretations of Bies & Moag, 1986; Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975), clearly differentiating these items from procedural concepts such as process control or consideration (Colquitt, 2012). Drawing on Greenberg's (1993b) earlier conceptual work, Colquitt (2001) also examined the merits of further differentiating interactional justice into interpersonal (respect and propriety) and informational (truthfulness and justification) facets. Colquitt's (2001) findings suggested that interactional justice is a distinct component of organisational justice, which should be further broken down into two components (interpersonal and informational justice), because these components had differential effects on employee perceptions of justice and their subsequent reactions (Heffernan, 2012).

During this period, McFarlin and Sweeney (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993) also explored the differential impact of procedural and distributive justice on employee reactions and organisational outcomes. They found that distributive justice was a more important predictor of personal outcomes (e.g. pay satisfaction and job satisfaction), while procedural justice was reported to be a stronger predictor of organisational outcomes such as organisational commitment. This pattern – where distributive justice would be a stronger predictor of personal or relational outcomes and procedural justice a stronger predictor of organisational or system outcomes – became known as the two-factor model (Colquitt, 2012).

4.3.2.4 Phase 4: Integration of justice dimensions

The work of Moorman (1991) and Colquitt (2001) emphasised the need for a more integrative approach to organisational justice research integrating the distributive, procedural and interactional justice components identified. It was argued that an integrative theory of organisational justice should explain both why people are concerned about justice and how

they react to perceived justice or injustice (Heffernan, 2012). A better understanding of the joint and interactive effects of the various dimensions of organisational on employees' attitudes and behaviour was needed (Brockner et al., 2015). Hence, contemporary organisational justice research consists of two broad psychological theories examining the reasons employees care about justice (content theories) and the processes that lead to both the formation of fairness perceptions, as well as individuals' reactions to perceived injustice (process theories) (Rupp & Thornton, 2015).

Content theories of organisational justice relate to the extent to which perceptions of justice serve employees' psychological needs (i.e. the reasons why employees are concerned with organisational justice), and include three models, namely the instrumental or self-interest model, the relational model and the group engagement model (Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan, 2015; Cropanzano, Byrne, et al., 2001; Heffernan, 2012). These models provide different explanations of why justice perceptions affect employees' behaviour. The self-interest model is based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and indicates that people are concerned about fair procedures as a means of maximising their personal outcomes. It incorporates Thibaut and Walker's (1975) rules of fairness and indirect control of outcomes through process control such as voice, the consistency of procedures and the use of accurate information for decision making (Leventhal, 1980). Procedures are perceived as fair when individuals believe that they have some control over the decision-making process. Furthermore, individuals are more likely to perceive distributive justice if their own individual needs are fulfilled (often to the exclusion of others) (Wan, 2016).

In contrast, the relational model of distributive justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992) is based on social identity theory where maintaining social relationships within a group (i.e. a sense of belonging and being valued by a group) is deemed more important than control and self-interest (Akanbi & Ofoegbu, 2013). Procedures are perceived to be fair if they serve the interests of all group members (Wan, 2016). In terms of the relational model, three relational concerns are regarded as significant in determining procedural justice and ultimately the reasonable allocation of resources, namely neutrality (i.e. honesty and lack of bias in decision making), trust that decision makers will act in a fair and reasonable way, and standing (i.e. to be treated with courtesy, respect and dignity) (Wan, 2016). The main difference between the self-interest and relational model is that the former emphasises economic concerns, while the latter underscores social concerns (Heffernan, 2012).

The group engagement model provides a complementary rationale for the effects of justice perceptions on work behaviour (Tyler & Blader, 2003). Whereas the relational model relates

justice perceptions to the extent to which an individual is valued by a group, the group engagement model focuses on the attitudes and behaviour that result from perceived justice (Colquitt & Zapata, 2015). In terms of this model, employees who perceive that they have been treated fairly feel both respected and proud, resulting in two important consequences: Firstly, they feel a greater sense of identification with the group, and secondly, this sense of identification leads to behavioural engagement, which relates to both mandatory and discretionary cooperation (Tyler & Blader, 2003). The group engagement model thus offers a possible explanation for why justice perceptions can impact both task performance and OCB (Colquitt & Zapata, 2015).

Process theories focus on how people make fairness judgements (Heffernan, 2012). Cropanzano, Rupp, Mohler, and Schminke (2001) classify process theories on a control-automatic continuum. They (Cropanzano, Rupp, et al., 2001) acknowledge that human judgements range from those that carefully and consciously evaluate all available information in order to make a deliberate and effortful judgement (a controlled or systematic process), to those who rely on information that is readily available for making quick and efficient judgements (an automatic process) (Heffernan, 2012). The major process theories fall at various points on this continuum. They include the following: Equity theory (Adams, 1965), which proposes that conscious and careful evaluation of one's self determines fairness judgements (controlled process) (see the earlier discussion in section 4.3.2.1); fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998, 2001), which maintains that social injustice occurs when an individual is able to hold another accountable for a situation in which his or her well-being has been threatened; fairness heuristic theory (Lind, 2001; Van den Bos & Van Prooijen, 2001) and uncertainty management theory (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002; Van den Bos & Lind, 2002), which have been explicitly designed to provide a deeper understanding of procedural and distributive issues by integrating the two research domains (Heffernan, 2012).

Folger (1986, 1987, 1993) reflected on the limitations of equity theory and suggested that there might be value in reconceptualising it by more explicitly detailing the cognitive and affective elements underlying the sense of injustice (Colquitt et al., 2005). Folger (1986, 1987, 1993) therefore focused on the feelings of anger and resentment that often accompany relative deprivation. Folger and Cropanzano (1998, 2001) postulated the fairness theory integrating relative deprivation theory (Stouffer et al., 1949), equity theory (Adams, 1965) and Leventhal's (1980) six justice rules along with the relational aspects of justice (Heffernan, 2012). The fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998, 2001) held that individuals assign blame by asking the following questions: (1) Would I have been better off if a different outcome or procedure had occurred? – relating to distributive justice; (2) Could the authority have behaved

differently? – relating to informational justice; and (3) Should the authority have behaved differently? – relating to procedural and interpersonal justice dimensions (Colquitt et al., 2005). The fairness theory therefore suggests that individuals make conscious assessments of fairness and that they will therefore blame an authority for an event when it could have (and should have) occurred differently, and when the outcome would have been better had the alternative scenario played out (Colquitt, 2012; Colquitt & Zipay, 2015). Folger and Cropanzano's (1998, 2001) theory eventually evolved from the fairness theory to deonance theory, which describes perceptions of justice as a quick and instinctive judgement as opposed to a thorough and reasoned analysis of events or experiences (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015).

The fairness heuristic theory (Lind, 2001; Van den Bos & Van Prooijen, 2001) represented a shift from individual self-interest in terms of justice perceptions to an emphasis on collective well-being (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015). In terms of this theory, it is postulated that individuals are often in situations where they must decide whether to embrace or avoid cooperation with a higher authority (Lind, 2001; Van den Bos & Van Prooijen, 2001). This situation puts individuals in what Lind (2001) referred to as the fundamental social dilemma (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011). Although embracing cooperation can help to facilitate goal achievement, it also gives rise to the possibility of exploitation and rejection and a loss of identity (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Cropanzano, Rupp, et al., 2001; Lind, 2001). Lind (2001) argues that, if an individual chooses to cooperate, he or she would need some guarantee, or at least have some expectation, that the other party is trustworthy and would therefore not exploit that cooperative behaviour. However, because it is difficult to ascertain trustworthiness, individuals are often uncertain about their relationships with authority (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015). The information required to make such decisions or evaluations is often unavailable or incomplete (Van den Bos & Van Prooijen, 2001; Van den Bos, Vermunt, & Wilke, 1997). Consequently, people have to rely on heuristics to guide their subsequent behaviours – that is, they use general impressions of fair treatment (regardless of the type of justice applicable) as a heuristic device (Colquitt, 2012). These impressions, which are formed in the earlier stages of a relationship and based on more interpretable rather than complex information (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015), are then used as a guide to drive justice judgements and regulate a person's investment and involvement in various relationships to match the level of fairness they experience (Heffernan, 2012). The fairness heuristic theory shares much of the rationale offered by social exchange theory in term of the effects of justice perceptions on work behaviour (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015).

According to the uncertainty management theory (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002; Van den Bos & Lind, 2002), which is a refinement of the fairness heuristic theory, people face fundamental uncertainty in social relationships. Although they may benefit from being in a relationship, there

is always the risk of possible exploitation (Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012). People therefore rely on fairness displayed by others (e.g. a person or an organisation) as a way to manage this uncertainty (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015). In an organisational environment, this uncertainty may stem from conditions within (e.g. job insecurity, unclear performance goals and negative changes in the workplace such as retrenchments) or outside (e.g. socioeconomic conditions) the organisation (Diehl et al., 2018; Hart, Thomson, & Huning, 2016). Perceived fairness counters the feelings of uncertainty, even if the perceptions of fairness and uncertainty relate to different people or events. Hence, individuals who experience lower levels of uncertainty are more willing to behave cooperatively or trust other parties because they are judged to be nonexploitative (Au & Leung, 2016).

An additional matter that started receiving increasing support in the literature during this period was the view that justice perceptions are not based on cognitive evaluations only, but also result from affective responses to events or experiences (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015). It was postulated that emotions precede, coincide with and follow justice-related events and experiences. Employees' emotional reactions to an event or experience therefore impact on how they perceive a situation and interpret information, and are thus central to the formation of justice perceptions (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015). Van den Bos (2003) empirically confirmed the significant impact that emotions have on the formation of justice perceptions in the workplace. It was suggested that employees' emotional reactions to workplace events or experiences affect their attitudes and therefore influence their behaviour in the workplace. In some instances there may also be a direct relationship between the emotions experienced and subsequent behaviour even if there is no change in attitudes (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015).

4.3.2.5 Phase 5: Justice as a dependent variable

Although the principal focus of organisational justice research differs in the four phases, all of them predominantly examined the consequences of perceived justice or injustice in the workplace. It had been well established that, when employees perceive that they are being treated fairly by their employers, they tend to respond positively (Colquitt et al., 2005; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). However, little attention was paid to the antecedents of justice. Brockner et al. (2015) propose that this paradigmatic shift marks the start of a fifth period of organisational justice research focusing on the causes rather than the consequences of perceived justice in the workplace.

4.3.2.6 *The approach to organisational justice adopted in this study*

As indicated in the previous sections, there are a myriad of theoretical perspectives of organisational justice, and the debate in terms of the appropriate theoretical framework is ongoing. The questions that were considered in this study, aimed at promoting a better understanding organisational justice as an antecedent of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace were as follows: (1) whether a distinction should be made between the justice dimensions (i.e. distributive, procedural and interactional justice) in terms of the conceptualisation of organisational justice as a construct; (2) whether the differential impact of these dimensions on justice perceptions and reactions to perceived justice or injustice should be considered; and (3) whether the sources of justice perceptions should be taken into account.

Since it has been shown in extant literature that the various dimensions of justice may have differentiating effects on employees' reactions to perceived injustice (Colquitt et al., 2001; Roch & Shanock, 2006), it was deemed essential for the purposes of this study to differentiate between the justice dimensions rather than viewing organisational justice as a unidimensional construct. Organisational justice studies conducted within a social exchange framework often include only the procedural and interactional dimensions of justice because of their direct relevance to social exchange relationships (Roch & Shanock, 2006). However, for the purpose of this study, it was considered necessary to also include distributive justice in order to ascertain whether this dimension of justice, which is associated with the economic exchange relationship (i.e. the formal and economic dimensions of the employment relationship) impacts on relational outcomes in the workplace. It is postulated that in the South African organisational environment, which is characterised by high levels of inequity, distributive justice perceptions may influence employees' assessment of the quality of the employer-employee relationship, resulting in increased cynicism towards the organisation and its managers, which may, in turn, impact on their attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation.

In considering the sources of justice perceptions, cognisance is taken of the multifoci social exchange relationships approach (Cropanzano, Byrne, et al., 2001; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002) propagated by researchers such as Alcover et al. (2017b) and Rupp, Shao, Jones, and Liao (2014). According to this multifoci model, employees' perceptions of fairness of a social entity are likely to be based on their assessments of justice-related information regarding that specific entity (Alcover et al., 2017b). An employee's perception of justice in an organisation may therefore result from various interactions or sources referring to the extent to which

specific organisational representatives (e.g. an immediate supervisor or employment relations practitioner) are seen as upholding or violating normative rules (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Rupp et al., 2014). In terms of this perspective, justice perceptions originate either from the system (i.e. the organisation) or the organisational representative (e.g. manager or supervisor interacting with the employee). These sources of justice link particular justice dimensions with specific outcomes. For instance, procedural justice and the informational dimension of interactional justice are posited as stronger predictors of organisationally directed outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction, organisational commitment and OCB), while distributive and interpersonal justice are regarded as stronger predictors of outcomes focused on individuals (e.g. co-workers or supervisors) (Karriker & Williams, 2009).

The perspective adopted in this study, however, is that the employee regards the employment relationship as being between him or her and the organisation as a single entity (Cropanzano, Byrne, et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Lavelle et al., 2007). Although employees therefore base their perceptions of justice or injustice on the actions of a variety of organisational representatives, these experiences amount to a perception of the organisation's adherence to normative rules irrespective of the specific organisational representative responsible for these actions (Cropanzano, Chrobot-Mason, Rupp, & Prehar, 2004; Xu, Loi, & Ngo, 2016). This view is supported by a recent meta-analysis conducted by Colquitt et al. (2013) where it was concluded that, matching the source of justice with the target of the outcome (i.e. the multifocal approach) does not lead to improved prediction over the traditional three-dimensional (i.e. distributive, procedural and interactional justice) framework. Although Rupp et al. (2014) obtained contradictory results, promoting the use of a multifoci approach, in a subsequent meta-analysis, these authors acknowledged that the utilisation of the general (nonsource-specific) type-based justice perceptions approach remains acceptable if the goal is to determine the relationships between justice perceptions and the resultant attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Since the aim of this research was to understand the factors that affect employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace in order to enhance the employer-employee relationship, it was not deemed essential to investigate the attitudes towards and behaviour aimed at specific organisational representatives (i.e. the sources of perceived injustice).

In terms of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which is regarded as the dominant perspective for explaining justice effects (Colquitt et al., 2013), and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), one would expect that any action by the organisation or any of its representatives that is deemed to be violating one or more of the norms of justice (in terms of distributive, procedural and interactional justice), thereby having a detrimental effect on an

employee (i.e. fairness theory), would be reciprocated by an adjustment of attitudes and/or behaviour by the affected employee in an attempt to restore the balance in the exchange relationship.

For the purpose of this study, perceived organisational justice was therefore regarded as an employee's observation of the employer's (represented by a number of role players in the organisation) adherence to normative justice rules as reflected in three dimensions of justice (i.e. distributive, procedural and interactional justice) and his or her subsequent cognitive and affective reactions to a perceived adherence to or breach of these rules, in turn, impacting on his or her attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Colquitt, 2012; Rupp et al., 2014). Perceived organisational justice is therefore an affect-laden subjective experience (Taggar & Kuron, 2016), which is reactive in nature and focuses on employees' response to perceived fair or unfair treatment in the workplace (Greenberg, 1987). Because the three-dimensional model has found most support in the literature (Hassan et al., 2017) and the various justice dimensions have been shown to have both independent and interactive effects on outcomes, perceived organisational justice is regarded as a multidimensional construct consisting of three dimensions, namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice.

According to Chiang et al. (2013), psychological contracts and organisational justice should be viewed as the derivations of social exchange theory. Given the reliance on social exchange theory in this study in order to better understand the intricacies of employer-employee relations, it was thus deemed essential to consider the relationship between employees' perceptions of psychological contract breach and violation and justice perceptions. This relationship, as reported in extant literature, is outlined in the following section.

4.3.3 Psychological contract breach and violation and justice perceptions

Social exchange theory posits that employees seek to maintain equity between the costs and benefits in exchange relationships with their employing organisations. Psychological contract breach occurs when employees perceive a discrepancy between what they were promised or what they expected and what they actually receive from the organisation (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Perceived breach of the psychological contract entails not only an increase of costs or a loss of benefits for the employee but also potentially subjects the employee to feelings of injustice and betrayal (i.e. psychological contract violation) (Robinson et al., 1994). Consequently, an imbalance in the social exchange relationship, resulting from perceived discrepancies, has been characterised as a type of distributive injustice (Suazo et al., 2005; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). However, Colquitt (2001) posited that psychological contract

breach does not only result in a perception of distributive injustice but also relates to perceptions of procedural injustice.

Employees who perceive that their psychological contracts have been breached may therefore experience distributive injustice or inequity in their workplaces. However, psychological contract breach also raises issues of procedural justice, which focuses on the fairness of processes and how an employee is treated by the employer rather than on the fairness of outcomes. Zhang and Agarwal (2009) explain the relationship between psychological contract breach and procedural justice as follows in terms of the group-value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988): In addition to outcome concerns (i.e. distributive justice), psychological contracts involve socioemotional concerns (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). People want to understand, establish and maintain communal bonds with their social groups. They therefore tend to seek evidence that they are accepted and valued members of these groups (Tyler, 1994). The evidence that they are valued by their groups enhances their perceptions of procedural justice, whereas the evidence that they are not valued members reduces their perceptions of procedural justice (Tyler, 1994). When psychological contract breach occurs, employees perceive a discrepancy between what employees were promised by their organisation and what they have in fact received from it (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Such a discrepancy may be viewed by employees as evidence that they are not valued by the organisation, which, in turn, results in a negative emotional reaction (psychological contract violation) and adversely affects their perceptions of procedural justice. In contrast, when employers use fair procedures in decision making and the allocation of resources, this conveys a message to the employee that he or she is valued and thereby reduces the potential for an adverse reaction to a perceived breach of the psychological contract (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Rousseau, 1995).

The level of distributive injustice perceived may be intensified if an employee also perceives that the procedure followed to achieve a particular outcome was unfair. This relationship between psychological contract breach and both distributive and procedural justice perceptions may be ascribed to employees' tendency to assess not only the breach itself, but also the circumstances of and reasons why the breach occurred (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). When employees believe that their organisation has provided insufficient inducements, but they understand and agree with the reasons for and procedures followed in determining these inducements, they are less likely to have a negative emotional reaction to the perceived psychological contract breach, and its impact on their attitudes and behaviour towards the organisation is likely to be less severe (Robinson & Morrison, 1995).

Interactional justice perceptions have also been linked to employees' reaction to a perceived psychological contract breach. Cassar and Buttigieg (2015) argued that employees who lack access to information or have poor work relationships with their superiors (i.e. they experience interactional injustice) are more likely to monitor their organisation for possible breaches. In contrast, individuals who are given more truthful and specific information are more likely to have a sense of interactional justice (Gilliland & Paddock, 2005) and, because of this, are less likely to keep monitoring their organisation for possible breaches (Rousseau, 1995, 2011).

It has thus been shown in the literature that employees' perceptions of justice may alter their interpretation of and affective reactions to a psychological contract breach and hence its impact on their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Cassar & Buttigieg, 2015; Turnley & Feldman, 1999).

4.3.4 Person-centred variables influencing perceived organisational justice

Perceived organisational justice relates to employees' subjective opinions of fairness in the workplace that pertains to either outcomes received, the procedure to determine these outcomes or the quality of employer-employee interaction (Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015). The subjective nature of POJ makes employees' judgements of organisational justice susceptible to influences stemming from individual differences (Taggar & Kuron, 2016). Therefore, how a person perceives or defines fairness does not only depend on elements of the situation, but also on the perceiver's personal characteristics or dispositions (Johnston, Krings, Maggiori, Meier, & Fiori, 2016).

Commonly used control variables in organisational justice research include age, gender, tenure, race, education, types of job, work group and organisation size, industry and personality traits (e.g. the Big Five personality traits, trust propensity, risk aversion and trait morality) (Haynie, Mossholder, & Harris, 2016; Huang & Huang, 2016; Johnston et al., 2016; Potipiroon & Faerman, 2016; Zhou & Li, 2015). It is anticipated that such individual differences may influence employees' perceptions of what justice in an organisational setting entails and their response to perceived justice or injustice. The relationships between specific individual characteristics and organisational justice perceptions, as reported in extant literature, are briefly outlined below.

4.3.4.1 *Employment status*

The relationship between employment status (differentiating between permanent and temporary employees) was explored by Conway and Briner (2002), who reported that differential treatment across employment status may be viewed as interactional injustice by temporary employees which may, in turn, lead to perceptions of inequity and psychological contract violation.

It has also been reported that permanent and temporary employees have different expectations from their employers. While temporary employees' relationships with their employers are typically transactional or economic in nature, permanent employees tend to have relational psychological contracts with their employers (Chambel et al., 2016; Sherman & Morley, 2015). Owing to these differences, employees are expected to have different perceptions of what constitutes justice in the employer-employee relationship, and they will also react differently when perceiving injustice.

4.3.4.2 *Tenure, education and job level*

In the workplace, individuals' status is determined by a number of factors such as job level and education as well as experience that is often associated with longer tenure in an organisation (Clay-Warner et al., 2013). These factors may affect employees' perceptions of organisational justice as well as the value they place on specific dimensions of justice. For instance, Elamin and Tlaiss (2015) found a negative relationship between level of education and perceptions of both distributive and integrative justice. An individual with a lower level of education will therefore be more likely to perceive that his or her employer distributes work and resources equitably and interacts with him or her in a fair manner. Elamin and Tlaiss (2015) explained this finding in terms of human capital theory (Tlaiss, 2013), which argues that individuals with low levels of education often feel threatened by those who have more formal education and are thus less likely to complain for fear of losing their jobs. Thus, such employees are more likely to focus on maintaining good relationships with colleagues. Employees with lower status in an organisation (due to lower levels of education and limited experience) are likely to place a higher value on procedural justice as perceived fairness in terms of decision making helps to eliminate the feelings of insecurity and uncertainty often experienced by such individuals (Clay-Warner et al., 2013).

Positive relationships between tenure and all three dimensions of organisational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) have also been reported (Elamin & Tlaiss, 2015; Heffernan, 2012), indicating that employees with longer tenure in their organisations are more likely than those with shorter tenure to report higher levels of distributive, procedural and interactional justice. The effect of justice perceptions on employee attitudes has been found to change as tenure increases (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003) and for higher levels of employment (Elamin & Tlaiss, 2015). According to Ambrose and Cropanzano (2003), individuals acquire more information and experience with organisational procedures and outcomes over time. These changes in information and experience affect the influence of procedural and distributive justice on their attitudes and behaviour. Similarly, employees at higher levels have access to more information than lower-level employees and therefore tend to have a better understanding of why particular decisions are made and the procedures followed to reach such decisions (Elamin & Tlaiss, 2015). It is therefore expected that, as employees' tenure within an organisation increases, or as they are promoted to supervisory or managerial positions, they will gain a better understanding of the factors impacting on resource allocation and decision making in the organisation, resulting in more realistic expectations (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Thomas & Anderson, 1998). Employees with more realistic expectations of their employers are less likely to perceive organisational decisions or processes as unfair.

4.3.4.3 *Age*

Employees' age has been found to impact on their reactions to negative events such as perceived injustice or unfair treatment in the workplace (Bal, De Lange, Ybema, Jansen, & Van der Velde, 2011). Because older workers are better at regulating their emotions and focus more on the positive aspects of their relationships with others, they tend to react less intensely to unfair treatment. It can therefore be expected that, in investigating the relationship between employees' organisational justice perceptions and their resultant attitudes and behaviour, the effect of perceived injustices on the attitudes and behaviour of younger individuals will be stronger than on those of older individuals (Robbins, Ford, & Tetrack, 2012).

Age has also been reported to affect the significance of the different dimensions of justice for individuals when making justice judgements (Fortin, Cojuharenco, Patient, & German, 2016). Roschk, Müller, and Gelbrich (2013) found that the impact of distributive justice was greater in middle adulthood. During early adulthood, procedural justice was regarded as highly important, while the importance of interactional justice was low. The impact of interactional justice was the greatest in late adulthood. Although Roschk et al.'s (2013) research related to

consumer behaviour and not organisational behaviour, it can be argued that this differential significance ascribed to the respective justice dimensions during various life stages can be attributed to the different time perspectives faced by younger versus older employees, which, in turn, lead to different emotional goals and hence the differential importance they attach to the different justice dimensions (Bal, De Lange, Zacher, et al., 2013; Fortin et al., 2016; Tenhiälä et al., 2013).

4.3.4.4 Gender and population group

Gender and population group are often included in organisational justice research because of the salience of these demographic differences for relations in the workplace (Carter, Mossholder, Feild, & Armenakis, 2014). Researchers have ascribed particular characteristics of men and women, emanating from traditional socialisation processes, to their differential perspectives of and reaction to organisational justice (Simpson & Kaminski, 2007). For instance, based on gender role beliefs and differences in socialisation, women regard connections and relationships with others more highly than men (Eagly, 2009; Lee, Pillutla, & Law, 2000). Women therefore process information in terms of its relational impact and their reciprocation behaviour tends to be more sensitive to context (Dulebohn et al., 2016). Ascribing to the notion that procedural justice evaluations may have greater relational significance than distributive justice evaluation, it has been reported that procedural justice is more important for women, while distributive justice is more important for men (Clay-Warner et al., 2013; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Dineen, Noe, & Wang, 2004; Ramamoorthy & Flood, 2004; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997; Tata, 2000). Owing to the significance of procedural justice in promoting long-term relationships (Lee et al., 2000; Tata, 2000), women therefore regard the procedure whereby outcomes are attained (procedural justice) as more important, while men tend to be more interested in the value of the outcome obtained (distributive justice). A further explanation for this difference offered in the literature is that female employees may feel that they have to depend more on procedures and systems to achieve the desired organisational outcomes on account of a history of discrimination and gender-role stereotyping (Clay-Warner et al., 2013; Khoreva & Tenhiälä, 2016; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997).

It has also been reported that male and female employees' reactions to perceived injustice differ (Khoreva & Tenhiälä, 2016). Dulebohn et al. (2016) found that, although females may be more inclined to perceive injustice, they are less likely than men to react to these perceptions by expressing certain attitudes or engaging in reciprocal behaviour as they will assess the injustice in terms of the relational context.

Simpson and Kaminski (2007) examined the relationship between gender, race and organisational justice perceptions and found that women place greater value on interactional justice than on distributive or procedural justice. However, race was shown to have an effect on the gender-POJ relationship, specifically in terms of interactional justice. Simpson and Kaminski (2007) reported that black women placed greater value on being treated with dignity and respect (i.e. interactional justice) than on procedural or distributive justice. Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) suggest that one way in which demographic variables such as race and gender may impact on justice perceptions is through self-interest. For instance, if an affirmative action programme benefits employees with a particular race or gender profile, such employees may perceive the programme as fair. However, employees who are excluded are likely to regard it as unfair. The population group to which employees belong may therefore also impact on their perceptions of justice in the workplace (Carter et al., 2014) and the value they ascribe to different justice dimensions (Simpson & Kaminski, 2007).

This is especially true in South Africa because of its history of apartheid and the residual racial tension in society and the workplace as well as the implementation of measures such as affirmative action and broad-based black economic empowerment intended to address discrimination and restore economic balance (see Chapter 2). Employees from different racial groups tend to experience the implementation of such measures in different ways and may, as a result, harbour different perspectives of distributive and procedural justice in their organisations (Cropanzano, Slaughter, & Bachiochi, 2005). Furthermore, interracial interactions in the workplace often provoke anxiety as a result of uncertainty stemming from dissimilarity and stereotyping, especially when employees and organisational representatives belong to different population groups (Carter et al., 2014; Chung, Ehrhart, Holcombe Ehrhart, Hattrup, & Solamon, 2010). Hence, employees from different racial groups employed in the same organisation may have diverse views of interactional justice.

A further consideration that is closely related to race is cultural disposition. The role of culture, and specifically the individualism/collectivism dimension thereof (Hofstede, 1980), in influencing perceptions of justice and relevant outcomes is well established in extant literature (Hassan et al., 2017). An individual with an individualistic disposition is likely to emphasise equity in making justice judgements, while collectivists tend to value equality (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007). Because collectivists value their social identity, threats to social identity are likely to produce strong reactions (Timmerman, 2016). As a result, employees with a collectivist disposition are more likely than their individualist colleagues to form justice perceptions (Earley & Gibson, 1998). The moderating effect of individualism/collectivism in

the relationship between employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences and their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace is further explored in Chapter 6.

4.3.4.5 Union membership

In South Africa, with its high levels of poverty, unemployment and inequality (Di Paola & Pons-Vignon, 2013; National Planning Commission, 2011) and unmet expectations (Di Paola & Pons-Vignon, 2013; Pons-Vignon & Anseeuw, 2009), the sense of injustice in terms resource distribution is particularly high. Trade unions often rely on this sense of social injustice to mobilise membership (Kelly, 2015). For instance, in South Africa, the Association of Mineworkers and Construction Union (AMCU) has been highly effective in mobilising individuals around perceived social and organisational injustices (Wöcke & Marais, 2016). Securing fair treatment for their members is one of the primary goals of trade unions (Simpson & Kaminski, 2007). Trade union membership promotes a shared understanding of perceived injustices, and attributing blame for these injustices to the employer and encouraging group cohesion and identity, offer a way for employees to address these perceived injustices (Blader, 2007; Brown Johnson & Jarley, 2004; Buttigieg et al., 2007). Positive relationships between procedural injustice and union membership have received specific support in the literature, indicating that employees who experience unfair treatment in their working environments, especially when their employers do not follow fair procedures, are likely to turn to trade unions to address these injustices (Blader, 2007; Buttigieg et al., 2007). A negative relationship between POJ and trade union membership is therefore to be expected.

4.3.5 Perceived organisational justice as an antecedent of relational attitudes and behaviour

Organisational justice research largely focuses on how employees judge the actions of their employing organisations and how these judgements drive subsequent attitudes and behaviours (Rupp et al., 2014). Social exchange theory has frequently been relied upon to explain the effects of justice perceptions on various organisational outcomes (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; DiMatteo, Bird, & Colquitt, 2011). The existence of a chain of relationships between organisational justice, different forms of social exchange relationships and attitudinal and behavioural reactions based on the perceived quality of these relationships is widely accepted in the literature (Alcover et al., 2017b; Lee & Wei, 2017; Tekleab et al., 2005). In the context of social exchange theory, justice perceptions are therefore expected to give rise to

reciprocative actions by employees (Colquitt et al., 2013; Cropanzano, Paddock, Rupp, Bagger, & Baldwin, 2008).

Employees' positive perceptions of justice in their organisations have been linked to a variety of favourable attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, such as increased job satisfaction and higher levels of organisational commitment, performance, trust in the organisation and management, organisational citizenship behaviour and acceptance of organisational rules and policies as well as decreased absenteeism (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Biswas & Kapil, 2017; Chiaburu & Lim, 2008; Colquitt, 2012; Colquitt et al., 2001; Faldetta, 2016; Gupta & Singh, 2013; Jiang et al., 2017; Lee & Wei, 2017; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013; Timmerman, 2016). Negative relationships, however, have also been reported. Cropanzano and Baron (1991) linked perceived injustice to increased levels of conflict in the workplace, while Huang and Huang (2016) found that it encourages employee silence. Employees who feel that they are treated unfairly by their employers may therefore intentionally hold back information, ideas, suggestions, doubts and concerns about potential issues of work and the organisation – they resign themselves to the prevailing situation and are unwilling to exert any effort to speak up, get involved or attempt to change the situation (Hatipoglu & Inelmen, 2018; Morrison, 2014; Pinder & Harlos, 2001; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003). Perceptions of injustice have furthermore been linked to higher turnover intentions (Flint & Haley, 2013; Timmerman, 2016) and counterproductive work behaviour (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Fox et al., 2001; Skarlicki et al., 1999), including a disregard for the organisation and its policies and resources (e.g. theft, vandalism and sabotage) (Bernerth et al., 2007; Greenberg, 1990a; Howard & Cordes, 2010; Jermier, Knights, & Nord, 1994).

While some studies have regarded organisational justice as a single construct affecting organisational outcomes, others have focused on specific dimensions of justice as predictors of organisational outcomes. Procedural justice, for instance, has been shown to be a stronger predictor of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, OCB and productivity (Jiang et al., 2017; Lee & Wei, 2017; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002), while distributive justice is regarded as a more important predictor of outcomes such as satisfaction with pay levels (Colquitt et al., 2001; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). It has also been posited that procedural justice and distributive justice are more robust predictors of organisational outcomes such as turnover intentions and CWB than interactional justice (El Akremi et al., 2010; Olkkonen & Lipponen, 2006; Xu et al., 2016).

The relationships between employees' justice perceptions and various attitudes and behavioural responses to such perceptions have therefore been extensively researched.

Colquitt et al. (2013) emphasise, however, that although contemporary social exchange theory offers a compelling explanation for employees' responses to justice perceptions, such an explanation is largely cognitive and attention should also be paid to affect. Employees may, for instance, respond to perceived injustice, by displaying negative emotions, such as anger, outrage, bitterness, resentment, emotional exhaustion, fear and envy or a desire for retribution (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Colquitt, 2012; Folger, 1993; Hart et al., 2016; Howard & Cordes, 2010; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003). This reflects some of the negative emotions associated with perceived psychological contract violation (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 2000) and organisational cynicism (Andersson, 1996; Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Dean et al., 1998; Reichers, Wanous, & Austin, 1997). It is therefore postulated that psychological contract violation and organisational cynicism are key affective responses to perceived injustice and that the negative emotions emanating from these responses will negatively influence employees' commitment towards the organisation and their discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation or individuals in it. In addition to the adverse effect on commitment and OCB, these negative affective responses to perceived injustice are expected to increase employees' commitment to trade unions and engage in CWB as a means of countering these injustices.

The relationships between psychological contract breach, violation and relational attitudes and behaviour were addressed in section 4.2.5, while the predicted mediating relationship between organisational cynicism and relational attitudes and behaviour is explored in Chapter 5. In the following sections, the focus is therefore on the relationships between employees' perceptions of organisational justice and selected attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) that are deemed essential in an employment relations context.

4.3.5.1 Perceived organisational justice as an antecedent of organisational commitment

The norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) lies at the core of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). In this theoretical context it is therefore conceivable that employees who perceive that they are treated fairly and equitably by their employing organisations will respond with a positive attitude, in the form of increased commitment (most notably affective commitment) towards the organisation (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2010; Lavelle et al., 2007; Lehmann-Willenbrock et al., 2013; Sharma & Dhar, 2016). This positive link between POJ (or in some instances, specific dimensions of organisational justice) and organisational commitment has been confirmed in various empirical studies (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Aryee, Budhwar, &

Chen, 2002; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Konovsky, 2000; Lavelle et al., 2007; Liao & Rupp, 2005; Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995; Masterson et al., 2000; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Ohana, 2014; Olkkonen & Lipponen, 2006; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002).

Both procedural and distributive justice have consistently been reported as significant predictors of organisational commitment (Colquitt et al., 2001; Najafi, Noruzy, Azar, Nazari-Shirkouhi, & Dalvand, 2011; Ponnu & Chuah, 2010; Ramamoorthy & Flood, 2004). However, procedural justice is regarded as a stronger predictor of organisationally directed responses such as organisational commitment, while distributive justice relates more strongly to personal outcomes such as job or pay satisfaction (Colquitt, 2012; Konovsky, 2000). This predictive strength of procedural justice over distributive justice in the POJ-organisational commitment relationship may be explained in terms of the two-factor model, which states that the fairness of the procedures used to reach a particular outcome affects reactions over and above the perceived fairness of the actual outcomes (e.g. Folger & Konovsky, 1989; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993; Tyler, 1990; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002).

This differential effect of procedural and distributive justice on organisational commitment has also been explained in terms of the relational model of distributive justice, which emphasises a long-term focus of justice evaluations (Akanbi & Ofoegbu, 2013). Employees are argued to be more tolerant of short-term inequity in terms of resources received from the organisation and thus develop a long-term commitment to the organisation as long as they can expect outcomes that will be more advantageous in the future. Perceived distributive injustice may therefore be overlooked when there is an expectation of future gain (Greenberg, 1990b). Employees do not have a similar tolerance for procedural injustice, and a perception that the organisation fails to follow fair procedures in decision-making and the allocation of resources is therefore more likely to result in reduced organisational commitment (Greenberg, 1990b; Masterson et al., 2000; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993).

Most of the research aimed at understanding the relationship between employees' perceptions of organisational justice and their concomitant commitment to their employing organisations has focused on the procedural and distributive dimensions of organisational justice. While research into organisational justice has thus differentiated between three distinct dimensions of justice (i.e. distributive, procedural and interactional), much of the empirical research has examined only one or two of these dimensions (Cheng, 2014). Research on the impact of employees' perceptions of interactional justice on their commitment to their employing organisations has received less attention in the literature.

Although some researchers (e.g. Masterson et al., 2000) support the agent-system model (Bies & Moag, 1986), in which procedural justice is a stronger predictor of organisational commitment than interactional justice, others (Ehrhardt, Shaffer, Chiu, & Luk, 2012; Lee & Wei, 2017) have argued that this finding is not necessarily true in non-Western cultures. Lee and Wei (2017) investigated the effect of Chinese employees' perceptions of organisational justice on affective commitment and found interactional justice to be a stronger predictor of affective commitment in collectivist cultures. Ehrhardt et al. (2012) obtained similar results in Hong Kong, reporting that interactional justice was a stronger predictor of both affective and normative commitment than distributive justice. These findings suggest that there is a need to investigate not only the predictive relationship between organisational justice and organisational commitment, but also to follow an integrative approach by incorporating all three organisational justice dimensions in a single study in order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the differential impact that employees' perceptions of each of these dimensions of organisational justice may have on their commitment towards their employing organisations. Furthermore, in order to better understand the nature of the relationships between the various dimensions of organisational justice and organisational commitment, the relationship should be studied in different cultural contexts. The aim of this study was to contribute towards a better understanding of the influence of employees' justice perceptions by incorporating all three dimensions of justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) in a South African context, which is unique in terms of its cultural diversity. It is expected that various subcultures in South Africa show a greater disposition towards individualism or collectivism, and that this disposition will moderate the relationship between employees' justice perceptions and their attitudes towards and behaviour in their employing organisations. This consideration is explored in greater detail in Chapter 6.

4.3.5.2 *Perceived organisational justice as an antecedent of union commitment*

The construct of union commitment (Gordon, Philpot, Burt, Thompson, & Spiller, 1980b) is closely related to Mowday et al.'s (1982) commonly accepted definition of organisational commitment as the variable that binds an individual to the organisation. Union commitment therefore relates to the variable that binds trade union members to a union. Given the undisputed relationship established between POJ and organisational commitment, it is expected that similar (although contrasting) relationships are likely to exist between employees' perceptions of justice in their organisations (as experienced in their relationships with the organisation and the trade union) and their commitment towards a trade union.

However, research on union commitment has focused mainly on trade union members' perceptions of fairness in their interaction with union leaders and officials and how this may impact on their attitudes and behaviour (e.g. union commitment and union participation) towards the trade union (Brown Johnson & Jarley, 2004; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Fuller & Hester, 2001; Skarlicki & Latham, 1997; Wöcke & Marais, 2016). Although social movement unionism, which emphasises workplace dignity and social justice, has received support in the South African employment relations environment and literature since the publication of the Wiehahn Commission's recommendations in 1979 (Anstey, 2013; Bhorat et al., 2014; Webster, 2013), there seems to be a dearth of research on the potential impact of perceived injustice in the workplace on employees' commitment towards a trade union. Instead, extant literature has viewed job dissatisfaction as a central antecedent of employees' loyalty towards a trade union and participation in its activities (Brown Johnson & Jarley, 2004; Buttigieg et al., 2007). This is notwithstanding Kelly's (1998) assertion almost two decades ago that the perception of and response to injustice should form the principal intellectual agenda for employment relations.

Kelly (1998) suggested that injustices perceived by employees in the workplace are mostly attributed to their employers, irrespective of their origin (e.g. a specific organisational representative or the state), and that these perceptions serve as the main impetus for collectively mobilising workers in an attempt to rectify these injustices. Kelly (1998), however, emphasised that individual perceptions of injustice are insufficient to result in employees directing their loyalties towards the trade union. A strong sense of group cohesion and identity is needed. If a trade union can address this sense of belonging, it may succeed in convincing employees that their perceived injustices in the workplace can be rectified by turning over their loyalties to the trade union (Murphy & Turner, 2016). Deery et al. (1994) reported that employees who experience a sense of distributive injustice in the workplace are more likely to express high levels of willingness to work for and responsibility towards trade unions. One would thus expect employees' decision to affiliate with and commit to a trade union to be influenced by injustices perceived in the workplace. Not all employees who perceive injustices, however, turn to trade unions for assistance. The value that employees attach to group membership (i.e. those with a more collectivistic disposition) may be a determining factor (Blader, 2007; Buttigieg et al., 2007; Kelly & Kelly, 1994). In other words, collectivistic individuals who perceive injustice in their workplaces will be more inclined to turn to a trade union in an attempt to ensure fair treatment and the equitable distribution of resources.

Some exploratory research on employees' perceptions of injustice in the workplace and the impact of these perceptions on union commitment has been conducted. For instance, Blader

(2007) found that employees' positions on unionisation (i.e. relating to their organisations as individuals or as members of a collective) are shaped not only by economic concerns, but also by their perceptions of procedural justice as well as social identity. Although distributive justice (i.e. fair distribution of resources) is often seen as the focus in employer-trade union relations, the impact of individuals' perceptions of procedural fairness on their views on unionisation cannot be underestimated, especially given the predictive strength of procedural justice over distributive justice in the organisational justice literature (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993; Tyler, 1990; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002). Since procedural justice is a key determinant of how employees engage with their organisations (Cropanzano, Rupp, et al., 2001; Tyler & Blader, 2003), it stands to reason that employees' perceptions of procedural unfairness will increase their support of and commitment towards a trade union (Blader, 2007; Buttigieg et al., 2007). This expectation is consistent with the two-factor theory, which states that individuals' reactions to their perceptions of their organisations as an entity are mostly related to their perceptions of procedural justice, while distributive justice perceptions influence their response to specific issues (e.g. low wages or proposed restructuring) (Blader, 2007; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992).

In order to better understand the nature of the relationships between the various dimensions of organisational justice and organisational and union commitment, this study explored the direct relationships between the three dimensions of perceived organisational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) and organisational and union commitment, respectively. In addition, the differential effects of POJ on organisational and union commitment were examined (see Figure 4.8).

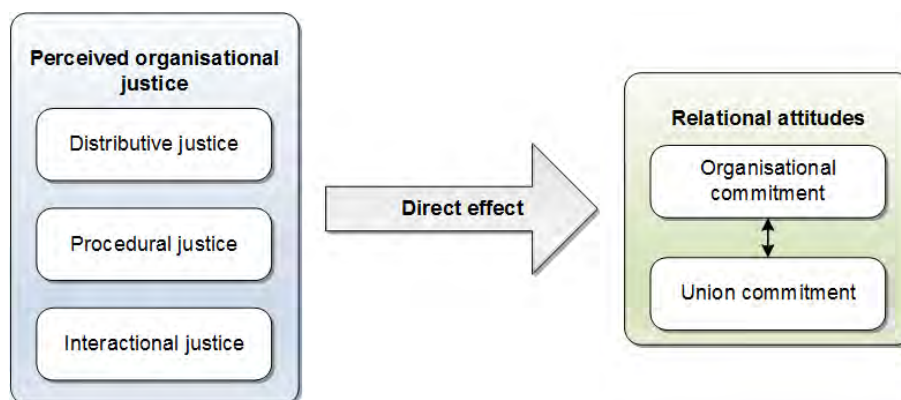


Figure 4.8. Direct and Differential Relationships between Perceived Organisational Justice and Organisational and Union Commitment

The direct relationship between POJ and organisation commitment has been well established in the literature. However, less attention has been paid to the impact that perceived injustice in the workplace may have on employees' commitment towards a trade union. Perceived unfairness in terms of all three dimensions of organisational justice is expected to lead to a decrease in organisational commitment and an increase in union commitment in instances where individuals are trade union members, with procedural justice being the strongest predictor in both instances. It is furthermore expected that employees' disposition towards individualism/collectivism will influence not only what they perceive as unfair, but also how they react to such perceptions. While collectivist employees are expected to place greater value on procedural and interactional justice and rely on a trade union to restore injustice in the workplace, individualistic employees are more likely to value justice in the distribution of resources. When individualistic employees perceive injustice in the workplace they will not be inclined to resort to collective action to rectify such injustice, but will more likely adjust their commitment towards the organisation. The expected moderating role of individualism/collectivism in this relationship is explored in greater detail in Chapter 6.

4.3.5.3 Perceived organisational justice as an antecedent of organisational citizenship behaviour

In order to direct their behaviour towards the advancement of the organisation and people in it, employees must feel that they are respected and treated fairly (Moorman, 1991). This corresponds with Organ's (1988, 1990a) conceptualisation of OCB from a social exchange perspective (Blau, 1964), whereby it is postulated that employees who perceive that they are fairly treated by their employing organisations will reciprocate by engaging in discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation and its people (Colquitt et al., 2013). Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) may therefore be regarded as viable theoretical underpinnings for understanding how positive actions by organisations (or organisational representatives) are likely to result in actions by employees that are beneficial to the organisation and its people (Colquitt et al., 2013).

Organisational citizenship behaviour may be categorised in terms of the beneficiaries of the actions, namely the organisation as a whole (OCB-O) or individuals in it (OCB-I) (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Research on the relationship between organisational justice perceptions and OCB have reported what Lavelle et al. (2007) termed a "target similarity effect", implying that the relationships between constructs are stronger when the constructs refer to the same target. Hence, given the focus of this study on employees' reactions to the fairness of

treatment received from their organisation as a single anthropomorphic entity (Cropanzano, Byrne, et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Lavelle et al., 2007; Morrison & Robinson, 1997), one would expect the emphasis to be on OCB directed at the organisation (OCB-O) only. However, in order to test Lavelle et al.'s (2007) target similarity model in a South African organisational context, both OCB-O and OCB-I are included. Because individuals (e.g. supervisors, managers or employment relations practitioners) often serve as the face of the organisation to employees (sharing the organisation's characteristics and identity) (Colquitt et al., 2013; Lilly, 2015), it is expected that perceived justice in employees' interactions with such individuals may not only result in OCB directed towards these individuals but also towards the organisation as a whole. Positive relationships between all three dimensions of organisational justice and both OCB-O and OCB-I are therefore anticipated, although the strength of these relationships may differ (Rupp et al., 2014).

It is furthermore expected that a better understanding of the relationship between employees' perceptions of organisational justice and OCB may be gained by integrating organisational justice theory with psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989, 1995) and organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986) theory. In terms of these theoretical underpinnings, one would expect employees who experience fairness and equity in their organisations to view this as a fulfilment of the employer's obligations in terms of the psychological contract (Moorman & Byrne, 2005) and an indication that they are valued and cared for by their employer (Cheung, 2013). Hence, employees who feel that they are valued and treated with respect and understanding by their employer may react with an increased willingness to engage in behaviour aimed at advancing the organisation, although this behaviour is not part of their formal job requirements.

Employees continuously make judgements about the equitable distribution of resources and fair treatment in their organisations (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2010). These judgements inform their perceptions of justice and, if positive, serve as an inducement associated with high-quality social exchange relationships, which, in turn, are reciprocated by positive employee behaviour aimed at advancing the organisation and people in it (Colquitt et al., 2014; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993a). This positive relationship between POJ and OCB has been confirmed in a number of studies involving diverse samples and industries (Al Afari & Abu Elanain, 2014; Chiang et al., 2013; Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016; Choi, Moon, Ko, & Kim, 2014; Colquitt et al., 2013, 2014; Daly, DuBose, Owyar-Hosseini, Baik, & Stark, 2015; Elamin & Tlaiss, 2015; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Moorman, 1991; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993a; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Özbek et al., 2016; Thornton & Rupp, 2016; Zhang & Agarwal, 2009) and is therefore well established in extant literature.

While some researchers focus specifically on the direct relationship between these two constructs (Brebels, De Cremer, & Van Dijke, 2014; Elamin & Tlaiss, 2015; Hassan et al., 2017; Nwibere, 2014; Özbek et al., 2016), others view POJ as an intervening variable between organisational events and OCB as reciprocal behaviour. For instance, Hart et al. (2016) explored the mediating role of POJ in the relationship between downsizing and OCB, while Zhang and Agarwal (2009) focused on the intervening role of POJ in the relationship between HR practices (empowerment, psychological contract fulfilment and communication) and workplace outcomes (OCB and turnover intention). Others argue that the relationship between POJ and OCB may be mediated by factors such as organisational trust (Chiang et al., 2013; Guh et al., 2013; Ismail, 2015; Lehmann-Willenbrock et al., 2013), perceived organisational support (Masterson et al., 2000), organisational commitment (Guh et al., 2013; Lavelle et al., 2007; Lehmann-Willenbrock et al., 2013) or cynicism (Evans et al., 2010). Irrespective of the nature of the relationship (direct or indirect) there seems to be consensus in the literature that employees' positive perceptions of justice in their organisations encourage them to exhibit behaviour that benefits the organisation or people in it, but is beyond that which is formally required (Hassan et al., 2017).

The converse is also true in that employees who feel that they have been treated unfairly by their organisation or observe inequity in the workplace are likely to reciprocate by adjusting their attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation (Chiang et al., 2013). Attitudinal responses may include a decrease in organisational commitment or an increase in union commitment, as argued in the previous sections, while behavioural responses relate to both in-role and extra-role behaviour in the workplace (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2010). Employees' job performance (in-role behaviour) forms part of the formal contract of employment and, although it may be influenced by employees' justice perceptions (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014), it does not form part of the scope of this study, which focuses on the informal (relational) dimension of the employer-employee relationship. The emphasis in this study is on employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace or OCB, which is often used by employees as a currency in response to perceived justice or injustice in the workplace (Hart et al., 2016; Jepsen & Rodwell, 2010; Zhao et al., 2007).

Researchers use different approaches in examining the relationships between POJ and employees' attitudinal and behavioural responses to justice judgements. While some (e.g. Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Barclay & Kiefer, 2014) prefer to use an overall justice perception, others focus on specific dimensions of justice and their relationship to OCB (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Moorman, 1991; Organ & Moorman, 1993; Williams, Pitre, & Zainuba, 2002). It has, for instance, been reported that perceptions of procedural justice

enhance employees' trust in their employing organisations and its managers (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994), while perceived distributive justice increases feelings of satisfaction (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993a) and positive relationships with supervisors (i.e. interactional justice) contribute to obedience, participation and loyalty among employees (Sousa & Vala, 2002). In all three instances, employees' positive perceptions and experiences are likely to be reciprocated by an increased willingness to engage in OCB (Özbek et al., 2016). Although all three justice dimensions have thus been found to positively impact on OCB (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Haque & Aslam, 2011; Zhang & Agarwal, 2009), the strength of their relationships to OCB have been shown to differ (Karriker & Williams, 2009). For instance, Shim and Faerman (2017) report that procedural justice is the strongest predictor of OCB. It has also been reported that the strength of the relationships between the different dimensions of justice and OCB differ, depending on the cultural context (Elamin & Tlaiss, 2015; Özbek et al., 2016). Individualism/collectivism as a proxy for cultural disposition and its moderating effect on the POJ-OCB relationship are further explored in Chapter 6.

Another approach adopted by researchers entails focusing on specific dimensions of justice and their differential effect on OCB-O and OCB-I. It has, for instance, been reported that employees' perceptions of procedural justice are more strongly related to OCB-O, while their interactional justice judgements more strongly predict OCB-I (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Lilly, 2015; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). Furthermore, employees' perceptions of distributive, procedural and interactive justice in their organisation are interrelated, which means that each of these dimensions may have a direct (e.g. procedural justice → OCB) or indirect (e.g. procedural justice → distributive justice → OCB) impact on OCB (Moorman, 1991).

Organ (1988) suggested that the key to understanding how distributive justice influences OCB is comprehending the interrelationship between economic and social exchanges. If employees define their relationships with their employers as economic exchanges only, distributive justice will have little, if any, effect on OCB (empirically confirmed by Chiang et al., 2013). Reciprocation in an economic exchange would be limited to in-role behaviour because employees would see little cause to go beyond the specific tenets of the employment contract. However, if employees define their relationships with employers as social exchanges, reciprocation would likely entail behaviour that exists outside of any specific contractual promise. An employee would provide OCB, because doing so would be consistent with the positive quality of the employment relationship, not because it is required in terms of his or her contract of employment. Therefore, in social exchange relationships, an employee may believe that OCB is an appropriate response to distributive justice even though such behaviour

is not directly rewarded. This positive relationship between perceived distributive fairness and OCB has been confirmed in the literature (Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997). However, it has been argued that the relationship between distributive justice perceptions and OCB is stronger in collectivist cultures than in individualist cultures (Hassan et al., 2017).

Procedural justice influences OCB because the justice judgements made by employees affect the degree to which they believe that their employing organisations value them and care for their well-being (Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998). Moorman et al. (1998) examined the relationship between procedural justice and OCB and found a mediating effect: Procedural justice was found to influence POS, which, in turn, prompts employees to reciprocate with OCB. The value of fair procedures in the workplace may also lie in its contribution to ensuring the fair distribution of resources (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993a). Therefore, if procedural justice is viewed as a means to enhance distributive justice in the workplace, the relationship between procedural justice and OCB should be seen as indirect and interpreted through the effect of distributive justice on OCB. However, research on procedural justice has also supported procedural justice-OCB effects independent of distributive justice (Moorman, 1991), thereby suggesting that procedural justice may influence OCB independently of any influence it has on perceptions of distributive justice (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993a).

Interactional justice refers to the fairness of the treatment an employee receives in the enactment of formal procedures or in the explanation of those procedures (Bies, 2001; Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt et al., 2005). It has been reported in the literature that, when employers encourage open communication and treat their employees with dignity and respect, this increases their perceptions of interactional justice and thus leads to an increased willingness to engage in OCB (Erkutlu, 2011; Moorman, 1991). This positive relationship between interactional justice perceptions and OCB may be strengthened if an employer uses fair procedures in the decision-making process (Fassina, Jones, & Uggerslev, 2008). It has furthermore been posited that interactional justice is a better predictor of OCB than either procedural or distributive justice (Ball, Treviño, & Sims Jr., 1994; Moorman, 1991).

The relationship between POJ and OCB as reported above is illustrated in Figure 4.9.

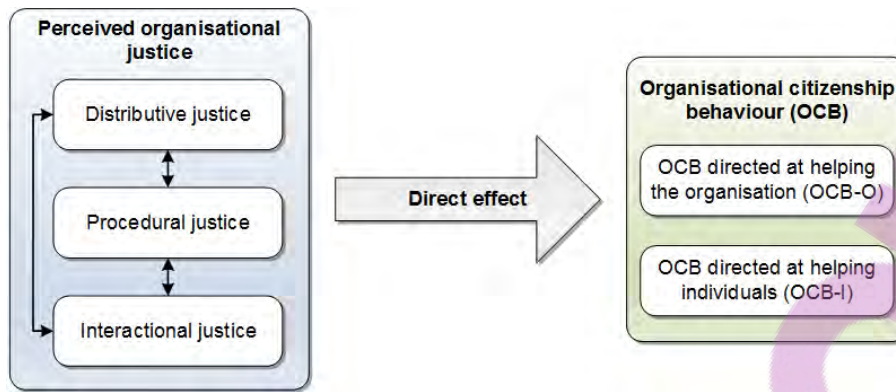


Figure 4.9. Direct Relationship between Perceived Organisational and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

In summary, the relationship between POJ and OCB has been explained mainly by drawing on social exchange theory. Various relationships have been shown to exist. This includes not only a direct relationship between the two variables, but also an indirect relationship with various constructs denoting the value of the exchange relationship as mediating variables. Although research has often focused on trust as an indicator of the quality of a social exchange relationship, there is a dearth of research on the impact of organisational cynicism as an intervening variable. In this study, the role of organisational cynicism and trust as possible mediating variables in this relationship was explored (see Chapter 5).

It has also been shown that the various dimensions of organisational justice as well as the source of justice perceptions may have differentiating effects on employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace. It is therefore expected that the strength of the relationship between employees' perceptions of justice and their willingness to engage in OCB (including both OCB-O and OCB-I) may differ for each of the dimensions. Furthermore, the different dimensions of justice may be interrelated in the POJ-OCB relationship.

4.3.5.4 *Perceived organisational justice as an antecedent of counterproductive work behaviour*

In the previous section, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) was relied upon to argue that fair treatment of employees by their employers may result in a willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour (i.e. behaviour that benefits the organisation and its people). Although it seems intuitive that the same theoretical foundation can be used to support the counterargument that employees who experience unfairness and inequity in their workplaces are more likely to engage in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or people in the

organisation, Blau's (1964) theory did not highlight counterproductive work behaviour (CWB). Blau (1964) did not view the avoidance of negative behaviour as a form of reciprocation for received inducements. Gouldner (1960), however, did describe refraining from harming others as a form of reciprocity, while Greenberg and Scott (1996) used social exchange arguments to explain the negative relationship between POJ and theft in the workplace. Greenberg (1990a) argued that employees who experience a negative event in the workplace (e.g. a pay cut) and are treated unfairly (e.g. by using inappropriate procedures or communication methods), are more likely to take part in CWB than employees who experience the same event but are treated fairly. Social exchange theory has since been used as a theoretical framework by others to better understand the relationship between POJ and CWB (e.g. Chen & Mykletun, 2015; Colquitt et al., 2013; El Akremi et al., 2010; Thornton & Rupp, 2016; Zribi & Souai, 2013). Reynolds et al. (2015) posit that employees who experience injustice in their working environments may resort to CWB to restore the perceived relational imbalance. Such behaviour may include, for instance, sabotage and theft of company property and other retaliatory behaviour aimed at punishing the organisation and/or its representatives in response to perceived injustice (Greenberg, 1990a; Skarlicki, Van Jaarsveld, & Walker, 2008). Such behaviour may even extend to causing harm through social media, cyber loafing and engaging in personal business while at work (i.e. time banditry) (Klotz & Buckley, 2013).

It has also been suggested that employees' emotional reactions to perceived injustice may mediate the POJ-CWB relationship (Colquitt et al., 2013). For instance, employees who feel that they are treated with insincerity and disrespect by their employer or that resources are distributed disproportionately in their organisations, may react by becoming frustrated or disillusioned. This leads to an increased negative perception of the organisation and its representatives and encourages behaviour that is disparaging and critical towards the organisation. Such behaviour, termed "counterproductive work behaviour" (CWB) in the literature, may include any employee behaviour that is deviant or retaliatory in nature and intended to harm the organisation or hinder organisational goal achievement (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett & DeVore, 2001). Examples of such behaviour include disciplinary problems, theft, poor attendance, tardiness, substance abuse, accidents, sabotage, sexual harassment, gossiping and verbal and physical abuse (Colquitt et al., 2013; Conlon et al., 2005). More extreme examples of CWB behaviour aimed at retaliating against perceived injustice include calling in sick when not ill, damaging company property, wasting company materials and disobeying legitimate instructions from a supervisor or manager (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki et al., 1999). In a unionised environment, CWB may include behaviour displayed during collective action such as taking part in a strike, intimidation, sabotage of

company property during a strike and general violence during protest action (Kelloway et al., 2010).

Similar to the relationship between POJ and OCB, the POJ-CWB relationship has also been studied as both a direct or indirect relationship. Extant literature relies to a great extent on social exchange theory whereby the quality of the exchange relationship (determined by trust, organisational commitment, perceived organisational support and leader-member exchange) is regarded as the intervening variable in the POJ-CWB relationship (Colquitt et al., 2013; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). However, Colquitt et al. (2013) reported direct negative relationships between procedural, distributive and informational justice and CWB irrespective of the quality of the exchange relationship. The indirect relationships reported relate mainly to employees' emotional reactions to perceived injustice. For instance, the relationship between POJ and CWB has been shown to be mediated by affective constructs such as negative emotion (Fox et al., 2001) and a desire for revenge (Jones, 2009). For the purposes of this study, organisational cynicism and trust as possible intervening variables in the POJ-CWB relationship were considered. It is postulated that the negative emotional and behavioural reactions associated with cynicism towards the organisation or its managers may affect employees' propensity for engaging in CWB. Therefore, employees who react to negative work-related perceptions or work experiences by becoming cynical towards the organisation or its managers are more likely than those who experience the same events but do not become cynical, to engage in CWB. Furthermore, it is possible that high levels of perceived injustice in organisations may foster a belief among employees that their employers do not care for their needs and would be content in misusing their power to exploit vulnerable workers if it would benefit the organisation. Employees' trust in the organisation is thus likely to decrease if the levels of perceived injustice are high. Organisational cynicism and trust as mediating variables in the relationship between POJ and CWB are further explored in Chapter 5.

As with OCB, Lavelle et al.'s (2007) target similarity model is used in CWB research to differentiate between CWB directed towards the organisation as a whole and CWB directed towards individuals in the organisation (e.g. co-workers or supervisors). Researchers have investigated the relationships between POJ and CWB directed towards the organisation (CWB-O) or individuals in it (CWB-I). The results, however, have been inconclusive. For instance, Aquino et al. (1999) found that perceived procedural injustice predicts CWB-O, while distributive injustice has a strong relationship with CWB-I and interactional injustice predicts both CWB-O and CWB-I. In contrast, Fox et al. (2001) found significant relationships between perceived distributive injustice and CWB-O as well as perceived procedural injustice and both CWB-O and CWB-I. Berry et al. (2007) reported that procedural justice perceptions had

stronger correlations with CWB-O and CWB-I than did distributive justice perceptions. It has also been shown that, even when perceived injustice is attributed to an individual, it may elicit behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation as a whole (CWB-O) or individual organisational representatives (CWB-I). Employees often regard organisational representatives as the face of the organisation, and the actions of these individuals therefore typify organisational treatment resulting in a reciprocal reaction towards the organisation (Yang, Johnson, Zhang, Spector, & Xu, 2013). In order to gain a better understanding of the relationships between employees' justice perceptions and CWB, both dimensions of CWB (i.e. CWB-O and CWB-I) are therefore included in the proposed psychological framework. It is expected that negative relationships between POJ and both CWB-O and CWB-I will be found, but that the strength of these relationships may differ (Colquitt et al., 2013). It is furthermore expected that the strength of the relationships will differ for the different justice dimensions (Aquino et al., 1999).

The relationship between POJ and CWB as outlined above is illustrated in Figure 4.10.

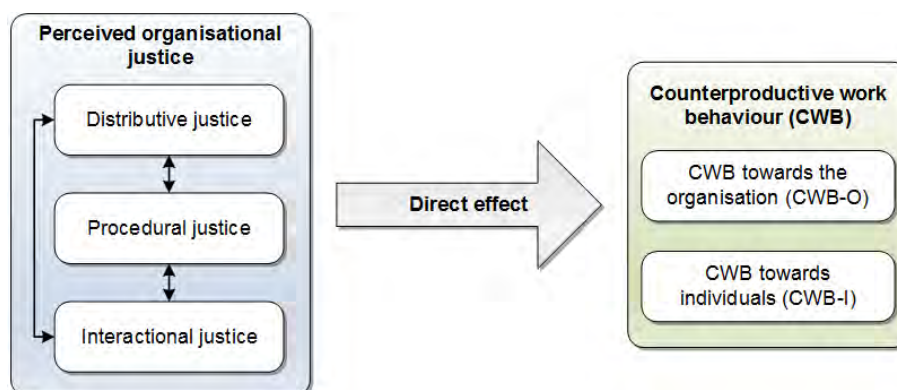


Figure 4.10. Direct Relationship between Perceived Organisational Justice and Counterproductive Work Behaviour

In summary, extant literature has drawn mainly on social exchange theory to explain the direct relationship between POJ and CWB. In terms of this theory, it may be expected that employees who perceive injustice in their workplaces may react by engaging in negative retaliatory behaviour. An employee's reaction may be mediated by his or her affective reactions to perceived injustice (e.g. organisational cynicism) or the quality of the exchange relationship reflected by, say, the levels of trust in the organisation and its managers, the employee's commitment towards the organisation and the level of support perceived to be offered by the organisation. It is furthermore expected that employees' disposition towards individualism/collectivism may influence their sensitivity towards and tolerance of perceived injustice, thereby affecting their willingness to engage in CWB as a means of rectifying

injustice. The expected intervening effect of organisational cynicism and trust and the moderating role of individualism/collectivism in this relationship are explored in greater detail in Chapters 5 and 6.

It is also expected that the strength of the relationship between employees' perceptions of justice and their propensity to engage in CWB (including both CWB-O and CWB-I) will differ for each of the justice dimensions. As proposed for the POJ-OCB relationship, it is suggested that the different dimensions of justice may be interrelated in the POJ-CWB relationship.

4.3.6 Perceived organisational justice in a South African employment relations context

As indicated in Chapter 2, the notion of fairness and justice is central to employment relations (Bendix, 2015; Nel et al., 2016). When employees perceive that they are not treated fairly by their employers, this may result in a further deterioration of relations that are already adversarial in nature. Unfairness in the employment relationship is often addressed by means of legal processes and formal organisational procedures. However, these processes and procedures are directed at the formal (legal) and economic dimensions of the employment relationship and will, in all likelihood, not succeed in remedying severed employer-employee relations, even if they help to ensure fairness and equity in terms of decision-making processes and resource distribution.

Although the significance of the formal employer-employee relationship is not repudiated in this study, the emphasis is on the informal social dimension and gaining a better understanding of relational factors that impact on employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. The adversarial nature of employment relations, especially in the highly unionised South African organisational context, is acknowledged, but it is argued that, by better understanding the antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, the parties in the employment relationship may find ways to balance their simultaneously convergent and divergent interests in just and equitable ways (Nel et al., 2016; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012).

It is furthermore acknowledged that trade unions (i.e. the collective dimension of employment relations) play a significant role in employer-employee relations in South African workplaces. Although the emphasis in this study is on individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences, negative perceptions and experiences are expected to encourage affiliation with

and loyalty to trade unions and concomitant collective action as a way of responding to perceived unfairness or inequity (Baron & Pfeffer, 1994). However, individuals do not always resort to trade unions and collective action to find balance in the employer-employee relationship. Their propensity to join and commit to a trade union and to take part in collective action instigated by the trade union (often to the organisation's detriment) may be influenced by various factors such as their cultural values (individualistic/collectivistic disposition) or the level of support they receive from the organisation, which is regarded as being indicative of the quality of the social exchange relationship (Potgieter et al., 2015).

The individual-level focus of this study is aimed at gaining a better understanding of the social exchange relationship between employees and their employing organisations. It is argued that viewing this relationship from a social exchange perspective (Blau, 1964), and more specifically the intangible needs of employees, rather than focusing on the economic or transactional exchanges between employers and employees, which is often the focus of employment relations research, and finding ways to enhance the quality of these exchanges, will pave the way for enhancing positive employee attitudes and behaviour and thereby ensure more effective employment relations.

In terms of social exchange theory, it can be argued that positive perceptions of organisational justice may be regarded as a gesture of goodwill on the part of the organisation which, in turn, engenders an obligation on the part of employees to reciprocate by displaying positive attitudes (e.g. organisational commitment) and engaging in behaviour that benefits the organisation and people in it (OCB) (Agarwal, 2014). Employees' perceptions of justice in the workplace are therefore regarded as important predictors of relational attitudes and behaviour that may contribute to the effectiveness of employment relations and hence the success of the organisation.

4.3.7 Summary

For the purposes of this study, employees' perceptions of organisational justice are viewed from a social exchange (Blau, 1964) perspective. The primary theories relied upon are those of Moorman (1991) and Colquitt (2001), which confirm the multidimensionality of organisational justice, but emphasise the need for an integrative approach instead of focusing on a single dimension.

Perceived organisational justice is regarded as reactive in nature, relating to employees' perceptions of specific workplace events or across time and multiple events. These

perceptions influence both reactions in the present and future expectations (Fortin et al., 2016). Employees make justice judgements by assessing the equitable distribution of resources in their organisations. Inequity is often observed because of power imbalances resulting in perceived exploitation (Walster et al., 1973; Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978) and by making comparisons. Employees do not only compare what they receive from the organisation to what others (both inside and outside the organisation) receive (relative deprivation theory, Stouffer et al., 1949), but also to their own expectations (distributive justice theory, Homans, 1961). They expect to receive certain returns (e.g. fair remuneration, benefits and status) on the investments (e.g. effort, loyalty and commitment) they make in the organisation. Their judgements in terms of justice, however, are not only dependent on equitable distribution of resources (distributive justice), but also on the procedures used by the employer to make decisions in terms of the distribution process (procedural justice) and the quality of interpersonal treatment received from the employer (interactional justice) (Bies & Moag, 1986; Moorman, 1991).

When employees conclude that their expectations have not been met (i.e. inequity in resource allocation, procedural unfairness or unfair treatment by organisational representatives), this is expected to give rise to reciprocal actions (Adams, 1965). These actions may be either cognitive (e.g. re-evaluating expectations), attitudinal (e.g. decreasing their loyalty and commitment to the organisation) or behavioural (e.g. reducing task or discretionary effort) (Adams, 1965). Employees' judgements in terms of the three justice dimensions (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) are expected to have differentiating effects on outcomes, with interactional and procedural justice perceptions anticipated as the strongest predictors of relational outcomes (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). Furthermore, employees' disposition towards individualism/collectivism (see Chapter 6) will determine whether their justice judgements are determined by self-interest or social concerns, resulting in different criteria being used in justice judgements and different responses to perceived injustice (Heffernan, 2012).

It was also shown in this section that employees' perceptions of justice are subjective in nature and therefore influenced by individual differences in terms of personal characteristics or dispositions (Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015; Johnston et al., 2016; Taggar & Kuron, 2016). Person-centred variables affecting justice perceptions that were identified in the literature include employment status, tenure, job level, education, age, gender, population group and union membership. The impact of these individual differences on individuals' perceptions of justice in their organisations and their reactions to perceived injustice were discussed.

The section concluded by showing how employees' justice perceptions may influence their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. POJ was postulated to be an antecedent of selected relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) that were deemed essential in enhancing positive employment relations. The centrality of justice in employment relations and the importance of addressing justice perceptions in terms of social exchange were emphasised.

The main theoretical findings relating to POJ as an antecedent of relational attitudes and behaviour and its relevance in enhancing employment relations are summarised in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Theoretical Integration: Perceived Organisational Justice

Theoretical models adopted	Moorman (1991) and Colquitt's (2001) conceptualisations of POS as a multidimensional construct	
Definition of perceived organisational justice	Perceived organisational justice refers to employees' perceptions of the fairness of treatment received from the organisation and their reactions (attitudes and behaviour) to those perceptions in an organisational context (Greenberg, 1987; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013).	
Core constructs	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	
Person-centred variables impacting on perceived organisational justice	Employment status Job level Age Education level	Tenure Gender Population group Union membership
Relational outcomes of perceived organisational injustice in an ER context	<p>Positive relationships between POJ and</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> organisational commitment organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) <p>Negative relationships between POJ and</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> union commitment counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) <p>Stronger relationships are expected between POJ and organisationally directed behaviour (i.e. OCB-O and CWB-O) than individually directed behaviour (i.e. OCB-I and CWB-I).</p>	

	Employees' judgements in terms of the three justice dimensions are expected to have differentiating effects on outcomes, with interactional and procedural justice perceptions expected to be the strongest predictors of relational outcomes.
Relevance in enhancing employment relations	Employees' perceptions of justice in their organisations are central to employment relations. When employees perceive injustice or inequity in their workplaces, they respond by adjusting their attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation. A better understanding of organisational justice, and more specifically employees' perceptions of and reaction to injustice in the workplace, is essential for employers and employees to find common ground and enhance relations in the workplace.

Colquitt et al. (2013) suggested that employees' attitudes and behaviour may be better explained by building specific exchange quality perceptions into proposed models. It was established in the preceding sections (see section 4.2) that the extent to which employers are seen to breach their obligations in terms of the psychological contract, employees' emotional responses to such events (i.e. psychological contract violation) and their perceptions of justice in their organisations may be regarded as being indicative of the quality of the social exchange relationship with their employing organisations. When support is considered at the organisational level (i.e. in terms of the way employees are treated by their employing organisation as a single entity rather than individual interactions between employees and supervisors), it is common to treat perceptions of organisational support as a measure of social exchange (Cameron, Cropanzano, & Vandenberghe, 2007; Karriker & Williams, 2009; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Thus, within a social exchange framework, POS may also be regarded as an indication of the quality of the social exchange relationship (Colquitt et al., 2013). All three of these variables (psychological contract violation, POJ and POS), relating to employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences, may thus shape their perceptions about the quality of the social exchange relationships they experience with their employing organisations. By including these variables as antecedents in the conceptualised framework, it is anticipated that a more accurate understanding may be obtained of the factors that shape relational attitudes and behaviour in a South African organisational context.

In the next section, POS as an indication of the quality of the social exchange relationship and an antecedent of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace is discussed.

4.4 PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT (POS)

Employees' notion of organisational support reflects the extent to which they perceive their employing organisations as caring for their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Organisational support is often compared with organisational commitment in that the latter reflects an employee's emotional attachment to the organisation, while organisational support reflects the organisation's emotional attachment to its employees. In this section, POS is conceptualised and relevant theoretical models are presented, culminating in the approach to POS adopted in this study. Drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), it is postulated that employees who regard their employing organisations as supportive and caring, will reciprocate by displaying higher levels of commitment to the organisation and engaging in positive behaviour.

4.4.1 Conceptualisation of perceived organisational support

Perceived organisational support (POS) is an affect-free cognition (Wayne et al., 2009), which encompasses the degree to which employees' perceive that the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 500). It is a descriptive overall belief about the organisation that is formed over the long term (Shore & Tetrick, 1991). Employees' perceptions of organisational support are reflective of their beliefs about the organisation as a single employing entity (not specific people in the organisation) and formed over an extended period (not reflective of a single event). POS is therefore viewed as an experience-based attribution that an employee ascribes to his or her employing organisation. It reflects the employees' perceptions of the benevolent or malevolent intentions of the organisation as operationalised in its policies, procedures and practices (Eisenberger et al., 2001, p. 42).

4.4.2 Theoretical model of perceived organisational support

Research on perceived organisational support (POS) is grounded in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). Viewing employment as the trade of dedication, effort and loyalty for tangible benefits and social rewards enabled researchers to better understand the relationship between employees' emotional commitment to their employing organisations and their organisations' observed commitment to them (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The need expressed by employees to be valued and cared for and specifically their perceptions in terms of the extent to which their organisations succeed in

fulfilling these needs, resulted in the development of POS as a core construct aimed at better understanding employer-employee relations (Caesens, Stinglhamber, & Ohana, 2016; Eisenberger et al., 1986).

In their seminal work on POS, Eisenberger and colleagues (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990) argued that employees' perceptions of organisational support, which reflect their evaluation of the organisation's role in the exchange relationship, are essential components of the social exchange process as these perceptions influence how they reciprocate in terms of attitudes and behaviour. Employees who feel valued by their employers become emotionally committed to the organisation and consequently display higher levels of performance and are less likely to be absent or consider leaving the organisation. If employees' constructive behaviour is, in turn, reciprocated by tangible benefits and social rewards, their perceptions of organisational support increase. Thus, by applying the reciprocity norm to their relationship both parties (employer and employee) benefit (Caesens, Stinglhamber, et al., 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Eisenberger et al. (1986, 1990) postulated that employees regard the exchange relationship with their employing organisations as an affiliation with a more powerful entity with human-like qualities. The employer-employee exchange relationship as it relates to POS is thus explained as follows: Employees make attributions about their employing organisation's benevolence or malevolence, which leads to the formation of overall beliefs about the extent to which the organisation values their contributions, the intentions of the organisation and the prospects of being treated beneficially in a variety of circumstances (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). These beliefs are based on the actions of various organisational representatives (e.g. supervisors, managers or employment relations practitioners) (Kurtessis et al., 2017). However, these representatives are not regarded as individuals with their own motives, but rather as representatives of the organisation's intentions (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Levinson, 1965). In forming their beliefs about the organisation, employees therefore anthropomorphise the organisation, giving it human-like qualities with specific dispositional traits and motives, with the aim of better understanding the way they are treated and can be expected to be treated in future (Byrne, Pitts, Chiaburu, & Steiner, 2011; Cropanzano, Byrne, et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1997; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Lavelle et al., 2007). This humanisation of the organisation is abetted by its legal, moral and financial responsibility for the actions of its representatives; by organisational policies, procedures and practices that provide continuity and prescribe role behaviour; and by the power the

organisation's representatives exert over individual employees (Kim et al., 2016; Levinson, 1965; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

In support of the social exchange view of employment relations, Eisenberger and his colleagues (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990, 1997, 2001) postulated that employees have particular expectations of their employing organisations' obligations in maintaining sound employer-employee relations. These expectations relate to employees' socioemotional needs (e.g. affiliation, acceptance, recognition, esteem and emotional support), the assurance that assistance will be provided when needed (e.g. in the event of illness, inability to work or mistakes) and the organisation's inclination to reward efforts made on its behalf (e.g. superior performance or discretionary behaviour that benefits the organisation) (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2001; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Vardaman et al., 2016). The way in which the organisation reacts to such events indicates to employees the extent to which the organisation values their inputs and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1990). POS may thus be interpreted as employees' perceptions of the organisation's commitment towards them (Tavares, Van Knippenberg, & Van Dick, 2016). Employees want assurance that they will receive the support from their organisations that will enable them to do their jobs as required and deal with difficulties if they arise (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Employees may form positive perceptions of their organisations' supportiveness when they receive frequent and sincere acclaim and approval from their employers or when their employers demonstrate their appreciation of their contributions by, say, following fair procedures and allowing opportunities for participation in decision making, affording them opportunities for training and development and rewarding constructive behaviour (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Park, 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Rockstuhl et al., 2012; Wayne et al., 1997). Employees also feel that they are supported by their organisations if they are fairly remunerated and given meaningful and interesting work (Shore et al., 2012a).

Perceived organisational support raises an employee's expectancy that the organisation will reward greater effort towards meeting organisational goals (effort-outcome expectancy) (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The relationship between POS and effort-outcome expectancies is regarded as bilateral in that expected reward for increased effort may not only strengthen employees' perceptions that their contributions are valued by the organisation, but may also be influenced by such outcomes (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Furthermore, the extent to which effort-outcome expectancies influence an employee's work effort depends on the strength of his or her exchange ideology favouring the trade of work effort for material and symbolic benefits (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Employees with a high exchange ideology tend to carefully

calculate the balance between what they receive from the organisation (e.g. POS) and what they are prepared to offer in return (e.g. in-role or extra-role performance). In contrast, employees with a low exchange ideology are less concerned about maintaining balance in the exchange relationship and will, as a result, be less likely to respond to either positively or negatively to perceived support or lack of support offered by the organisation (Lee et al., 2014).

Furthermore, the extent to which support provided by the organisation also meets an employee's needs for approval may encourage him or her to incorporate organisational membership into his or her self-identity and thereby develop a positive emotional bond (affective attachment) to the organisation. By raising the employee's tendency to interpret the organisation's successes and failures as his or her own, creating evaluation biases in judging the organisation's actions and characteristics and increasing the internalisation of the organisation's values and norms, this affective attachment to the organisation may result in increased performance (Eisenberger et al., 1990). In contrast, when organisations fail to adequately support their employees, they are more likely to display negative emotional reactions, resulting in undesirable attitudes and behaviour (Alcover et al., 2017b). Employees' affective reactions to their perceptions of organisational support can therefore be regarded as a procreant mechanism that conveys the effects of these perceptions to relational attitudes (e.g. organisational cynicism or affective commitment to the organisation) and behaviour (e.g. in-role and extra-role performance) (Cole, Bruch, & Vogel, 2006). Effort-outcome expectancy and affective attachment to the organisation thus increase an employee's willingness to make efforts aimed at meeting the organisation's goals (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Hence, according to organisational support theory, when employees perceive that their employing organisations are supportive, they reciprocate by means of positive attitudes and behaviour aimed at organisational goal achievement (Eisenberger et al., 2001). The value they ascribe to the support received will, however, depend on the organisation's sincerity, the discretionary nature of the support provided and the consistency thereof (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990; Teoh et al., 2016). Eisenberger et al. (1986) stressed that, in line with Gouldner's (1960) reciprocity theory, the value that employees ascribe to organisational support will depend on a number of attributional heuristics reflecting the organisation's benevolent (or malevolent) intent. Employees may thus apply the following attributional heuristics to the treatment they receive from the organisation to ascertain POS: The extent to which the organisation's supportive actions address specific employee needs as they arise; the level of discretion the organisation has in terms of the support provided; the organisation's generosity (i.e. offering support irrespective of limited resources available); and the organisation's intent in providing support. For organisational actions to be regarded as supportive, they should not

serve ulterior or self-serving motives (e.g. to gain public support) and the support should not be provided solely as a means of gaining valued resources from employees (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Kurtessis et al., 2017).

Therefore, if all employees receive the same support (material and symbolic benefits), irrespective of their effort, employees' perception of organisational support will decrease. Similarly, employees who perceive that the support provided is self-serving (e.g. undertaken to repair the organisation's tarnished image), externally motivated in terms of, say, regulatory requirements or the result of trade union pressure, will attribute less value to such support (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008). Discretionary actions by organisations that show an appreciation for effort made and commitment demonstrated by an employee are valued and are more likely to increase such an employee's perception of organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore et al., 2012a; Shore & Shore, 1995; Wayne et al., 1997). Vardaman et al. (2016) elaborated on extant literature in terms of the value ascribed to discretionary support provided by organisations by suggesting that the reciprocal relationship is likely to be influenced by social comparison. In forming their perceptions of organisational support, employees will therefore not only consider the level of support received from the organisation, but also compare it to the support received by their peers. If all employees are equally well supported, irrespective of their contributions to the organisation, POS will not be regarded as an indication of an individual employee's valuation by the organisation. This may, in turn, impact on individuals' willingness to reciprocate POS with increased loyalty, commitment and effort (Vardaman et al., 2016).

Employees' response to organisations' supportive efforts therefore depends not only on the nature of the actions taken by the organisation, but also on the value they ascribe to such actions. If organisational policies, procedures and practices are seen to be obligatory in nature (i.e. only addressing regulatory requirements or terms and conditions of collective agreements) with no consideration for employee needs, this will not strengthen employees' perceptions of organisational support. Furthermore, if employees continuously perceive that the organisation places little value on their contributions and does not care about their well-being, this reduces POS and decreases the employees' perceived obligations to the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 1997). Hence, employees who feel that they are not supported by their employing organisations may reciprocate by decreasing their efforts (including both in-role and extra-role performance) and engaging in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation and the achievement of its objectives. Such employees are more likely to be absent more often and to consider alternative employment (Eisenberger et al., 1997).

Cognisance should also be taken of employees' emotional reactions following their perceptions of organisational support (or lack thereof) (Cole et al., 2006). For instance, employees who perceive high levels of organisational support in their workplaces are more likely to experience high positive affect, which may, in turn, impact on their attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation (e.g. increased commitment and effort). In contrast, employees who perceive their organisations as unsupportive, may experience negative emotional reactions such as frustration, disillusionment and pessimism that are associated with organisational cynicism, which may in turn negatively impact on their attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation (Cole et al., 2006).

The dominant theoretical perspectives underlying perceived organisational support and its impact on employer-employee relations are therefore social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) as incorporated into the seminal research by Eisenberger and colleagues (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990, 1997, 2001) in their conceptualisation of POS. POS is defined in terms of the quality of the relationship between the employee and the organisation, specifically in terms of how much employees believe that the organisation values their contributions and is concerned about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The quality of the exchange relationship is influenced by the extent to which balance exists in the employer-employee relationship (Shore et al., 2012a).

Notably, POS is not an objective representation of the actual amount of support an organisation lends, but a subjective and idiosyncratic perception by the individual employee (Boey & Vantilborgh, 2015; Shukla & Rai, 2014). It is therefore expected that individual characteristics will have an impact on employees' perceptions of the support provided by their employing organisations. Person-centred variables that may potentially influence employees' perceptions of and reactions to organisational support efforts, as reported in extant literature, are briefly outlined in the next section.

4.4.3 Person-centred variables influencing perceived organisational support

Research on both the predictors and outcomes of POS has focused almost exclusively on situational variables rather than individual differences (Suazo & Turnley, 2010). In instances where individual differences are considered, POS researchers tend to emphasise personality dimensions such as locus of control (Aubé, Rousseau, & Morin, 2007; Lilly & Virick, 2006), reciprocation wariness (Karagonlar et al., 2016; Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999), self-

esteem (Uçar & Ötken, 2010) and dispositional tendencies (e.g. positive or negative affect, individualism/collectivism and psychological capital) (Shukla & Rai, 2014).

In terms of dispositional tendencies, affective disposition has received the most attention in the literature (Hui, Wong, & Tjosvold, 2007; Jacobs, Belschak, & Den Hartog, 2014; Kiewitz, Restubog, Zagenczyk, & Hochwarter, 2009; Ladebo, 2009; Marchand & Vandenberghe, 2016). Incorporating affective disposition into POS research acknowledged the fact that employees' perceptions of organisational support are not formed in a vacuum but are influenced by individual dispositions (Marchand & Vandenberghe, 2016). Although this view was supported in this study, the impact of cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism was deemed more significant because of the cultural diversity of the South African workforce (see Chapter 2) and the potential impact that employees' disposition towards individualism/collectivism may have on their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (see Chapter 6). By incorporating employees' disposition towards individualism/collectivism into the proposed psychological framework, this study responded to suggestions in extant literature that cultural individual differences, such as individualism/collectivism, may alter the influence of organisational practices on POS (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Zhong, Wayne, & Liden, 2016). Individualistic employees are more inclined to base their relationship with the organisation on transactional exchange (i.e. what they receive in return for their contributions), while collectivist employees place greater value on communal relationships and tend to remain in relationships even if their immediate needs are not met (Triandis, 1995; Van Knippenberg, Van Prooijen, & Sleebos, 2015). It is thus expected that employees with different dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism will also have different expectations and perceptions of the support that should be provided by their organisations and will react differently to such perceptions (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore, Bommer, Rao, & Seo, 2009; Zhong et al., 2016). The potential moderating effect of individualism/collectivism in the relationship between POS and employees' relational attitudes and behaviour is further explored in Chapter 6.

In this section, the focus is on demographic characteristics and their potential impact on employees' perceptions of and reactions to organisational support. However, extant literature and supporting empirical research confirming the differences in the value that employees attach to organisational support and their reactions to the levels of support based on demographic characteristics is hard to come by. A limited number of researchers have reported relationships between person-centred variables and perceived organisational support (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Johlke, Stamper, & Shoemaker, 2002; Nielsen,

2014; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009; Smit, Stanz, & Bussin, 2015; Suazo & Turnley, 2010; Wayne et al., 1997). The following are examples:

- Organisational tenure has been reported to be positively associated with POS (Wayne et al., 1997). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) explained this relationship by postulating that employees who are dissatisfied with their employing organisation are more likely than satisfied employees to leave the organisation. Those employees who remain (i.e. longer-tenured employees) are therefore likely to have a more favourable view of their employers' intentions and the way they are treated by their employers, which results in higher levels of POS (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012).
- Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found a significant correlation between age and POS. This relationship may be explained in terms of socioemotional selectivity theory, which suggests that aging is often accompanied by increased emotional maturity (Carstensen, 1992). The main assertion of socioemotional selectivity theory is that older individuals focus more on socioemotional outcomes, whereas younger individuals are more driven by skill, knowledge and opportunity development and are thus more information oriented. Owing to the focus of older individuals on socioemotional outcomes, relations in the workplace may play a more important role in older employees' well-being (Löckenhoff & Carstensen, 2004). Compared to economic exchange, socioemotional support provided by organisations may be perceived to be more valuable for older employees (Wang & Zhan, 2012). For older employees, their perceptions of organisational support are expected to be particularly sensitive to age-related discrimination and negative stereotyping, whereas younger employees' perceptions of organisational support are likely to be rely more on the developmental opportunities they receive (Löckenhoff & Carstensen, 2004; Wang & Zhan, 2012).
- Smit, Stanz, and Bussin (2015) found significant differences in POS as a result of respondents' age, gender, race, industry and job level and concluded that these biographical variables play a mediating role in the relationship between total reward and POS. This finding may be viewed in terms of the increasing diversity of the workplace and the concomitant variability in terms of employee values, wants, needs and aspirations (Avery et al., 2012). While standardised methods of dealing with employees may have been adequate in the more homogeneous workplaces of the past, this is no longer sufficient in the modern workplace. Employees increasingly

expect their employers to acknowledge and accommodate differences among their employees and to provide a supportive environment for all employees (Avery et al., 2012).

- It has also been suggested that gender may be associated with POS (Suazo & Turnley, 2010). Johlke et al. (2002) provided empirical evidence for this view, reporting that females feel they receive less support and are not as highly valued as their male counterparts.
- Nielsen (2014) found that employees with higher qualifications tend to report receiving more support from their supervisors.
- Riggle et al. (2009), in a meta-analytic study, found that the extent to which POS is reciprocated by enhanced organisational commitment and performance may be influenced by the type of job performed.
- Park (2016) reported a positive relationship between employment status and POS, indicating that full-time employees who earn higher wages are more inclined to perceive their employing organisations as supportive.

Although person-centred variables such as tenure, education, age, gender, race, employment status, job level, industry and trade union membership are regularly used as control variables in POS research (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008; Caesens, Marique, Hanin, & Stinglhamber, 2016; Caesens, Stinglhamber, et al., 2016; Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Smit et al., 2015; Teoh et al., 2016), it has been shown in a number of studies that these individual characteristics have little to no effect on relationships in the organisational support literature (Kiewitz et al., 2009; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Lee & Peccei, 2007; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). It is suggested that the contradicting findings may be the result of different contexts and research populations in which the studies were conducted. Furthermore, the workforce has become increasingly diverse. While standardised ways of dealing with employees may therefore have been regarded as sufficiently supportive in the past, with minorities accepting the norms set by the majority, this is no longer the case. In the modern heterogeneous workplace, employees expect their differences to be acknowledged and accommodated, which may mean that practices that were regarded as supportive in the past are no longer considered as such (Avery et al., 2012). In this study, it was thus deemed essential to consider the possible confounding

impact that employees' disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (see Chapter 6) and their demographic characteristics (specifically employment status, tenure, gender, age, and education level which have been used as control variables in POS research) may have on POS, and thus on employees' attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace.

4.4.4 Perceived organisational support as an indicator of the quality of the social exchange relationship

Researchers have relied mainly on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) to better understand the relationships between POS and various attitudinal and behavioural outcomes in the workplace. Within a social exchange framework, the norm of reciprocity helps employers and employees to establish positive exchange relationships and to reduce uncertainty by creating mutual obligations, which define roles and future courses of action (Alcover et al., 2017b). POS is regarded as an indication of the quality of exchange relationships (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The caring, approval and respect associated with POS fulfil employees' socioemotional needs. Employees respond by incorporating organisational membership and role status into their social identity (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In terms of the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), which is fundamental to social exchange theory, POS yields an employee obligation to care about the success of the organisation and to assist the organisation in realising its objectives (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Eisenberger et al. (1990) argued that an employees' perception of organisational support is an essential component of the social exchange process as it influences how they reciprocate in terms of resultant attitudes and behaviour. POS creates an obligation to care and be loyal to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991) and to help it achieve its objectives (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Rousseau, 1995). Employees reciprocate such obligations with increased loyalty towards and effort in the organisation. These efforts do not relate to an increase in the performance of standard job activities only, but also lead to an increase in activities that are favourable to the organisation, and go beyond job responsibilities such as assisting co-workers and making suggestions for operational improvements (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

Employees experiencing high levels of POS feel that they are fairly rewarded for their efforts and that they receive adequate assistance from the organisation to effectively perform their jobs, making the work more interesting and stimulating, while ensuring that effective coping

mechanisms are in place to deal with stressful situations (Aubé et al., 2007; Chiaburu et al., 2013). A high level of POS therefore increases an employee's commitment to the organisation and creates the expectation that greater effort towards organisational goal achievement will be recognised and rewarded (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Suazo & Turnley, 2010). When employees perceive that their organisation values and cares for them, they tend to feel a stronger sense of affiliation with and commitment to their organisations and engage in behaviour that is beneficial to organisational goal achievement (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Moreover, employees who perceive that they receive the necessary support from their employing organisations are less likely to monitor the exchange relationship (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005), view unpleasant aspects of their work experience as a breach of their psychological contract (Suazo & Turnley, 2010) or to blame their employers when their expectations in terms of the psychological contract are not met, and therefore react less intensely (Bal et al., 2010). Higher levels of POS are thus expected to have favourable outcomes for both employees (e.g. increased job satisfaction) and their employing organisations (e.g. increased organisational commitment, increased performance and reduced turnover) (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Consistent with prior research (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Dulac et al., 2008; Tekleab et al., 2005), it is postulated that employees' perceptions of organisational support (POS) should be regarded as an indicator of the quality of the social exchange relationship. High levels of organisational support reflect high-quality exchange relationships. In such relationships, employees will be less concerned with immediate reciprocation and more likely to oversee a shortfall in delivery by the other party (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012). In this sense, POS may thus be viewed, firstly, as an outcome of employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences (indicated by psychological contract violation and POJ). Secondly, POS may be regarded as an antecedent of employee attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and finally, POS may be considered an intervening variable in the relationship between employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences and relational outcomes in the workplace. These relationships are further explored in the following sections.

4.4.5 Perceived organisational support as an outcome of employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences

In the previous sections the constructs of psychological contract violation, POJ and POS were conceptualised as distinct but interdependent constructs that may be used in a social

exchange context to better understand employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. It was also indicated that POS might be regarded as an indication of the quality of the social exchange relationship between an employee and his or her employer. It is thus necessary to explore the relationships between psychological contract violation and POJ, as work-related perceptions and work experiences, and POS in order to obtain a better understanding of the overall effect of this interaction on employees' attitudes and behaviour.

4.4.5.1 The relationship between psychological contract violation and perceived organisational support

Psychological contract research has reported the psychological contract and POS to be closely related but conceptually distinct and mutually interdependent constructs (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Tekleab & Chiaburu, 2011). Several similarities can be discerned between perceived organisational support and the psychological contract (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). They are both rooted in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964); they both state that the socioemotional value of a resource depends on the implicit valuation of the employee; they both emphasise the importance of justice perceptions; and they have both been linked to significant organisational outcomes (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003).

The two constructs are distinct in that POS focuses on employees' beliefs about the support received from their organisations, while psychological contract breach describes employees' perceptions that the organisation failed to meet its obligations (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Bal et al., 2010; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). According to Kiewitz et al. (2009), the key distinction between psychological contract and organisational support theories lies in the differential role of promised and felt obligations. In terms of psychological contract theory, the focus is on the organisation's promised obligations and its ability to fulfil them (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Zhao et al., 2007). In contrast, POS creates a broad felt obligation within employees to care about the welfare of the organisation and to reciprocate favourable treatment by helping the organisation at their own discretion (Caesens, Marique, et al., 2016; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Vardaman et al., 2016). Organisational support theory emphasises employees' overall evaluations of the treatment provided by their employing organisations, irrespective of whether such treatment was based on promises (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Kiewitz et al., 2009; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). Organisational support theory therefore has a more aggregate and absolute focus (i.e. based on employees' overall evaluation of perceived treatment by the organisation), whereas psychological contract theory is more

specific and relative, focusing on whether what the organisation (or its representatives) delivers is perceived as adequate, based on what employees believe the organisation promised them (Kiewitz et al., 2009).

Both psychological contract violation and POS may, however, be regarded as a means by which employees evaluate the quality of their relationships with their employers (Conway & Briner, 2002; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Kurtessis et al., 2017). The integration of psychological contract and organisational support theories thus provides a more comprehensive framework when attempting to understand the intricacies of the employer-employee relationship from a social exchange perspective (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Karagonlar et al., 2016; Kiewitz et al., 2009; Tekleab et al., 2005). In this study, both psychological contract breach and violation (i.e. specific focus) and employees' perceptions of organisational support (i.e. broader focus) were therefore included in the proposed framework as a means whereby employees evaluate the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employing organisations.

Employees interpret the extent to which their employing organisation fulfils or fails to fulfil its promises in terms of the psychological contract as a reflection of how much the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Bal et al., 2010; Karagonlar et al., 2016). In other words, perceptions of organisational support are driven by the extent to which employees believe that the organisation fulfils or fails to fulfil its obligations in terms of the psychological contract (Kiewitz et al., 2009). However, it has been found that negative work experiences and perceptions (e.g. psychological contract breach and violation) have greater impact on employee attitudes and behaviour than positive ones (e.g. psychological contract fulfilment) (Baumeister et al., 2001). Therefore, although a positive relationship between psychological contract fulfilment (and inducements) and employee perceptions of organisational support has been reported, suggesting that the organisation's fulfilment of its promises to employees conveys positive valuation and caring (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Karagonlar et al., 2016; Kiewitz et al., 2009), the focus of this study was on the relationship between psychological contract breach and violation (as opposed to fulfilment) and employees' perceptions of the support they receive from their employing organisations. It has been postulated that, when employers are perceived to be breaching their promissory obligations in terms of the psychological contract, employees regard this as an indication that they are not valued or cared for, thus decreasing POS (Kiewitz et al., 2009). Consistent with this idea, empirical studies have reported a negative relationship between psychological contract breach and employee perceptions of organisational support (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998).

This negative relationship between psychological contract breach and POS is expected to be stronger when the breach is viewed as discretionary (i.e. the psychological contract breach resulted from a deliberate choice made by the employer) rather than something the organisation had little control over (Alcover et al., 2017b; Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). The effect of a psychological contract breach in such an instance tends to be particularly severe because of the emotional reaction to feelings of betrayal, which is regarded as a serious violation of the norms and expectations of an exchange relationship (Alcover et al., 2017b; Elangovan & Shapiro, 1998). Employees may also have a more intense and emotional reaction to a psychological contract breach when they are accustomed to high levels of organisational support (Bal et al., 2010; Zagenczyk, Restubog, Kiewitz, Kiazad, & Tang, 2014). Such employees have high expectations in terms of organisational support (as this is what they are used to), and if these expectations are not met, they feel betrayed. For them, a psychological contract breach does not only reflect an inability or unwillingness of an employer to meet its obligations in terms of the psychological contract. They view a psychological contract breach as a lack of care and support from the organisation, which contradicts previous supportive actions by the employer and causes them to question the sincerity of such actions (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003).

An inverted negative relationship between POS and psychological contract breach has also been shown in that POS tends to mitigate the potential undesirable consequences of psychological contract breach (Dulac et al., 2008; López Bohle et al., 2017; Solinger et al., 2016). Employees who perceive that they receive high levels of support from their organisation are likely to be more positively biased towards their organisation, feel more in control when experiencing negative events and are less likely to blame their organisation when they experience a psychological contract breach (Bal et al., 2010; Dulac et al., 2008). In contrast, those employees who have a low-quality relationship with their organisation (as reflected in low levels of POS) tend to vigilantly monitor the extent to which their employing organisations fulfil their psychological contracts, resulting in an increase in psychological contract breaches observed and an increased likelihood of interpreting such a breach negatively (Dulac et al., 2008; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). They are inclined to have a more intense negative emotional response to psychological contract breach, which, in turn, adversely impacts on their attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation (Dulac et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2014). Although employers may therefore be unable to meet employees' expectations, due to increased demands in competitive and globalised markets, resulting in unavoidable psychological contract violations, they may be able to limit the impact of these violations on the attitudes and behaviour of employees by providing the necessary support (López Bohle et al., 2017).

4.4.5.2 *The relationship between perceived organisational justice and support*

In the previous section, it was argued that the extent to which the employer fulfils its obligations in terms of the psychological contract and POS might both be viewed as indicators of the quality of the social exchange relationship. It has also been postulated in extant literature that the extent of fairness that organisations display in their interactions with employees may be regarded as an indication of the quality of the social exchange relationship (Kurtessis et al., 2017; Potipiroon & Faerman, 2016). It is therefore necessary to determine in which way employees' perceptions of organisational justice and support interact in order to determine the quality of the exchange relationship they perceive to have with their employing organisations.

POS is regarded as an indication of employers' concern for their employees' well-being. Employers may demonstrate such concern by continuously conveying fairness in their interaction with their employees. Such displays of justice principles by an organisation have a cumulative effect on employees' perceptions of the support they receive from their employing organisations (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore et al., 2012a; Shore & Shore, 1995). Employees' continuous exposure to fair employer actions thus accrues to POS (Shore & Shore, 1995).

Empirical research has confirmed that organisational justice serves as predictor of POS (Kurtessis et al., 2017; Liden et al., 2003; Moorman et al., 1998; Wong et al., 2012). When employees therefore feel that work and resources are fairly distributed (distributive justice), that fair procedures are used in the allocation of resources (procedural justice) and that they are treated with dignity and respect (interactional justice), this increases their perceptions of support offered by the organisation.

Procedural justice, which refers to the fairness of the formal procedures underlying organisations' decisions about their employees, is regarded as reflecting employers' concern for their employees' well-being. Various researchers have shown employees' perceptions of procedural justice to be an antecedent of POS (Cameron et al., 2007; Masterson et al., 2000; Moorman et al., 1998; Tekleab et al., 2005; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002). Policies and practices in terms of resource allocation are typically determined and controlled by organisations and relatively stable over time (Kurtessis et al., 2017). According to organisational support theory, such policies (due to their long-term and discretionary nature) should make a major contribution to employees' assessment of their organisations' orientation (benevolent or malevolent) towards them (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). This differentiation between voluntary and compulsory actions by an employer is essential when considering the

relationship between employees' justice perceptions and POS. Employer actions will only contribute to POS if they are seen to be voluntary actions intended to enhance employees' well-being. If these actions are the result of external pressures on the organisation (e.g. contractual obligations, regulatory requirements or societal norms), rather than a discretionary choice by the employer, such actions may not be regarded as an indication of POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Although distributive and interactional justice perceptions have also been linked to employees' perceptions of organisational support, research has shown that procedural justice has a stronger relationship with POS than other justice types (Kurtessis et al., 2017; Roch & Shanock, 2006). This may be attributed to the fact that distributive justice involves specific decisions in terms of remuneration that are often subject to factors outside the organisation's control (i.e. compulsory in terms of regulatory requirements or collective agreements) and therefore ascribed to external (e.g. government or trade unions) parties and not the employer (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Furthermore, interactional justice is based on the actions of specific organisational representatives, such as supervisors or employment relations practitioners, who differ in the extent to which they exemplify the organisation's values (Kurtessis et al., 2017; Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2013). Interactional justice tends to be more episodic and less stable than procedural justice (Ferris, Spence, Brown, & Heller, 2012; Kurtessis et al., 2017). It is thus more attributable to specific events over the short term and as such not valued as POS, which reflects an overall belief about the organisation that is formed over the long term (Shore & Tetrick, 1991).

It has therefore been established in the literature that POS may be regarded as an outcome of employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences (indicated by psychological contract violation and POJ). In the next section, the role of POS as an antecedent of employee attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), as reported in extant literature, is explained.

4.4.6 Perceived organisational support as an antecedent of relational attitudes and behaviour

Organisational support theory (e.g. Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2012; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995) holds that employees form perceptions about the degree to which their organisations support their socioemotional needs and are willing to provide assistance when needed and to reward increased efforts.

Employees are expected to reciprocate POS based on the norm of reciprocity and the anticipation of future reward (Karagonlar et al., 2016). The organisation's actions leading to employees' perceptions of organisational support may thus be viewed as a social currency offered by the organisation with the aim of increasing the quality of employer-employee relationship (Biswas & Kapil, 2017). Likewise, employees' attitudes and behaviour, such as loyalty to the organisation or contributions to the collective interest (OCB), can be regarded as currencies that employees may use to restore equity in their social exchange relationships with the organisation following its supportive actions (Tavares et al., 2016).

Support for this expectation of constructive reciprocation is abundant in POS literature, where positive relationships between POS and various personal and organisational outcomes have been established. Direct positive relationships have, for instance, been shown between POS and employees' job satisfaction (Ahmed, Nawaz, Ali, & Islam, 2015; Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014; Paillé & Raineri, 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle et al., 2009), justice perceptions (Greenberg, 1990b), affective commitment (Aubé et al., 2007; Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008; Eđriboyun, 2015; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990; Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001; Settoon et al., 1996; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Shore & Wayne, 1993) and normative commitment (Eđriboyun, 2015; Kurtessis et al., 2017) to the organisation; job-related performance (Biswas & Kapil, 2017; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle et al., 2009), job and organisational engagement (Ahmed et al., 2015; Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010; Saks, 2006; Zhong et al., 2016), job involvement (Kurtessis et al., 2017; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), OCB (Chênevert et al., 2015; Coyle-Shapiro, Morrow, & Kessler, 2006; Dirks & Ferrin, 2000; Mathumbu, 2012; Moorman et al., 1998; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Van Knippenberg et al., 2015; Wayne et al., 1997) and trust in the organisation and its managers (DeConinck, 2010; Eđriboyun, 2015; Ferres, Connell, & Travaglione, 2005; Shukla & Rai, 2014; Tan & Tan, 2000; Treadway et al., 2004; Webber, Bishop, & O'Neill, 2012). POS therefore has positive consequences for both employees and organisations (Caesens, Marique, et al., 2016).

However, the converse is also true. Employees who experience low levels of POS feel that their contributions are not valued by the organisation, and thus feel betrayed, resulting in a variety of undesirable outcomes. Direct negative relationships have, for instance, been reported between POS and psychological contract breach and violation (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Dulac et al., 2008; Kiewitz et al., 2009), absenteeism (Eisenberger et al., 1990), continuance commitment (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Tetrick, 1991), withdrawal behaviour (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Kurtessis et al., 2017), CWB (El Akremi et al., 2010; Jacobs et al., 2014; Liu & Ding, 2012; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and

turnover intention (Baranik, Ruling, & Eby, 2010; Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014; Park, Newman, Zhang, Wu, & Hooke, 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle et al., 2009; Smit et al., 2015; Wayne et al., 1997). These negative relationships can also be explained in terms of the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), whereby the lack of support perceived by an employee diminishes the level of obligation felt towards the organisation. Such an employee perceives the organisation's activities as malevolent (Levinson, 1965), which leads to contempt towards the organisation and ultimately shapes adverse attitudes and behaviour (Hochwarter et al., 2003a).

In this study, it was postulated that employees' deteriorated level of obligation towards the organisation following a perceived lack of support (Eisenberger et al., 2001) and fear of being exploited, which is caused by the power imbalance inherent in the employer-employee relationship (Colquitt et al., 2005), is bound to increase the levels of cynicism experienced by employees (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008; Chiaburu et al., 2013; Hochwarter et al., 2003a; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014). Employees who perceive support provided by their organisations as self-serving are likely to view such support as manipulation rather than behaviour intended to cultivate a balanced social exchange relationship (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008). Organisational cynicism is thus expected to play an intervening role in the relationship between employees' perceptions in the workplace (such as POS) and their reciprocal attitudes and behaviour (Chiaburu et al., 2013). This predicted mediating role of organisational cynicism in the relationship between POS and relational attitudes and behaviour is explored in Chapter 5.

In the following sections, the focus is on the relationships between employees' perceptions of organisational support and selected attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) that are deemed essential in an employment relations context. These relationships are viewed from the social exchange perspective (Blau, 1964), incorporating the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), which is widely regarded as the grounding principle in the conceptualisation and theoretical development of POS (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Kim et al., 2016).

4.4.6.1 Perceived organisational support as an antecedent of organisational commitment

Social exchange theory, supported by empirical evidence, shows that employees' perceptions of the support provided by their organisations are strongly related to their levels of commitment

towards these organisations (Aubé et al., 2007; Baranik et al., 2010; Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008; Eğriboyun, 2015; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990; Hochwarter et al., 2003a; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Rhoades et al., 2001; Sharma & Dhar, 2016; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003; Van Knippenberg, 2012). Organisational support theory, when viewed from a social exchange perspective, is based on the premise that employees will demonstrate higher levels of affective commitment towards their employing organisations if they sense an equally high level of commitment to their well-being on the part of their employers (Kim et al., 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In other words, if the organisation demonstrates commitment to the employee, the latter is expected to repay the former in kind (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993).

Employers' displays of appreciation and caring inform employees' perceptions of organisational support, which is regarded as an indication of how committed their employing organisations are to them (McMillan & Albrecht, 2010; Rhoades et al., 2001). Based on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), POS is expected to create an obligation for employees to concern themselves with the organisation's success, therefore resulting in a stronger emotional bond (i.e. increased affective commitment) to the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Thus, the high regard and caring conveyed by POS fulfils employees' socioemotional needs and is repaid, in part, by increased affective commitment towards the organisation (Kim et al., 2016). In addition, POS increases affective commitment by fulfilling employees' socioemotional needs for affection and emotional support (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Fulfilment of these needs results in a strong sense of belonging to and identification with the organisation (Tavares et al., 2016). Employees thus incorporate their membership of the organisation and role status into their social identity, thereby enhancing their sense of purpose and meaning (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Although POS and affective commitment are strongly related (Meyer et al., 2002), they have been shown to be conceptually and empirically distinct (Kim et al., 2016). While POS is an affect-free cognition relating to attributions concerning the favourableness of the organisation's orientation towards the employee (Wayne et al., 2009), affective commitment, as conceived by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), is an affect-laden psychological state. Owing to the intuitive association between POS and affective commitment, most of the research pertaining to the relationship between POS and organisational commitment relates to the affective dimension of organisational commitment. It has, however, also been suggested that the obligation that employees feel to remain with the organisation (normative commitment) may be linked to the reciprocal obligations resulting from the exchange relationship, and that employees who perceive a high level of organisational support are likely to reciprocate by

committing to remain with the organisation (Kurtessis et al., 2017). This view is supported by the negative relationships found between POS and outcomes such as withdrawal behaviour (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Kurtessis et al., 2017) and turnover intention (Baranik et al., 2010; Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014; Park et al., 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle et al., 2009; Smit et al., 2015; Wayne et al., 1997). Furthermore, POS may reduce feelings of entrapment (i.e. continuance commitment) that occur when employees are compelled to remain with an organisation because of the high costs of leaving (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Tetrick, 1991).

Although the strong relationship between POS and AC has therefore been emphasised in extant organisational commitment literature, the individual relationships between POS and the other dimensions of organisational commitment (CC and NC) have also been noted. However, in light of the recent drive towards commitment profiles and an appreciation of the ways in which the different commitment mind-sets influence one another (see chapter 3), it is also essential to understand how POS may influence the development of specific commitment profiles. Kabins et al. (2016) relied on the norm of reciprocity to postulate that value-based commitment profiles (i.e. high commitment. AC/NC-dominant and AC-dominant) are likely to emerge when organisations are perceived to value their employees by providing high levels of support. In contrast, if only moderate or no support is experienced, exchange-based (i.e. NC/CC-dominant and CC-dominant) or weak (low or moderate commitment) commitment profiles are likely to develop. These findings are supported by Meyer et al. (2015), who found that employees who perceive a high level of support from their employing organisations, will be more likely to have a fully committed, AC/NC-dominant or AC-dominant organisational commitment profile than an uncommitted or CC-dominant profile.

Extant POS literature therefore supports a strong positive relationship between employees' perceptions of organisational support and their commitment to their employing organisations. Although research relating to the outcomes of POS mainly focuses on the affective dimension of organisational commitment, arguing that if organisations want their employees to be affectively committed to them, they have to be equally committed to their employees (Eisenberger et al., 1986), it has been suggested and empirically confirmed that there is a positive relationship between POS and normative commitment and a negative relationship between POS and continuance commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). These relationships, however, are weaker than the POS-affective commitment relationship (Meyer et al., 2002). These findings suggest that it is essential to incorporate all three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance) in the proposed framework in order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the potential discrepancies in terms of the strength

and the direction of the relationship between employees' perceptions of organisational support and each of the three dimensions of organisational commitment.

4.4.6.2 Perceived organisational support as an antecedent of union commitment

In their conceptualisation of POS, Eisenberger et al. (1986) referred specifically to the enhanced value of organisational support if it is perceived as discretionary behaviour by the organisation. Employees will place higher value on the support received from their employers if the actions taken are voluntary, thereby reflecting a positive valuation of the employee (Eisenberger et al., 1997). If employees perceive that the support (e.g. favourable remuneration or decent working conditions) is the result of trade union pressure or collective action, they will attribute less value to this support (Eisenberger et al., 1997). Instead, they will ascribe the support received to the trade union and will, in terms of the norm of reciprocity, be more inclined to direct their loyalties to the trade union (Thacker, 2015).

Furthermore, POS reflects employees' perceptions of the extent to which their employing organisations are committed to them (Eisenberger et al., 1990). It has been argued in extant literature that supportive employer practices reduce the need for unionisation and therefore employees who feel that they are cared for and valued by their employers will be less likely to join a trade union and to direct their loyalties and commitment to trade union activities (Redman & Snape, 2016; Turnley et al., 2004). In contrast, if employees' perceptions of organisational support are low, this is indicative of a perceived lack of care and valuation from the employer. In such instances, employees' socioemotional needs are not met by their employer, which means that they are likely to consider alternative ways of addressing these needs. In the absence of a positive emotional bond (affective attachment) with and a felt obligation towards their employing organisation, employees may resort to incorporating union membership (as opposed to organisational membership) into their self-identity, and thereby develop a sense of commitment towards the trade union. Employees' commitment towards the trade union is expected to be especially strong in instances where they observe greater support for their needs and success in addressing these needs from the trade union than from their employing organisation (Goslinga et al., 2005). This view is supported by Sinclair, Hannigan, and Tetrick (1995), who reported negative relationships between union membership and perceived organisational support. Employees who regarded their organisations as unsupportive would therefore be more inclined to join trade unions and more likely to direct their affections towards the trade union. It is thus postulated that there will be a negative relationship between POS and union commitment.

Figure 4.11 illustrates the expected direct relationships between POS and organisational and union commitment, respectively. It is expected that the strength of the relationship between POS and organisational commitment will differ for the respective dimensions of organisational commitment. In addition, the differential effects of POS on organisational and union commitment are explored.

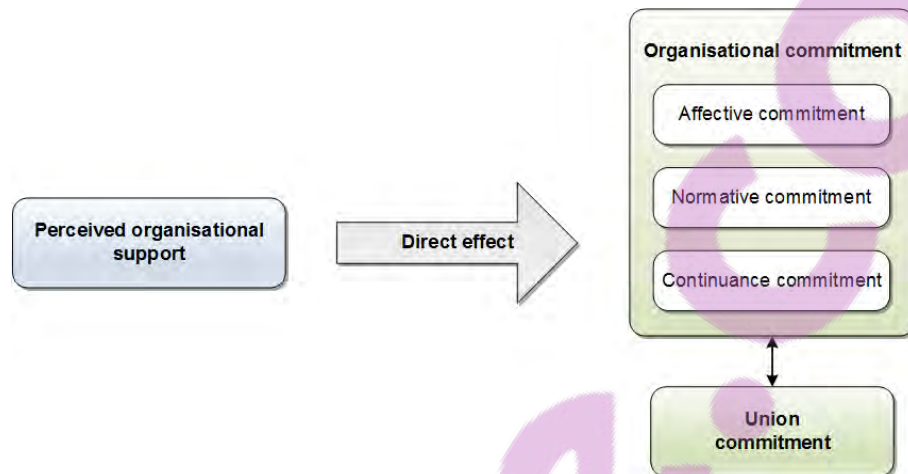


Figure 4.11. Direct and Differential Relationships between Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational and Union Commitment

The direct relationship between POS and organisational commitment has received considerable attention in the literature. However, few studies have considered the impact that low levels of POS in the workplace may have on employees' commitment towards a trade union. Given the prominence of trade unions in South African organisational settings, one would expect a perceived lack of care and valuation by an organisation to not only increase the likelihood that employees would join trade unions, but that it would also lead to a decrease in organisational commitment and a concomitant increase in union commitment. One would expect that employees' disposition towards individualism/collectivism would not only impact on the kind of support they expect to receive from the organisation, but also on how they would react to perceived support or a lack of support. Collectivist employees place great value on communal relations and are therefore expected to prioritise organisational actions that address their sense of belonging and group identity. It is postulated that, if the organisation fails to meet these needs, employees will turn to a trade union in an attempt to address them. In contrast, individualistic employees tend to value the transactional relationship with the employer and as such, their expectations of support are likely to relate to adequate rewards and opportunities for development rather than socioemotional support. It is postulated that, when these needs are not met, individualistic employees will be more likely than their collectivist counterparts to leave the organisation, whereas collectivistic employees will remain

but find alternative ways such as trade union affiliation to address their needs. The expected moderating role of individualism/collectivism in this relationship is explored in greater detail in Chapter 6.

4.4.6.3 Perceived organisational support as an antecedent of organisational citizenship behaviour

POS refers to employees' perception that the organisation values their inputs and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1990). In line with social exchange theory, it has been postulated (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990; Hochwarter et al., 2003a; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) that a high level of POS creates an employee obligation to repay the organisation for its benevolence by means of increased effort, which may include increased diligence in carrying out standard job responsibilities (i.e. in-role performance) and enhancing participation in extra-role behaviour (OCB). POS is associated with employees' psychological well-being, their favourable orientation towards their work and organisation and behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation (Kim et al., 2016). High POS thus induces employee commitment to the organisation's goals and values and a willingness to engage in discretionary behaviour that benefits the organisation or individuals in it (OCB) (Chênevert et al., 2015). Furthermore, the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) suggests that individuals have the responsibility to react positively to favourable treatment, which is why employees often feel obligated to repay the organisation beyond the parameters of formal responsibility when it is perceived that the organisation is acting with the employees' best interests at heart (Rousseau, 1989, 1990). POS has thus been positively related to a variety of extra-role behaviours, including proactive behaviour (Caesens, Marique, et al., 2016), assistance of co-workers (Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wayne et al., 1997) and innovation and spontaneous problem solving (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Bolino et al. (2015) emphasise the importance of continued organisational support, arguing that employees who engage in OCB without receiving such support may become despondent and worn out, resulting in an unwillingness to continue engaging in such behaviours in future.

The causal relationship between POS and OCB directed towards the organisation and individuals in it has been empirically confirmed (Caesens, Marique, et al., 2016; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Park, 2016). However, it is postulated that the reciprocal relationship between POS and OCB is circular in that enhanced employee effort often produces treatment that is more favourable by the organisation. Conversely, low POS adversely affects employees' willingness to exert effort on the organisation's behalf, which, in turn, leads to mediocre or poor treatment

by the employer, which, in turn, lowers employees' perceptions of organisational support even further (Eisenberger et al., 1990).

It has furthermore been proposed in extant literature that employees react differently to support received by the organisation (POS) and support received by an immediate supervisor or manager (leader-member exchange) (Tekleab & Chiaburu, 2011). Employees who develop high-quality social exchanges with organisations (i.e. high POS) are thus expected to reciprocate by displaying positive attitudes and behaviour aimed at their employing organisations (e.g. organisational commitment and OCB-O), while employees with high-quality exchanges with their supervisors reciprocate by displaying behaviour directed at their supervisor (e.g. an increase in-role performance) (Lemmon & Wayne, 2015). In this study, however, managers or supervisors were regarded as representatives of the organisation as a single entity, while the employment relationship was seen as the relationship between an employee and his or her employing organisation. It is therefore postulated that employees will regard any support (or lack thereof) as an indication of the extent to which the organisation as an employing entity cares about employees' well-being, irrespective of the source of support. The aim in this study was therefore not to determine the source of support or the specific type of support needed, but rather to establish employees' perceptions of the levels of support offered by their employing organisations, as an indication of the quality of the social exchange relationship, and their reactions to these perceptions. It is expected that employees who perceive that their organisations value them and care about their well-being, will not only be more inclined to trust the employers' intentions, but will also be more willing to engage in behaviour intended to benefit the organisation and assisting their co-workers, because this will ultimately contribute to the organisation's success. In contrast, employees who perceive that their employees are not concerned about their needs or well-being, will view this lack of support as a failure by the employer to meet its obligations in terms of the exchange relationship. In order to restore the balance, the employee may either adjust his or her expectations in terms of employer obligations (which are likely to be reflected in higher levels of cynicism) or reduce his or her willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour. In extreme circumstances, employees who perceive an imbalance in the exchange relationships may even choose to engage in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or individuals in it.

The relationship between POS and OCB as reported above is illustrated in Figure 4.12.



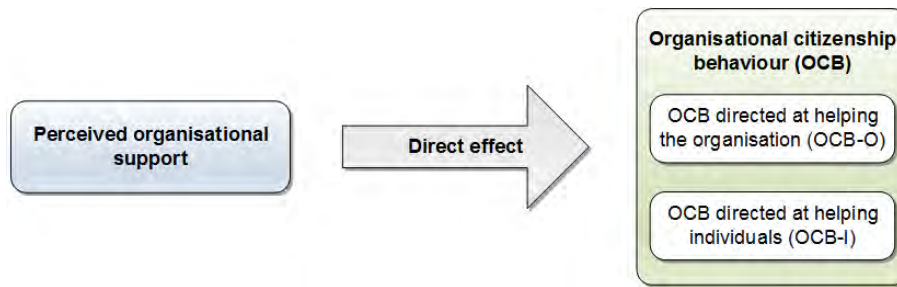


Figure 4.12. Direct Relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

In summary, extant literature has shown that the relationship between POS and OCB may be explained in terms of social exchange theory. Although the causal relationship between POS and OCB has been empirically confirmed, it has been postulated that the relationship may be circular in that enhanced employee effort often produces more favourable treatment from the organisation, which increases the perceived level of support received from it.

4.4.6.4 *Perceived organisational support as an antecedent of counterproductive work behaviour*

A number of researchers have used social exchange theory to explain how employees may engage in various forms of CWB in order to reciprocate an unfavourable or unsupportive work environment (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004). From a social exchange perspective, an unsupportive work environment may be reciprocated with behaviour aimed at threatening the well-being of the organisation and individuals in it (Abas, Omar, Halim, & Hafidz, 2015; Bordia et al., 2008). In contrast, a supportive work environment has been found to be negatively related to organisationally as well as interpersonally directed counterproductive work behaviour (Colbert et al., 2004). When POS fulfils the employees' socioemotional needs, such as the needs for esteem, approval and affiliation that lead to affective attachment to the organisation and the formation of social identity, they are less likely to engage in behaviour that will be detrimental to the organisation (Abas et al., 2015). Furthermore, employees who perceive that their employees care about their well-being are less concerned about immediate need fulfilment as they anticipate that their needs will be fulfilled over the long term. Owing to the high quality of exchange relationships, marked by high levels of support provided by the organisation, employees are less likely to blame their employers if their needs are not met, and subsequently also less likely to engage in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or people in it (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012).

The relationship between POS and CWB as outlined above is illustrated in Figure 4.13.

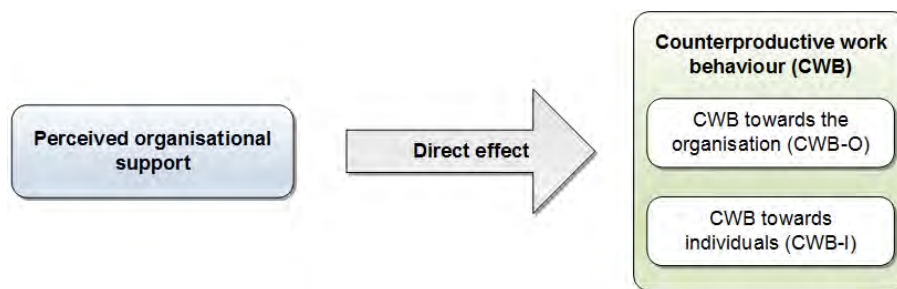


Figure 4.13. Direct Relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and Counterproductive Work Behaviour

In summary, the direct relationship between POS and CWB has been explained in terms of social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity. One would therefore expect that employees who perceive that they are valued and cared for by their employing organisations would refrain from engaging in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or people in it. If, however, they perceive that their employers have a disregard for their needs and well-being, they are more likely to engage in negative behaviour. While some employees may choose to exit the organisation, others may remain in it but resort to CWB. It is expected that employees' behavioural reaction might be influenced by their disposition towards individualism/collectivism. The expected moderating role of individualism/collectivism in this relationship is explored in greater detail in Chapter 6.

4.4.7 Perceived organisational support in a South African employment relations context

South African employment relations are often characterised by high levels of perceived inequity and injustice. Given the volatile economic conditions, organisations are no longer able to guarantee long-term employment and favourable working conditions or even fair remuneration, which increases the levels of uncertainty experienced by employees. These factors commonly contribute to employer-employee conflict in organisations, stimulating the antagonistic employment relationships that already exist in many workplaces. One of the ways in which organisations can ensure more effective employer-employee relations is by providing the support needed by employees to do their work and deal with any uncertainty and challenges that arise. POS initiatives are not only relatively easy for employers to develop and implement (Johlke et al., 2002), but if employees also perceive these initiatives as sincere efforts aimed at increasing their well-being, rather than simply a means of increasing employee

commitment and performance, they are likely to be reciprocated by positive employee attitudes and behaviour (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2001).

In an employment relations context, there are a variety of initiatives that employers may take to show their employees that they care about their well-being and value their contributions to the organisation. This may include, for instance, adopting policies that emphasise cooperation and mutual interests; affording employees opportunities to participate in organisational decision making or to make suggestions for improvements relating to operations, working conditions and work practices; recognising and valuing employees' contributions (including financial incentives and nonfinancial inducements such as status or job titles); offering employees a direct stake in the organisation's ownership and prosperity (e.g. profit-sharing schemes, incentive schemes or employee share ownership plans); providing opportunities for training and development; and implementing conditions of employment aimed at meeting employees' specific needs (Nel et al., 2016; Park, 2015; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). In order for employer initiatives to be regarded as supportive, they should reflect acceptance and understanding of the social identity and varied needs of a diverse workforce. For instance, representative or participatory bodies should include employees from all demographic groupings in the organisation (in terms of race, gender, age, etc.); all viewpoints should be considered and different ideas, opinions and perspectives should be valued; prejudice and discrimination should not be tolerated; and policies, procedures and practices should be developed with due cognisance of diversity-related issues (e.g. language policies, communication procedures and developmental needs) (Avery et al., 2012).

These initiatives will, however, have little supportive value if they are regarded as obligatory resulting from regulatory requirements (e.g. fair disciplinary procedures in terms of the Labour Relations Act, training and development opportunities in terms of the Skills Development Act or acceptable conditions of employment in terms of the Basic Conditions of Employment Act) or collective agreements with trade unions. Employees regard discretionary action that shows an appreciation for efforts made and commitment demonstrated as organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore et al., 2012a; Shore & Shore, 1995; Wayne et al., 1997). Actions that are externally motivated, such as those resulting from societal or trade union pressure, are less likely to be regarded by employees as supportive (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008). Nevertheless, in unionised organisations the extent to which employers accept the presence of the trade unions as representatives of the employees and a means of meeting their economic and socioemotional needs, and make a sincere effort to find ways of working with the trade unions to ensure employee well-being, may result in higher levels of POS among trade union members.

4.4.8 Summary

According to organisational support theory, employees develop a general perception of the extent to which their employing organisations value their contributions and care about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Shore & Shore, 1995). These perceptions (i.e. POS) arise from, for instance, observed fairness in their dealings with organisational representatives, the nature of employment relations policies, procedures and practices and the support received from immediate supervisors (Kurtessis et al., 2017; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Individuals' positive perceptions of the support provided by their employing organisations are, in turn, related to a variety of attitudinal (e.g. affective commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, trust and organisational identification) and behavioural (e.g. in-role performance, OCB, CWB and withdrawal) consequences (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Riggle et al., 2009).

Extant literature relies mainly on social exchange theory to explain the relationships between POS and employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. In terms of the social exchange view of the employee-employer relationship, employers' supportive actions are regarded as an indication of their commitment towards their employees. Employees attribute particular value to such actions, depending on their effort-outcome expectancies. If supportive actions are regarded as sincere and discretionary in nature and fulfil the employees' socioeconomic needs (e.g. approval, esteem, affiliation and emotional support), they are likely to create a sense of felt obligation towards the organisation. Employees who perceive a high level of support are therefore expected to feel indebted towards their employing organisations, and in return for the employer's care and valuation, to demonstrate a greater sense of commitment towards the organisation and make a greater effort (both in-role and extra-role) on the organisation's behalf. They will, however, expect the increased effort on behalf of the organisation to be noticed and appropriately rewarded.

For the purposes of this study, it was postulated that employees who feel valued and cared for by their organisations will demonstrate higher levels of organisational commitment and OCB and will be less likely to engage in CWB. Conversely, employees who do not receive the anticipated support from their employing organisations, are expected to reciprocate by decreasing their discretionary effort towards organisational goal achievement (i.e. extra-role behaviour) and their commitment to the organisation. In unionised organisations, they will be more likely to join and direct their efforts and loyalties towards the trade union, especially when the union is perceived as fulfilling or assisting in the fulfilment of their socioeconomic needs. Employees who feel unsupported by their employing organisations are also expected to adjust

their behaviour in order to reciprocate. This may include leaving the organisation or remaining in it, but engaging in retaliatory behaviour (CWB).

The present study was not concerned with identifying specific conditions that may enhance POS in the workplace. Instead, the focus was on how employees' perceptions of the extent to which their employing organisations value and care for them influence their reciprocal attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisations. It is argued that POS, together with the extent to which employers are perceived to be fulfilling their obligations in terms of the psychological contract and deal with employees fairly (POJ), may be regarded as an indication of the quality of the exchange relationship between the employer and employee. Employees' perceptions of the quality of the social exchange relationship, stemming from these perceptions and experiences, in turn, affect their relational attitudes towards and behaviour in their organisations.

Organisations that endeavour to encourage positive employer-employee relations should therefore ensure that they are aware of the specific needs of their employees and make a sincere effort to meet these needs. Although some policies, procedures and practices are enforced by, for instance, legislation or collective agreements, employers should not limit their supportive actions to compulsory obligations, because employees will not perceive this as support. While it is not necessarily possible to meet all employee needs, employers who show an understanding of these needs and make a deliberate unforced effort to address them in an equitable manner will be regarded as supportive. Furthermore, these supportive actions should be sincere (i.e. aimed at ensuring employee well-being) and not simply a means to an end. If employers engage in supportive practices merely as a means to increase employee productivity and performance or to enhance their societal standing, employees are likely to perceive these actions negatively, which may have a detrimental effect on their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

The main theoretical findings relating to POS as an antecedent of relational attitudes and behaviour and its relevance in enhancing employment relations are summarised in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

Theoretical Integration: Perceived Organisational Support

Theoretical model adopted	Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa's (1986) conceptualisation of POS						
Definition of perceived organisational support	Perceived organisational support (POS) is an affect-free cognition (Wayne et al., 2009) which encompasses the degree to which employees perceive that the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 500).						
Core construct	Perceived organisational support (regarded as a single construct)						
Person-centred variables impacting on perceived organisational support	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>Employment status</td> <td>Tenure</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Gender</td> <td>Age</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Education</td> <td></td> </tr> </table>	Employment status	Tenure	Gender	Age	Education	
Employment status	Tenure						
Gender	Age						
Education							
Relational outcomes of perceived organisational support in an ER context	<p>Positive relationships between POS and</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • organisational commitment (overall) • affective commitment • normative commitment • organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) <p>Negative relationships between POS and</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • continuance commitment • union commitment • counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) <p>Stronger relationships are expected between POS and organisationally directed behaviour (i.e. OCB-O and CWB-O) than individually directed behaviour (i.e. OCB-I and CWB-I).</p>						
Relevance in enhancing employment relations	One of the ways in which organisations can ensure more effective employer-employee relations is by providing the support that employees need to conduct their work and to deal with uncertainty and challenges that arise. In order to enhance the quality of the employer-employee relationship, supportive actions should be seen as sincere and discretionary initiatives aimed at addressing specific employee needs, rewarding effort and ensuring long-term well-being.						

In this section it was posited that POS may be regarded as an independent variable, which, together with psychological contract violation and POJ, indicates the quality of an employee's social exchange relationship with his or her employing organisation. Employees' work-related

perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) are expected to be interrelated, resulting in the formation of an overall impression of the quality of the employer-employee exchange relationship. The quality that an employee ascribes to the relationship (based on these perceptions and experiences) will, in turn, influence his or her attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation. In terms of the social exchange perspective and the rules of reciprocity, employees who experience a high-quality relationship with their employing organisation are more likely to reciprocate by displaying positive attitudes (e.g. organisational commitment) and behaviour (e.g. OCB). In contrast, when the quality of the relationship is regarded as poor, the employee may attempt to restore the balance by either adjusting his or her perceived obligations in the reciprocal relationship or displaying negative attitudes and behaviour. This may, for instance, result in a decrease in commitment to the organisation or, in unionised organisations, an increase in union commitment. In addition, perceived poor quality of the employer-employee relationship may lead to decreased effort in terms of both in-role and extra-role behaviour and may even provoke employees to engage in CWB as a means of retaliation.

Another aspect of the employer-employee relationship that has often been regarded as indicative of the quality of the exchange relationship is the level of trust that exists between the employee and the organisation or organisational representatives. Eisenberger (1990) postulated that a high level of POS enhances an employee's calculative involvement by creating trust that the organisation will take care to fulfil its exchange obligations of noticing and rewarding efforts made on its behalf. This positive relationship between POS and trust has been confirmed in a number of empirical studies (DeConinck, 2010; Ferres et al., 2005; Shukla & Rai, 2014; Tan & Tan, 2000; Treadway et al., 2004; Webber et al., 2012). Furthermore, POS has been found to be more strongly related to outcomes for employees with more trust in the organisation to reciprocate their contributions (Lynch et al., 1999; Shore, Bommer, et al., 2009). It is therefore acknowledged that trust is an essential component of the relationship because reciprocation by either of the parties cannot be guaranteed (Hochwarter et al., 2003a). It is, however, postulated that organisational cynicism and trust in the organisation should be viewed as two contrasting attitudes relating to the expectations that employees have about the credibility of their organisations and its managers as well as their work settings in general (Chiaburu et al., 2013). It can thus be expected that, while organisational trust will be high when employees regard their employing organisations as supportive, organisational cynicism will increase in the event of a lack of organisational support. It is therefore proposed that employees who perceive their organisations as supportive also believe that they will act in their best interest, resulting in higher levels of trust towards the organisation and its managers. Such employees therefore experience high-quality

social exchange relationships with their employing organisations, which are further strengthened by the increased level of trust, which ultimately manifests in positive attitudes towards and behaviour in their organisations. Conversely, employees who do not perceive their employing organisations as supportive may experience higher levels of cynicism towards the organisation and its managers, which may, in turn, negatively influence their attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation. The expected relationships between POS, POJ and psychological contract violation (as indicators of the quality of the social exchange relationship), organisational cynicism and trust as mediating variables, and relational attitudes and behaviour, are further explored in Chapter 5.

4.5 EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS

The work-related perceptions (POS & POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) that formed part of this study display some similarities in that they are all grounded in social exchange (Blau, 1964) and rely on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) as the explanatory theoretical framework for their impact on employee attitudes and behaviour (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). These similarities may raise questions relating to the unique contribution of each of the constructs to understanding the employer-employee relationship. These constructs, however, have been shown to be distinct (as conceptualised in the previous sections) and may each be regarded as essential indicators of the quality of the social exchange relationship between an employee and employer (Colquitt et al., 2014). Employees' perceptions of the quality of the exchange relationship are therefore not only influenced by the extent to which their employers' are perceived to fulfil their obligations in terms of the psychological contract, but also the perceived levels of justice demonstrated by and support received from the organisation (Alcover et al., 2017a; Rosen et al., 2009; Tekleab et al., 2005).

It has been shown in this chapter that each of these constructs (psychological contract violation, POJ and POS) may, in its own right, be regarded as an antecedent of a variety of attitudinal and behavioural outcomes in the workplace. It was also emphasised, however, that the impact of each of these constructs should not be viewed in isolation but that they collectively contribute to an employee's observation of the quality of his or her social exchange relationship with an employer. It is thus the combined effect of the extent to which the employer fulfils (or fails to fulfil) its obligations in terms of the psychological contract (psychological contract violation), the extent to which it is perceived as applying fair principles in the allocation of resources and dealings with employees (POJ) and the extent to which it exhibits valuation for the contributions and care for the well-being of employees (POS), that ultimately determines the way that employees will feel about their employers and act in the workplace.

In this chapter, it was shown how employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) influence their relational attitudes (organisation commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace. The interrelationship between these constructs and their potential collective impact on employee attitudes and behaviour were also considered. These relationships, as depicted in Figure 4.14, which serves as an integration of the extant theory, were discussed in this chapter. This is followed by a summary and evaluation of the relevant literature in line with the objectives of this study.

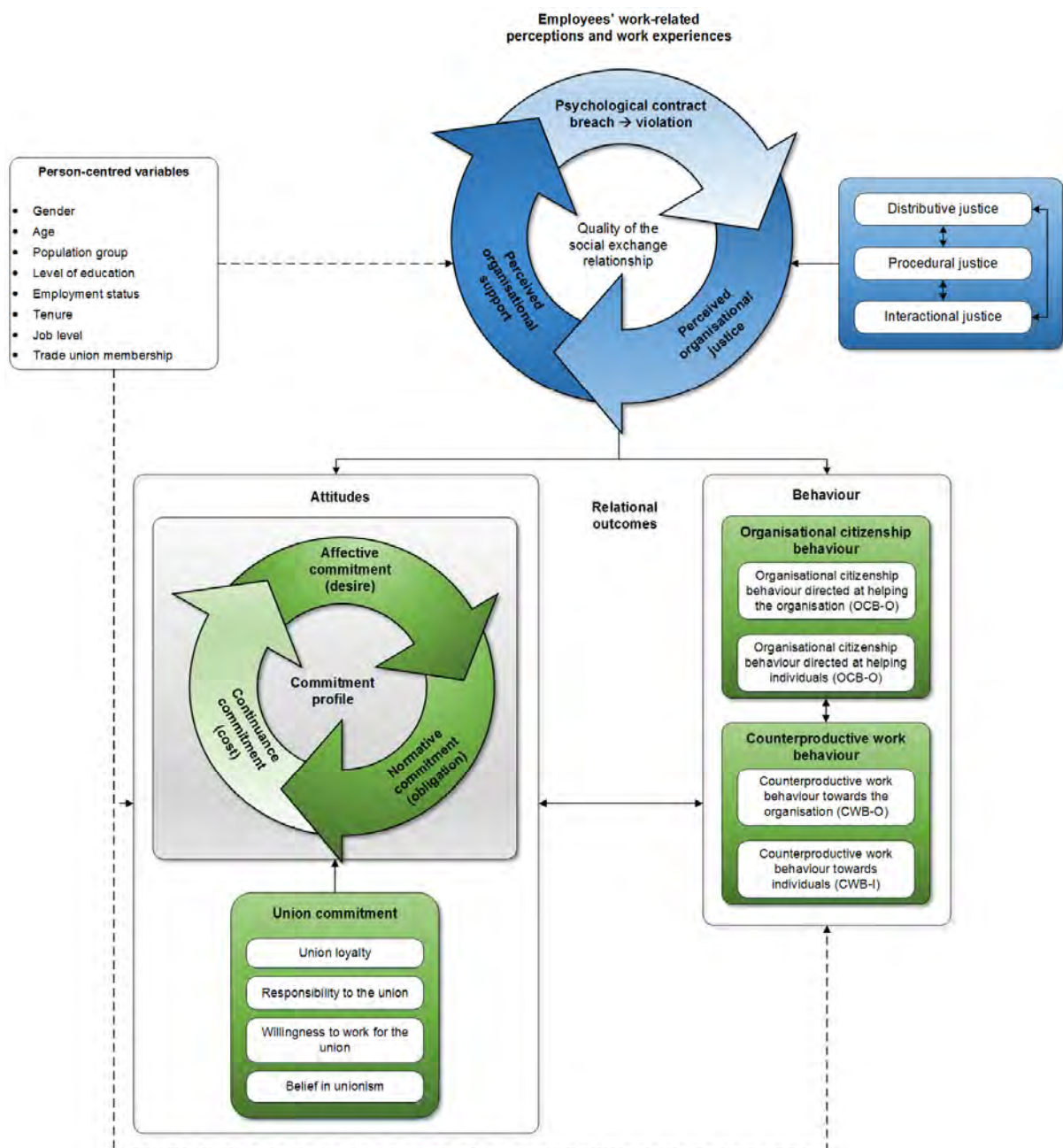


Figure 4.14. Theoretical Integration of the Antecedents of Relational Attitudes and Behaviour in the Workplace

Firstly, social exchange theory, as supported by psychological contract theory, was relied upon as the theoretical framework to better understand employees' perceptions of the reciprocal obligations of the parties in the employment relationship, as well as their reaction when they perceive that these obligations have not been met. A clear distinction was made between psychological contract breach, referring to an employee's perception that the organisation has failed to meet one or more of its obligations in terms of the psychological contract, and violation, which relates to an employee's emotional reaction to such a breach (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). It was also emphasised that a perceived psychological contract breach does not always result in an emotional reaction of anger and betrayal (i.e. psychological contract violation), but that employees react differently to perceived breaches, depending on their interpretation thereof and the meaning they attach to these breaches (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 2000). Furthermore, psychological contract violation was shown to elicit more severe relational reactions than the mere observation of a psychological contract breach (Restubog et al., 2015).

Although a variety of both personal and organisational outcomes of a perceived psychological contract violation have been reported in the literature, the focus in this study was on specific relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) that are deemed important in an employment relations context. It was shown that employees who perceive that their psychological contract with their employing organisation has been breached are less likely to identify with and remain committed to the organisation (Zhao et al., 2007) and to engage in discretionary behaviour aimed at advancing the organisation or its people (OCB) (Restubog et al., 2007; Zhao et al., 2007). Rather, such employees are likely to increase their interest in and loyalty to trade unions (Bashir & Nasir, 2013; Fiorito, 2001; Turnley et al., 2004) and, instead of leaving the organisation, they may choose to remain but, as a form of retaliation, to engage in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation (Bordia et al., 2008; Hsu et al., 2011; Jensen et al., 2010). This is especially true of employees with a collectivistic disposition who value communal relations (Triandis, 1995; Van Knippenberg et al., 2015). It was further argued that these direct relationships between psychological contract breach and resultant attitudes and behaviour may be stronger if the breach is accompanied by an intense emotional reaction (psychological contract violation) (Cassar & Briner, 2011).

Secondly, employees' perceptions of the fairness of treatment received from the organisation were shown to impact on their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Colquitt et al., 2013; Greenberg & Tyler, 1987; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013). Social exchange theory and psychological contract theory were relied upon to support the view that employees who

perceive that they are treated fairly and equitably by their employing organisations are likely to respond with a positive attitude, in the form of increased commitment towards the organisation (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2010; Lavelle et al., 2007; Lehmann-Willenbrock et al., 2013) and behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation and its people (Moorman, 1991). Although strong correlations between all three forms of justice (procedural, distributive and interactional) and organisational commitment were reported, procedural justice was regarded as a stronger predictor of organisationally directed responses such as organisational commitment (Colquitt, 2012; Konovsky, 2000; Wayne et al., 2002). Furthermore, it was shown that employees' perceptions of distributive, procedural and interactive justice in their organisation are interrelated, resulting in both direct and indirect relationships with OCB (Moorman, 1991). It was also postulated that employees, especially those with a collectivistic disposition, who perceive injustice in their workplaces, may be inclined to turn to a trade union in an attempt to ensure fair treatment and the equitable distribution of resources (Blader, 2007; Buttigieg et al., 2007; Kelly & Kelly, 1994). Employees who feel that they have been treated unfairly by their organisations or observe inequity in their workplaces are also likely to reciprocate by engaging in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or individuals in it (Chiang et al., 2013).

The third antecedent of relational attitudes and behaviour addressed in this chapter was employees' perception of the degree to which their employing organisations value their contributions and care about their well-being or perceived organisational support (POS) (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Social exchange theory was relied upon to explain the relationships between POS and employee attitudes and behaviour (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). It was postulated that POS may be regarded as employees' perceptions of the organisation's commitment towards them (Tavares et al., 2016). Hence, if employees perceive that they are valued and cared for by their organisation (i.e. high POS), they are likely to reciprocate by displaying equally high levels of commitment to the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993) and a willingness to engage in discretionary behaviour that benefits the organisation or individuals in it (OCB) (Chênevert et al., 2015). In contrast, employees who experience low levels of POS feel that their contributions are not valued by the organisation and, as a result, feel betrayed. These feelings of betrayal may manifest in cynicism towards the organisation (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008; Chiaburu et al., 2013; Hochwarter et al., 2003a; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014), which may, in turn, result in a variety of undesirable outcomes, including employees in unionised organisations directing their loyalties and commitment towards trade union activities (Turnley et al., 2004) and engaging in behaviour aimed at threatening the well-being of the organisation and individuals in it (Abas et al., 2015; Bordia et al., 2008).

However, it was emphasised that employers' actions will only be regarded as supportive if particular conditions are met. These actions should not only address employees' specific needs, but should also be regarded as sincere and discretionary. Actions that are disguised as supportive but are actually intended to serve the needs of the employer or aimed at obtaining valued resources from employees, will not be regarded as supportive and may in fact have a negative impact on employees' perceptions (e.g. decreased commitment) and behaviour (e.g. less willing to engage in OCB and increased propensity to engage in CWB) in the workplace (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Kurtessis et al., 2017).

Employees' perceptions of the quality of the exchange relationship are expected to be influenced not only by the extent to which their employers are perceived to fulfil their obligations in terms of the psychological contract, but also the perceived levels of justice demonstrated by and support received from the organisation (Alcover et al., 2017a; Rosen et al., 2009; Tekleab et al., 2005). Employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) are therefore expected to interact to form an overall impression of the quality of the social exchange relationship that an employee has with his or her employing organisation. For instance, a perceived breach of the psychological contract is expected to also subject the employee to feelings of injustice and betrayal (i.e. psychological contract violation) (Robinson et al., 1994). It was also shown that employees' perceptions of justice may alter their interpretation of and affective reactions to a psychological contract breach and hence collectively influence their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Cassar & Buttigieg, 2015; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). Moreover, employees interpret the extent to which their employing organisation fulfils or fails to fulfil its obligations in terms of the psychological contract as a reflection of how much the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Bal et al., 2010; Karagonlar et al., 2016). Employees' perceptions of organisational support are thus driven by the extent to which employees believe that the organisation fulfils or fails to fulfil its obligations in terms of the psychological contract (Kiewitz et al., 2009). In addition, the extent to which an employer is seen as displaying justice principles affects employees' perceptions of the support they receive from their employing organisations (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore et al., 2012a; Shore & Shore, 1995). It was therefore deemed important in the current study to explore the interrelationship between these constructs and to determine how they collectively impact on employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005).

Extant literature has shown that employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) are subjective and idiosyncratic in nature

and may therefore be influenced by individual characteristics and dispositions (Rousseau, 1995; Schmidt, 2016; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). Individual dispositions include employees' affective disposition, which refers to the dispositional inclination to experience a particular mood or to react to objects in a particular way, creating a cognitive predisposition through which individuals approach and understand personal experiences, and in so doing, impacting on their attitudes and behaviour (Adil & Kamal, 2013; Jain, Malhotra, & Guan, 2012) and their cultural disposition in terms of individualism and collectivism (Triandis, 1995). Individualism/collectivism is regarded as more significant because of the cultural diversity of the South African workforce and the persistent animosity in the workplace resulting from cultural differences (see Chapter 2). The envisaged moderating effect of employees' disposition towards individualism/collectivism is explored in detail in Chapter 6. In this chapter, the focus was on person-centred variables that may affect employees' perceptions of organisational justice and support as well as their expectations in terms of employer obligations.

Individual differences in terms of gender (Wei, Ma et al., 2015), age (Bal, De Lange, Jansen, et al., 2013; Bellou, 2009; Farr & Ringseis, 2002; Ng & Feldman, 2009), tenure (De Vos et al., 2003; Payne et al., 2015; Sherman & Morley, 2015) and employment status (Chambel et al., 2016; Sherman & Morley, 2015) have been shown to influence the effect that psychological contract breach will have on employees' affective reactions (psychological contract violation) and, in turn, on their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Arshad, 2016; Dulac et al., 2008).

Relationships of specific individual characteristics to organisational justice perceptions were also reported. For instance, employees' status of employment (permanent vs temporary) may impact on their perceptions of what constitutes justice in the employment relationship as well as their reactions to perceived injustice (Chambel et al., 2016; Sherman & Morley, 2015). Additional factors that influence employees' standing in the workplace include job level and education, as well as experience that is often associated with longer tenure in an organisation (Clay-Warner et al., 2013). These factors have also been shown to impact on employees' perceptions of organisational justice as well as the value they attach to specific dimensions of justice (Clay-Warner et al., 2013; Elamin & Tlaiss, 2015; Heffernan, 2012). Employees' age, gender and population group have also been found to impact on their reactions to negative events such as perceived injustice or unfair treatment in the workplace (Bal et al., 2011; Simpson & Kaminski, 2007), while negative relationships between justice perceptions and union membership were reported (Blader, 2007; Buttigieg et al., 2007).

In investigating the impact of individual differences as predictors of employees' expectations of and reactions to POS, extant literature has emphasised mainly personality dimensions and dispositional tendencies. Only a limited number of researchers have reported relationships between person-centred variables such as employment status, tenure, gender, age, level of education and POS (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Johlke et al., 2002; Nielsen, 2014; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle et al., 2009; Smit et al., 2015; Suazo & Turnley, 2010; Wayne et al., 1997), while others (Kiewitz et al., 2009; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Lee & Peccei, 2007; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006) have shown that these individual characteristics have little to no effect on relationships in the organisational support literature. However, given the interrelationship between employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), it was deemed essential to consider the possible confounding impact that employees' demographic characteristics (specifically gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level, and union membership, which have been used as control variables in social exchange research) may have on their evaluation of the quality of the social exchange relationship, and hence on their attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace.

Further to differentiating between the identified antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace and exploring the relationships between these constructs, this study has thus made an additional contribution by examining psychological contract violation, POJ and POS in a diverse sample of respondents (in terms of gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level, and union membership), whereas previous studies have utilised mainly homogeneous samples (Suazo et al., 2005).

Finally, the relevance of these particular antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour (POJ, POS and psychological contract violation) in a South African employment relations context was reiterated. It was argued that fairness and justice are central to employment relations and that positive perceptions of organisational justice may be regarded as a gesture of goodwill on the part of the organisation, which, in turn, engenders an obligation on the part of employees to reciprocate by displaying positive attitudes (e.g. organisational commitment) and engaging in behaviour that benefits the organisation and its people (OCB) (Agarwal, 2014; Bendix, 2015; Nel et al., 2016). It was argued that too much emphasis is often placed on the formal (legal), collective and economic dimensions of the employment relationship, while the reality of employment relations in the workplace is not based on legal rights and duties, but emerges through the daily interaction and interpersonal relationships formed between the parties in the relationship (Nel et al., 2016). Although the importance of formal contracts of

employment and regulatory requirements in managing employer-relations is not disputed, it was argued that a broader approach to employment relations management is necessary to encompass employees' socioemotional needs, as well as both the implicit and explicit obligations of the parties in the relationship (Rousseau, 1995). Employment relations policies, procedures and practices should be aimed at embracing the interdependence implicit in the employment relationship and therefore show concern for the well-being of employees, valuation of their contributions to the success of the organisation and equity and fairness in decision making and the distribution of resources. Organisations should thus strive towards enhancing mutual trust and respect as essential components of successful employment relations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Jordaan & Cillie, 2015; Li & Thatcher, 2015; Potgieter et al., 2015).

The significance of employers' actions in the workplace (i.e. fulfilment of obligations and displaying fairness and support in their dealings with employees) and employees' subsequent reactions, which help to draw the boundaries of mutual expectations in the employment relationship, was thus emphasised (Karagonlar et al., 2016; Schmidt, 2016; Sherman & Morley, 2015). In order to ensure effective employment relations, it is essential for employers to better understand employees' expectations in terms of the psychological contract as well as what they require from the employer in terms of justice and support. Employers should be aware of the potential impact that perceived violation of the contract and perceptions of injustice or lack of support may have on employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. This will enable them to implement employment relations practices aimed at ensuring high-quality social exchange relationships by meeting their expected obligations in terms of the psychological contract and providing honest feedback if fulfilment is not possible; displaying fairness and equitable distribution of resources in their dealings with employees; and providing support aimed at meeting employees' socioemotional needs and ensuring their well-being. Hence, by applying the reciprocity norm to their relationship, both parties (employer and employee) benefit (Caesens, Stinglhamber, et al., 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter relied mainly on social exchange theory, as supported by psychological contract theory, to gain a better understanding of the dynamics of employer-employee relations in the workplace. An integrative approach was thus followed in exploring employees' affective, attitudinal and behavioural responses to work-related perceptions and work experiences. Employees' perceptions of the extent to which their expectations in terms of their psychological contracts with their employees are fulfilled and the levels of support and justice in the

organisation were thus examined in terms of the influence of these perceptions on the quality of the exchange relationship, as well as their affective responses to perceived imbalances, injustice and lack of support. It was postulated that a better understanding of the interplay between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), will enable employers to amend their employment relations policies, practices and procedures to encourage positive employee attitudes and behaviour and to address factors that may give rise to negative attitudes and behaviour.

Hence, three distinct but interrelated constructs that are regarded in extant literature as antecedents of employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace were identified, namely psychological contract violation, POJ and POS. Each of these constructs was clearly conceptualised and shown to be independent. The relevant theories relating to the conceptualisation and development of these constructs were outlined and an overview provided of the relationships between these antecedents and particular attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace. These attitudes and behaviour were selected because of their deemed importance in an employment relations context. However, it was also emphasised that the impact of each of these constructs should not be viewed in isolation, but that they collectively contribute to an employee's observation of the quality of his or her social exchange relationship with an employer. The interrelationships between the psychological contract violation, POJ and POS were thus explored, and it was argued that these constructs individually and collectively influence employees' relational attitudes and behaviour.

Moreover, it was suggested that because of the subjective and idiosyncratic in nature of employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), the potential impact of individual characteristics on the way they experience and react to these organisational events should be considered. Several person-centred variables that influence how an individual experiences and reacts to psychological contract violation and perceived organisational justice and support that have been reported in extant literature, were therefore discussed.

In terms of the literature review, the following research aims were achieved in this chapter:

Literature research aim 3: To conceptualise work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as a set of antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour.

Literature research aim 6: To determine how the biographical characteristics of individuals (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) relate to their individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism, work-related perceptions and work experiences, their cynicism towards and trust in the organisation and their relational attitudes and behaviour (partly achieved).

Chapter 5 focuses on the mediating variables of significance in the suggested psychological framework. Organisational cynicism and trust are conceptualised as a set of mediating constructs in the relationship between work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB).

CHAPTER 5: THE MEDIATING EFFECTS OF ORGANISATIONAL CYNICISM AND TRUST

Keywords: mediation, organisational cynicism, organisational trust

This chapter posits organisational cynicism and trust as mediating variables in the relationship between employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences and their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, as reflected in Figure 5.1.

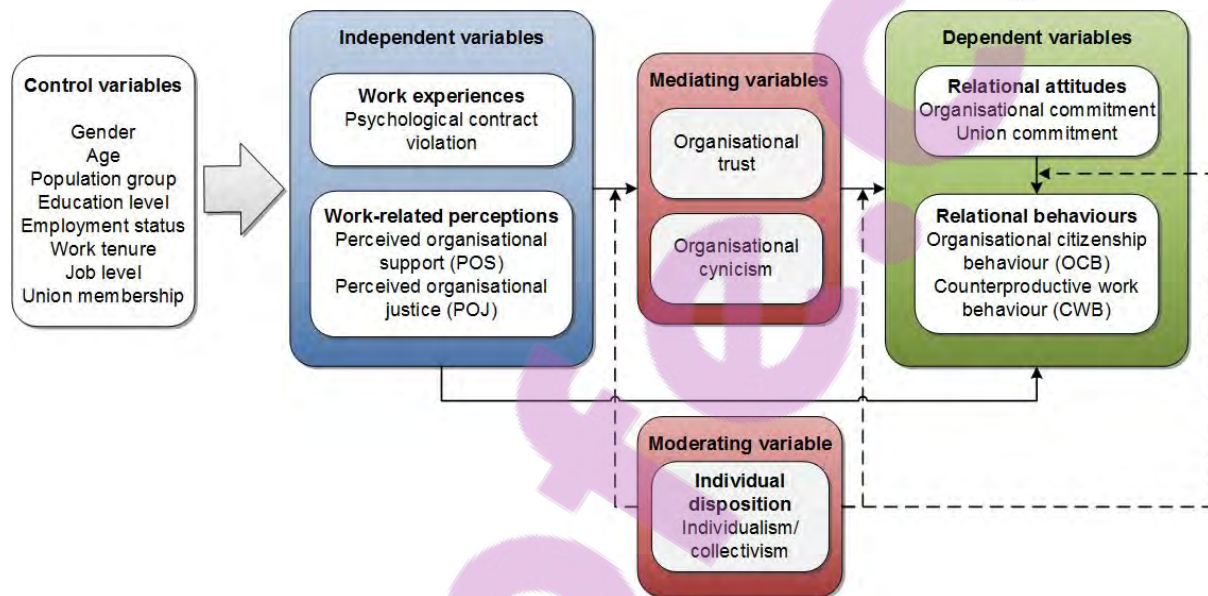


Figure 5.1. An Overview of the Relationships between the Control, Independent, Mediating, Moderating and Dependent Variables

The aim of the chapter is to conceptualise organisational cynicism and trust as mediating constructs in employment relations. Drawing on social exchange theory, it is theorised that organisational cynicism and trust may intervene in the relationships between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, CWB and OCB) variables of relevance in this study. The associations that organisational cynicism and trust have with the independent (psychological contract violation, POJ and POS) and dependent (organisational and union commitment, CWB and OCB) variables, as well as their interrelationships, as reported in extant literature, are explored. Furthermore, those person-centred variables that have been shown to influence the development of organisational cynicism and trust are described. The implications for employment relations and practices are highlighted.

5.1 ORGANISATIONAL TRUST

Trusting employer-employee relationships may be viewed as a decisive source of sustainable competitive advantage for organisations (Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Dietz, Martins, & Searle, 2011). Trust is regarded as vital for organisational success as high levels of organisational trust may be associated with enhanced cooperation, lower levels of conflict and increased performance (Searle, Weibel, & Den Hartog, 2011; Wöhrle, Van Oudenhoven, Otten, & Van der Zee, 2014). Trust in key institutions (business, government, NGOs and the media), however, is at an all-time global low, giving rise to an increased sense of injustice, cynicism towards and a lack of confidence in government and business leaders and a growing desire for change (Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Edelman Intelligence, 2017; Mishra & Mishra, 2013).

The 2017 Edelman Trust Barometer (Edelman Intelligence, 2017) identified South Africa as one of 19 countries in which distrust¹ has become the prevailing sentiment among the general population. According to this report (Edelman Intelligence, 2017), declining levels of trust may be ascribed to economic and social vulnerability resulting from perceptions of widespread corruption, the negative consequences of globalisation, the pace of innovation and eroding social values. In the workplace, business practices such as re-engineering, mergers, outsourcing and downsizing, as well as challenges resulting from globalisation and labour law reforms, have an impact on job security and contribute to deteriorating trust relationships between employers and employees (Lamertz & Bhave, 2017; Martins, 2000). The sociopolitical transformation in South Africa following the end of the apartheid era, furthermore, created an environment characterised by mistrust among diverse groups, which has spilled over to the workplace and continues to negatively impact on workplace relations and work-related outcomes (Engelbrecht & Cloete, 2000; Martins & Von der Ohe, 2011). Business is expected to take the lead in regaining trust by, inter alia, building trusting employer-employee relations by means of fair and supportive organisational and employment relations practices (Edelman Intelligence, 2017; Jordaan & Ulrich, 2016).

The development of trust and its influence on workplace relationships have received widespread attention in organisational psychology research (Zand, 2016). The increasing diversity of the workforce, interdependency in work processes and changes in the organisation

¹ Although there is a slight difference in the meanings ascribed to distrust (the feeling that someone or something cannot be relied upon) and mistrust (being suspicious of or having no confidence in someone or something) (Oxford Dictionaries, n.d.), these words were regarded as synonyms for the purposes of this study, with both reflecting a trustor's (the employee) unmet expectations and negative beliefs about a trustee (the employing organisation).

of work (e.g. flatter hierarchies, more participative management styles, implementation of work teams and employee empowerment) have necessitated research aimed at better understanding the development and consequences of trust in organisations (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011; Worrall, Cooper, & Lindorff, 2011). Trust is regarded as the underpinning of social exchange (Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Jiang et al., 2017) and is essential in establishing and maintaining effective employer-employee relations (Aryee et al., 2002; Yang, Mossholder, & Peng, 2009). In an employment relations context, the development of trust may be regarded as a crucial determinant of how individuals perceive workplace events and relations and a significant factor in promoting desirable work-related attitudes and behaviour (Dietz et al., 2011; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011).

Although the importance of building trust in an organisational context is undisputed, the role of senior management as representatives of the employing organisation is often underestimated (Willes Towers Watson, 2014). While extant literature has shown that employees' trust in senior management appears to be lower than their trust in their immediate supervisors (Worrall et al., 2011), research tends to focus mainly on interpersonal trust (i.e. between employees and their direct supervisors) and the antecedents and outcomes of trust in interpersonal relations (e.g. Bagrami & Hime, 2007; Mayer et al., 1995; Six & Skinner, 2010). Organisational trust (i.e. the trust between employees and their employing organisations) has received less attention (Mishra & Mishra, 2013). It has, however, been shown that employees who regard managers as trustworthy tend to transfer that sentiment to the organisation as an entity, and are subsequently more likely to reciprocate by engaging in behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2004; Tan & Tan, 2000). The level of organisational trust is also considered indicative of the nature and strength of an employment relationship as it reflects the employees' positive perceptions about the employer's future actions (Ng, 2015; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007).

The aim of this study was to contribute to the existing body of knowledge relating to the role of organisational trust in shaping employees' reactions to work-related perceptions and work experiences and its influence on their attitudes and behaviour in and towards their employing organisations. The section commences with a conceptualisation of organisational trust and an exploration of the relevant theoretical models. This is followed by an overview of the person-centred variables affecting trust and the antecedents of trust in an organisational context. Finally, the relational outcomes of organisational trust as reported in extant literature, as well as the significance of trust in a South African employment relations context, are discussed.

5.1.1 Conceptualisation of organisational trust

Trust has been studied from various social sciences perspectives, which has resulted in different approaches to the conceptualisation thereof and an inability to find a universally accepted scholarly definition (Von der Ohe, 2016). Early research on trust in organisations followed a behavioural approach to trust development, conceptualising trust in terms of confidence and expectations (e.g. Deutsch, 1958, 1960; Lindsold, 1978; Pilisuk & Skolnick, 1968). Trust was therefore seen as a rational choice, which manifests in cooperative behaviour (Lewicki et al., 2006). It was also argued that trust would increase over time in response to reciprocal cooperative behaviour and decline when cooperative behaviour was not reciprocated (Lewicki et al., 2006).

The conceptualisation of trust, however, evolved by including not only behavioural expectations but also cognitive and affective processes involved in trust development (i.e. a psychological approach) (e.g. Hosmer, 1995; Jones & George, 1998; Kramer, 1999; Mayer et al., 1995; McAllister, 1995). This approach has informed the two most commonly cited definitions of trust in organisational research, namely those of Mayer et al. (1995) and Rousseau et al. (1998). Mayer et al. (1995, p. 712) defined trust in an organisational context as a trustor's willingness to make himself or herself vulnerable to the actions of another (the trustee). This vulnerability is based on the expectation that the trustee will perform a particular action of significance to the trustor even though it is not possible to monitor or control the other party's actions (Mayer et al., 1995). Rousseau et al. (1998, p. 395) conceptualised trust as a psychological state (rather than a behaviour or a rational choice) composed of two interrelated cognitive processes, namely (1) a willingness to accept vulnerability to the actions of another party, and (2) positive expectations about the other party's intentions, motivations and behaviour (Lewicki et al., 2006).

The prominence of interdependence, expectations, vulnerability and control in conceptualising organisational trust is widely reflected in the definitions adopted in extant literature (see Table 5.1). When conceptualising organisational trust from an employee's perspective it is thus essential to incorporate the interdependent nature of the employment relationship and particularly the dependence of the employee on the benevolence of the employer (Li, 2007; Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998), as well as an employee's positive expectations that the employing organisation will protect and promote his or her interests, even when monitoring is not possible (Dirks & Ferrin, 2000; Mayer et al., 1995). The common emphasis in the conceptualisation of trust is the willingness of the trustor (employee) to take risks (i.e. make himself or herself vulnerable), implying that there is

something of importance that may be lost (Bews, 2000; Martins, 2000; Mayer et al., 1995). Zand (1997) explained that the risk lies in making oneself vulnerable to another, even though the potential benefit is less than the potential loss that may occur if the other party abuses this vulnerability. For an employee, this vulnerability may, for instance, entail risk for his or her reputation, opportunity for promotion/compensation and continued employment (Burke et al., 2007).

From the above it can be deduced that trust has cognitive, affective and behavioural components. According to Lewicki and Brinsfield (2017), trust comprises not only the parties' beliefs and expectations (cognitive component), but also the emotional attachment they have towards one another, as reflected in the willingness to be vulnerable (affective component), and the risk-taking behaviour that manifests from this vulnerability (behavioural component).

In this study, trust was conceptualised within the boundaries of industrial psychology and more specifically in the context of employment relations. According to Altuntas and Baykal (2010), organisational trust in this context may be regarded as a conviction held by individuals and groups in an organisation that the organisation and its management will act in good faith and uphold the commitments made; that relations between employees and management will be honest; and that the parties will not take advantage of one another even if the opportunity arises. The focus is on trust from the employee's perspective (i.e. an individual's trust in management as a collective) (Brower, Lester, Korsgaard, & Dineen, 2009). When considering this context and incorporating the cognitive, affective and behavioural components of trust, as advocated in extant literature (Altuntas & Baykal, 2010; Martins, 2000; Mayer et al., 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998; Von der Ohe, 2016), the following definition of organisational trust was thus adopted for the purposes of this study: Organisational trust is regarded as a psychological state, reflecting an employee's willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of the employing organisation, based on the conviction that the organisation and its management will act in good faith and uphold its obligations towards its employees without having to resort to formal processes to monitor or control employer actions.

Organisational trust is viewed from an individual level of analysis with the organisation as referent and therefore entails an employee's rational processing of information about the organisation's trustworthiness (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Ng, 2015). Hence, the employee evaluates to what extent the organisation may be regarded as having honourable intentions (benevolence and integrity) and being able to achieve its goals and meet its obligations (Dietz et al., 2011; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011). Perceived organisational trustworthiness informs an employee's

willingness to be vulnerable (behavioural intent), which ultimately leads to risk-taking behaviour (Cho & Park, 2011; Dietz, 2011). The outcome of this risk-taking behaviour again influences the belief and the circular process continues (Dietz, 2011; Mayer et al., 1995).

Finally, in order to ensure a concise understanding of organisational trust as adopted in this study, it was deemed essential to consider the distinction between trust and distrust as reported in extant literature. Mayer et al. (1995) adopted the traditional notion that trust and distrust are opposite ends of the same continuum. In terms of this approach, distrust is thus regarded as a lack or absence of trust (Schoorman et al., 2007). It has, however, been argued in more recent literature that trust and distrust are two distinct constructs and should not be regarded as opposite ends of the same continuum (e.g. Cho, 2006; Dimoka, 2010; Keyton & Smith, 2009; Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998; Saunders, Dietz, & Thornhill, 2014). Evidence of the divergence between trust and distrust has been found in the development processes involved (Six & Skinner, 2010). These processes are asymmetrical in that it is far more difficult to build trusting relationships than to violate trust (Lapidot, Kark, & Shamir, 2007). Also, while trust may be regarded as having confident positive expectations about the other party's behaviour, distrust does not mean that such expectations do not exist, but rather that there are negative expectations (Lewicki et al., 1998). Trust and distrust thus relate to different sets of expectations and manifest in different ways (Saunders et al., 2014).

The latter approach was adopted in this study, namely that trust is regarded as employees' willingness to engage in risk-taking behaviour (e.g. becoming emotionally attached to an organisation and engaging in behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation), based on positive expectations of the organisation and its managers. Distrust relates to employees' unmet expectations and their belief that their employing organisations will take advantage of them whenever the opportunity arises (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989; Mirvis & Kanter, 1989, 1991). This belief gives rise to frustration, disillusionment and contempt towards the organisation and its leaders, which is reflected in higher levels of organisational cynicism (Andersson & Bateman, 1997). Organisational cynicism is addressed as a distinct construct in section 5.2. The relationship between organisational trust and cynicism is also explored in this section.

5.1.2 Theoretical models of organisational trust

Trust is widely regarded as the basis for social exchange – hence the fact that many theories of trust are set in the social exchange framework (Byrne et al., 2011; Freire & Azevedo, 2015; Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006). These theories suggest that, when applying the notion of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) in an organisational context, one would expect

employees who regard their managers (as a proxy for their employing organisations) as trustworthy to feel indebted towards these organisations and respond by displaying positive attitudes and engaging in behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation and/or people in it (Freire & Azevedo, 2015). Mayer et al.'s (1995) integrative model of organisational trust, which is one of the most widely cited models of trust and commonly regarded as the most influential model of trust beliefs (Frazier, Tupper, & Fainshmidt, 2016; PytlikZillig et al., 2016; Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011), embraces the notion of social exchange, suggesting that those individuals who perceive organisational leaders as having a high regard for employer-employee relations, will be more likely to reciprocate this sentiment. Mayer et al.'s (1995) model theorises how individuals' beliefs affect how they behave in their interactions with the foci of such beliefs and, because of its relational focus, it serves as the point of departure for conceptualising trust and understanding its antecedents and outcomes in an organisational context. This section commences with a discussion of Mayer et al.'s (1995) model, followed by an exploration of alternative trust models that have been proposed in extant literature. The definition of trust and the main assumptions or findings reported in each of these seminal studies are provided in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1

Seminal Studies Relating to Organisational Trust

Source	Definition or description of trust	Main assumptions or findings
Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman (1995)	The willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party, based on the expectation that the other party will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 712).	Core focus: Interpersonal trust in an organisational context A definition of trust, differentiating it from similar constructs, was proposed. A model of the antecedents and outcomes of trust, integrating research from multiple disciplines, was suggested. The importance of risk taking in interpersonal relationships was emphasised. Characteristics of both the trustor and the trustee were included in the conceptualisation of trust.
Gillespie & Dietz (2009)	Trust not defined. Focus on perceived organisational trustworthiness, which is defined as "the set of confident positive	Core focus: Trust repair at the organisational level

Source	Definition or description of trust	Main assumptions or findings
	expectations employees have about the intentions and likely future actions of their employer” (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009, p. 128; Lewicki et al., 1998).	A systematic, multilevel framework for understanding trust repair at the organisational level was proposed. Drawing on systems theory, the manner in which components of an organisation’s system shape employees’ perceptions of the organisation’s trustworthiness and contribute to failures and effective trust repair was explored.
Dietz & Den Hartog (2006)	Reflects the distinction drawn by McEvily, Perrone, and Zaheer (2003, p. 93) between trust’s three necessary constituent parts: as “an expectation, a willingness to be vulnerable and a risk-taking act”.	Core focus: Intra-organisational trust Provided an overview of the conceptualisations and definitions of organisational trust in the management and organisational literature. Presented a framework of issues for researchers to consider when designing trust-related research.
Burke et al. (2007)	Adopted Rousseau et al.’s (1998, p. 395) definition of trust as “a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another”.	Core focus: Trust in leadership Provided an overview of the antecedents, moderators and outcomes of trust in leadership. Presented an integrative model of trust in leadership.
Martins (2002)	The process in which a trustor relies on a trustee (a person or group of people) to act according to specific expectations that are important to the trustor without taking advantage of the trustor’s vulnerability (Martins, 2002, p. 757).	Core focus: Managing trust in an organisational context Investigated the relationships between the “Big Five” personality dimensions, managerial practices and trust relationships between managers and employees. Found that both managerial practices and the “Big Five” personality dimensions of the manager may influence subordinates indirectly, but that the strongest predictor of trust relationships is managerial practices.

Source	Definition or description of trust	Main assumptions or findings
Dirks & Ferrin (2002)	Adopted Rousseau et al.'s (1998) definition of trust (see Burke et al., 2007 above).	Core focus: Trust in leadership Provided estimates of the primary relationships between trust in leadership and key outcomes, antecedents and correlates. Explored how different leadership referents (direct supervisors vs organisational leadership) and definitions of trust (types of trust) result in systematically different relationships between trust in leadership and its antecedents and outcomes.
Von der Ohe (2014)	Trust is considered a workplace relevant belief or attitude towards another organisational member (Von der Ohe, 2014, p. 11).	Core focus: Organisational trust relationships Developed a unified model of trust in supervisors, which emphasises the importance of the affective component as an antecedent of trust towards supervisors in organisations in an African context. Found managerial concern, based on benevolent managerial practices and communication, to be the strongest predictor of trust.

Each of the models listed in the above table is briefly described in the following sections and their implications for the conceptualisation and operationalisation of trust in the context of this study are highlighted.

5.1.2.1 *Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman's integrative model of organisational trust*

Mayer et al. (1995) developed a model that is widely regarded as the most influential model of organisational trust (Von der Ohe, 2014). They were the first researchers to address the importance of risk taking in interpersonal relationships and to include characteristics of both the trustor (the trusting party) and the trustee (the party to be trusted) in their conceptualisation of trust, the factors that contribute to trust and the outcomes of trust in an organisational setting (Bews, 2000; Knoll & Gill, 2011). Mayer et al.'s (1995) integrative model of organisational trust is depicted in Figure 5.2 and is discussed in more detail below.

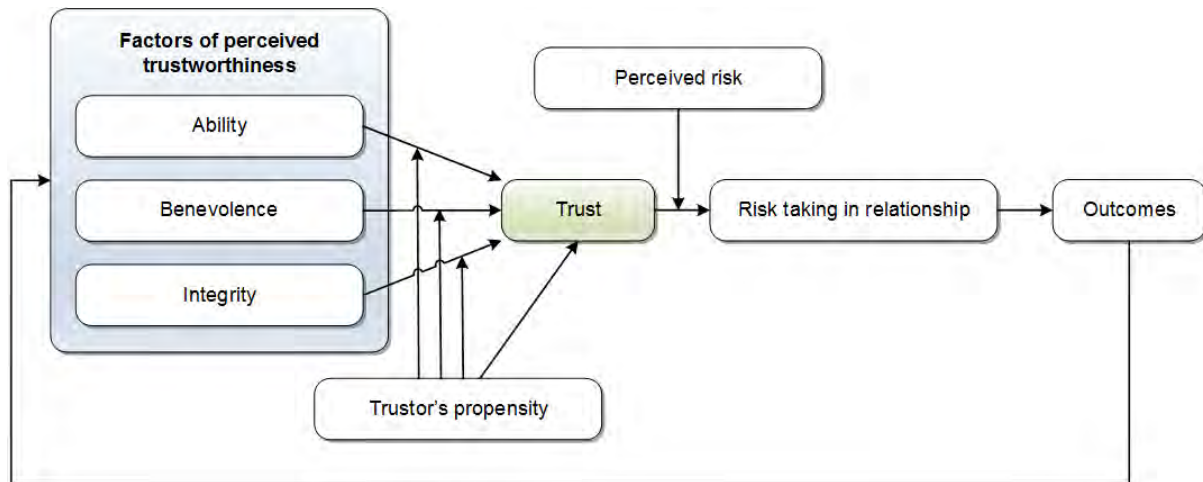


Figure 5.2. Integrative Model of Organisational Trust adapted from Mayer et al. (1995, p. 715)

Mayer et al.'s (1995) model includes two parties who are in an interpersonal relationship, namely the trustor, referring to the individual who engages in trusting behaviour, and the trustee or the party to be trusted. The model furthermore differentiates between factors that contribute to trust (antecedents), trust itself and the outcomes of trust (Mayer et al., 1995).

(a) *Characteristics of the trustor and trustee*

Mayer et al. (1995) posited that, in order to understand individuals' willingness to trust one another, cognisance should be taken of the characteristics of both the trustor and the trustee. They (Mayer et al., 1995) suggested that two factors contribute to the likelihood that a trustor will trust a trustee, namely the trustor's propensity to trust others in general and the trustor's perception relating to the trustworthiness of the trustee (Mayer, Bobko, Davis, & Gavin, 2011). An individual's propensity to trust or trusting disposition is a personality characteristic (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011), which was first defined by Rotter (1967) as a general, fairly stable, expectancy held by an individual about the trustworthiness of others. The propensity to trust is therefore not indicative of a trustor's willingness to trust a particular individual (or trustee), but a general willingness to trust others (Bernerth & Walker, 2009; Mayer et al., 1995). Employees with a high propensity to trust are more satisfied, less likely to engage in CWB and expected to engage in trustworthy behaviour (Bernerth & Walker, 2009; Rotter, 1980). Such employees will also be more likely interpret managerial actions favourably (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, & Zapata-Phelan, 2006).

Mayer et al. (1995) furthermore argued that, while it is important to take cognisance of the trustor's propensity to trust, a comprehensive understanding of organisational trust can only be obtained by also considering the characteristics of the trustee. It is suggested that others'

perceptions of these characteristics determine the trustworthiness ascribed to a party or entity and serve as the predominant determinants of trust. Individuals therefore experience differential levels of trust towards different parties or entities, based on their perceptions of the three particular characteristics, namely ability, benevolence and integrity (Mayer et al., 1995). Ability or competence means that a trustee is perceived to have particular skills, competencies and interpersonal characteristics needed to be successful in a specific job. Benevolence (often regarded as being synonymous to loyalty, openness, caring or supportiveness) relates to the extent to which the trustee is perceived to care for the well-being of the trustor. Integrity (also referred to as fairness, justice, consistency and promise fulfilment) involves the extent to which the trustor perceives the trustee as adhering to sound moral and ethical principles or values (Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995, pp. 717–719).

Acceptable principles or values include, for instance, consistency, honesty and fairness (Serva, Fuller, & Mayer, 2005). The degree to which a person is deemed to have integrity is affected by the consistency of the party's past actions; credible communications about the trustee from other parties; belief that the trustee has a strong sense of justice; and the extent to which the party's actions are congruent with his or her words (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 719). Parra, De Nalda, and Perles (2011) proposed that Mayer et al.'s (1995) definition of integrity should be expanded to include the principles that govern the behaviour of the trustee as well as the trustee's moral virtues and ability to discern between good and evil.

Mayer et al.'s (1995) model incorporates alternative conceptualisations of the factors of trustworthiness. This includes, for instance, Mishra's (1996) competence, openness, compassion and reliability; Butler's (1991) ten factors of trustworthiness (competence, loyalty, openness, receptivity, availability, consistency, discretion, fairness, integrity and promise fulfilment); and Sitkin and Roth's (1993) ability and value congruence. Colquitt et al. (2007) provided meta-analytic evidence in support of the significant and unique positive relationships between ability, benevolence, integrity and the propensity to trust, and trust.

While Mayer et al.'s (1995) model therefore largely corresponds with other conceptualisations of the factors contributing to the trustworthiness of trustees, previous models did not include the trustor's propensity to trust. Mayer et al. (1995) argued that the extent of an individual's willingness to trust another can only be understood if both the trustor's propensity to trust (as a personality trait) and his or her perceptions of the trustee's trustworthiness (as determined by ability, benevolence and integrity) are considered.

Mayer et al. (1995) furthermore posited that the characteristics of the trustee (ability, benevolence and integrity), although related, may vary independently from one another and that the relative importance of these characteristics may also change over time. For instance, while the perceived integrity of the trustee is expected to be the primary indicator of trustworthiness early in a relationship, his or her goodwill towards the trustor (i.e. benevolence) becomes more important as the relationship develops. Mayer et al. (1995) also emphasised that trustworthiness should not be regarded as absolute (i.e. a person is either trustworthy or not trustworthy) but as a continuum, with each of the characteristics of the trustee varying across this continuum.

These characteristics of the trustee as well as the trustor's propensity to trust determine whether the trustor will be willing to take the risk of making himself or herself vulnerable to the trustee.

(b) The relationship between trust and risk taking

Mayer et al. (1995) suggested that risk is an inherent part of any model of trust as trust reflects an individual's willingness to assume risk (i.e. to be vulnerable). According to them (Mayer et al., 1995), when considering the relevance of risk in the conceptualisation of organisational trust, one should differentiate between the willingness to be vulnerable (i.e. to trust) and the behavioural manifestation of this willingness. While there is no risk in being willing to trust someone, there is substantial risk involved in engaging in trusting behaviour. Actual risk taking (i.e. engaging in trusting behaviour) is regarded as the main outcome of trust in the trustee-trustor relationship (Mayer et al., 1995).

Risk taking in terms of Mayer et al.'s (1995) model thus reflects risk-taking behaviour in the context of an explicit, discernible relationship between two parties. Trust is regarded as a behavioural intention, while the outcome of trust is the actual behaviour that follows. Trust increases the likelihood that a trustor will consent to becoming vulnerable and that he or she will form an emotional bond with a trustee. Mayer et al. (1995) therefore suggested that an employee will only engage in risk-taking behaviour if he or she trusts the trustee and perceives the risk inherent in the behaviour to be acceptable.

(c) *The effects of context*

Mayer et al. (1995) furthermore stressed the significance of context when considering the behavioural consequences of trust. They (Mayer et al., 1995) posited that behaviour is not only influenced by the level of trust between parties, but also by contextual factors such as the balance of power in the relationship and the alternatives available to the trustor. In addition, the trustor's perceptions of the trustworthiness of the trustee (i.e. ability, benevolence and integrity) are influenced by the context.

(d) *The long-term development of trust*

According to Mayer et al. (1995), trust evolves as the parties in a relationship interact with one another over time. For instance, if a trustor perceives a trustee as trustworthy and therefore takes a risk which then results in a positive outcome, the trustor's positive perception of the trustee is enhanced, which has a positive influence on perceptions of trustworthiness and the manifestation of trust in future interactions. Positive outcomes therefore reinforce prior beliefs about trustworthiness and thus maintain or incrementally strengthen trust (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). However, the converse is true when the outcome of trusting employee behaviour is negative. Such employees will be less likely to regard the trustee as trustworthy in future and will therefore be less inclined to engage in risk-taking behaviour. This evolution is reflected in Mayer et al.'s (1995) model by means of the feedback loop from the outcomes to the perceived characteristics of the trustee.

In summary, Mayer et al.'s (1995) model incorporates characteristics of both the trustee (propensity to trust) and the trustor (ability, benevolence and integrity). It furthermore differentiates trust from its antecedents and outcomes. A trustee who has a high propensity to trust and regards the trustor as trustworthy, is expected, after considering the risks involved, to make himself or herself vulnerable by engaging in risk-taking behaviour.

A main strength of Mayer et al.'s (1995) model is its applicability across multiple disciplines and in different contexts (Schoorman et al., 2007). The validity of the model in a South African context (i.e. employees working in various organisations in the Western Cape) has also been empirically confirmed (Engelbrecht & Cloete, 2000). Engelbrecht and Cloete (2000) did, however, report some diversions from Mayer et al.'s (1995) model, indicating, for instance, that employees' trust in their supervisors was mainly determined by their perceptions of these supervisors' integrity and benevolence and that ability did not play a major role. They

confirmed though that a lack of any of these three factors (ability, benevolence and integrity) might undermine trust. Furthermore, in contrast to Mayer et al.'s (1995) propositions, Engelbrecht and Cloete (2000) found neither the employee's propensity to trust nor the length of the employee-supervisor relationship to be moderating variables in the relationship between the factors of trustworthiness and interpersonal trust. These divergent findings may be explained in terms of Lapidot et al.'s (2007) conclusions that the relative importance of the three trustworthiness factors may vary, depending on the particular situation (e.g. the level and nature of subordinate vulnerability).

The relevance of Mayer et al.'s (1995) model for the purposes of this study is threefold. Firstly, it contributes significantly to a better understanding of trust in an organisational context. A clear distinction is drawn between trust as a psychological state, trustworthiness as an antecedent of trust, which captures the competence and character of the trustee, and trust propensity as a personal characteristic of the trustor (Colquitt et al., 2007). Secondly, it emphasises the vulnerability of employees in the employment relationship. Although employers and employees are interdependent, the power is skewed towards the employer. Employees therefore find themselves in a situation where they need to make a decision in terms of their willingness to take risks in order to remain in this relationship. Thirdly, the decision-making process is highlighted, suggesting that the level of trust that employees have in their employing organisations will depend on their valuation of the trustworthiness of their organisations.

A limitation of Mayer et al.'s (1995) model in terms of this study, is that it is restricted in its application as it relates to trust at an interpersonal level (i.e. between a specific trustor and trustee). In this study, however, the emphasis is not on the extent to which employees' trust individuals in their work environments (e.g. co-workers, team members or supervisors) but rather on employees' trust in their employing organisations. Searle, Den Hartog, et al. (2011) affirm, however, that Mayer et al.'s (1995) model is also applicable in this context as employees' trust in their employing organisations is shaped by the extent to which they perceive their organisations' ability, benevolence and integrity as high. While these characteristics cannot be judged through individual interaction alone (e.g. with immediate supervisors), they are likely to be formed because of employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences that are deemed to reflect the intentions and ability of their employing organisations. In order to address this limitation, this study drew on the work of Gillespie and Dietz (2009), who confirmed the applicability of Mayer et al.'s (1995) three dimensions of trustworthiness (i.e. ability, benevolence and integrity) to an organisation as trust referent.

5.1.2.2 *Gillespie and Dietz's conceptualisation of organisational trustworthiness*

Gillespie and Dietz (2009) suggested that perceived organisational trustworthiness may be regarded as an overall belief about the organisation's positive intentions and future actions. An organisation's trustworthiness is thus determined by the following: (1) its collective competencies and characteristics, as reflected in managers' actions, which enable it to function effectively to achieve its goals and meet its responsibilities (organisational ability); (2) its care and concern for the well-being of its stakeholders (organisational benevolence); and (3) its consistent adherence to a set of moral principles and codes of conduct acceptable to stakeholders (organisational integrity) (Dietz et al., 2011; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009).

Gillespie and Dietz (2009) proposed that employees' trust in their employing organisations is based on their assessments of these organisations' collective competencies and characteristics that enable them to reliably meet their goals and responsibilities (i.e. ability), combined with organisational actions that signal both genuine care and concern for the well-being of stakeholders and adherence to commonly accepted moral principles, such as honesty and fairness (i.e. intentions). These views were empirically confirmed by Searle, Den Hartog, et al. (2011), who established that employees who perceive their employing organisations as able and having trustworthy intentions are more likely to trust these organisations. These authors (Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011) reported, however, that trustworthiness at an organisational level comprises two dimensions only, namely ability and intent (incorporating benevolence and integrity). Employees do not seem to make a distinction between benevolence and integrity in judging the trustworthiness of their employing organisations.

Gillespie and Dietz's (2009) research on trust at an organisational level thus suggests that organisational practices provide employees with an indication of the organisation's ability and intent and thereby influence their perceptions of the trustworthiness of their employing organisations. Ways in which organisations may display positive intent (benevolence and integrity) include meeting their obligations in terms of the psychological contract, treating employees fairly and showing concern for their well-being (Dietz et al., 2011).

Gillespie and Dietz's (2009) model therefore provides a theoretical underpinning for considering the employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violations) as antecedents of organisational trust. This model, however, relies on systems theory and focuses on how an organisation's operations and activities (i.e. the throughput stage), if defective, may damage the quality and supply of outputs, and hence the trustworthiness of the organisation among stakeholders and finding

ways to restore organisational trust if this occurs. This differs from the aim of this study, which was to foster to a better understanding of the antecedents of trust in an employment relations context as well as its consequences in terms of employee attitudes towards and behaviour in their employing organisations. It was thus deemed essential to consider other organisational trust models that have established relationships between managerial practices and trust in an organisational context. Such models include, for instance, Dietz and Den Hartog's (2006) multidimensional, integrated framework for looking at the process of intra-organisational trust, Burke et al.'s (2007) integrated multilevel framework for understanding trust in leadership and Martins' (2002) conceptual model of the manifestation of trust in organisations. These models and their relevance for the purposes of this study are discussed in the next section.

5.1.2.3 Dietz and Den Hartog's multidimensional, integrated framework for examining the process of intra-organisational trust

Dietz and Den Hartog (2006) conceptualised trust as comprising three parts, namely an expectation about the trustworthiness of another, a willingness to be vulnerable (based on this expectation) and risk-taking behaviour. These authors (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006) agreed with Mayer et al.'s (1995) conceptualisation of ability, benevolence and integrity as characteristics of trustworthiness but, drawing on the work of Cunningham and MacGregor (2000) and Mishra (1996), added predictability, which relates to the regularity and consistency of behaviour.

Using an open systems model (input-throughput-output) as depicted in Figure 5.3, Dietz and Den Hartog (2006, p. 564) developed a "multi-dimensional, integrated framework" that may be used to contextualise intra-organisational trust research. Their model, which is based on previous models by Mayer et al. (1995) and Ross and LaCroix (1996), describes the antecedents of trust as inputs – the components of the trust process as the throughputs and the different trust-informed actions as outputs.

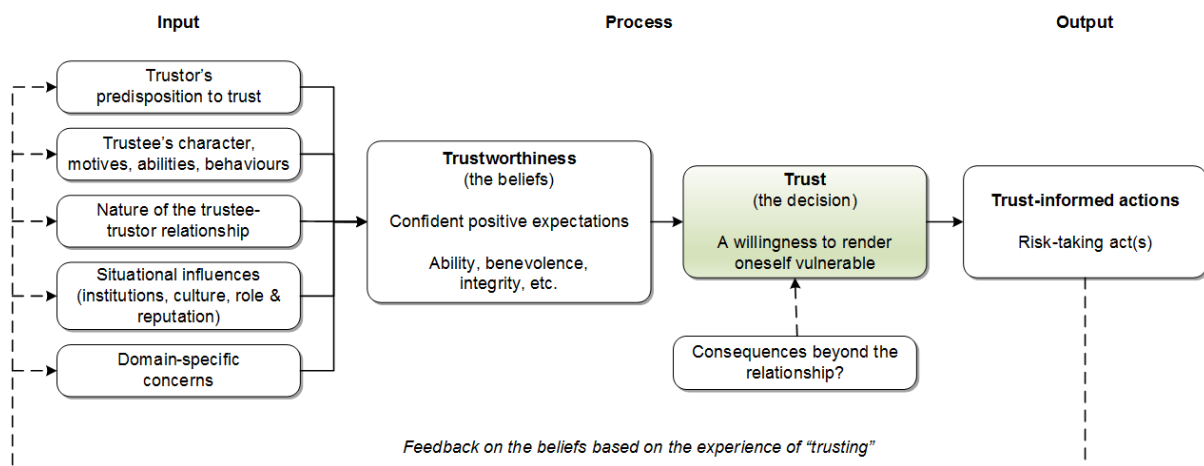


Figure 5.3. A Depiction of the Trust Process adapted from Dietz and Den Hartog (2006, p. 564) and Dietz (2011, p. 219)

Dietz and Den Hartog's (2006) conceptualisation of the trust process thus includes three parts. Firstly, various factors (inputs) may influence an individual's expectations about the trustworthiness of another. These inputs include the trustor's predisposition to trust, the characteristics of the trustee (ability, benevolence, integrity and predictability), the quality of the trustor-trustee relationship, organisational constraints and domain-specific concerns. Secondly, if the trustor regards the trustee as trustworthy, he or she will be more willing to render himself or herself vulnerable towards the trustee. Dietz (2011) emphasised that perceived trustworthiness does not automatically result in trust. The decision to trust is also influenced by the potential consequences thereof beyond the trustor-trustee relationship. Finally, the trustor will engage in risk-taking behaviour in the belief that positive outcomes will follow. These outcomes again inform the inputs as reflected in the feedback loop.

Dietz and Den Hartog (2006) posited that trust should not only reflect one party's belief about the trustworthiness of another or behavioural intent (a willingness to be vulnerable), but should also include the actual risk-taking behaviour. Dietz and Den Hartog's (2006) conceptualisation of trust thus differs from that of Mayer et al. (1995) and Rousseau et al. (1998) in that it incorporates risk-taking behaviour as a critical component of the trust process. These authors therefore do not regard trust as a psychological state (Rousseau et al., 1998) but rather a process coalescing beliefs about the other party's trustworthiness (Mayer et al., 1995), a decision to trust (Lewicki et al., 1998; Rousseau et al., 1998) and engaging in trusting behaviour (Skinner, Dietz, & Weibel, 2014). They differ from Mayer et al. (1995) in that the behavioural component is regarded as a part of trust itself and not an essential outcome of trust.

This study embraced Dietz and Den Hartog's (2006) assertion that research aimed at understanding the role of trust in an organisational context, should not rely on individuals' beliefs about another party's trustworthiness only, but should also include the relational consequences emanating from such beliefs. However, Dietz and Den Hartog's (2006) proposition that behaviour should be regarded as an inherent component of trust was not deemed appropriate for the purposes of this study. Instead, Mayer et al.'s (1995) conceptualisation of trusting behaviour (or risk-taking behaviour) as an outcome of trust was adopted. This view is supported by Burke et al. (2007), who suggest that adopting a process view to trust, as proposed by Dietz and Den Hartog (2006), is appropriate when aiming to investigate the dynamic nature of trust and its development over time. However, Mayer et al.'s (1995), conceptualisation of trust as a psychological state is deemed more appropriate when aiming to establish the antecedents and outcomes of trust (Burke et al., 2007), which was the case in this study.

Dietz and Den Hartog's (2006) foremost contribution for the purposes of this study related to the following: the prominence assigned to specifying the form of trust being measured (i.e. a belief, a decision or a trust-based behaviour); how trustworthiness is determined (e.g. the characteristics of the trustee or trustor, the relationship between the parties, managerial/organisational practices or broader situational constraints); and the identity of the trust referent (e.g. direct supervisor or organisation) when researching trust in an organisational context. These matters were thus considered in terms of various trust-related models in order to determine the most appropriate approach, given the context and research objectives of this particular study.

5.1.2.4 Burke et al.'s integrated multilevel framework for understanding trust in leadership

Burke et al. (2007), focusing on trust in leadership, refined Mayer et al.'s (1995) model by providing detailed descriptions of the characteristics of the trustee (ability, benevolence and integrity), introducing individual, team and organisational factors and specifying the outcomes of trust as depicted in Figure 5.4.

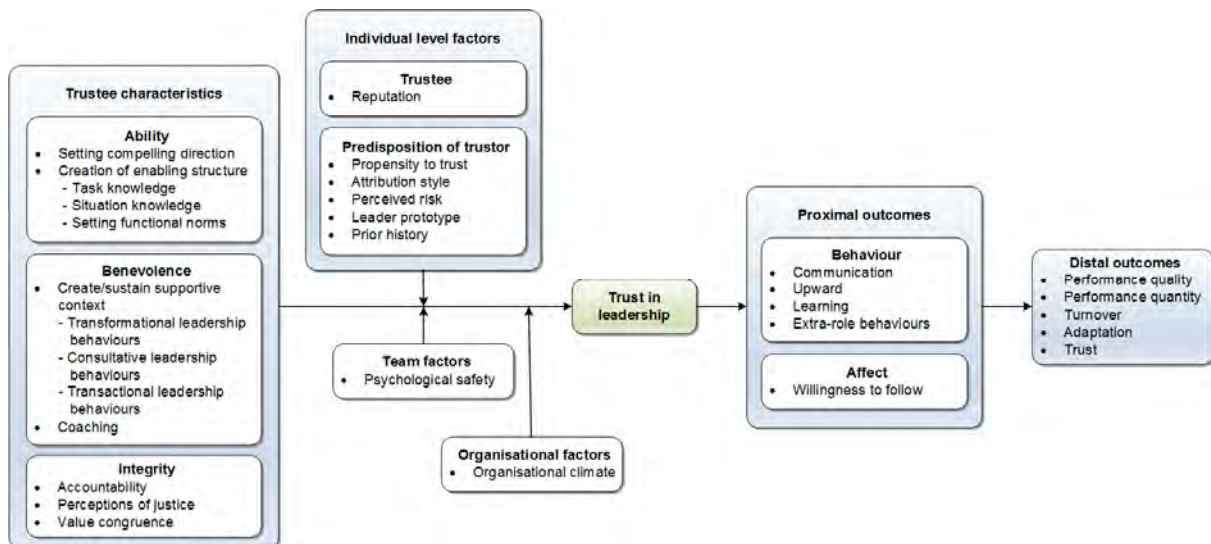


Figure 5.4. Integrated Multilevel Framework for Understanding Trust in Leadership adapted from Burke et al. (2007, p. 613)

Burke et al. (2007) proposed that Mayer et al.'s (1995) trustee characteristics (ability, benevolence and integrity) should be regarded as broad categories of antecedents of trust, and that all antecedents proposed in the literature fall within one of these categories. They (Burke et al., 2007) further delineated these broad-based antecedents by focusing on indicators of leader trustworthiness. These indicators include providing compelling direction and creating an enabling structure (ability), as well as offering expert coaching and building a supportive context (benevolence). Leaders are furthermore deemed trustworthy if they are perceived to have integrity by, say, taking responsibility for their actions, treating subordinates fairly and consistently, and subscribing to the same values as their followers.

Burke et al. (2007) further postulated that several constructs may moderate the relationship between the above antecedents and an individual's decision to trust his or her leader. These moderators exist at the level of the individual trustor (i.e. propensity to trust, attributions, leadership prototypes, perceived risk and prior history), trustee (i.e. leader reputation), team (i.e. psychological safety) and organisation (i.e. organisational climate).

Finally, Burke et al. (2007) identified particular outcomes that may follow a trusting leader-follower relationship. These outcomes include positive subordinate attitudes (e.g. a willingness to follow) and behaviour (e.g. improvement in upward communication, involvement in OCB and engagement in learning), as well as desired organisational outcomes such as increased performance and lower turnover. Burke et al.'s (2007) model therefore provides support for the proposition made in this study that particular organisational practices (e.g. demonstrating consideration for employees' needs and contributing to their well-being, dealing with

employees fairly and meeting obligations in terms of the psychological contract) determine employees' perceptions of the quality of their exchange relationship with their employing organisations. If these relationships are deemed to be of a high quality (i.e. based on respect, trust and mutual obligation), employees will be more likely to develop positive attitudes towards and behaviour in their organisations (Wech, 2002). Burke et al.'s (2007) model furthermore suggests that individual dispositions may influence the extent to which employees trust their employing organisations. In this study, the moderating influence of individualism/collectivism as a cultural disposition on the relationship between trust and its antecedents was explored (see Chapter 6).

5.1.2.5 Martins' conceptual model of the manifestation of trust in organisations

In his research on the manifestation of trust in South African organisations, Martins (2002) suggested that trust is determined by personal factors and managerial practices (see Figure 5.5).

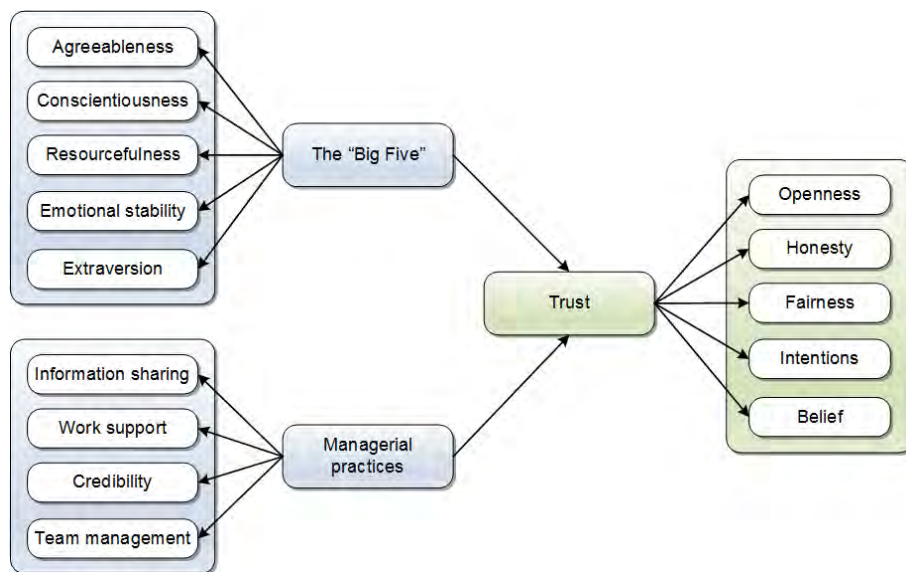


Figure 5.5. Conceptual model of the Manifestations of Trust in Organisations adapted from Martins (2002, p. 756).

Drawing on research relating to the effect of personality (the "Big Five" personality factors) on work performance, Martins (2002) posited that personality factors should be included as antecedents of trust in an organisational context. These personality factors include agreeableness, conscientiousness, resourcefulness or openness to experience, emotional stability and extraversion. In later research, Von der Ohe, Martins, and Rhooide (2004) and Bews and Martins (2002) empirically confirmed the positive relationships between these

personality factors and trust, highlighting conscientiousness and agreeableness as the strongest predictors of trust.

Martins (2002) further identified four managerial practices that predict trust in an organisational context. These factors are described as follows (Martins & Von der Ohe, 2011):

- **Credibility:** A willingness to listen, consider proposals, allow others the freedom to express feelings, tolerate mistakes and ensure that employees enjoy prestige and credibility in the organisation.
- **Team management:** Effective management to accomplish team and individual goals and handle conflict in groups.
- **Information sharing:** A willingness to give individual feedback on performance and to reveal company-related information honestly.
- **Work support:** The willingness to support employees when necessary and provide job-related information to accomplish objectives.

Von der Ohe et al. (2004) found credibility to have the greatest influence on trust. The trust relationship dimension in Martins' (2002) model reflects interpersonal trust between trustors as employees and their immediate supervisors in terms of openness, honesty, fairness, intention and belief.

The value of Martins' research (2002), for the purposes of this study, lies in its confirmation of managerial practices as a predictor of trust relationships in an organisational context. It also illustrates that, although the personality characteristics of the trustee may affect trust relationships, these characteristics have less of an influence than managerial practices. This therefore supports the notion adopted in this study that employees' trust in their employing organisations is influenced by their perceptions and experiences in the workplace, which is a function of managerial practices rather than the personal characteristics of individuals. It also suggests that a character-based approach to trust where a trustor makes inferences about a trustee's characteristics, which, in turn, influence his or her attitudes and behaviour (e.g. Mayer et al., 1995), is not the only valid approach when attempting to understand trust in an organisational context. Similar arguments were put forward by Dirks and Ferrin (2002), who suggested an alternative approach based on the nature of the relationship between the parties (i.e. a relationship-based approach). Von der Ohe (2014) further contributed to this line of research by accommodating both a character-based and a relationship-based perspective in

a single model. The models proposed by Dirks and Ferrin (2002) and Von der Ohe (2014) and the relevance of these models for this particular study are explored below.

5.1.2.6 Dirks and Ferrin's framework for trust in leadership

Dirks and colleagues (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Dirks & Skarlicki, 2004) suggested that, while a character-based approach to trust is often used in extant literature, researchers are increasingly adopting a relationship-based approach. Researchers who follow such an approach rely mainly on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to gain a better understanding of how employees' perceptions of the quality of their relationships with their employing organisations (depicted in terms of trust, goodwill and fulfilment of reciprocal obligations) influence their attitudes and behaviour in and towards their employing organisations (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Dirks & Skarlicki, 2004). According to Dirks and Skarlicki (2004), the character- and relationship-based approaches are equally valid but describe two different mechanisms whereby trust may affect attitudes and behaviour. The approach to be followed depends on the research question, the context and the variables under consideration.

In their meta-analysis of research on trust in leadership, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) explored the conceptualisation of trust, and reported on the antecedents to and the outcomes of trust in an organisational context. In addition, they (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) posited that different referents of trust (i.e. supervisor or senior organisational leaders) show systematically different relationships with antecedents and outcomes, and that findings consequently vary depending on the particular focus. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) provided meta-analytical confirmation of the positive relationship between trust and significant workplace attitudes and behaviours reported in extant literature (e.g. Brown, 1996; Colquitt et al., 2001; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Dirks and Ferrin's (2002) framework (see Figure 5.6) is briefly outlined below and its relevance for this particular study highlighted.

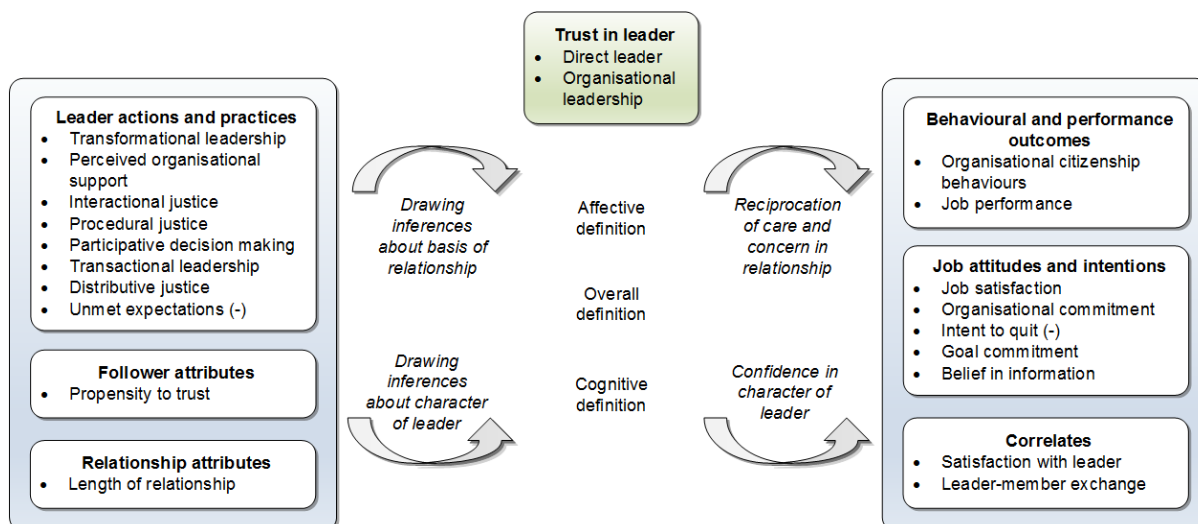


Figure 5.6. Framework for Trust In Leadership adapted from Dirks and Ferrin (2002, p. 613)

As illustrated in the above figure, Dirks and Ferrin's (2002) framework of trust in leadership incorporates three antecedent variables to trust, namely leader actions and practices, follower attributes (i.e. the propensity to trust) and relationship attributes (i.e. the length of the relationship).

Leader action and practices include transformational and transactional leadership, POS, POJ (procedural, distribute and interactional justice), participative decision making, and unmet expectations. Propensity to trust is a personality trait that reflects the extent to which an individual tends to trust others in general (Rotter, 1967). The duration of a relationship has been shown to impact on the level of trust as deeper levels of trust are expected to develop over time as the parties become more familiar with one another (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Williams, 2001).

While leader actions and practices were empirically confirmed by Dirks and Ferrin (2002) as significant antecedents of trust, the propensity to trust was found to have only a minor association with trust and no relationship was evident between the length of the leader-follower relationship and trust. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) therefore suggested that future research aimed at understanding the antecedents to trust in an organisational context should focus on leader or organisational actions and practices rather than employees' trusting disposition or other attributes of the employer-employee relationship.

According to Dirks and Ferrin (2002), these antecedents, which determine to what extent followers trust their leaders (direct supervisors or organisational leadership), may be interpreted in terms of two different theoretical perspectives. The first perspective relates to

the characteristics of the leader (i.e. a character-based perspective) whereby a follower draws inferences about the leader's trustworthiness (based on perceived ability, benevolence and integrity), and these inferences then result in particular attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (e.g. Mayer et al., 1995). The second perspective draws on social exchange and emphasises the nature and quality of the leader-follower relationship (i.e. a relationship-based perspective). In terms of this perspective, the exchange relationship is based on the parties' (leader-follower or employer-employee) mutual obligations, and trust and goodwill play an essential part in these relationships (Blau, 1964; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Whitener et al., 1998). If followers perceive their leaders as caring and considerate, they are expected to reciprocate by displaying positive attitudes and engaging in behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). According to these perspectives on trust, individuals observe leaders' actions and draw inferences about the nature of the relationship with the leader (relationship-based perspective) and/or the character of the leader (character-based perspective). Although these theoretical perspectives embrace similar antecedents and consequences of trust and may operate simultaneously, they are conceptually independent and may thus affect one another. For instance, both transformational and transactional leadership behaviour may increase trust (Schlechter & Strauss, 2008). However, in terms of transformational leadership, trust is based on perceived care and concern displayed by the leader (i.e. relationship-based), while transactional leadership emphasises fairness, reliability and integrity (i.e. character-based) (Afsar & Masood, 2018; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

Dirks and Ferrin (2002) specified two categories of trust outcomes, namely behavioural and performance outcomes and job attitudes and intentions. Behavioural and performance outcomes include both formal job performance and extra-role performance (OCB). Positive relationships between trust in leadership and both formal and discretionary performance were reported. It was shown, however, that the trust-OCB relationship is stronger than the relationship between trust and job performance. Although employees' trust in organisational leaders therefore enhances their required performance, the impact of a trusting relationship lies mainly in the advancement of positive discretionary behaviour. Employees who trust their managers, and hence their employing organisations, will be more likely to engage in behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation or people in it (Organ, 1988).

In terms of job attitudes and intentions, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) anticipated that trust in leaders would lead to increased job satisfaction and organisational commitment, belief in the accuracy of information provided by the leader and commitment to decisions made by or objectives set by the leader. A negative relationship between trust and turnover intention was also anticipated. Dirks and Ferrin's (2002) results confirmed the expected relationships with work

attitudes and furthermore indicated that the trust-attitudes relationship was stronger than the trust-behaviour relationship.

Dirks and Ferrin (2002) classified satisfaction with the leader and leader-member exchange (LMX) as correlates of trust in leadership. They suggested that trust in leadership and satisfaction with a leader may be regarded as conceptually similar because they both reflect an attitude or assessment that individuals hold about the same referent. In addition, trust is often included as part of the definition of LMX (Cunningham & MacGregor, 2000). Dirks and Ferrin (2002) advocated, however, that trust should be conceived as a distinct construct that mediates the relationships between leader behaviours and followers' responses to those behaviours.

In their framework, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) highlighted the fact that two particular issues in trust research have given rise to varied and sometimes contradictory results. Firstly, the referent of trust is not always specified, although it has been shown that trust in different referents has different antecedents and outcomes. Secondly, a commonly accepted definition of trust has not been agreed upon in the literature. While some agreement has been reached in terms of the conceptualisation of trust, with most researchers utilising the definitions proposed by Mayer et al. (1995) and/or Rousseau et al. (1998), the operationalisation of this construct has not been consistent. While some researchers measure trust as an overall construct, others have suggested that trust is multidimensional (e.g. McAllister, 1995) suggesting that different types of trust exist. These two considerations are further explored below.

(a) Different targets or referents of trust

When investigating trust in an organisational context, it is essential to specify not only the level of analysis, but also the relevant referent or target of trust because trustees have different expectations from different referent trustors (Von der Ohe, 2014). The level of analysis may denote either an individual's degree of trust (individual level of analysis) or the degree of trust collectively shared by individuals within a unit (team or organisational level of analysis) (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012). It has been shown that trust at different levels (individual vs organisational) operates independently and differentially predicts work outcomes (Bews & Uys, 2002; Wasti, Tan, & Erdil, 2011; Wöhrle et al., 2014). In this study, the focus was on trust at an individual level – that is, the degree of trust that individual employees have in their employing organisations.

Trust in an organisational context may be directed towards different types of targets – either specific individuals (e.g. co-workers, leaders or supervisors), groups (e.g. work teams or management) or organisations (Mayfield et al., 2016; Nienaber, Romeike, Searle, & Schewe, 2015; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011; Weibel et al., 2016). While some similarities exist, trust in these different referents is conceptually distinct (Weibel et al., 2016). The levels of risk, vulnerability and dependency are also distinctive for these trust referents (Legood, Thomas, & Sacramento, 2016) and the salience of different trust-related constructs (e.g. dispositional trust, ability, benevolence and integrity) has been shown to vary, depending on the specific target (PytlíkZillig et al., 2016). According to Tan and Tan (2000), trust in one’s supervisor is a form of interpersonal trust, while organisational trust means that an employee (the trustor) believes that the organisation will behave in a favourable way or will refrain from acting in a detrimental way. Organisational trust is therefore not based on perceptions about the ability and intent of individuals, but rather on the collective characteristics of organisational representatives (management) (Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011) or managerial actions that shape employees’ perceptions and experiences in the workplace and thus their judgements in terms of the trustworthiness of their employing organisations (Saunders et al., 2014).

In terms of social exchange principles, it is suggested that individuals will reciprocate benefits received and that such reciprocal behaviour will be directed towards the source of the benefit received (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2004). It is thus anticipated that the antecedents and consequences of trust will differ, depending on the specific target of trust (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012). Dirks and Ferrin (2002) reported, for instance, that although organisational practices such as POJ (notably interactional and procedural justice) and participative decision making were found to be related to trust in both direct and organisational leaders, they had stronger relationships with the former. It has also been shown that trust in an immediate supervisor is more likely to be reciprocated by increasing job performance or engaging in OCB, while trust in management or organisational trust is more likely to contribute to higher levels of organisational commitment (DeConinck, 2010; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Dirks & Skarlicki, 2004). These two forms of trust, however, are interrelated (Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010; Whitener, 1997). The extent to which an employee trusts his or her direct supervisor may also influence his or her trust in the organisation – it is unlikely that an employee will trust the organisation if he or she does not trust an immediate supervisor as the supervisor’s actions and intentions are regarded as reflecting those of the organisation (Kannan-Narasimhan & Lawrence, 2012; Legood et al., 2016; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013).

Since this study was conducted in the context of employment relations, the relational focus was on employees’ relationship with their employing organisations (represented by

management) as primary parties in the employment relationship (Nel et al., 2016). Trust is thus not viewed in terms of the direct relationship between individual employees and their direct supervisors who tend to influence day-to-day activities, which has garnered the majority of research attention (Lamertz & Bhave, 2017; Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011). Instead, this study addressed the paucity of research relating to employees' trust in their employing organisations by focusing on the perceptions of employees in terms of the trustworthiness of management as proxy for their organisations (Stinglhamber, De Cremer, & Mercken, 2006; Tan & Lim, 2009). Management in this sense is regarded as a discernible upper-level collective that decides on organisational policies and procedures at a strategic level and, because of their decision-making power, have a significant impact on nonmanagerial employees (Cho & Park, 2011; Jiang & Probst, 2016; Mayer & Davis, 1999; Yang & Mossholder, 2010). Senior managers, by virtue of their authority and accountability, have been shown to directly inform employees' views in terms of the trustworthiness of their employing organisations (Burke et al., 2007; Coxen, Van der Vaart, & Stander, 2016; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Haynie et al., 2016; Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Trust in management, unlike trust in an immediate supervisor, is not formed in a dyadic interpersonal relationship, but rather determined by the efficiency and fairness of organisational practices (Costigan, Insinga, Berman, Kranas, & Kureshov, 2011).

(b) *Types of trust*

Research in terms of the dynamic nature of trust suggests that there are different types of trust and that the nature of trust changes as the relationship between the parties develops (Lewicki et al., 2006). Different types of trust thus reflect the nature of the relationship between the trustee and the trustor at a given time in the relationship (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011). The types of trust proposed in extant literature are summarised in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2

Types of Trust Illustrating the Transformation of Trust over Time

Model	Types of trust
Shapiro, Sheppard, & Cheraskin (1992)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deterrence-based trust: The potential costs of discontinuing the relationship or the likelihood of retributive action outweigh the short-term advantage of acting in a distrustful way. • Knowledge-based trust: Knowing and understanding the other party and, as a result, being able to predict his or her behaviour. • Identification-based trust: Fully internalising the other's preferences; making decisions in each other's interest.

Model	Types of trust
McAllister (1995)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cognition-based trust: Trust that is grounded in individual beliefs about peer reliability and dependability. • Affect-based trust: Trust that is grounded in reciprocated interpersonal care and concern.
Lewicki & Bunker (1995, 1996)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Calculus-based trust: Trust that is grounded in the fear of punishment for violating it as well as the rewards to be derived from preserving it. • Knowledge-based trust: Knowing the other sufficiently well so that the other's behaviour is predictable. • Identification-based trust: Identification with the other's desires and intentions; mutual understanding so that one can act for the other.
Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer (1998)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Calculus-based trust: Trust based on rational choice and characteristic of interactions based on economic exchange. Derives not only from the existence of deterrence but also because of credible information regarding the intentions or competence of another. • Relational trust: Derives from repeated interactions over time. Information available to trustor from within the relationship itself forms the basis. Reliability and dependability give rise to positive expectations of the other; emotion enters into the relationship. • Institution-based trust: Trust resulting from institutional factors that support and sustain risk taking and trust behaviour.
Dietz & Den Hartog (2006)	<p>Deterrence-based trust is regarded as a manifestation of distrust, while calculus-based trust is not regarded as trust in terms of its conceptualisation as it does not involve positive expectation. Only the following three “true” types of trust are therefore embraced:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge-based trust: Trust is based on positive confidence in the other party resulting from predictability. • Relational-based trust: Trust is based on stronger positive confidence in the other party resulting from shared affection. • Identification-based trust: Trust is based on extremely positive confidence in the other party resulting from converged interests.

Source: Adapted from Lewicki et al. (2006)

Shapiro et al. (1992) proposed that three factors determine a party's decision to trust another, namely the trustworthiness of the party to be trusted, external factors that encourage trustworthy behaviour and the nature of the relationship between the parties. Their research into the development of trust within business relationships focused on the latter factor – the features of a relationship that contribute to three different proposed bases of trust. According to Shapiro et al. (1992), trust can be enhanced by creating deterrents to untrustworthy

behaviour (deterrence-based trust), establishing understanding and predictability (knowledge-based trust) and internalising the other party's preferences (identification-based trust). Shapiro et al. (1992) suggested that trust begins with deterrence-based processes but that, over time, the three bases of trust may coexist in various strengths and degrees (Lewicki et al., 2006).

In developing a two-dimensional model of trust, McAllister (1995) focused on interpersonal trust and its significance in sustaining both individual and organisational success. Drawing on sociological literature on trust and sociopsychological work on trust in close relationships, McAllister (1995) contributed to an enhanced cognition of the nature and functioning of interpersonal trust relationships.

Based on the psychological process involved, McAllister (1995) differentiated between two principal forms of interpersonal trust, namely cognition-based trust and affect-based trust. Cognition-based trust is derived from the views of individuals about the reliability and dependability of others (McAllister, 1995). Cognitive trust thus relates to the characteristics and reputation of the trustee and may be associated with Mayer et al.'s (1995) ability and integrity (Colquitt et al., 2012). Affect-based trust relates to the extent to which interpersonal care and concern are reciprocated (McAllister, 1995), which is similar to Mayer et al.'s (1995) benevolence (Colquitt et al., 2012). Hence, affect-based trust is derived from the personal and emotional bonds and the informal relationships between the parties, as well as their concern for one another's welfare (beyond what is required in terms of the transactional contract) (Von der Ohe, 2014).

According to McAllister (1995), the outcomes of the two types of trust also differ. Cognitive-based trust is mainly linked to task-related exchanges. When cognitive-based trust exists, excessive monitoring and defensive behaviour are expected to be less likely. Affective-based trust relates to the reciprocal relationship between the parties and socioemotional benefits (Von der Ohe, 2014). McAllister (1995) suggested that cognition-based trust should be established prior to developing affect-based trust. Some authors (e.g. Zhu, Newman, Miao, & Hooke, 2013), however, have suggested that this may not necessarily be true in collectivistic societies.

The limitation in terms of McAllister's (1995) model is that it was developed in the context of interpersonal trust relationships between peers (managers) and may therefore not necessarily apply in employer-employee relationships. Furthermore, the study relied on a homogeneous sample, consisting mainly of highly educated males (McAllister, 1995), necessitating further research to establish generalisability across more heterogeneous samples.

Dirks and Ferrin (2002), however, confirmed McAllister's (1995) proposition that trust is based on two underlying motives, which are either cognitive or affective in orientation. While cognitive trust is derived from one party's assessment of the fundamental characteristics possessed by another party, such as ability, benevolence and integrity (Mayer et al., 1995), affective trust is grounded in personal connections between parties and the emotions that accompany such connections.

Lewicki and Bunker (1995, 1996) expanded on the work of Shapiro et al. (1992) by broadening and strengthening the definitions and causal dynamics of each "base" of trust and by clearly articulating the stage-wise linkage of the bases over time (Lewicki et al., 2006). These researchers (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995, 1996) renamed Shapiro et al.'s (1992) deterrence-based trust as calculus-based trust, referring to the consistency of behaviour that may be sustained, not only by the threat of retribution if the trust is violated, but also by the rewards that may be derived from preserving trust. Akin to Shapiro et al. (1992), Lewicki and Bunker (1995, 1996) regarded knowledge-based trust as trust based on the predictability of behaviour resulting from a history of interaction and identification-based trust as empathy with the other party's needs and intentions. They (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995, 1996) posited that trust develops gradually as parties in a relationship come to know each other better and move through the three bases, which they regard as stages of trust development.

Lewicki and Bunker's (1996) views were confirmed by Bews and Martins (2002), who emphasised the dynamic nature of trust. These researchers (Bews & Martins, 2002) suggested that, once particular pre-trust conditions (contextual factors, perceived risk, propensity to trust and reputation) have been met, trust formation relies on the expectation that delivery will be rewarded and the fear that violation will be punished (i.e. calculus-based trust). This is followed by knowledge-based trust, which is grounded in predictability resulting from regular interactions over the long term, and finally, identification-based trust, which reflects a deep understanding of and identification with the other party's needs.

Rousseau et al. (1998) did not set out to construct a model addressing the development of trust per se, but endeavoured instead to create a better understanding of trust across disciplines and at various levels. They (Rousseau et al., 1998) posited that risk and interdependence are essential conditions for trust and that both these factors may vary during the course of a relationship. These variations may, in turn, affect both the level and form that trust takes in such a relationship. Rousseau et al. (1998, p. 398) suggested that trust takes different forms in different relationships and may therefore range from a calculated assessment of costs and benefits (i.e. calculative trust) to an emotional response based on

interpersonal attachment and identification (i.e. relational trust), which is similar to McAllister's (1995) affective trust. Rousseau et al. (1998) also included institution-based trust, which relates to the institutional supports that facilitate the development of calculus-based and relational trust (Lewicki et al., 2006). They thus supported the idea of trust having scope and bandwidth in complex relationships, where that scope could incorporate independent constructs of trust and distrust (Lewicki et al., 1998; Sitkin & Roth, 1993) and/or different bases/types of trust, such as those suggested by Shapiro et al. (1992) and Lewicki and Bunker (1995, 1996). Rousseau et al. (1998) supported Lewicki et al.'s (1998) assertion that trust begins with calculus-based trust and becomes more relationship oriented as a result of recurrent interactions between the parties (i.e. calculus-based trust decreases and relationship-based trust increases).

According to Dietz and Den Hartog (2006), trust develops on a continuum ranging from distrust to complete trust. These authors posited that deterrence-based trust reflects a lack of positive expectation and that it should be regarded as a manifestation of distrust, while calculus-based trust is grounded in suspicion and can therefore not be regarded as trust per se. It is only when the parties harbour positive expectations of one another (i.e. their motives, abilities and reliability) that trust develops. According to Dietz and Den Hartog (2006), as parties interact, knowledge-based trust develops, which is followed by relational-based trust, and identification-based trust as a common identity ultimately develops. Relational-based trust is more subjective and emotional in nature and is derived from the perceived quality of the relationship rather than observations of specific behaviours (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006).

In summary, research relating to the development of relationships in organisations has predominantly accepted the existence of three types of trust. These are deterrence- or calculus-based trust, which is founded on a cognitive assessment of the costs and benefits associated with trusting another party; knowledge-based trust, which reflects trust that originates from the predictability of behaviour that results from a history of interaction between parties; and identification-based trust, which is founded on identification and mutual understanding (Dietz, 2011; Lewicki & Bunker, 1995, 1996; Rousseau et al., 1998; Shapiro et al., 1992). Some researchers also included institutional-based trust (Rousseau et al., 1998), which is not based on individual interactions but rather on collective trust in institutions (Bachmann, 2011; Von der Ohe, 2014).

It has, however, been argued (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; McAllister, 1995; Zhu et al., 2013) that only two types of trust exist, namely cognitive trust, which is based on an evaluation of character and includes both deterrence-based and knowledge-based trust; and affective or

relational trust which encompasses identification-based trust and is based on social exchange. This is consistent with the two universal dimensions of social cognition – warmth (morality) and competence (ability) (Fiske, Cuddy, & Glick, 2007; PytlikZillig et al., 2016). In terms of Dietz and Den Hartog's (2006) model, calculus-based and knowledge-based trust represent cognitive trust while relationship-based and identification-based trust are regarded as being indicative of affective trust. The types of trust typically differ in terms of the transactional (economic exchange) or relational (social exchange) nature of the relationship (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011). While transactional relationships that are based on pure cost-benefit calculations may result in calculus-based trust, high-quality exchange relationships that reflect mutual concern and honourable intentions (benevolence and integrity) may give rise to affective-based trust (Dietz et al., 2011; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011). Research on the relationships between trust and attitudinal and behavioural outcomes have linked cognitive trust to task performance, while relational trust has been shown to influence attitudes and behaviour aimed at reciprocating care and consideration, such as organisational commitment and OCB (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Yang & Mossholder, 2010).

Organisational trust researchers have cautioned that it is essential to differentiate between or specify the relevant type of trust applicable in a particular study as the relationship between different types of trust and subsequent outcomes may differ (Yang et al., 2009). Empirical studies on organisational trust have mainly used an overall measure of trust or focused on the cognitive dimension (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). However, because of the relational focus of the current study, employees' beliefs about the trustworthiness of their employing organisations, based on an interdependent employer-employee relationship and concern for the well-being of the others (i.e. affective-based trust) were deemed critical in understanding the development and consequences of trusting employer-employee relationships. The extent to which employees trust their employing organisations is thus determined by their personal experiences in the workplace and their perceptions of how others (co-workers) are treated. Employees are expected to display higher levels of affective-based trust in their employing organisations if they can identify with the organisation's values, feel that the organisation cares about their well-being and experience a sense of partnership with the organisation (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011). Trust in the employing organisation exists when the employee is willing to relinquish control over issues that are significant to him or her to the employer (management), even though the employee has no means of monitoring or controlling such behaviour (Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2016).

5.1.2.7 Von der Ohe's unified organisational trust model

Von der Ohe (2014) integrated the Big Five trait theories of personality and managerial practices that form part of Martins' (2002) model with Mayer et al.'s (1995) trustee characteristics (ability, benevolence and integrity) that have been shown to act as antecedents of organisational trust. By accommodating both a character-based and relationship-based perspective (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) in a single model, Von der Ohe (2014) developed a refined unified model of organisational trust relationships focusing on the structure of the antecedents of trust and the relationship with the overall construct of subordinates' trust (see Figure 5.7).

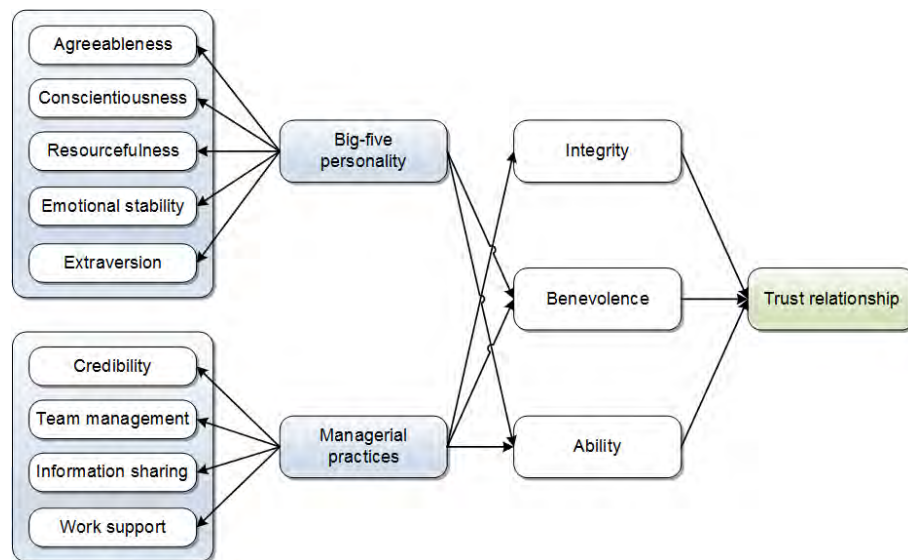


Figure 5.7. Conceptual Unified Trust Model Integrating Antecedents of Organisational Trust adapted from Von der Ohe (2016, p. 81).

For the purposes of this study, Von der Ohe's (2014) main contribution was the differentiation between antecedents of organisational trust that reflect beliefs about the personality of the trustee, on the one hand, and managerial practices attributed to the trustee, on the other. Von der Ohe (2014) confirmed Dirks and Ferrin's (2002) finding that managerial practices that are positively perceived by employees may increase trust in organisational leadership. Von der Ohe (2014) furthermore provided empirical evidence, derived from a South African sample, that managerial practices that focus on relationship building by showing care and concern for employees, are far better predictors of organisational trust than the perceived personality traits of organisational leaders or managers. Von der Ohe (2014) also revealed that, although perceived benevolence (i.e. a personal characteristic of the trustee) and managerial ability (as displayed in effective managerial practices) are necessary preconditions for trust, they are not sufficient to positively influence organisational trust in the absence of managerial concern. Von

der Ohe's (2014) findings furthermore confirmed that trust may be regarded as a "single, superordinate factor, with cognitive, affective and behavioural intention sub factors" (Lewicki et al., 2006, p. 997).

Although Von der Ohe's (2014) unified trust model therefore emphasises the importance of the affective component of trust, its context differs from that of the current study. While this study considered employees trust in their employing organisations, Von der Ohe's (2014) study related to interpersonal trust between supervisors and their subordinates. It has yet to be determined whether similar results will be obtained when focusing on trust in an organisation as a party in the employment relationship. Von der Ohe's (2014) model, however, provides additional support for the view adopted in this study, namely that employees develop particular beliefs (such as trust) about their employing organisations based on their perceptions of managerial practices and their experiences in the workplace.

5.1.2.8 Summary

In this study, trust is viewed as a psychological state, which is grounded mainly in the work of Mayer et al. (1995). Mayer et al. (1995) posited that, at an interpersonal level, trust is viewed as arising from an assessment of another party's trustworthiness and that ability, benevolence and integrity may be regarded as characteristics of trustworthiness. The parties in the particular context of this study (employment relations) include individual employees (trustors) and their employing organisations (trustees). Individuals are anticipated to form subjective, aggregated beliefs about others based on their expectations and previous interactions (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Lewicki et al., 1998). If these beliefs are positive (i.e. the party is regarded as trustworthy), the trustee is more likely to be willing to make himself or herself vulnerable to the other party (the trustor) (Rousseau et al., 1998). This willingness to accept vulnerability is ultimately expressed in trusting (or risk-taking) behaviour (Dietz et al., 2011). While the willingness to accept vulnerability (i.e. behavioural intent) is thus deemed an essential component of trust, trusting behaviour (or risk-taking behaviour) is regarded as an outcome of trust (Burke et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995).

Although Mayer et al.'s (1995) model focused on trust at an interpersonal level, it has been affirmed that the principles thereof may also apply to organisational trust (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011). Drawing on these assertions, this study applied Mayer et al.'s (1995) model to organisational trust, with specific reference to the extent to which employees regard their employing organisations (as represented by management) as trustworthy. Employees therefore form perceptions of their employing organisation's

trustworthiness based on their observations and experiences in the workplace (Bagram & Hime, 2007; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009) and the perceived quality of their relationships with their organisations (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006). If organisational leaders demonstrate behavioural consistency (i.e. perceived reliability based on past actions) and integrity (i.e. word-deed consistency), concern and sensitivity for employee needs, and communicate openly and honestly, they are more likely to be deemed trustworthy (Whitener et al., 1998). Organisations and managers may thus foster trusting relationships with their employees by engaging in trustworthy organisational practices (Burke et al., 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Legood et al., 2016; Martins, 2002; Von der Ohe, 2014). When organisations are seen as meeting their obligations and achieving their goals, while demonstrating concern for the well-being of their employees and upholding moral principles, employees are more inclined to regard them as trustworthy and to reciprocate by holding positive attitudes towards the organisation and engaging in desirable behaviour (Burke et al., 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Legood et al., 2016; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011; Von der Ohe, 2014).

It has furthermore been shown in this section that different types of trust exist. Drawing on social exchange theory, this study focuses on affective-based trust (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011). Employees are thus expected to develop trust in their employing organisations if these organisations, through their managerial practices, demonstrate consideration for the needs of their employees and support for their general well-being (Bagram & Hime, 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Van der Berg & Martins, 2013). The development of trusting relationships will be more likely in instances where such managerial practices are discretionary in nature rather than the result of external pressures on the organisation (e.g. contractual obligations, regulatory requirements or societal norms), as relinquishing control is an integral element of trust (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Schoorman et al., 2016).

Although it is acknowledged that the development of trust relationships is dynamic in nature and develops as the relationship between the parties matures (Bews, 1999; Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006), it was not the aim of this study to explore the developmental stages of trust but rather the relationship between employees' work-related and perceptions and work experiences, their trust in their employing organisations (as a psychological state) and their subsequent attitudes and behaviour in and towards their organisations.

Finally, it was also explained in this section that employees' trust in their employing organisations may be influenced by their inherent propensity to trust (Burke et al., 2007; Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mayer et al., 1995) and personal characteristics of both the trustor and the trustee (Martins, 2002; Mayer et al., 1995; Von der Ohe, 2014). In this

study, it is suggested that individuals' cultural dispositions may serve as a predictor of their propensity to trust (see Chapter 6). It is also acknowledged that person-centred variables may affect the likelihood that employees will trust their employing organisations and how they will respond to trust (or the absence thereof) in the employer-employee relationship. The potential influence of such characteristics, as reported in extant literature, are explored in the following section.

5.1.3 Person-centred variables influencing organisational trust

Extant literature has shown that individuals' beliefs about the trustworthiness of others and their subsequent decisions to trust may be based on the characteristics of the trustor, the trustee and the nature of the relationship between them (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Mayer et al., 1995). When contemplating the development of trust in an organisational context, it is thus necessary to consider those personal characteristics of the trustor that may influence his or her perceptions of trustworthiness and decision to trust. These characteristics include, for instance, an individual's predisposition towards trusting others, personality characteristics or the internalisation of cultural values and norms, which may reflect an inclination towards cooperative and trusting behaviour (Bews & Martins, 2002; Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006).

It has also been reported in extant literature that diverse personal characteristics may influence the development of trust in relationships (Bews & Uys, 2002; Hatipoglu & Inelmen, 2018; Shoss et al., 2016; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010; Wöhrle et al., 2014). According to McAllister (1995), individuals with similar personal characteristics may be more inclined to trust one another and to maintain trusting relationships. McAllister (1995) furthermore explained that individuals tend to form groups based on objective attributes (e.g. gender, race or age), and these groups influence the beliefs and attitudes held by group members. Individuals who do not form part of the group (i.e. the out-group) do not necessarily hold the same beliefs and attitudes, and are thus more likely to be regarded as untrustworthy.

Hence there is an expectation that person-centred variables may influence individuals' risk perceptions and willingness to trust (Caldwell, Hayes, & Long, 2010; Cohn, Macfarlane, Yanez, & Imai, 1995; Gustafson, 1998). Such variables may, for instance, include gender, age, population group, experience, tenure, disciplinary background, employment status and levels of education and employment (Bews & Uys, 2002; Jiang et al., 2017; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010; Yakovleva, Reilly, & Werko, 2010). These person-centred variables and the extent to which they have been shown to influence the development and outcomes of organisational trust are briefly outlined below.

5.1.3.1 *Age, gender and population group*

Although age, gender and, to a lesser extent, population group, are often used as control variables in organisational trust research, few researchers have reported significant differences in trust based on demographic factors. While racial variations in trust have been reported (blacks tend to be less trusting than whites), these differences are often ascribed to factors such as socioeconomic status and education (Burns, 2006; Posel & Hinks, 2013; Smith, 2010). However, it has been reported that individuals who are members of a discriminated or disadvantaged group are less likely to trust individuals from another group because of the discriminatory or disadvantageous treatment they have received in the past (Alesina & La Ferrara, 2002) – hence, in South Africa, employees from previously disadvantaged groups will be less trusting towards others, including their employing organisations.

In terms of gender, reported correlations have mostly been nonsignificant or minuscule (Jiang & Probst, 2016; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011). It has, however, been suggested that, owing to innate role differences, women tend to be more trusting than men (Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Dohmen et al., 2008). Chang, O'Neill et al. (2016) posited that, although it is sometimes suggested that role differentiation is becoming obsolete, women still experience a socialisation process that regards honouring others and being less competitive and cynical as female virtues. Hence, women tend to have more trust in authority figures than men, who tend to more self-directed and competitive.

Research in terms of the influence of age on trust has resulted in contradictory findings. While Robinson and Jackson (2001) found that interpersonal trust tends to increase with age, Clark and Eisenstein (2013) reported that this trend only continues until middle age, after which it stabilises. Chang, O'Neill et al. (2016) reported a negative relationship between age and trust. The discrepancies in these findings may be attributed to the trust references applicable. While the research of Clark and Eisenstein (2013) and Robinson and Jackson (2001) related to interpersonal trust in general, Chang, O'Neill et al.'s (2016) research focused specifically on trust in management. These findings once again highlight the importance of specifying the trust referent in order to allow for comparison of results across studies.

5.1.3.2 *Job level and employment status*

Cyster (2009) found significant differences in terms of trust between employees at different job levels. The positive relationships between job level and organisational trust have subsequently been confirmed by other researchers such as Martins and Von der Ohe (2011) and Searle, Den Hartog, et al. (2011). According to Searle, Den Hartog, et al. (2011), senior managers have access to information and are able to influence organisational decision making. They therefore feel less vulnerable and are more likely to trust their employing organisations.

It has also been suggested that employees' status of employment (i.e. permanent or temporary employment) may influence their trust in their employing organisations (Chattopadhyay & George, 2001; Pearce, 1993). Chang, O'Neill et al. (2016) posited, for instance, that employees who are employed on a temporary basis tend to have less interaction with organisational management and are often insecure about their continued employment. Hence, such employees may regard the risk in making themselves vulnerable to their employers too high, resulting in lower levels of organisational trust. However, Chang, O'Neill et al. (2016) could not find empirical support for this proposition. De Gilder (2003) also reported no significant difference in organisational trust between permanent and temporary employees.

5.1.3.3 *Tenure*

Trust is regarded as a dynamic psychological state that changes as interpersonal relationships develop and mature (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Mayer et al., 1995). Trust may also develop in different ways, depending on the stage of the trustor-trustee relationship (PytlíkZillig et al., 2016). However, research relating to organisational trust at the commencement of the employment relationship and its development over time is limited and often contradictory (Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Saunders & Thornhill, 2003). While some researchers have suggested that trust is relatively high at the start of the relationship and then decreases over time (Battaglio & Condrey, 2009; Jiang & Probst, 2016; Kiffin-Petersen & Cordery, 2003; McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany, 1998; Pearce & Klein, 2017; Robinson, 1996), others have reported nonsignificant associations between employee tenure and trust (Gilbert & Tang, 1998; Tan & Lim, 2009). Searle and Billsberry (2011) proposed, for example, that because of high levels of uncertainty and risk at the inception of the employment relationship, employees who choose to enter the organisation inevitably hold high levels of trust in the organisation. If

employees witness organisational incompetence or malevolence during their tenure, their trust in their employing organisation is likely to decrease (Pearce & Klein, 2017).

In contrast, some researchers (e.g. Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Lewicki, Wiethoff, & Tomlinson, 2005) have suggested that the employment relationship is marked by low levels of trust at its inception and that it increases over time if the expectations that are held are met. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) ascribed this positive relationship between organisational tenure and trust to a better understanding of one another because of a history of interaction. Although they (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) were unable to obtain empirical support for this view, they were supported by Lewicki et al. (2005), who suggested that, as relationships develop and parties get to know one another, commonalities (interests, attitudes, values, etc.) are recognised and emotional attachment develops, giving rise to deeper levels of trust.

According to Ballinger and Rockmann (2010), as a relationship develops and the parties become familiar with one another and their social context, their mutual expectations become more realistic and it becomes less likely that their trust in one another will be affected by single events. Based on this research, one can thus expect longer-tenured employees to be more inclined to trust their employing organisations and their trusting relationships with their employers to be less likely to change as a result of solitary events. More recent research (e.g. Frazier et al., 2016; Jones & Shah, 2016), however, cautions that the development of trust over time is complex. Frazier et al. (2016) postulated that employees' tenure does not necessarily predict higher or lower levels of trust. Instead, tenure influences the development of trust in that the different antecedents of trust (propensity to trust, ability, benevolence and integrity) become more or less significant over time. Jones and Shah (2016) reported similar findings, indicating that the trustor's influence in terms of the development of trust (i.e. propensity to trust or personal characteristics) decreases over time, but that the trustee becomes the dominant locus for perceived ability and integrity over time.

5.1.3.4 Level of education

Blunsdon and Reed (2003) reported higher levels of organisational trust in organisations where a large proportion of the workforce constituted white-collar workers, while Cyster (2009) found significant differences in terms of trust between employees with different levels of education. One would thus expect organisational trust to be higher among skilled and educated employees (Cyster, 2009).

5.1.3.5 *Union membership*

According to Dietz and Den Hartog (2006), employees' political beliefs may have an impact on their perceptions of managers' trustworthiness and their willingness to engage in trusting behaviour. Trade unionists, who often subscribe to strong socialist views, are expected to be less trusting towards managers than their capitalistic-oriented counterparts (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006). These views are supported by Chang, O'Neill et al. (2016), who explain that lower levels of organisational trust among union members may be attributed to perceived injustices in the workplace. Since employees tend to hold managers, as representatives of the organisation, accountable for these injustices, trade union members are inclined to have lower levels of trust in managers than their nonunionised counterparts do. Chang, O'Neill et al. (2016) provided empirical evidence of these views, reporting that employees who were union members were found to have lower trust in managers than those who were previously union members, and employees who were previously union members were found to have lower trust in managers than those who were never union members.

In summary, research on the potential influence of person-centred variables on organisational trust has been mostly inconclusive and often contradictory. It has, however, been shown that some demographic characteristics (age, education, gender, population group, employment status, job level, tenure and trade union membership) may influence the extent to which individuals are willing to trust. It is anticipated though, that the extent to which these characteristics influence trust development, will depend on the particular context and target. In light of the above findings, employees' personal characteristics are expected to play a relatively minor role in trust development. Although cognisance was thus taken of the potential impact of these characteristics on organisational trust, necessitating the inclusion of personal characteristics as control variables in the proposed psychological framework in this study, it is postulated that employees' trust in their employing organisations will depend more on their work-related perceptions and work experiences than on these individual differences.

5.1.4 Antecedents of organisational trust

The antecedents of organisational trust include both individual differences and contextual factors (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011; Von der Ohe, 2014). Individual differences may be categorised as either the trustor's personal dispositions or the trustee's perceived trustworthiness (Mayer et al., 1995; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011). The trustor's propensity to trust is an integral element of Mayer et al.'s (1995) integrative model of organisational trust

and has also been referred to as trait trust, dispositional trust or generalised trust (Chughtai & Buckley, 2008; Hamm et al., 2013; PytlikZillig et al., 2016; Wöhrle et al., 2014). Employees with a high propensity for trust hold a more positive view of their employing organisations and its intentions (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011). Therefore, if an employee with a trusting disposition experiences a negative event in the workplace, this will not necessarily result in a decline in trust. An employee's propensity to trust thus serves as a lens through which his or her observations or experiences in the workplace are interpreted (Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011).

The trustworthiness of the trustee is determined by a trustor's observations of his or her character, motives, abilities and behaviours (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006). It has also been shown that personality traits such as the Big Five characteristics of agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, extraversion and resourcefulness may predict trust (Bews & Martins, 2002; Martins, 2000; Von der Ohe et al., 2004). However, organisational trust research has focused mainly on Meyer et al.'s (1995) ability, benevolence and integrity as characteristics of trustworthiness, applying these trustee characteristics at both an interpersonal (i.e. trust in an immediate supervisor) and organisational (i.e. trust in management) level (Burke et al., 2007; Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Kramer, 1999; Schoorman et al., 2007). Employees' trust in their employing organisations may thus be determined by the extent to which the organisation is perceived as trustworthy (i.e. competent, compassionate and honest) (Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011). These perceptions are informed by contextual factors such as organisational practices, which have been shown to be stronger predictors of trust than the trustee's personality traits or the trustor's propensity to trust (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Von der Ohe, 2014).

The extent to which employees trust their employing organisations may furthermore be influenced by the nature of organisational practices and the extent to which policies and practices are fairly implemented (Cho & Poister, 2014; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011). These practices include general managerial practices relating to leadership, organisational justice and control (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011; Weibel et al., 2016), as well as HR practices such as performance management systems (Costigan, Insinga, Kranas, Kureshov, & Ilter, 2004; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Mayer & Davis, 1999), compensation (Pearce, Branyiczki, & Bigley, 2000) and high-involvement work practices (e.g. employee participation and involvement, information sharing, job security, family-friendly work practices, improving employees' skills and career prospects by providing opportunities for learning and development) (Gould-Williams, 2003; Huselid, 1995; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011; Worrall et al., 2011). Organisational practices that, inter alia, ensure fair procedures, outcomes and

interactional processes, provide organisational support and ensure that expectations are fulfilled, are thus expected to minimise the risk that employees face in becoming emotionally attached to their employing organisations (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011; Tan & Tan, 2000). Employees who perceive organisational practices as indicative of their employing organisations' commitment towards them will be more likely trust their organisations and to reciprocate this commitment by displaying positive attitudes (e.g. organisational commitment) and engaging in desirable behaviour (e.g. OCB) (Cho & Poister, 2014; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Gould-Williams, 2003; Von der Ohe, 2014).

It has thus been established in the literature that organisational practices shape employees' perceptions of their employing organisations' intentions (benevolence and integrity) and ability to achieve their goals and meet their obligations (Dietz et al., 2011; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011). Although a vast number of practices exist, the emphasis in this study was on organisational practices that inform employees' observations of the intentions of their employing organisations in terms of the quality of the exchange relationship (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011; Von der Ohe, 2014). It is suggested that organisations that are perceived as caring, supportive and fair (i.e. display benevolence and integrity) will contribute to the formation of trusting employer-employee relationships (Dietz et al., 2011). Byrne et al. (2011) emphasised that, when attempting to ensure better employer-employee relations, organisations should focus on both what they can do (e.g. ensuring justice and providing support) and what they should avoid (e.g. violation of the psychological contract). The focus is thus on three particular workplace experiences or perceptions that are significant in establishing and maintaining trusting employer-employee relations, namely perceived organisational support (POS), perceived organisational justice (POJ) and perceived violation of the psychological contract (see Chapter 4). POS is viewed as an indication of the benevolent intent of the employing organisation, whereas the employer's integrity is reflected in fair organisational practices (POJ) and the extent to which its obligations in terms of the psychological contract are fulfilled (Colquitt et al., 2007). The relationships between these workplace experiences and perceptions and organisational trust, as reported in extant literature and drawing on social exchange theory, are briefly discussed below.

5.1.4.1 *Violation of the psychological contract as an antecedent of organisational trust*

Researchers have attempted to gain a better understanding of the development of organisational trust by considering the psychological contract between employees and their employing organisations and the extent to which employers are perceived to meet their obligations in terms of these contracts (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011). Trust has been viewed as an antecedent of a positive psychological contract (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005); a consequence of the extent to which obligations in terms of the psychological contract are met (Deery, Iverson, & Walsh, 2006; Robinson, 1996; Zhao et al., 2007); a mediator in the relationships between psychological contract violations and organisational outcomes (Clinton & Guest, 2014); a moderator (i.e. viewing the level of trust as a moderator of the relationship between psychological contract content and breach and attitudinal outcomes) (Deery et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2007); or simply a correlate (Guest & Clinton, 2011).

Drawing on social exchange theory, Robinson, Rousseau and colleagues (Robinson, 1996; Robinson et al., 1994; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1990) conducted seminal research in this regard, suggesting that the parties in the employment relationship hold reciprocal expectations. These expectations develop incrementally as the employment relationship matures and become embedded in the psychological contract. When expectations are reinforced by perceived employer promises, they become obligations that may be transactional (e.g. wages and performance bonuses) or relational (e.g. job security, development opportunities and support) in nature. If these expectations and perceived obligations are met, employees will be more likely to trust their employing organisations and to reciprocate by developing positive attitudes towards and engaging in desirable behaviours in their organisations (Quratulain et al., 2016). The psychological contract thus denotes an array of give-and-take experiences over an extended period, which provide employees with indications about whether their employing organisations can be trusted (Lamertz & Bhawe, 2017). The dominant paradigm for studying the relationship between trust and the psychological contract is to view trust as an outcome of the extent to which obligations in terms of the psychological contract are met or violated (Guest & Clinton, 2011), which is also the perspective adopted in this study.

When viewing trust from a social exchange perspective, it is thus expected that, when employers are perceived as meeting their obligations in terms of the psychological contract, the risk inherent in the employer-employee relationship is minimised (Boey & Vantilborgh,

2015). Managers, as representatives of the employer in the workplace, shape these perceptions by means of their behaviour (Legood et al., 2016; Whitener et al., 1998). If they engage in behaviour that is deemed trustworthy by employees, this will reduce risk and result in higher levels of organisational trust.

However, if employees' expectations are not met, they may perceive this as a violation of the psychological contract, in which instance, trust in their employing organisation fails to develop or deteriorates (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Montes & Irving, 2008; Restubog, Hornsey, Bordia, & Esposito, 2008; Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989). Researchers have cautioned that employees' perceptions in terms of their employers' adherence to their obligations in terms of the psychological contract are crucial in the development of trusting relationships, as a single breach or violation may have a detrimental impact on trust, whereas a series of interactions over an extended period is required to build and develop trusting relationships (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Keyton & Smith, 2009). Employees may thus regard violation of the psychological contract as indicative of untrustworthiness and increased risk, and a negative relationship between psychological contract violation and organisational trust is therefore expected (Quratulain et al., 2016; Robinson, 1996). It has also been suggested that trust may reduce the negative impact of a perceived psychological contract violation on discretionary employee behaviour (Paillé & Raineri, 2016).

The emphasis in this study was on psychological contract violation (rather than fulfilment) as one of the most frequently cited contributors to a breakdown in trust in the employment relationship (Kramer & Lewicki, 2010). It has been shown that trust may not be regarded as critical in a positive ER climate, but becomes highly relevant when negative events occur (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2004). One would therefore expect perceived psychological contract violations to enhance the importance of trust and its influence on employee attitudes and behaviour.

5.1.4.2 Perceived organisational support as an antecedent of organisational trust

Positive relationships between perceived organisational support and organisational trust have been widely reported in extant literature (Ng, 2015; Singh & Srivastava, 2016). It has been argued that supportive actions by an organisation or organisational representative (e.g. management) create the impression that the organisation values employees' contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Kernan & Hanges, 2002), thereby contributing to the organisation's perceived trustworthiness (Freire & Azevedo, 2015). POS creates trust by demonstrating that organisations will fulfil their obligations in terms of the

exchange relationship (Biswas & Kapil, 2017; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Stinglhamber et al., 2006; Tremblay et al., 2010).

The perceptions of trustworthiness created by POS further contribute to the establishment of high-quality exchange relationships and create an obligation for employees to reciprocate by engaging in desirable behaviour and adopting positive attitudes towards the organisation (Settoon et al., 1996; Whitener, 2001). Employees therefore interpret organisational support as commitment and care on the part of the organisation and reciprocate by trusting the organisation (Whitener, 1997). An employee's willingness to be vulnerable (e.g. risk becoming emotionally attached or bound to an organisation) and subsequent risk-taking behaviour may thus be attributed to the benevolent intent displayed by supportive organisational actions (DeConinck, 2010).

5.1.4.3 Perceived organisational justice as an antecedent of organisational trust

Perceived organisational justice (POJ) relates to the extent to which employees perceive the treatment they receive from their employing organisations as fair and their attitudinal and behavioural reactions to such perceptions (Greenberg & Tyler, 1987; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013). It has been suggested that POJ may serve as an indicator of the quality of a social exchange relationship, and that it may thus contribute to the development of trust in such a relationship (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011). By demonstrating benevolence and goodwill, fair treatment may also be regarded as an indication of trustworthiness, which may reassure employees that it is safe to make themselves vulnerable to a party (e.g. the organisation or a supervisor) with greater power and authority (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Yang et al., 2009). Trust ensues when organisational decisions are seen as fair – that is, the outcomes are reasonable and such decisions are clearly communicated and consistently implemented (Worrall et al., 2011). Drawing on social exchange theory, employees' perceptions of organisational justice may thus serve as predictors of the trustworthiness of their employing organisations which, in turn, contributes to their willingness to make themselves vulnerable to these organisations (Frazier, Johnson, Gavin, Gooty, & Snow, 2010; Jiang et al., 2017). Trust has been firmly established in extant literature as a mechanism through which justice perceptions affect relational outcomes (Biswas & Kapil, 2017; Stinglhamber et al., 2006).

Organisational justice literature commonly differentiates between three types or dimensions of justice, namely distributive, procedural and interactive (see Chapter 4) (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Employees' perceptions in terms of all three these types of justice have been linked to organisational trust (Aryee et al., 2002; Colquitt et al., 2007;

DeConinck, 2010; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Saunders & Thornhill, 2004; Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011; Tan & Tan, 2000). However, the complexity of both the organisational justice and trust constructs has necessitated deeper exploration of the relationships between these constructs, highlighting differential effects attributed to the different justice dimensions (Lewicki et al., 2005). While some researchers (e.g. Colquitt et al., 2012) established that the organisational justice dimensions (procedural, interpersonal, and distributive) are antecedents of both cognitive and affective trust, others have reported differentiated effects. For instance, Searle, Weibel, et al. (2011) postulated that, while procedural and interactive justice contribute mainly to affective or relational trust, distributive justice is more likely to contribute to the development of cognitive or knowledge-based trust. It is thus deemed essential to consider not only the relationship between POJ and organisational trust, but also the potential differential effect that each of the dimensions of justice may have in terms of the development of trust in an organisational context.

Perceived distributive justice, which relates to the fairness of organisational outcomes, may be regarded by an employee as indicative of the organisation's positive valuation of his or her contributions and intent to maintain high-quality relations in future (Sousa-Lima et al., 2013). This, in turn, increases the perceived trustworthiness of the person or entity responsible for the outcomes (such as a supervisor or organisation) and contributes to a higher level of trust in this person or entity (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Employees' perceptions of distributive justice have been shown to positively influence both trust in their supervisors and trust in their employing organisations (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). However, the relationship between perceived distributive justice and trust in the organisation tends to be stronger as employees are inclined to attribute the fair distribution of outcomes to organisational policies rather than the supervisors' discretion (Aryee et al., 2002; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013).

Moreover, it has been shown that organisational trust is not only influenced by the perceived fairness of outcomes, but also by the procedure followed to achieve such outcomes (i.e. procedural justice) (Brockner & Siegel, 1996; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2012; Frazier et al., 2010; Kernan & Hanges, 2002; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Saunders & Thornhill, 2004; Singh & Srivastava, 2016; Wong et al., 2012). The significance of procedural justice as a predictor of trust has been suggested to be crucial at an organisational level as it reflects reliability and consistency in terms of organisational procedures (DeConinck, 2010; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011; Stinglhamber et al., 2006). Procedural justice protects employees from arbitrary decisions and provides them with some control over the distribution of resources, thereby reducing their perceived risk in the

employment relationship (Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011). Procedural justice also serves as an indicator of the organisation's ability (transparency and consistency in the resource allocation processes) and intentions and therefore affects employees' perceptions of the trustworthiness of their employing organisations (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011). Both procedural and distributive justice thus protect employees from ambiguity in the employer-employee relationship and thereby increase their trust in their employing organisations (Burke et al., 2007).

Interactional justice, which relates to the way in which managers are perceived as effectively communicating and enacting organisational decisions (Bies & Moag, 1986), has also been shown to be a determinant of employees' perceptions of their managers' trustworthiness (Frazier et al., 2010; Saunders & Thornhill, 2003) and has been positively linked to trust in management (DeConinck, 2010; Kernan & Hanges, 2002). Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) suggested that, although positive relationships between employees' perceptions of interactional justice and trust have been reported, such relationships are likely to be stronger at an interpersonal level (i.e. employees' trust in their supervisor). This view is supported by both DeConinck (2010) and Nienaber et al. (2015), who found interactional justice to be the most relevant dimension of justice when determining the relationship between justice perceptions and trust in supervisor-subordinate relationships.

While all three dimensions of organisational justice have thus been linked to trust, few studies have included these dimensions in a single study (DeConinck, 2010). DeConinck (2010) not only contributed to extant literature by including all three dimensions of justice in analysing the relationship between POJ and trust, but also empirically confirmed the interactive effect of POJ and POS on employees' trust in both their employing organisations and direct supervisors. This study builds on DeConinck's (2010) work by including all three dimensions of organisational justice in the conceptualised framework and also considering the interactive effect of POJ and POS on organisational trust, thereby gaining a more comprehensive understanding of the antecedents of trust and how these antecedents interact to influence employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

Finally, specifying the trust referent (see section 5.1.2.6) has been shown to be of particular significance when investigating the relationship between POJ and trust (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Frazier et al., 2010). In terms of social exchange principles, it has been suggested that individuals will reciprocate benefits received and that such reciprocal behaviour will be directed towards the source of the benefit received (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2004). By applying these principles to organisational justice, it has been shown that employees form

distinct justice perceptions relating to different parties that they engage with in an organisational context (i.e. the target similarity model) (Colquitt et al., 2013; Stinglhamber et al., 2006). The consequences of these perceptions differ in terms of the particular organisational foci (Cropanzano, Byrne, et al., 2001). It may thus be anticipated that the antecedents and consequences of trust will differ, depending on the specific target of trust (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012). Dirks and Ferrin (2002) reported, for instance, that although POJ (notably interactional and procedural justice) was found to be related to trust in both direct and organisational leaders, it showed stronger relationships with the former. These findings were supported in subsequent research (Aryee et al., 2002; Singh & Srivastava, 2016; Stinglhamber et al., 2006) where stronger positive relationships between procedural justice and trust in the organisation were reported, while showing that interactional justice was the primary source of trust in a direct supervisor. By applying a multifoci approach to outcomes, Rupp and Cropanzano (2002) showed that an employee who regards his or her employing organisation as trustworthy will be more inclined to engage in behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation, while an employee who regards an individual (e.g. a direct supervisor) as trustworthy, will reciprocate by engaging in behaviour that is beneficial to the particular individual. These outcomes, as well as other relational consequences of trust as reported in extant literature, are explored in the next section.

5.1.5 Relational outcomes or consequences of organisational trust

The reciprocal nature of trust is widely recognised in extant literature (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011). When regarded from a social exchange perspective, managers' perceived trustworthiness, as reflected in higher levels of organisational trust, are associated with more favourable attitudes towards the organisation and desirable workplace behaviour (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2004; Ferrin, Bligh, & Kohles, 2008; Freire & Azevedo, 2015; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Hatipoglu & Inelmen, 2018; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013).

The advantages of fostering trust in organisational settings have been widely reported (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Trust has been shown to positively influence job-related attitudes (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011) such as job satisfaction and involvement (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Schoorman et al., 2007; Yang & Mossholder, 2010; Young & Daniel, 2003) and organisational commitment (Aryee et al., 2002; Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999; Tan & Tan, 2000). High levels of organisational trust have also been associated with decreased burnout and psychological distress (Jiang & Probst, 2016), turnover intention (Cho & Poister, 2014) and cynicism (Albrecht & Travaglione, 2003). Superior levels of job performance (Cho & Poister, 2014; Colquitt et al., 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001, 2002), increased cooperation and sharing of

information and knowledge (Andrews & Delahaye, 2000; Hu & Jiang, 2018; McNeish & Mann, 2010), innovation (Newell & Swan, 2000), OCB (Colquitt et al., 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Mayer & Gavin, 2005; McAllister, 1995; Pillai et al., 1999; Podsakoff et al., 1990, 2000) and a general proliferation of desirable workplace behaviour (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001, 2002; Kougiannou, Redman, & Dietz, 2015) have also been attributed to organisational trust.

Employees who trust their employing organisations to act in their best interest are more likely to remain in the organisation, to perform well and to invest additional time and effort in the organisation (Pirson & Malhotra, 2011). Conversely, employees who do not trust their employing organisations are less likely meet performance requirements (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001) and more likely to engage in CWB (Bies & Tripp, 1996) or to leave the organisation (Robinson, 1996). A lack of organisational trust has also been shown to lead to nondesirable outcomes such as a lack of motivation, increased cynicism, decreased commitment and an overall lack of confidence in the organisation (Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016).

The outcomes of organisational trust may thus be categorised as either work-related attitudes and intentions (e.g. job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment) or workplace behaviours and performance (e.g. job performance, innovation and cooperation, OCB) (Cho & Ringquist, 2011; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). In this study, four potential outcomes of organisational trust are considered, namely organisational and union commitment as attitudinal outcomes and OCB and CWB as behavioural outcomes. These outcomes and their relationship with trust, as reported in extant literature, are explored below.

5.1.5.1 Relational attitudes as outcomes of organisational trust

Trust in an organisational context has been associated with various job-related attitudes (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011), most notably job satisfaction (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Schoorman et al., 2007; Yang & Mossholder, 2010; Young & Daniel, 2003), turnover intention (Cho & Poister, 2014) and organisational commitment (Aryee et al., 2002; Byrne et al., 2011; Pillai et al., 1999; Tan & Tan, 2000). It has been shown that employees who regard their managers or employing organisations as trustworthy tend to not only perform better, but also to display higher levels of organisational commitment (Byrne et al., 2011).

Researchers, however, have revealed the differential effects of trust, depending on the trust referent. Trust in a supervisor or direct leader has been shown to mainly influence factors such as performance, altruism, intent to quit and job satisfaction, while trust in management has

been revealed as the best predictor of organisational commitment (Cho & Park, 2011; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Dirks & Skarlicki, 2004; Kannan-Narasimhan & Lawrence, 2012). Although employees' trust in these targets is interrelated (i.e. it is unlikely that an employee will trust the organisation if he or she does not trust an immediate supervisor) (Kannan-Narasimhan & Lawrence, 2012; Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010; Whitener, 1997), the extent to which employees commit to their employing organisations is determined primarily by their trust in management rather than their trust in an immediate supervisor (Kam et al., 2016).

Extant literature addressing the relationship between organisational trust and commitment tends focus on the affective dimension of trust, theorising that both organisational commitment and organisational trust may be regarded as variables reflecting employees' affective attachment towards their employing organisations (Ng, 2015). Therefore, although trust has been linked to all three forms of organisational commitment (AC, NC and CC), positive associations have mainly been reported with affective commitment (Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009; Kam et al., 2016; Tan & Lim, 2009; Yang & Mossholder, 2010). In their meta-analysis of trust in leadership, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) found positive correlations between both trust in top management and trust in an immediate supervisor and AC, but that the former association was stronger. The positive relationship between organisational trust and commitment is further intensified when trust is viewed as affective or relational in nature (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Yang & Mossholder, 2010). Affective trust at both an interpersonal (trust in an immediate supervisor) and organisational (trust in management) level has been shown to predict affective organisational commitment (Yang & Diefendorff, 2009).

Research relating to the relationships between trust and the normative and continuance (NC and CC) components of organisational commitment is scarce and the results obtained in the limited number of studies incorporating NC and CC (Albrecht & Travaglione, 2003; Colquitt et al., 2012; Hopkins & Weathington, 2006; Laschinger et al., 2000; Ozag, 2006) are often insignificant or inconsistent (Kam et al., 2016). While Ozag (2006) reported a positive relationship between organisational trust and NC, Colquitt et al. (2012) found that this relationship held only when an affect-based measure of trust was used. Moreover, the relationship between trust in management and CC has been reported as negative (Albrecht & Travaglione, 2003; Laschinger et al., 2000) or insignificant (Hopkins & Weathington, 2006; Ozag, 2006).

In order to address these inconsistencies in extant literature, Kam et al. (2016) posited that, when investigating the relationship between trust and organisational commitment, researchers should not only include all three components of organisational commitment (AC, NC and CC),

but should also consider how these components are experienced as a commitment profile (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Kam et al. (2016) provided empirical support for this view by reporting that employees who perceive their organisations and its managers as trustworthy would be more likely to have desirable (i.e. fully committed, AC/NC-dominant or AC-dominant) commitment profiles that have been linked to desirable workplace behaviour (Gellatly et al., 2006; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Sinclair et al., 2005; Wasti, 2005).

In chapter 3 it was shown that the way in which commitment to a single target (e.g. the organisation) is experienced may depend on the relative degree of commitment to another target (e.g. a trade union) (Cooper et al., 2016). Therefore, when investigating the attitudinal outcomes of trust in an employment relations context, it is deemed essential to consider not only the extent to which trusting employer-employee relationships may enhance employees' commitment to their employing organisations, but also the possibility that a decline or lack of trust may encourage trade union commitment. This possibility, however, has received little attention in extant literature. This dearth in research may be attributed to target similarity theory (Lavelle et al., 2007), which posits that reciprocal behaviour is directed at specific social exchange partners. In terms of this theory, a direct relationship between employees' trust in their employing organisations and their commitment to a trade union is therefore unlikely.

Research on union commitment and participation, however, has suggested that such a relationship may be plausible (Smit et al., 2016). Jirjahn and Lange (2015) theorised that trust may be equated to vulnerability and the possibility of exploitation. These researchers (Jirjahn & Lange, 2015) proposed that one of the ways in which these concerns may be reduced is by means of employee representation by, say, a trade union. Furthermore, Worrall et al. (2011) asserted that, when trust is violated or declines, employees will be more inclined to focus on their own, as opposed to organisational, interests. It may thus be anticipated that employees who have experienced trust violations or a decline in trust in their work environments, will regard these experiences as indicative of the organisation's lack of commitment to its employees. As a result, employees may become defensive and hide behind organisational policies and procedures in an attempt to protect their own interests. In a unionised environment, such policies and procedures may include freedom to associate with trade unions and engaging in collective action with the intent of promoting the interests of trade union members (Worrall et al., 2011).

A lack of organisational trust has been linked to higher levels of unionisation (Bashir & Nasir, 2013; Hemmasi & Graf, 1993). Chan, Snape, and Redman (2004) suggested that employees who experience their relationships with their employing organisations as distrustful and hostile,

will be more likely to engage in union activities such as industrial action or filing of grievances, suggesting higher levels of union commitment. Likewise, Snape and colleagues (Snape & Chan, 2000; Snape & Redman, 2012; Snape et al., 2000) reported that high levels of unionism may be indicative of a lack of trust, cooperation and respect in employer-employee relations (i.e. a negative ER climate). More recent research has corroborated this view showing that, when a positive ER climate prevails, employees may display higher levels of commitment towards both their employing organisations and trade unions (Deery et al., 2014), suggesting that dual commitment to these entities is possible (see section 3.4.4). In this study, cognisance was thus taken of the complexity of workplace relationships and commitments, and the extent to which employees' trust (or lack of trust) in their employing organisations influences their commitment to these organisations as well as trade unions was therefore considered. It is conceived that union commitment may be regarded as an additional component (with AC, NC and CC) of employees' commitment profiles (Kam et al., 2016; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) and that the extent to which employees' trust in their employing organisations will contribute to the development of these profiles. By including both organisational and union commitment, it might be possible to determine whether an optimal commitment profile exists that will result in desirable employee behaviour (Kabins et al., 2016).

5.1.5.2 Relational behaviour as an outcome of organisational trust

When organisations or managers are regarded as trustworthy by their employees, this signifies safety in the exchange relationship – hence, employees become more willing to make themselves vulnerable by trusting their employers (Chiaburu & Lim, 2008). In terms of Mayer et al.'s (1995) model of organisational trust, an individual's willingness to be vulnerable may manifest in a variety of risk-taking behaviours. Such behaviours may include both in-role and extra-role performance (Mayer & Gavin, 2005). Drawing mainly on the principles of social exchange, numerous researchers have confirmed that trust serves as a predictor of OCB (e.g. Aryee et al., 2002; Coxen et al., 2016; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Gould-Williams, 2003; Lester & Brower, 2003; Pillai et al., 1999; Singh & Srivastava, 2016; Tyler & Blader, 2003; Wong et al., 2012). Caldwell et al. (2010) theorised that OCB may be regarded as the highest degree of discretionary employee commitment, reflecting a commitment based on perceived fairness and trustworthiness in their relationships with their employing organisations.

While results in terms of in-role performance have been inconclusive, the relationship between organisational trust and OCB has consistently been shown to be positive (Cho & Ringquist, 2011; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Ng, 2015). The strength of the reported relationships, however, has fluctuated, which may be ascribed to different trust referents (Dirks

& Ferrin, 2002; Kannan-Narasimhan & Lawrence, 2012). At an interpersonal level (i.e. trust in a direct supervisor), it has been reported that trust (most notably affective trust) is a significant predictor of OCB (Wech, 2002; Yang & Mossholder, 2010). However, at an organisational level, the results have been less conclusive, with Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence (2012) positing that, while trust in a direct supervisor influences an individual's willingness to engage in OCB, the same does not apply to trust in senior management.

Owing to these inconsistencies, it has been suggested that a more accurate understanding of the trust-OCB relationship may be obtained if one differentiates between OCB directed towards the organisation (OCB-O) and OCB directed towards individuals in it (OCB-I) (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Drawing on social exchange principles, which state that individuals will reciprocate benefits received, and that such reciprocal behaviour will be directed towards the source of the benefit received (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2004; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994), it has been suggested that OCB-I relates to interpersonal trust (e.g. trust in co-workers or direct supervisors), while OCB-O is more likely to be affected by organisational trust (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2015). Evidence of positive correlations between interpersonal trust and both OCB-I and OCB-O, however, has been found (Wech, 2002). In terms of organisational trust, both Brower et al. (2009) and Singh and Srivastava (2016) reported a strong positive correlation between trust in management and organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O), while the relationship between trust in management and individually directed OCB (OCB-I), although still positive, was found to be only marginally significant. From the above one could infer that trust in all organisational referents will positively influence OCB, but that stronger relationships will exist for interpersonal trust and OCB-I and organisational trust (trust in management) and OCB-O.

While a number of researchers have therefore confirmed the positive relationship between trust and OCB, there seems to be paucity of research relating to the relationship between trust and CWB, despite declining levels of trust in and beyond the workplace (Edelman Intelligence, 2017). Colquitt et al. (2007), in their meta-analytic review of the antecedents and consequences of trust, confirmed, however, that higher levels of trust may be associated with a reduced likelihood of engaging in CWB. It has also been suggested that, when trust violations occur, employees will be more likely to engage in defensive, self-persevering behaviour in an attempt to restore balance in the relationship (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Mayer & Gavin, 2005). This is especially true in instances where a trustor perceives that the trustee has control over an outcome and where a negative outcome is not an isolated event caused by temporary or fluctuating circumstances (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). Trust violations have been associated with a lack of motivation, cynicism, high labour turnover, increased

industrial action and even employee behaviour deliberately aimed at harming or disrupting the organisation (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Von der Ohe et al., 2004; Yakovleva et al., 2010).

The aim of this study was to promote a better understanding of the consequences of trust (or a lack thereof) in the employment relationship by considering both positive (OCB) and negative (CWB) behavioural outcomes. Drawing on extant literature, it is anticipated that high levels of organisational trust will result in a willingness to engage in behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation and people in it. In contrast, a lack of or decline in trust will discourage employees from engaging in desirable discretionary behaviour and may even encourage CWB. The latter outcome may be particularly concerning in the South African employment relations environment, which is characterised by high levels of distrust and animosity (see Chapter 2).

5.1.6 Organisational trust in a South African employment relations context

Extant literature has shown that trust is an essential element of effective employer-employee relations – especially when the workforce is diverse – as mutual trust between the parties enhances their willingness to work together towards a common goal (Mayer et al., 1995). Exchanges that are characterised by relational trust are often more resilient (Rousseau et al., 1998), which means that unmet expectations, which are often unavoidable in volatile business conditions, can be survived when relational trust exists, particularly if parties make an effort to restore a sense of good faith and fair dealing to their interactions (Rousseau et al., 1998). Organisations in which employer-employee relations are trusting tend to achieve higher levels of performance as employees in such organisations are more cooperative and willing to engage in activities exceeding their formal job requirements (Lau, Lam, & Salamon, 2008; Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011). Trusting employer-employee relationships may thus be regarded as a vital source of sustainable competitive advantage for organisations (Dietz et al., 2011).

Mather (2011) cautions, however, that attaining trust in an employment relations context, which emphasises economic exchange and is characterised by power inequality and employee dependence and exploitation, is unlikely. However, when a pluralist approach to employment relations is adopted, organisations may find ways of balancing control (as a means of increasing performance and productivity) with interventions aimed at encouraging cooperation and consensus. Although such interventions will not necessarily result in high levels of trust between the parties (managers, employees and trade unions), they may shape and accommodate ways in which the inherently low levels of trust can be addressed, paving the way for mutually acceptable, negotiated order in the workplace. However, this can only be

achieved when trade unions are regarded as collaborators rather than adversaries, and employees, through their trade unions, employees are empowered (Mather, 2011).

Organisations often resort to formal rules, contracts and other legal remedies in the absence of interpersonal trust (Sitkin & Roth, 1993). Thus far, throughout this study, it has been argued that organisations should refrain from relying on overtly legalistic and formal approaches to dealing with employees. An over-reliance on formal workplace rules, policies and procedures has been linked to low levels or an absence of employer-employee trust (Jordaan & Ulrich, 2016). Extant literature has shown that employment relations in organisational environments that rely mainly on rules and regulations tend to be negative as employees feel that they are not trusted (Fukuyama, 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007; Weibel et al., 2016). Depending on legalistic remedies to manage employer-employee relations is regarded as a weak and impersonal substitute for trust (Mayer et al., 1995). While rules and procedures (i.e. formal mechanisms for regulating employment relations) remain essential as a means of providing structure for individual and group interaction in the workplace, the quality of the employer-employee relationship depends largely on the level of trust between the parties (Jordaan & Ulrich, 2016). Organisations should rather strive towards finding ways in which high-quality exchange relationships with their employees can be fostered (Dietz et al., 2011; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011). This may be achieved by adopting organisational and employment relations practices that provide employees with the necessary support, enhance fairness and show employees that they are trusted and their contributions recognised (Tremblay et al., 2010). Trust is an inherent part of such relationships and indispensable in today's globalised, competitive business environment (Von der Ohe, 2014).

However, trust is reported to be at an all-time low (Edelman Intelligence, 2017). South African employment relations are characterised by persisting inequalities and perceived injustices (see Chapter 2) that contribute to declining trust in the workplace and beyond (Ehlers, 2013; Jordaan, 2014). Factors contributing to low levels of trust include widespread perceptions of job insecurity, increasing workloads, high levels of work-related stress and income disparities (Dietz et al., 2011). A key contributing factor has also been the high number of retrenchments experienced across a number of sectors (Commission for Conciliation Mediation and Arbitration, 2017) which further perpetuates employees' sense of insecurity and disillusionment (Jiang & Probst, 2016; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). Retrenchment tends to break down trust among not only the retrenched employees, but also those employees who remain (Lam et al., 2015; Reynolds, 1997).

The successful functioning of organisations is inadvertently influenced by employees' negative perceptions of the trustworthiness of their employers as they become less willing to make themselves vulnerable to management and to contribute to the organisation's successful functioning (Mayer & Gavin, 2005). In instances where the trust relationship has been violated, it is thus essential for organisations to find ways in which the trustworthiness that employees ascribe to their employing organisations can be restored (Dietz et al., 2011; Kramer & Lewicki, 2010).

Some of the ways in which trusting employer-employee relationships can be established and maintained include the implementation of organisational and employment relations practices that reflect the employer's benevolent intent in dealing with employment relations matters (Dietz et al., 2011; Guest & Clinton, 2011). These practices should provide tangible evidence of organisations' competence, integrity, concern, care and respect for their employees (Searle & Skinner, 2011). These could include, say, establishing communication channels that foster transparency and information sharing, encouraging collaboration by considering the interests of all parties and fostering empowering and innovative leadership (Jordaan & Ulrich, 2016; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013; Worrall et al., 2011). The emphasis should be on finding ways to establish and maintain trusting relationships that will ultimately encourage positive attitudes and behaviour in the workplace rather than enforcing particular behaviour by means of formal rules and regulations (Schoorman et al., 2007). Control systems should generally function as protective mechanisms for employees, reducing risk and vulnerability in relation to their organisation, thereby facilitating trust in the organisation (Weibel et al., 2016).

5.1.7 Summary

This study addresses calls in the literature (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001) to further explore the role of trust, as a complex and dynamic construct representing employees' interpretation of their relationships with their employing organisations, in predicting attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. The focus is on employees' trust in management as a proxy for the organisations in which they are employed. Trust is thus regarded as a unitary construct reflecting the preparedness of one party (the employee) to expose its vulnerabilities to another party (the employing organisation), while believing that that party will act in its best interest even if its actions are not monitored or controlled (Altuntas & Baykal, 2010; Martins, 2000; Mayer et al., 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998; Von der Ohe, 2016). This conceptualisation of organisational trust encompasses vulnerability and risk as significant elements of a dependent (employer-employee) relationship (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011). Trust in this context is thus regarded as affective or relational in nature (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; McAllister, 1995). It is furthermore

highlighted that the development of trust in employment relations is reliant on the dependent party's perceptions of and beliefs relating to the other party's actions (Mayer et al., 1995; Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011).

Owing to this study's relational focus, employees' beliefs about the trustworthiness of their employing organisations, based on an interdependent employer-employee relationship and concern for the well-being of the other (i.e. affective-based trust), was deemed critical in understanding the development and consequences of trusting employer-employee relationships. The extent to which employees' trust their employing organisations is thus determined by their personal experiences in the workplace and their perceptions of how others (co-workers) are treated. Employees are expected to display higher levels of affective-based trust in their employing organisations if they can identify with the organisation's values, feel that the organisation cares about their well-being and experience a sense of partnership with the organisation (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011). Trust in the employing organisation exists when the employee is willing to relinquish control over issues that are significant to him or her to the employer (management), even though the employee has no means of monitoring or controlling such behaviour (Schoorman et al., 2016).

In this study, organisational trust and its consequences for employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace were regarded from a social exchange perspective (Freire & Azevedo, 2015). Trust therefore develops as a result of continual interactions between managers (as representatives of the employing organisation) and employees and the perceived fulfilment of the parties' expectations during these interactions (Lewicki et al., 2006). Although it is thus accepted that trust is dynamic in nature and that it will therefore take different forms as the employer-employee relationship develops (Burke et al., 2007; Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006), the research focus in this study was not on differentiating between various types of trust or determining how it changes over time. The objective in this study was rather to determine employees' trust in their employing organisations at a given point in time, and to establish how organisational trust relates to employees' perceptions of the quality of the social exchange relationship (i.e. their work-related perceptions and work experiences) and their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

Although it was anticipated that employees' trust in their employing organisations and its managers might be influenced by their propensity to trust, as a personal disposition (Mayer et al., 1995), as well as personality attributes held by managers (Martins, 2002), Von der Ohe's (2014) assertion that organisational practices are the strongest predictors of trust in employer-employee relationships was supported in the current study. Dirks and Ferrin's (2002)

framework was regarded as a significant underpinning for this study. Not only does it confirm the significance of the antecedent variables (psychological contract violation, POS and POJ) of relevance in this study, but also endorses the anticipated relationships between these antecedents, trust and selected attitudinal (organisational commitment) and behavioural (OCB) outcomes. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) call for additional research on the mediating processes involved as well as the contextual factors that may moderate the strength of the relationship between trust and various outcomes. The aim of this study was to confirm the relationships between trust, organisational commitment and OCB in a South African organisational context. In addition, two potential outcomes that have received limited attention in trust literature but are deemed essential in an employment relations context were added, namely union commitment and CWB. The expectation was that employees who do not trust their employing organisations and its leaders would be less committed to these organisations and unwilling to engage in OCB. At the same time, these employees may resort to trade unions to fulfil their needs (i.e. increased union commitment) and even engage in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation (CWB).

The study further explored the mediating role of both organisational trust and cynicism in the relationship between employees' work-related perceptions (psychological contract violation) and work experiences (POS and POJ) and their attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in and towards their employing organisations (see section 5.3). The potential moderating effect of employees' cultural disposition (individualism/collectivism) as a contextual factor influencing how organisational trust is developed, experiences and acted upon, is considered in Chapter 6.

The main theoretical findings relating to organisational trust are summarised in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3

Theoretical Integration: Organisational Trust

Theoretical models adopted	<p>Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman's (1995) integrative model of organisational trust informs the conceptualisation of trust in an organisational context.</p> <p>Additional models (Burke et al., 2007; Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Martins, 2002; Von der Ohe, 2014) inform the conceptualisation of trust in the particular context of this study (i.e. employment relations in South African organisations).</p>
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Definition of organisational trust	Organisational trust is regarded as a psychological state, reflecting an employee's willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of the employing organisation, based on the conviction that the organisation and its management will act in good faith and uphold its obligations towards its employees without having to resort to formal processes to monitor or control employer actions (Altuntas & Baykal, 2010; Martins, 2000; Mayer et al., 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998; Von der Ohe, 2016).								
Core construct	Organisational trust (single construct)								
Person-centred variables impacting on organisational trust	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>Employment status</td> <td>Tenure</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Job level</td> <td>Gender</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Age</td> <td>Population group</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Education level</td> <td>Union membership</td> </tr> </table>	Employment status	Tenure	Job level	Gender	Age	Population group	Education level	Union membership
Employment status	Tenure								
Job level	Gender								
Age	Population group								
Education level	Union membership								
Antecedents of organisational trust in an ER context	<p>Positive relationships between organisational trust and</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> perceived organisational justice (POJ) (including distributive, procedural and interactive justice) perceived organisational support (POS) <p>Negative relationship between organisational trust and psychological contract violation</p>								
Relational outcomes of organisational trust in an ER context	<p>Positive relationships between organisational trust and</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> organisational commitment (notably affective commitment) organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) <p>Negative relationships between organisational trust and</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> union commitment counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) <p>Stronger relationships are expected between organisational trust and organisationally directed behaviour (i.e. OCB-O and CWB-O) than individually directed behaviour (i.e. OCB-I and CWB-I). Organisational trust is also expected to relate more significantly to organisational commitment than to union commitment.</p>								
Relevance in enhancing employment relations	Trust is an essential element of effective employer-employee relations and enhances the parties' willingness to work together towards a common goal. Trusting employer-employee relations, however, are only possible if organisations find ways of balancing control with cooperation and consensus. By refraining from relying on overtly legalistic and formal approaches to dealing with employees, trusting high-quality exchange relationships may be established. Such relationships may ultimately								

encourage positive attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, thereby contributing to organisational success.

In the South African organisational context, sociopolitical transformation and its impact on the work environment, place significant emphasis on the relations between role players in the workplace and especially the trust between these role players (Martins & Von der Ohe, 2011). As a psychological state crucial to the formation and sustenance of human relationships, the importance of trust in the workplace is widely recognised (Bagraim & Hime, 2007). Various studies have investigated trust as a major construct in research predicting both individual-level and organisational-level outcomes (e.g. Chatbury et al., 2011; Colquitt et al., 2007; Deconinck & Beth, 2013; Duffy & Lilly, 2013; Eğriboyun, 2015; Lee, Gillespie, Mann, & Wearing, 2010; Lewicki et al., 2006; McCabe & Sambrook, 2014; Schlechter & Strauss, 2008). Organisational trust has therefore been extensively researched as a potential antecedent of employee attitudes and behaviour. However, the same does not hold for organisational cynicism. Although it has been found that negative work experiences and perceptions have a greater impact on employee attitudes and behaviour than positive ones (Baumeister et al., 2001), and organisational practices resulting in a violation of trust are expected to be more salient than practices that contribute to trust building (Lapidot et al., 2007), there seems to be a paucity of research on the prevalence of organisational cynicism in South African organisations and its impact on relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. The researcher in this study therefore also decided to explore the importance of organisational cynicism as a predictor of relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in South African organisations. This view is supported by PytlikZillig et al. (2016), who suggested that a more comprehensive understanding of a trustee's relationship with a trustor may be gained by also considering negative attitudes such as cynicism towards the person or entity.

In this study, it was anticipated that employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) would determine their expectations (either positive or negative) of their employing organisations. These expectations and the extent to which they are met, in turn, were expected to guide employees' behavioural intentions. Employees who have positive expectations of their employers' intentions and integrity will be more likely to display higher levels of organisational trust and a subsequent willingness to engage in risk-taking behaviour (e.g. becoming emotionally attached to the organisation or engaging in discretionary behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation). Conversely, employees who perceive their employing organisations as lacking in integrity and self-serving are likely to become suspicious and doubtful of their employers' intent and may, as a result,

become cynical towards these organisations, resulting in disparaging and critical organisation-directed behaviour (Afsar & Masood, 2018; Brandes, Dharwadkar, & Dean, 1999; Dean et al., 1998). Hence the development of organisational cynicism and its impact on employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace are examined in the next section.

5.2 ORGANISATIONAL CYNICISM

In Chapter 2, the vast inequalities and perceived injustices in the South African employment relations environment were highlighted. Employees' high expectations following the transition from apartheid to democracy have not been met. It is postulated that these unmet expectations, accompanied by frustration resulting from high levels of inequality and unemployment, increased workloads and obligations and reduced trust in government, business and labour leaders, have fostered increased cynicism in the workplace (Von der Ohe, 2016). Higher levels of organisational cynicism, in turn, negatively influence employee attitudes and behaviour. In order to explore the relevance of organisational cynicism in an employment relations context, in this section, the notion of organisational cynicism is conceptualised in the context of relevant theoretical models. This is followed by an overview of the individual and organisational variables affecting organisational cynicism and the relational outcomes of organisational cynicism as found in the literature. Finally, the relevance of organisational cynicism in a South African employment relations context is discussed before focusing on the mediating role of organisational cynicism and trust in section 5.3.

5.2.1 Conceptualisation of organisational cynicism

The conceptualisation of cynicism as a construct has moved beyond its initial dispositional and emotion-based perspective (Cook & Medley, 1954) towards an emphasis on individual attitudes with specific targets, including organisational change and employing organisations (Kim et al., 2009; Scott & Zweig, 2016). Despite various definitions of organisational cynicism proposed by researchers (see Table 5.5), there is consensus that it is a negative attitude that can be both broad and specific in focus and that it has cognitive, affective and behavioural components (Stanley, Meyer, & Topolnytsky, 2005). For the purposes of this study, organisational cynicism was defined as an attitude emanating from employees' critical assessment of the intentions, actions and values of their employing organisations and its leaders, resulting in negative perceptions towards the organisation and management, and culminating in disparaging and counterproductive behaviour (Abraham, 2000; Dean et al., 1998; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014).

Organisational cynicism is therefore an attitude resulting from employees' critical appraisal of the values, actions, and motives of their employing organisations and its managers (Bedeian, 2007), and encompasses cognitive, affective and behavioural elements (Dean et al., 1998; Sheel & Vohra, 2016), as outlined in Table 5.4. The cognitive dimension relates to the beliefs that the organisation holds about the organisation, the affective dimension is the emotional reaction to such beliefs and the behavioural dimension refers to the behaviour the employee engages in as a reflection of these beliefs and emotions (Sheel & Vohra, 2016).

Table 5.4

Cognitive, Affective and Behavioural Dimensions of Organisational Cynicism

Cognitive dimension	Affective dimension	Behavioural dimension
Negative beliefs about the organisation: A cynical employee feels that the organisation lacks integrity and that organisational practices are based on self-interest and lack fairness, honesty and sincerity (Dean et al., 1998).	Emotions produced in response to negative beliefs about the employing organisation: A cynical employee may experience distress, disgust, shame, irritation, aggravation, tension, anxiety, frustration, disillusionment, pessimism and hopelessness (Andersson, 1996; Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Dean et al., 1998; Reichers et al., 1997).	Demonstrating disparaging and critical organisation-directed behaviour (e.g. strong criticism, pessimistic estimations, sarcastic humour, and statements of contempt) that is consistent with affect and cognition (Brandes et al., 1999; Dean et al., 1998).

Source: Adapted from Sheel and Vohra (2016)

Organisational cynicism thus encompasses the negative beliefs that employees have about their employing organisations, following undesirable events in the workplace, such as an employer's unwillingness or inability to meet its obligations or a lack of support or injustice (i.e. cognitive dimension); their emotional reactions to such events, which may include, say, frustration and disillusionment (affective dimension); and a behavioural response (i.e. behavioural dimension) to these negative feelings towards the organisation. These behavioural reactions may be limited to disparaging comments about the organisation, but may also extend to engaging in behaviour aimed at harming the organisation or individuals in it in an attempt to reciprocate the perceived lack of care and support extended by the organisation (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett & DeVore, 2001). Organisational cynicism is anticipatory in nature and represents an employee's expectations about his or her employer's conduct, based on previous workplace experiences which, when confirmed, guide the employee's perceptions of and reactions to subsequent employer conduct (Brandes et al., 2008; Cole et al., 2006). Organisational cynicism is therefore viewed as a learned response

to workplace perceptions and experiences rather than 'n personality-based predisposition (Wanous, Reichers, & Austin, 2000).

5.2.1.1 *Related constructs*

Organisational cynicism should be differentiated from related constructs such as dispositional or social cynicism, societal cynicism, burnout cynicism, work cynicism and cynicism towards organisational change.

Dispositional or social cynicism is an inherent, unchanging characteristic reflecting a generally negative perception of human nature (Abraham, 2000). It reflects the psychological origins of cynicism, which lie in social axioms, that is, individuals' generalised beliefs about themselves and their social and physical environments (Leung et al., 2002). Social axioms influence the way individuals evaluate their experiences in the workplace, which, in turn, impacts on their work-related attitudes and behaviour (Deng, Guan, Bond, Zhang, & Hu, 2011). At an individual level, the dimensions of social axioms comprise religiosity, fate control, social complexity, reward for application and social cynicism (Burgess, 2011). In this context, cynicism is deemed one of the many discerning social axioms that shape personality (Leung et al., 2002; Roberts & Zigarmi, 2014). Mistrust of social institutions and disregard for morality in achieving objectives are inherent in dispositional or social cynicism. Individuals with a cynical disposition generally have negative expectations about human nature, the outcomes of interactions with others and social institutions (Burgess, 2011).

Two cultural-level dimensions of social axioms have also emerged in research, namely dynamic externality (reward for application, religiosity, fate control and social complexity) and societal cynicism (Burgess, 2011). Societal cynicism may be viewed as emanating from the breach of the social contract between an individual and society (Abraham, 2000). Burgess (2011) explains that societal cynicism mainly reflects cognitive assessments of the world as uncaring and unworthy of trust. Societal cynicism is associated with widespread malevolence and a tendency to question the motives of people, groups and institutions. In addition, influential people and institutions are believed to oppress the wider population for selfish and malicious purposes. In South Africa, societal cynicism may be the result of, say, the changing world of work, industrial action coupled with violence and general lawlessness, globalisation, persisting inequality and job insecurity, large-scale retrenchments, high levels of unemployment, economic recession, inefficiencies in education and low skills levels (see section 2.2.2 in Chapter 2).

Burnout cynicism, work cynicism and cynicism about organisational change are narrower in scope and have specific focus areas (Chiaburu et al., 2013; Stanley et al., 2005). Burnout is regarded as a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal work stressors and has three distinct dimensions, namely exhaustion, cynicism (or depersonalisation) and inefficacy (i.e. the experience of reduced personal accomplishment) (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Cynicism in the context of burnout relates to a negative attitude towards one's job, resulting in an attempt to disengage from it (Sarwar & Abugre, 2013), while organisational cynicism reflects a negative attitude towards the employing organisation, which culminates in disparaging and counterproductive behaviour (Chiaburu et al., 2013). In South Africa, cynicism research is mainly limited to viewing cynicism as a component of burnout (see Bosman, Buitendach, & Laba, 2005; Coetzee & Rothmann, 2004; Harry, 2015; Rothmann, Jackson, & Kruger, 2003; Rothmann & Joubert, 2007; Wiese, Rothmann, & Storm, 2003).

Cynicism as a component of burnout is closely associated with work cynicism, which is prevalent in the service industry, where stressful interactions with consumers leave workers feeling emotionally overextended and physically drained. In this context, cynicism becomes a coping strategy characterised by emotional numbness, detachment, callousness and lack of caring (Abraham, 2000). Cynicism may therefore also apply to a particular context such as the service industry (Bashir & Nasir, 2013), social work (Meyerson, 1990) or the police force (Meyer & Steyn, 2008; Niederhoffer, 1967; Regoli, Crank, & Rivera, 1990; Richardsen, Burke, & Martinussen, 2006).

Cynicism towards organisational change refers to employees' reaction to unsuccessful change efforts (Abraham, 2000; Reichers et al., 1997) and is associated with employee uncertainty during organisational change (Bernerth et al., 2007). This form of cynicism reflects employees' pessimism about the success of future change efforts, and those responsible for change (usually management) are blamed for their pessimism (Choi, 2011). Employees who are cynical about organisational change question the legitimacy and value of organisational change efforts and consequently give such initiatives little consideration or commitment (DeCelles, Tesluk, & Taxman, 2013). Although both organisational cynicism and cynicism about organisational change target the organisation, the latter is narrower and more specific in its domain. When studying cynicism, it is essential to specify the context or target of employees' cynical attitudes (Kim et al., 2009).

This study specifically focuses on employees' attitudes towards their employing organisations and managers within these organisations. Organisational cynicism therefore relates to a particular attitudinal reaction that follows an employee's emotional response to negative

organisational events. It is essential to differentiate it from a general negative perception of human nature (dispositional or social cynicism) or a negative cognitive assessment of the world (societal cynicism). It is also regarded as broader in scope than forms of cynicism with specific focus areas such as burnout cynicism (i.e. negative attitudes towards one's job), work cynicism (relating to the service industry) and cynicism towards organisational change (i.e. employees' reactions to unsuccessful change efforts).

5.2.1.2 The relationship between organisational cynicism and trust

Organisational cynicism and trust (or distrust) are closely related constructs that have also been shown to have similar antecedents (e.g. integrity and benevolence), albeit in contrasting directions (Stanley et al., 2005). Chiaburu et al. (2013) explain that, from a conceptual perspective, organisational cynicism and trust in the organisation can be viewed as two contrasting attitudes relating to the expectations that employees have about the credibility of their organisations and its managers as well as their work settings in general. Although Chiaburu et al. (2013) acknowledged the relationship between these constructs, they were found to be distinct stand-alone constructs. While trust is regarded as a belief (or expectancy) that organisations and managers will act in the best interest of employees, cynicism is an attitude stemming from negative expectations (hopelessness and disillusionment) as well as a belief that the intentions, actions and values of organisations and managers cannot be trusted (Andersson, 1996; James, 2005). Therefore, although organisational cynicism and trust both have cognitive aspects, cynicism differs in that it includes the individual's affective state and corresponding behavioural tendencies towards the organisation (Chiaburu et al., 2013). There is an intensely emotional aspect (e.g. contempt, anger, disappointment and frustration) of cynicism that is lacking in trust (Dean et al., 1998).

According to Stanley et al. (2005), employees are unlikely to make themselves vulnerable to an organisation or its leaders if they suspect that they have ulterior motives or that they are likely to fail (i.e. if they are cynical towards these organisations or managers). Cynicism is thus regarded as a potential contributor to mistrust towards an organisation and its leaders (Treadway et al., 2004). According to Dean et al. (1998), a lack of trust may be based on a lack of experience (i.e. an individual has not had enough experience to be confident in trusting the other party), while cynicism is inherently based on experience. Furthermore, trust requires a vulnerability to another party to perform a particular action that considers the trustor's well-being, while cynicism does not require interpersonal vulnerability as a precondition (Dean et al., 1998). While trustworthiness is regarded as an inherent component of organisational trust, organisational cynicism is characterised by a perceived lack of trustworthiness (Chiaburu et

al., 2013; Davis & Gardner, 2004; Kim et al., 2009; Mayer et al., 1995). Organisational cynicism is therefore regarded as broader in scope than trust, which incorporates a component of mistrust together with the affective components of hopelessness and disillusionment (Thompson, Joseph, Bailey, Worley, & Williams, 2000).

5.2.2 Theoretical models of organisational cynicism

Since the 1950s, cynicism research has developed in terms of core focus areas (from an individual disposition to an attitude with specific targets including organisations and society) and context of application (organisational change or specific work environments such as the police force). Seminal studies relating to organisational cynicism are summarised in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5

Seminal Studies relating to Organisational Cynicism

Source	Definition or description	Main assumptions or findings
Cook & Medley (1954)	Cynicism is an overall outlook on human nature.	Core focus: Human nature or personality Cynical individuals see others as selfish and uncaring, question others' motives and are guarded and untrusting in relationships.
Niederhoffer (1967)	Cynicism is conceptualised as mistrust and lost pride in one's work or occupation.	Core focus: Occupational cynicism Police officers start their careers with high expectations about public service, people and society. As their careers progress, these expectations are often not met, which leads to cynicism. High levels of cynicism result in greater job dissatisfaction, increased levels of mistrust, feelings of alienation, poor work records, higher levels of hostility and, in some cases, increases in unnecessary arrests by officers as they are progressively exposed to a police environment.
Kanter & Mirvis (1989); Mirvis & Kanter (1989, 1991)	Cynicism is a common characteristic or disposition equated with disillusionment resulting from unmet expectations.	Core focus: Societal or institutional cynicism Cynics have unrealistically high expectations (of themselves and others), resulting in disappointment, followed by feelings of frustration

Source	Definition or description	Main assumptions or findings
		<p>and defeat when these expectations are not met. Cynics are left disillusioned (let down by themselves or others) and have the sense of being deceived and exploited. Cynical employees distrust the organisation, its motives and its leaders and believe that their employers will take advantage of them at each opportunity to do so.</p>
<p>Wanous, Reichers, & Austin (1994, 2000); Reichers et al. (1997)</p>	<p>Cynicism about organisational change is viewed as an attitude that results from recurring exposure to mismanaged or unsuccessful change efforts.</p>	<p>Core focus: Cynicism about organisational change</p> <p>Cynicism about organisational change is the result of previous failure rather than a disposition to be cynical. It incorporates elements of both expectancy (beliefs about the futility of change) and attribution theory (those responsible for making change are blamed for being unmotivated and incompetent). Cynical employees are less likely to cooperate with organisational change initiatives.</p>
<p>Andersson (1996); Andersson & Bateman (1997)</p>	<p>Employee cynicism is regarded as both a general and specific attitude characterised by futility, frustration and disillusionment, as well as contempt towards and distrust of a person, group, ideology, social convention, or institution (i.e. organisations and/or its managers in an organisational context).</p>	<p>Core focus: Employee cynicism</p> <p>Cynicism is both a general and specific construct and incorporates cynicism towards (1) one's specific organisation; (2) business executives; and (3) human nature in general.</p> <p>Violations of psychological and implied contracts are the primary determinants of employee cynicism.</p> <p>There are three contributing elements to cynicism: (1) the formulation of unrealistically high expectations; (2) the experience of disappointment at failing to meet these expectations; and (3) disillusionment.</p>
<p>Dean et al. (1998); Brandes et al. (1999)</p>	<p>Organisational cynicism is a negative attitude towards one's employing</p>	<p>Core focus: Organisational cynicism (i.e. directed towards employing organisation)</p>

Source	Definition or description	Main assumptions or findings
	<p>organisation, comprising three dimensions: (1) a belief that the organisation lacks integrity; (2) negative affect towards the organisation; and (3) tendencies to disparaging and critical behaviours towards the organisation that are consistent with these beliefs and affect.</p>	<p>Organisational cynicism is a multidimensional construct and includes cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions. Cynicism is conceptualised as a continuum and the strength of the attitude as a function of the strength of each of the individual dimensions.</p> <p>Cynical employees display lower job performance, are less likely to participate in employee involvement initiatives and are less committed to their organisations.</p> <p>Cynicism is not only related to negative (disparaging and critical) behaviour, but may also be positive in that cynical employees could act as “the voice of conscience” for organisations.</p>
Abraham (2000)	<p>Organisational cynicism is the belief that an organisation lacks integrity, which, when coupled with a powerful negative reaction, leads to disparaging and critical behaviour (see Dean et al., 1998)</p>	<p>Core focus: Five forms of cynicism and their relation to affective outcomes</p> <p>Identifies five forms of organisational cynicism: (1) personality cynicism; (2) societal/institutional cynicism; (3) employee cynicism; (4) organisational change cynicism; and (5) work cynicism.</p> <p>Societal, employee and organisational change cynicism may be attributed to psychological contract violations. Personality cynicism is a strong predictor of organisational cynicism. Organisational change cynicism induces job dissatisfaction and alienation. Employee cynicism affects organisational commitment. Societal cynicism increases both job satisfaction and commitment. Personality and work cynicism are indirectly related to organisational citizenship, through alienation.</p>

Source	Definition or description	Main assumptions or findings
Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly (2003)	Organisational cynicism is an attitude that relates to multiple objects and originates in employees' belief that their employing organisation lacks integrity. This perceived lack of integrity may result from perceived violations of fundamental expectations regarding sincerity, justice and honesty (see Andersson, 1996; Dean et al., 1998).	<p>Core focus: Employee reactions to social exchange violations</p> <p>The differential effects on employees of two types of social exchange violations (i.e. perceived breach of psychological contract and organisational cynicism) were explored. Organisational cynicism was found to partially mediate the effects of psychological contract breach on work-related attitudes (organisational commitment and job satisfaction), but only psychological contract breach (not cynicism) predicted employees' behavioural responses (performance and absenteeism).</p>
Stanley, Meyer, & Topolnytsky (2005)	The cognitive component of cynicism is the disbelief of another's stated or implied motives for a decision or action.	<p>Core focus: The cognitive component of cynicism, organisational change</p> <p>The defining characteristic of cynicism is disbelief in others' motives.</p> <p>Change-specific cynicism is disbelief of management's stated or implied motives for a specific organisational change.</p> <p>Management cynicism is disbelief in management's stated or implied motives for decisions or actions in general.</p> <p>Dispositional cynicism is disbelief in the stated or implied motives of people in general for their decisions or actions.</p> <p>Cynicism, scepticism and trust are distinct but related constructs.</p> <p>There is a positive relationship between cynicism and resistance to change.</p>
Naus, Van Iterson, & Roe (2007)	Employee or organisational cynicism is described as a self-defensive attitude directed against the employing organisation	<p>Core focus: Employees' response to adverse work circumstances</p> <p>Five specific responses that employees may exhibit in response to adverse circumstances at work are identified:</p>

Source	Definition or description	Main assumptions or findings
	(see Abraham, 2000; Mirvis & Kanter, 1989; Reichers et al., 1997). The three-dimensional definition of Dean et al. (1998) is adopted.	(1) Exit – leave or intent to leave the organisation (2) Voice – actively and constructively try to improve conditions (3) Loyalty – passively but optimistically hoping for conditions to improve (4) Neglect – careless and disregarding behaviour (5) Cynicism Cynicism is predicted by high role conflict, low autonomy and low assertiveness.

As indicated in the above table, organisational cynicism has evolved from being conceptualised as an individual's overall outlook on human nature (Cook & Medley, 1954) to being applied to the organisational environment reflecting employees' attitudes towards and expectations of their organisations and their resultant behaviour in the workplace (Dean et al., 1998). This evolution is briefly described below, followed by an indication of the approach to organisational cynicism adopted in this study.

Early work on cynicism in the workplace related to employees' response to change in the law enforcement context (DeCelles et al., 2013), most notably by Niederhoffer in the 1960s, in his research among police officers. Niederhoffer (1967) described cynicism as a particular state of mind, characterised by feelings of animosity, resentment, powerless hostility and contempt, in individual police officers. He (Niederhoffer, 1967) believed that cynicism was directed towards life, the world, people in general and the police system and the route of many problems in the police force. For instance, cynicism in police officers causes them to lose faith in people, society and ultimately themselves (James, 2005) and contribute to alienation, job dissatisfaction and corruption (Meyer & Steyn, 2008). Kanter and Mirvis (1989) built on Niederhoffer's research, describing cynicism as unrealistically high expectations (of themselves and others) held by individuals. These expectations affect the way they view society, institutions and the future. When these expectations are not met, individuals experience disappointment and betrayal and seek someone or something to attribute this disappointment to, which is most often their employing organisation or its managers (Kim et al., 2009). Although cynicism can therefore be viewed as a general orientation (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989), it may also be applied to the workplace, indicating that employees'

disappointment resulting from unmet expectations may lead to negative work behaviours (Dean et al., 1998; Fu & Cheng, 2014). When employees blame the organisation or management for their disappointment, they tend to engage in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or people in it (Kim et al., 2009). This phenomenon may be especially relevant in the South African context, where there were great expectations of change in the workplace and the labour market following the country's transition to democracy, but these expectations have not been met (Di Paola & Pons-Vignon, 2013; Pons-Vignon & Anseeuw, 2009).

In the 1990s and early 21st first century, organisational cynicism research focused on two distinct but interrelated areas. The first relates to cynicism in the context of organisational change efforts. Reichers et al. (1997) explain that employees, who experience continued failed change efforts, lose faith in the leaders of change, and thus display cynicism about change impacting on their views of both management and the organisation, as well as their behaviour in the organisation. Organisational change cynicism therefore refers to employees' reaction to unsuccessful change efforts (Grama, 2013). Cynical employees believe that change agents are unwilling and unable to effect positive organisational change and therefore react pessimistically to any change effort from the outset (Abraham, 2000; Bommer, Rich, & Rubin, 2005; McMillan & Albrecht, 2010). Employees who are cynical about organisational change are less motivated to embrace any changes and therefore contribute to the likely failure thereof, which, in turn, strengthens their perceptions of management incompetency (McMillan & Albrecht, 2010). Stanley et al. (2005) confirmed the positive relationship between cynicism and resistance to change, but in their definition of cynicism focused exclusively on the cognitive component of cynicism, that is, an employee's disbelief of management's stated or implied motives for particular decisions or actions. Research in this context is essential to understand employees' reactions to organisational change initiatives. However, it was deemed too limited in focus for the purposes of this study, which centred on the employment relationship and how employees' experiences and perceptions in the workplace may influence this relationship by resulting in particular relational attitudes and behaviour.

The second group of researchers explored cynicism in the workplace by focusing on employees' attitudes towards their organisation and its leaders, resulting in dysfunctional organisational behaviour (Andersson, 1996; Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Brandes et al., 1999; Dean et al., 1998). In terms of this approach, employees express cynical attitudes, characterised by frustration, futility and disappointment and they regard their organisation and its management with distrust and discontent. In this context, organisational cynicism is therefore directed at top management and/or a particular organisation and encompasses three dimensions (Abraham, 2000; Dean et al., 1998): Firstly, cynical employees believe that the

organisation and its leaders lack integrity. As a result, they display a negative attitude towards the organisation, its leaders and the procedures and processes implemented by these leaders as they are convinced that their best interests are not being considered. Secondly, the belief that the organisation and management are not concerned about their needs causes employees to see everything relating to the organisation and its leaders in a negative light. Finally, they engage in behaviour that is overtly critical and disparaging as a result of their negative beliefs and affectivity (Wilkerson, Evans, & Davis, 2008).

The latter school of thought focuses on organisational cynicism as a reflection of employees' attitudes towards and expectations of their organisations in general and management specifically, and their resultant behaviour in the workplace. In this context, social exchange theory can be used to explain a variety of attitudinal and behavioural reactions to social exchange violations and adverse work circumstances (DeConinck, 2010; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Naus et al., 2007). If employment relations are therefore approached from a social exchange perspective, where the emphasis is on the reciprocal obligations of employers and employees in an exchange relationship, this view of organisational cynicism is most appropriate. Both parties (employer and employee) have particular expectations of one another aimed at developing and maintaining a long-term relationship. When employees' expectations are not met, they perceive their employing organisation and/or its managers negatively (not concerned about their interests and "out to get them"), and adjust their attitudes and behaviour accordingly (Andersson, 1996).

The theoretical model for organisational cynicism adopted in this study was that of Dean et al.'s (1998) conceptualisation of organisational cynicism as an attitude held by an individual composed of beliefs, affect and behavioural tendencies. By adopting this model, a clear distinction was made between organisational cynicism and dispositional cynicism. Organisational cynicism was therefore not regarded as a stable disposition (i.e. an individual's view of human nature in general), but as an individual state based on specific workplace experiences that may change over time. In this study, organisational cynicism was not limited to a particular profession (e.g. the police force or social services) or industry (e.g. the service industry), but was viewed as an attitude that may be observed in any industry or occupation. Furthermore, cynicism in this study was directed towards the employing organisation and managers in it – it did not include broader societal cynicism directed towards, say, government or political role players, but at the same time, was not limited to particular organisational events (e.g. cynicism about organisational change).

In this theoretical context, it is accepted that the extent to which individuals are cynical about the organisation is determined by their personal characteristics and dispositions and by organisational events that confirm the cynical employee's expectations in terms of lack of integrity, incompetence and malevolence (Dean et al., 1998; Reichers et al., 1997). Cole et al. (2006) stress the importance of engaging in empirical research that encompasses both workplace perceptions and dispositional attributes in order to gain a clearer understanding of the development of organisational cynicism. The extent to which employees' work-related perceptions and experiences influence the development of cynicism towards their employing organisations is explored in section 5.2.4, while the employees' cultural dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism are propounded as a potential intervening variable in Chapter 6. The sections below focus on person-centred variables that impact on organisational cynicism as well as reported antecedents of organisational cynicism.

5.2.3 Person-centred variables influencing organisational cynicism

Age, level of education, gender, employment status, tenure, job level, population group and union membership have often been used as control variables in cynicism studies as these variables have been shown to influence employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Abraham, 2000; Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Avey et al., 2010; Avey, Wernsing, & Luthans, 2008; Bommer et al., 2005; Bosman, Rothmann, & Buitendach, 2005; Brandes et al., 2008; Brown & Cregan, 2008; Chiaburu et al., 2013; González-Morales et al., 2012; James, 2005; Kanter & Mirvis, 1989; Mirvis & Kanter, 1991; Naus et al., 2007; Reichers et al., 1997; Wrightsman, 1992). In this section, an overview is provided of the reported impact of specific person-centred variables on employees' tendency to adopt a cynical attitude and their ensuing behaviour in their organisations.

5.2.3.1 Age and education

Researchers have found that age and education impact on employees' level of cynicism in that younger employees entering the workplace often have unrealistic expectations relating to financial success far exceeding their employers' ability to meet these expectations (Andersson, 1996; Mirvis & Kanter, 1989; Wrightsman, 1992). Although this younger generation of employees are generally better educated than their older peers – contributing to their high expectations – precarious working conditions and reduced job security have resulted in these expectations not being met (Mirvis & Kanter, 1991). In South Africa, cynicism is often reflected in the high levels of bitterness, resentment and animosity displayed by the younger

generation, who blame political leaders, employers and the owners of capital for the fact that their expectations have not been met (Di Paola & Pons-Vignon, 2013; Webster, 2013). This does not preclude older employees from experiencing cynicism in the workplace. Older employees do, however, tend to respond differently to cynicism in that they do not display the same levels of anger and resentment towards their organisation or management in response to their cynical attitudes, but rather become unresponsive to new ideas, which makes it more difficult to achieve change in organisations (Mirvis & Kanter, 1989). Cynicism has been shown to be more prevalent in specific age categories (18–24 years and 55 years old and above) and among less-educated employees (Andersson, 1996; Mirvis & Kanter, 1989; Wrightsman, 1992).

Higher education is a prerequisite for success in today's technologically advanced and competitive economic environment. There is a widening gap between the "haves" and the "have-nots" that is often attributed to quality and level of education and individuals' prospects of obtaining a qualification. It is becoming increasingly difficult for individuals without tertiary qualifications to find employment, and the career prospects for those who are employed are limited. It is therefore posited that there will be a negative relationship between level of education and cynicism in the South African organisational context. This proposition is supported by Mirvis and Kanter's (1989, 1991) findings that individuals who are highly educated have a greater chance of employment, thereby having the opportunity to fulfil their needs for reward and status – hence the smaller likelihood of them being cynical. However, those individuals with no or limited education or prospects to further their education, see few opportunities for advancement in their working environments and tend to be cynical towards their organisations and people in them, believing them to be self-centred and self-serving.

5.2.3.2 Gender and population group

Higher levels of organisational cynicism have also been reported for males and disadvantaged population groups (Andersson, 1996; Mirvis & Kanter, 1989; Wrightsman, 1992). Men are reported to experience higher levels of cynicism than women (González-Morales et al., 2012; Meyer & Steyn, 2008; Mirvis & Kanter, 1991). Bosman, Rothmann, et al. (2005) found different levels of cynicism among members of different population groups. Mirvis and Kanter (1991), however, stressed that such differences cannot simply be attributed to belonging to different population groups. Cognisance should be taken of factors such as educational attainment and economic well-being resulting from being part of a particular population group and therefore affecting individual perceptions and resultant levels of cynicism. This is particularly relevant in the South African context because of the country's history of apartheid and its impact on

nonwhites (Vogt & Laher, 2009). Persisting inequalities and remnants of the apartheid system contribute to high levels of mistrust and anger, especially among black South Africans, which may result in higher levels of cynicism towards organisations and managers (Vogt & Laher, 2009).

5.2.3.3 *Employment status, job level and tenure*

Higher levels of organisational cynicism have been reported for employees at lower levels in organisations (Andersson, 1996; Bommer, Rubin, & Baldwin, 2004; Mirvis & Kanter, 1989; Reichers et al., 1997; Wrightsman, 1992). Managers' perceptions have been found to be more positive than those of nonmanagers, and they are consequently often more satisfied with their jobs, have more positive perceptions of organisational justice and experience lower levels of cynicism (Arabac, 2010; Mirvis & Kanter, 1989; Reichers et al., 1997). Nonmanagers are more inclined to perceive instances of injustice in the workplace, often do not have opportunities to participate in decision making and sometimes perceive large remuneration discrepancies (Thompson et al., 2000; Wanous et al., 2000), all of which may contribute to increased cynicism towards their organisations and managers (Sheel & Vohra, 2016).

Employment status may also impact on cynicism (Wanous et al., 1994), although this may be partially accounted for by higher levels of education and income associated with long-term full-time employment (Mirvis & Kanter, 1991). Furthermore, people tend to adjust their expectations over time. Employees with longer tenure in a particular organisation or job often adapt their initial unrealistic expectations and develop a more reasonable view of their opportunities and prospects in the organisation (Mirvis & Kanter, 1989). Given the unrealistic expectations often held by new employees, and the adjustments of these expectations over time, as well as the fact that longer tenure may be associated with increased exposure to organisational norms and practices (Bommer et al., 2004), it is anticipated that a negative relationship will exist between tenure and cynicism towards the organisation and its managers (Brandes et al., 2008; Brown & Cregan, 2008; Naus et al., 2007).

5.2.3.4 *Union membership*

Findings on the impact of trade union membership on cynicism have been contradicting. Mirvis and Kanter (1991) found no differences in cynicism among union members and nonmembers. The same authors, however, found union members to be more cynical in an earlier survey and reported a gradual increase of cynicism among nonmembers (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989). Brown

and Cregan (2008) reported that union members are more cynical and that the presence of a trade union may contribute to higher levels of cynicism in organisations.

5.2.3.5 *Summary*

In the South African organisational context, with its relatively young population (Statistics South Africa, 2012b), alarmingly high youth unemployment rate (Statistics South Africa, 2018) and low levels of education (Statistics South Africa, 2012b), younger people struggle to find employment and those who are employed are often disillusioned by persisting inequality in the workplace (Anstey, 2013; Eaton et al., 2015). It is no longer the norm for employment to be full time or permanent, and large-scale retrenchments are common (Commission for Conciliation Mediation and Arbitration, 2017), which further perpetuates these employees' sense of insecurity and disillusionment (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). Employees from previously disadvantaged groups, supported by their trade unions, insist on transformation in the workplace. They hold high (sometimes unrealistic) expectations and blame organisations and managers if these expectations cannot be met (Anstey, 2013). These unmet expectations, frustration about not being heard and perceived injustice have led to widespread industrial action often marked by violence, more notably in industries such as mining where working conditions are poor and workers (mostly men) are expected to work and live in remote areas away from their families (Paret, 2015). These employees tend to experience high levels of stress and family-work conflict (Farivar, Cameron, & Yaghoubi, 2016; Paret, 2015).

In this context and given the theoretical findings outlined above, one would expect organisational cynicism in South African organisations to be more prevalent for younger workers at the lower levels in organisations, especially those who are employed on a temporary or part-time basis, are unskilled and have not been in the organisation for an extended period. It is further proposed that higher levels of cynicism will also be exhibited by black men who are trade union members. There is, however, a different relational dimension in South Africa, which is not relevant to other countries and has therefore not been explored in cynicism theory. Where previously disadvantaged population groups in other countries generally consist of minority groups, the previously disadvantaged in South Africa is regarded as black African, coloureds and Indians making up the majority of the South African population (Statistics South Africa, 2012a). In this instance, belonging to the previously advantaged group (most notably white men) brings about a certain level of frustration in the new political dispensation. Owing to transformation and equity policies, white people in general and men in particular are subjected to various limitations in terms of employment and career progression. It is anticipated that this might affect the way they perceive the intentions of their organisations

and managers relating to employment matters and may therefore result in higher levels of cynicism among this particular group of employees. This consideration, however, has not been explored in extant literature.

5.2.4 Antecedents of organisational cynicism

Employers need to understand the workplace experiences and work-related perceptions of their employees as this shapes their work-related attitudes (Ihionkhan & Aigbomian, 2014) which, in turn, impact on their behaviour in the workplace (Trice, 2012). In this study, it was anticipated that negative experiences and perceptions might encourage cynicism and ultimately lead to decreased loyalty towards the organisation and behaviour that would be detrimental to the organisation and its people. This section aims to underscore this view by means of a brief overview of documented antecedents of organisational cynicism focusing on individuals' perceptions and experiences in the workplace.

Various relationships between individual workplace experiences and work-related perceptions and organisational cynicism have been reported in extant literature. These experiences and perceptions include, inter alia, the following: the spreading of false and incomplete information (gossip) (Kuo et al., 2015); lack of communication (Reichers et al., 1997); biased employment decisions (Davis & Gardner, 2004); disregard and disrespect for employees (O'Brien et al., 2004); exhaustion and insignificance of work (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006); organisational restructuring (Pugh et al., 2003); role conflict (Naus et al., 2007); discrepancies between espoused organisational policies and actual practices (Carey, 2014); managerial incompetence and how it is handled (Stanley et al., 2005); and inflated salaries commanded by corporate executives (Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Cartwright & Holmes, 2006). Cynicism has also been shown to increase when there is a lack of trust in management (Kim et al., 2009; Treadway et al., 2004), when employees are not offered any opportunities to participate in decision making on matters that affect them in the workplace (Brown & Cregan, 2008; Choi, 2011) and not treated with dignity and respect (Fleming, 2005), when there is unbalanced distribution of power (Reichers et al., 1997), when there is a history of failed attempts at organisational change (Reichers et al., 1997; Wanous et al., 1994, 2000) and in the absence of transformational leadership in an organisation (Bommer et al., 2005).

Cynicism may also be triggered by the perceptions of individuals in the workplace in terms of, say, the following: organisational politics (Chiaburu et al., 2013; Davis & Gardner, 2004; Mayer et al., 1995); job insecurity (Bosman, Buitendach, et al., 2005); injustice (Chiaburu et al., 2013; Thompson, Bailey, Joseph, Worley, & Williams, 1999); psychological contract violations

(Andersson, 1996; Chiaburu et al., 2013; Dean et al., 1998; Johnson & O’Leary-Kelly, 2003; Pugh et al., 2003); lack of organisational support (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008; Chiaburu et al., 2013; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014; Treadway et al., 2004); and psychological strain (Banks et al., 2012; Chiaburu et al., 2013; James, 2005). The changing nature of work giving rise to longer working hours, work intensification, continual downsizing and delayering of organisations, as well as ineffective leadership and management, have also contributed to increased levels of cynicism among employees (Avey et al., 2008; Kuo et al., 2015). These workplace-related experiences and perceptions create an implicit sense of alienation and frustration towards the organisation and managers in it, and manifest in increased levels of cynicism (Kuo et al., 2015; Yıldız & Şaylıkay, 2014).

Evidently, a myriad of workplace experiences and work-related perceptions may result in employees becoming cynical towards their employing organisations and its managers. In this study, the focus was on three particular workplace experiences or perceptions that are of significance in the employer-employee relationship, namely perceived organisational support (POS), perceived organisational justice (POJ) and perceived violation of the psychological contract (see Chapter 4). The relationships between these workplace experiences and perceptions and cynicism as found in the literature are briefly discussed in a social exchange framework.

5.2.4.1 Violation of the psychological contract as an antecedent of organisational cynicism

Unmet expectations are central to the conceptualisation of cynicism and are viewed as a direct antecedent to organisational cynicism (Andersson, 1996; Kanter & Mirvis, 1989; Meyerson, 1990; Wanous et al., 1994). If employment relations are studied in the context of social exchange theory, the emphasis is on the reciprocal obligations of employers and employees in the exchange relationship. Both parties therefore have particular expectations of one another aimed at developing and maintaining a long-term relationship, which form the basis for the psychological contract – that is, an individual’s beliefs about the mutual obligations between the individual, as an employee, and his or her employer in the workplace, in addition to those outlined in the formal contract of employment. These obligations stem from the belief that a promise has been made, either explicitly or implicitly, and the fulfilment of promissory obligations by one party is dependent upon the fulfilment of obligations by the other (Coyle-Shapiro & Parzefall, 2008; Rousseau, 1989). The psychological contract provides a conceptual and analytical framework, which enables one to understand employees’ work-

related feelings, attitudes and behaviour (Andersson, 1996; Coyle-Shapiro & Parzefall, 2008; Van der Vaart et al., 2013).

It is understood that this “informal contract” between an employer and employee implicitly promises equity, fairness and impartiality (Abraham, 2000). However, psychological contracts are not always fulfilled. Almost two decades ago, Morrison and Robinson (1997) identified trends, such as restructuring, retrenchment, increased reliance on contract workers or temporary employment services and globalisation, that impact on employees’ psychological contracts. This still holds true today in the South African employment relations environment, which is characterised by continuous escalation in global competition, job insecurity, declining quality of jobs and wide-ranging restructuring – especially in those sectors affected by extended large-scale and violent industrial action – resulting in increased reliance on labour brokers and contract workers and a growth in atypical and informal employment (Di Paola & Pons-Vignon, 2013; Marais & Hofmeyr, 2013). These trends have profound implications in terms of the psychological contract between employers and employees as employers can no longer guarantee job security or adequate remuneration for those employees performing well and displaying loyalty towards the organisation (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Employers are finding it increasingly difficult to fulfil their obligations in terms of the psychological contract and this leads to an emotional response by the employee referred to as psychological contract violation (Rousseau, 1995). Psychological contract violation does not merely entail unfulfilled expectations in terms of rewards or benefits, but also involves feelings of disappointment and betrayal (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

Perceived violation of the psychological contract is regarded as an employee’s emotional response emanating from the belief that the organisation has failed to meet one or more of its obligations in terms of the psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Perceived violation of the psychological contract therefore entails emotional distress, feelings of betrayal, anger, resentment, a sense of injustice and wrongful harm resulting from the individual’s perception that the organisation failed to fulfil its obligations irrespective of the fact that the individual fulfilled his or her obligations towards the organisation (Coyle-Shapiro & Parzefall, 2008). If an employer does not fulfil its obligations in terms of the psychological contract, this may also lead to higher levels of organisational cynicism (Andersson, 1996; Johnson & O’Leary-Kelly, 2003). When employees feel that their contracts have been violated, they are likely to believe that the organisation lacks integrity (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). The perceived psychological contract violation may also cause rampant distrust and disillusionment (Andersson, 1996) and produce negative affective states (e.g. anger or frustration), which may, in turn, fuel organisational cynicism (Van der Vaart et al., 2013).

Perceptions of contract violation are therefore expected to result in employees becoming cynical towards their organisations and management, and this, in turn, may impact on their attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation (Chiaburu et al., 2013). These perceptions are not only limited to psychological contract violations by a current employer – violation by a previous employer may lead to anxiety in a new employment relationship and cynicism in terms of the employer's inclination to meet its obligations (Sherman & Morley, 2015).

5.2.4.2 Perceived organisational support as an antecedent of organisational cynicism

Employees are furthermore inclined to develop cynical attitudes towards their organisations and managers if they feel that they are not being adequately supported or treated unfairly (Biswas & Kapil, 2017). Perceived organisational support (POS) encompasses the degree to which employees observe that the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 500). In terms of social exchange theory, employees who receive frequent, sincere and intense expressions of support from their employers are more likely to reciprocate with prosocial attitudes and behaviour (Eisenberger et al., 1997). Employees who experience high levels of POS feel that they are fairly rewarded in exchange for their efforts and receive adequate assistance from the organisation to effectively perform their jobs, making their jobs more interesting and stimulating, while ensuring that effective coping mechanisms are in place to deal with stressful situations (Aubé et al., 2007; Chiaburu et al., 2013). Conversely, employees who experience low levels of POS feel that the organisation does not value their contributions, and thus feel betrayed, resulting in higher levels of cynicism towards the organisation (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008; Chiaburu et al., 2013; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014). Since organisational cynicism is characterised by feelings of contempt towards the organisation and a fear of being exploited (Lynch et al., 1999), cynical employees believe that it is likely that their organisations will take advantage of them, and they perceive any support provided by the organisation as manipulation rather than behaviour aimed at cultivating an acceptable social exchange relationship (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008).

5.2.4.3 Perceived organisational justice as an antecedent of organisational cynicism

Employees' perceptions of organisational justice have been identified a vital determinant of their views of the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employers (McMillan

& Albrecht, 2010) and their subsequent cynicism if these reciprocal relationships are deemed to be unbalanced (Dean et al., 1998; DeCelles et al., 2013; Kanter & Mirvis, 1989).

It has been empirically confirmed that organisational cynicism increases in the event of perceived injustice (e.g. Bernerth et al., 2007; Biswas & Kapil, 2017). In contrast, when employees perceive their organisations as fair and just, they are less inclined to be cynical towards the organisation or managers (Chiaburu et al., 2013).

Various researchers (e.g. DeConinck, 2010; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013) have identified the need to further investigate perceptions of organisational justice and support as antecedents to organisational cynicism and stress the need to determine the impact of these variables on other significant attitudinal and behavioural variables such as organisational commitment, OCB and CWB. This will provide a better understanding of how cynicism in the organisation is developed and how organisational cynicism impacts on selected attitudinal and behavioural outcomes relevant to employer-employee relations in the workplace.

In summary, a number of theoretically important antecedents and predictors of organisational cynicism were highlighted in this section. This includes workplace experiences and work-related perceptions such as POS, POJ, and psychological contract violation. These predictors of organisational cynicism are regarded as essential when studying employment relations from a social exchange perspective in the South African organisational context as they may also influence relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. The next section deals with the theoretically confirmed relational outcomes of organisational cynicism.

5.2.5 Relational outcomes or consequences of organisational cynicism

From a social exchange perspective, cynical employees may seek a new balance in the relationship with their employing organisations by becoming wary of reciprocation (Naus et al., 2007) and exhibiting more negative behavioural work intentions (Kim et al., 2009). When employees who are already cynical towards their employing organisations and its managers perceive them as being unsupportive and unjust, these perceptions tend to promote a self-fulfilling prophecy which, in turn, influences how they perceive and evaluate any further actions by their employers, resulting in a downward spiral of cynicism which manifests in continued disengagement and distrust (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008). This disengagement from and distrust in their employing organisations invariably affect cynical employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. When studying employment relations in a social exchange context, it is therefore essential to examine, not only the antecedents of organisational

cynicism, but also the possible relational outcomes or consequences thereof in South African organisations.

A variety of negative consequences of employee cynicism such as the following have been recorded: an increase in recorded employee grievances in unionised organisations (Wanous et al., 2000); reduced levels of performance (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008; Dean et al., 1998; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003); motivation (Wanous et al., 2000) and productivity (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989); morale (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008; Mirvis & Kanter, 1989); job satisfaction (Dean et al., 1998; Nafei, 2014; Wanous et al., 1994) organisational commitment (Dean et al., 1998; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Nafei, 2014); and organisational citizenship (Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Nafei, 2014; Wanous et al., 2000); increased levels of stress (Stanley et al., 2005); burnout (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003); emotional exhaustion (Hochwarter, James, Johnson, & Ferris, 2004; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003); distrust (Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Pugh et al., 2003); feelings of alienation (Abraham, 2000; Yıldız & Şaylıkay, 2014); higher levels of hostility and intention to quit (Andersson, 1996; Chiaburu et al., 2013; Dean et al., 1998; Gould & Moore, 2003); and increased resistance to organisational change (Reichers et al., 1997; Stanley et al., 2005). Employees experiencing higher levels of cynicism are more likely to have misgivings about their organisations and managers in these organisations and therefore to be suspicious of organisational strategies and management actions (Stanley et al., 2005). Cynical employees are more likely to challenge their managers or make disparaging remarks about their organisations. In extreme cases, employee cynicism may result in acts of vandalism, retaliation or sabotage (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998).

In this study, the focus was on probable relational consequences of increased levels of organisational cynicism as reflected in adversarial employment relationships in South African organisations. The relationship between organisational cynicism and the following attitudinal and behavioural constructs is therefore investigated: organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB.

5.2.5.1 Relational attitudes as outcomes of organisational cynicism

Within a highly unionised environment, such as South Africa, one would expect trade union members' level of cynicism towards their organisations to impact on their commitment towards their unions. Researchers have already shown that employer's failure to meet their obligations in terms of the social exchange relationship may increase organisational cynicism (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003) and union commitment (Turnley et al., 2004). Employees who question their employers' motives and believe that they are being exploited are more likely to join a

trade union and actively participate in its activities (Bashir & Nasir, 2013). It is, however, also necessary to determine whether employees' commitment to a trade union will have a detrimental effect on their loyalty towards the organisation. Although some researchers (Angle & Perry, 1986; Fullagar & Barling, 1991; Redman & Snape, 2016) have found that, in an unionised environment, an employee can show dual commitment – in other words, an employee can be simultaneously committed to the organisation and the union – others (Bashir & Nasir, 2013) found that organisational and union commitment cannot coexist. (See section 3.4.4 in Chapter 3 for a detailed discussion in this regard.)

Organisational commitment is regarded as a binding force reflecting an individual's psychological attachment to a specific organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). As indicated in Chapter 3, it consists of three dimensions, namely affective commitment (AC), normative commitment (NC), and continuance commitment (CC) (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Each of these forms of organisational commitment has been found to be uniquely influenced by organisational cynicism: An individual with a high level of organisational cynicism feels less attached to the organisation and is less likely to identify with the organisation and its goals. Similarly, individuals with high levels of organisational cynicism lack awareness of the reciprocal nature of employment relations – they may even mistrust or misinterpret the intentions of organisational actions – and are therefore less likely to believe that they should remain employed in an organisation to fulfil their obligations. In contrast to these negative relations between organisational cynicism and affective and normative commitment, a positive relationship exists between organisational cynicism and continuance commitment. Although cynical employees harbour negative beliefs about and feelings towards their employing organisations, they also feel that no better alternatives exist and therefore remain with their organisations because of the perceived lack of options (Scott & Zweig, 2016).

5.2.5.2 *Relational behaviour as an outcome of organisational cynicism*

Although employees' commitment to the organisation remains important, it is no longer sufficient in today's changing working environment for employees to simply feel attached to their employing organisations or to perform well in their current jobs. Organisations increasingly expect additional output from their employees which is not job related but promotes the effective functioning of the organisation (Avey et al., 2010; Cetin et al., 2015). The question, however, is whether cynical employees will be prepared to "walk the extra mile" by engaging in OCB (Brandes et al., 1999).

From a social exchange perspective, which emphasises reciprocity in the employer-employee relationship, it is unlikely that an employee who perceives his or her employer's actions as unfair, selfish and exploitive in nature (i.e. a cynical employee) will engage in voluntary behaviour that is beneficial to the collective organisation but not directly related to his or her work (Evans et al., 2010). One would expect employee cynicism to manifest in negative, disparaging behaviour (CWB), such as criticism of the organisation, sarcastic humour, negative nonverbal behaviour, cynical interpretations of organisational events and pessimistic predictions about the organisation's future (Dean et al., 1998; Evans et al., 2010). In an employment relations context, CWB may also include participating in unprotected industrial action and engaging in unlawful behaviour such as destruction of property, violence and intimidation (Kelloway et al., 2010).

In summary, employees who perceive that their employers are failing to meet their obligations in terms of the social exchange relationship are likely to question the integrity and intentions of their employing organisations and managers. These employees may reciprocate by psychologically distancing themselves from the organisation and pledging their allegiance with a trade union instead. Cynical employees perceive their employers as unfair, selfish and exploitive, and because of these perceptions, would be unlikely to engage in activities beyond their immediate job responsibilities (OCB). They blame their employers or managers for their unmet (often unrealistic) expectations and would thus be more likely to engage in activities that are detrimental to the organisation and/or people in it (CWB) as a way of responding to disappointment. It is thus expected that employees who regard the actions and intent of their employing organisations as questionable, may be less likely to engage in positive discretionary behaviour and may even resort to behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation and people in it, in an attempt to reciprocate these negative experiences.

5.2.6 Organisational cynicism in a South African employment relations context

Cynicism in the workplace has been well documented in the context of organisational change (Abraham, 2000; Brown & Cregan, 2008; Dean et al., 1998; DeCelles et al., 2013; Mirvis & Kanter, 1989; Reichers et al., 1997; Wanous et al., 2000) and restructuring (Brandes et al., 2008), leadership (Bobbio, Van Dierendonck, & Manganeli, 2012; Bommer et al., 2005; Davis & Gardner, 2004), burnout (Bezuidenhout & Cilliers, 2010; González-Morales et al., 2012; Rothmann, 2003) and employee wellness (Harry, 2015). Cynicism is generally directed towards the motives of leaders or employers (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989), an organisational unit

(Andersson & Bateman, 1997) or the organisation as a whole (Abraham, 2000). Although it has been suggested that the changing nature of work and the unmet expectations of the workforce encourage a rise in organisational cynicism (Kuo et al., 2015), this has not been investigated in a South African employment relations context.

Cynicism, however, is entrenched in the South African society and workplaces as a result of condescending business practices, such as exorbitant salaries commanded by executives and large-scale retrenchments (Bosman, Buitendach, et al., 2005). Retrenchments impact not only on those who lose their jobs, but also on the remaining employees who may feel that their former colleagues have been unfairly treated (Andersson, 1996). Wage inequality in South Africa has increased since the advent of democracy in 1994 (Bradley, 2013; Rattsø & Stokke, 2013), and there is a general perception that organisational and managerial actions are intended to enrich and empower a few (the have's) to the disadvantage of the majority (the have not's) (Scott & Zweig, 2016). National policy aimed at addressing inequalities and enacted by, say, the Broad-based Economic Empowerment Act (Republic of South Africa, 2003), where only a small number of people benefit (Van der Berg, 2014), as well as organisations' emphasis on profits instead of employee well-being, support these perceptions.

In a social exchange perspective on employment relations (see Chapter 2), an employee enters into and maintains not only a transactional contract – by exchanging transactional resources such as productivity or performance for a reward (remuneration) – but also a relational contract with his or her employer. In terms of the relational contract, the employee exchanges interpersonal resources such as proactive work behaviour and loyalty for better quality relationships with the organisation and its managers (Andersson, 1996; Dulac et al., 2008). When organisations emphasise the transactional contract and disregard the relational contract, employees are likely to feel disappointed and frustrated, resulting in negative attitudes (e.g. high levels of organisational cynicism, mistrust and low organisational commitment), which leads to behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation and people in it (Kuo et al., 2015; Wan, 2013).

Cynical employees perceive their employers to be uninterested in their day-to-day needs and concerns and that organisations have little concern for the communities in which they operate, resulting in bitterness and resentment towards the organisation and its managers (Mirvis & Kanter, 1989). These employees generally have a “What's in it for me?” attitude, and constantly complain about having too much work for too little reward (Mirvis & Kanter, 1991). Cynicism is reflected in employees' lack of faith in the integrity of organisations and a belief that they are being exploited (Andersson, 1996), resulting in an unwillingness to engage in

positive work behaviour such as defending the organisation, volunteering and mentoring, and furthering the organisation's general well-being (Abraham, 2000). Furthermore, cynical employees, who question the motives of their employers and believe that they are being exploited are more likely to shift their loyalties from the organisation to a trade union and to actively participate in its activities (Bashir & Nasir, 2013). They are also more likely to participate in large-scale collective action and support industrial action such as strikes (Kelloway et al., 2010).

In terms of social exchange theory, employers and employees have reciprocal obligations in the employment relationship. When employees perceive that their employers are failing to meet their obligations, they are being treated unfairly or they are not receiving the necessary support from their employers, they become cynical and reciprocate by engaging in behaviour that is detrimental to their employing organisations and their managers. It is therefore proposed that employees' cynicism towards their employing organisations and their managers is an essential construct in understanding employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. However, there is a paucity of organisational cynicism research in South Africa. As stated earlier, the aim of this study was to contribute not only to the understanding of organisational cynicism as a theoretical construct in a South African organisational setting, but also to determine to what extent employees' cynicism towards their employing organisations and its managers impacts on their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace.

5.2.7 Summary

Organisational cynicism occurs when organisations and their managers focus on their own interests only, excluding employee interests, and are perceived as lacking integrity, honesty, fairness and sincerity (Abraham, 2000). Employees also tend to become cynical towards the organisation and its managers when they have high expectations that are not being met (Andersson, 1996). Even though employees' perceptions may be inaccurate or invalid and their expectations may be unrealistic, the consequences of their cynical attitudes are real (Choi, 2011; Cole et al., 2006). Furthermore, the detrimental effect of negative attitudes such as organisational cynicism on organisations is more significant than the constructive impact of positive attitudes, and therefore it is essential for organisations to find ways to reduce such negative attitudes in order to limit their impact on employee behaviour in the workplace (Sheel & Vohra, 2016).

Globalisation, increased competition and technological advancements have resulted in continued radical changes in the world of work. These changes invariably impact on employees who are expected to work longer hours, take on greater responsibility, be more flexible and tolerate continual change and uncertainty (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006). In terms of social exchange theory, employees will strive to meet these expectations provided that their needs are fulfilled in return. Organisations, however, tend to focus on the economic and business needs, rather than the well-being of their employees. In an employment relations context, emphasis is placed largely on the transactional contract between employers and employees rather than the psychological contract. Hence, employees become disillusioned when their expectations in terms of the psychological contract are not met. This leads to contempt towards and distrust of their employing organisations and their managers and manifests in high levels of cynicism. Employees no longer believe that their employers are concerned about their needs and aspirations and therefore become increasingly cynical.

High levels of organisational cynicism, ranging between 43 per cent (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989) and 50 per cent (Hochwarter et al., 2004) of employees, have been reported in the USA. Research has further shown that employee cynicism is pervasive across national boundaries (Brandes et al., 2008). No known studies on the prevalence of organisational cynicism in South African organisations have been conducted. However, following the narrative of the South African employment relations environment (see Chapter 2) describing the prevailing inequality and perceived injustices in South African workplaces, it is anticipated that equally high (if not higher) levels of cynicism exist. This study investigated organisational cynicism in a cross-sectional sample of South African organisations in order to obtain an indication of the prevalence of cynicism among South African employees.

Cynicism is generally viewed as a negative attitude and is therefore a sensitive topic for managers and organisations (Andersson, 1996). This could explain the paucity of cynicism-related research in the South African organisational context. However, in order to obtain a more balanced view and understanding of employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace and the impact thereof on their relational attitudes and behaviour, cynicism as an attitude that impacts on employer-employee relations in the workplace cannot be disregarded. Furthermore, cynicism toward the organisation and its managers has been shown to have positive results in some instances. For example, Cutler (2000) reported that cynical employees play a key role in organisations in that they question assumptions about organisational strategies and proposed actions, while accepting full responsibility for their own actions. Cynical employees are also associated with nonconformance with requests to engage in unethical behaviour and therefore act as the voice of conscience for their organisations

(Andersson & Bateman, 1997). Such employees are therefore less likely to be taken advantage of by managers or colleagues who lack integrity (Dean et al., 1998). Bedeian (2007) stresses that employees may contribute to the operational success of their employing organisation by being critical of its motives, actions and values. It would therefore seem that a moderate level of employee cynicism towards their employing organisations and managers might be beneficial. However, high levels of organisational cynicism have been shown to have a detrimental effect on a variety of organisational outcomes, including employees' performance (job-related and nonjob-related) and commitment to the organisation.

It is increasingly accepted that organisational cynicism is a vital consideration when examining employer-employee relations as it may impact on relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Brandes et al., 2008). It is therefore essential that cynicism in organisations as well as the organisational practices that foster cynicism be investigated in order to find ways to address cynicism and mitigate its negative impact on employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. An increased awareness of possible adverse reactions to employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace might help managers to better understand and react to cynical employees' attitudes towards and behaviour in organisations (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008).

It is anticipated that employees' perceptions of inequalities and unfairness in their workplaces will be exacerbated by their increased disillusionment with and disapproval of their organisations and its leaders, especially in a highly unionised collectivist culture that prevails in many South African organisations. If organisations and managers want their initiatives aimed at, say, enhancing productivity or increasing competitiveness, to be met with enthusiasm by employees, they need to value their contributions (skills and experience) and trust them to act in the best interest of the organisation. Employees, however, expect increased productivity and commitment to be reciprocated by higher levels of job security and remuneration. If these reciprocal expectations are not met, employees perceive the organisation and management to be lacking in integrity and being self-serving, resulting in mistrust between managers and employees and negative employee behaviour intended to harm the organisation and people in it.

Organisations should therefore make a deliberate effort to address increasing cynicism among their employees to prevent employees from distancing themselves from their employing organisations and engaging in actions aimed at harming the organisation or people in it. Although many organisations formulate philosophies or value statements expressing their appreciation for their employees and their contribution to the organisation, these values are

often not lived in the day-to-day functioning of the organisations. If employees perceive that their organisations or managers in these organisations say one thing but do another, this will only increase their disillusionment and the already escalating levels of cynicism among employees, resulting in negative attitudes towards the organisation and behaviour intended to harm the organisation (Kannan-Narasimhan & Lawrence, 2012).

The main theoretical findings relating to organisational cynicism are summarised in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6

Theoretical Integration: Organisational Cynicism

Theoretical model adopted	Dean, Brandes, & Dharwadkar's (1998) conceptualisation of organisational cynicism	
Definition of organisational cynicism	An attitude, emanating from employees' critical assessment of the intentions, actions and values of their employing organisations and its leaders, resulting in negative perceptions towards the organisation and management, culminating in disparaging and counterproductive behaviour (Abraham, 2000; Dean et al., 1998; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014)	
Core constructs	Cognitive cynicism Affective cynicism Behavioural cynicism	
Person-centred variables impacting on organisational cynicism	Employment status Job level Age Education level	Tenure Gender Population group Union membership
Antecedents of organisational cynicism in an ER context	Positive relationships between organisational cynicism and <ul style="list-style-type: none"> psychological contract violation Negative relationships between organisational cynicism and <ul style="list-style-type: none"> perceived organisational justice (POJ) perceived organisational support (POS) 	
Relational outcomes of organisational cynicism in an ER context	Positive relationships between organisational cynicism and <ul style="list-style-type: none"> union commitment counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) continuance commitment (CC) Negative relationships between organisational cynicism and <ul style="list-style-type: none"> organisational commitment 	

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • affective commitment (AC) • normative commitment (NC) • organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)
Relevance in enhancing employment relations	<p>In terms of social exchange theory, employers and employees have reciprocal obligations in the employment relationship. When employees perceive that their employers are failing to meet their obligations, that they are being treated unfairly or that they are not receiving the necessary support from their employers, they become cynical and reciprocate by engaging in behaviour that is detrimental to their employing organisations and their managers. Increased awareness of possible adverse reactions to employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace may enable managers to better understand and react to cynical employees' attitudes towards and behaviour in organisations.</p>

Organisational cynicism has emerged in the literature as a powerful employee attitude affecting behaviour in the workplace. However, although its existence is acknowledged, little research has been devoted to understanding the antecedents and consequences of cynicism in the workplace, more so in an employment relations context. As stated previously, there is paucity of research on organisational cynicism in the South African organisational context where cynicism-related research has mainly been conducted in the context of burnout. This study addressed the gap between the acknowledgement of the existence of organisational cynicism as an employee attitude and the understanding of its development and impact on employee attitudes and behaviour. It not only set out to determine the prevalence of employee cynicism in South African organisations, but also endeavoured to contribute towards a better understanding of the antecedents and consequences of organisation cynicism in an employment relations context. The anticipation was that cynicism would have a mediating effect on the relationship between work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and workplace experiences (psychological contract violation) as antecedent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace. Furthermore, the research predicted that individual dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism might act as a moderator in the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences and their cynicism towards their organisations and its managers, as well as their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

5.3 THE MEDIATING ROLE OF ORGANISATIONAL CYNICISM AND TRUST

This study examined the relationship between selected employee perceptions and experiences in the workplace (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their concomitant attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB). Relationships between the various dependent and independent variables have been established. POS has, for instance, been identified as a key factor influencing employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (McMillan & Albrecht, 2010). Researchers have found a strong positive relationship between POS and organisational commitment (Ahmed et al., 2015), most notably affective and normative commitment (Aubé et al., 2007; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). A moderate positive relationship has also been reported between POS and OCB (Ahmed et al., 2015), while POS has been shown to have a significant negative effect on CWB (Abas et al., 2015). Employees who perceive their employing organisations as caring about their well-being are therefore more likely to reciprocate by not only developing a stronger sense of commitment towards the organisation, but also engaging in various forms of OCB and refraining from taking part in CWB.

Research has also shown that employees' perceptions of organisational justice (POJ) positively influence their commitment to their employing organisations (Cheng, 2014; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Karim & Rehman, 2012) and their willingness to engage in OCB (Chiang et al., 2013; Colquitt et al., 2001; Gupta & Singh, 2013; Moorman, 1991). In contrast, CWB is viewed as a cognition-based response to perceived organisational injustice (Greenberg, 1990b; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki et al., 1999). Therefore, employees who feel that they are fairly treated by their employer may reciprocate by identifying with the organisation and its goals (attitude) and remaining with the organisation (behaviour), while employees experiencing injustice in their organisations may be more likely to affiliate themselves to a trade union (distancing their loyalties from the organisation) and resort to behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation and people in it.

Employees who perceive that their employers are not meeting their obligations in terms of the psychological contract have been found to redress the balance in the relationship by reducing their commitment to the organisation and their willingness to engage in OCB (Chiang et al., 2013; Erkutlu & Chafra, 2013). Furthermore, perceived breach of the psychological contract has been found to result in higher levels of union commitment (Bashir & Nasir, 2013) and retaliatory actions (CWB) by employees intending to regain an equitable balance in the social exchange relationship or to punish the organisation (Ariani, 2013; Bordia et al., 2008; Chiu & Peng, 2008; Erkutlu & Chafra, 2013).

Direct relationships have therefore been established between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, CWB, OCB) variables of relevance in this study. These relations were discussed in Chapters 3 and 4 and are reflected in Figure 5.8.

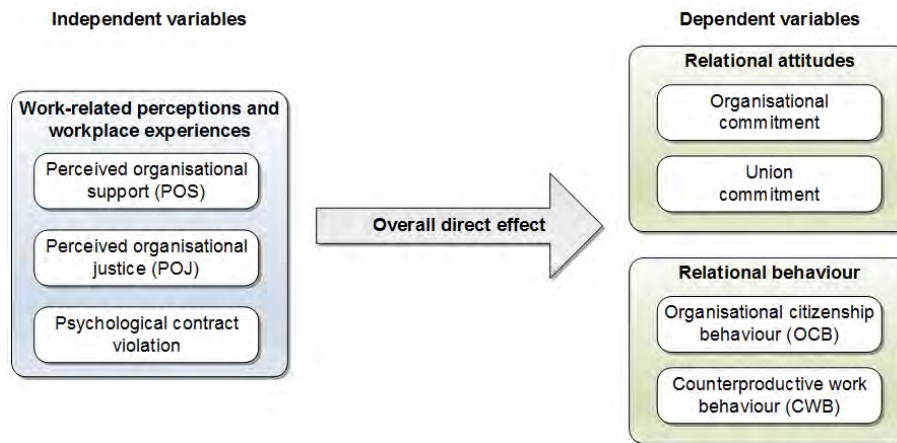


Figure 5.8. Overall Direct Effect between Work-related Perceptions and Work Experiences and Relational Attitudes and Behaviour

Various relationships between the independent variables and organisational cynicism and trust, as well as organisational cynicism and trust and the dependent variables, however, have also been reported (see sections 5.1.4, 5.1.5, 5.2.4 and 5.2.5).

Empirical evidence indicates that, in addition to being an outcome of POS (Biswas & Kapil, 2017; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Stinglhamber et al., 2006; Tremblay et al., 2010) and POJ (Aryee et al., 2002; Colquitt et al., 2007; DeConinck, 2010; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Saunders & Thornhill, 2004; Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011; Tan & Tan, 2000) and negatively related to psychological contract violation (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Montes & Irving, 2008; Restubog et al., 2008; Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989), organisational trust may be regarded as an antecedent of employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. For instance, positive relationships have been reported between organisational trust and organisational commitment (Colquitt et al., 2013; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013; Tan & Lim, 2009; Tan & Tan, 2000; Tremblay et al., 2010) as well as organisational trust and OCB (Cho & Ringquist, 2011; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Ng, 2015). It has further been shown that, although employees who trust their employing organisations are more likely to engage in OCB, a stronger relationship exists between organisational trust and OCB-O than OCB-I (Brower et al., 2009; Singh & Srivastava, 2016). In contrast, it has been posited that negative relationships exist between organisational trust and union commitment (Bashir &

Nasir, 2013; Chan et al., 2004; Hemmasi & Graf, 1993) as well as organisational trust and CWB (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer & Gavin, 2005).

Employees react negatively to perceived lack of support and injustice by their employers. They tend to seek out a party to whom they can attribute their negative perceptions – blaming them for their disappointment – which results in cynicism towards the organisation and its managers (McMillan & Albrecht, 2010). When employees perceive that their employers have failed to meet their obligations in terms of the psychological contract, they are more likely to believe that the organisation does not care about their well-being and that it cannot be trusted (Robinson, 1996). From a social exchange perspective, employees feel that their psychological contracts have been violated, resulting in a decline in trust, and resentment towards their organisation and managers, questioning their motives and intentions (Biswas, 2016). This reflects the cognitive and affective dimensions of organisational cynicism. Employees then reciprocate by distancing themselves from the organisation, refraining from engaging in OCB and resorting to disparaging and counterproductive behaviour, reflecting the behavioural dimension of organisational cynicism (Evans et al., 2010). These relationships are reflected in Figure 5.9.

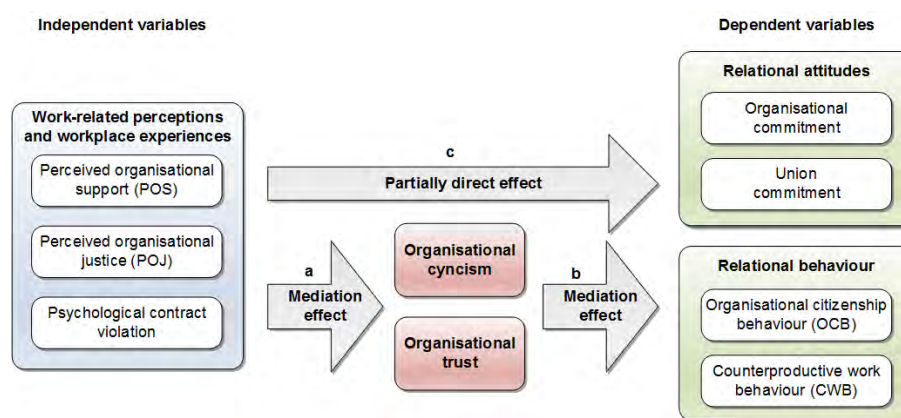


Figure 5.9. Partially Direct and Mediation Effects between Work-related Perceptions and Work Experiences and Relational Attitudes and Behaviour

The partial direct effect between the independent and dependent variables is denoted as *c*. The independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) also have an effect on the mediators (organisational cynicism and trust), denoted as *a*, and the mediators (organisational cynicism and trust) have an effect on the dependent variables (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB), denoted as *b*. Organisational cynicism and trust as mediators therefore play a dual role: On the one hand, they are dependent variables for the work-related perceptions and workplace experiences (POS, POJ and psychological

contract violation), and on the other, they act as independent variables for relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) (Wu & Zumbo, 2008).

Based on the rationale that employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences directly affect their trust in and cynicism towards the organisation and its managers and that organisational cynicism and trust, in turn, influence employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, it is plausible that organisational cynicism and trust fulfil a mediating role. Organisational cynicism and trust may therefore have a mediating effect on the relationship between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and dependent variables (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) (Wu & Zumbo, 2008).

Several researchers have explored the mediating role of organisational cynicism and trust in an attempt to better understand the determinants of employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly (2003) found that organisational cynicism partially mediates the effects of psychological contract violation on work-related attitudes (organisational commitment and job satisfaction), but plays no mediating role in the relationship between perceived violation of the psychological contract and employee behaviour (work performance, organisational citizenship and absenteeism). However, other researchers have confirmed the mediating role of organisational cynicism in the relationship between psychological contract violation and attitudinal variables. For instance, organisational cynicism has been found to mediate the relationships between psychological contract violation and employee attitudes such as union commitment (Bashir & Nasir, 2013) and organisational commitment (Reichers et al., 1997; Wanous et al., 2000).

Some researchers have also reported that organisational cynicism has a mediating effect on the relationships between selected situational and behavioural variables. For instance, Wan (2013) found that organisational cynicism mediates the relationship between psychological contract violation and OCB. When employees perceive that their psychological contracts have been breached by the employer, this does not only harm the relationship between employers and employees, but may also cause them to question the organisation's integrity and motives and become cynical (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Suazo et al., 2005). Cynical employees' disillusionment and mistrust towards their organisations give rise to negative attitudes towards and behaviours in the organisations, including low job satisfaction, decreased OCB and reduced work performance (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Wan, 2013). Cynical employees do not trust or respect the organisation or its managers and

are therefore more likely to engage in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or people in it (Wan, 2013).

The mediating role of trust in determining employee attitudes and behaviour is also addressed in extant literature. For instance, Robinson's (1996) seminal research on the psychological contract showed that, when perceived as violating the psychological contract, employers are regarded as inconsistent in their actions and as having malevolent intentions. Employees thus lose confidence that their contributions to the organisation will be reciprocated and become less willing to invest in the relationship. Trust therefore serves as a mediator in the relationship between psychological contract violation and employees' contributions to the organisation (Robinson, 1996). Researchers have also reported that trust acts as a mediator in the relationship between employees' perceptions of organisational justice and support and their performance in the workplace (Aryee et al., 2002; Biswas & Kapil, 2017; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Pillai et al., 1999). Cho and Poister (2014) reported that, while trust directly influences performance, it also serves as a mediator in the relationship between managerial practices and organisational performance.

The mediating role of trust, however, is not limited to in-job performance and organisational outcomes, but has also been shown to apply to employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace. Trust was regarded as an integral aspect in Organ's (1988, 1990a) seminal work relating to the association between POJ and OCB, and the mediating role of trust in the POJ-OCB relationship was subsequently confirmed (Colquitt et al., 2013; Moorman et al., 1998; Tan & Tan, 2000). Trust has also been shown to intervene in the relationship between perceived employer obligations in terms of the psychological contract and OCB (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002). Coxen et al. (2016) found organisational trust to be a mediator in the relationship between authentic leadership and OCB, while Singh and Srivastava (2016) confirmed the mediating role of organisational trust in the relationship between organisationally relevant variables (procedural justice and open communication) and OCB (notably, civic virtue and courtesy). Colquitt et al. (2013) meta-analytically confirmed the mediating role of trust in the justice-OCB relationship, but found no evidence of trust as a mediator in the relationship between POS and CWB. Searle, Weibel, et al. (2011) suggested that the influence of organisational trust on employees' discretionary behaviours may be underestimated as the potential mediating role of trust in the relationship between reported antecedents of organisational trust and discretionary behaviours has not been fully explored.

Organisational trust has also been shown to be a mediator in relationships between particular workplace perceptions and experiences and work-related attitudes. For instance, both

Whitener (2001) and Chen, Aryee, and Lee (2005) reported that trust in management partially mediates the relationship between POS and organisational commitment. Quratulain et al. (2016) and Lo and Aryee (2003) provided evidence of the mediating role of trust in the relationship between perceived psychological contract violation and employees' commitment to their employing organisations and turnover intentions. Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence (2012) found trust in management to be a mediator in the relationship between managers' perceived behavioural integrity and organisational commitment. Aryee et al. (2002) demonstrated that trust partially mediates the relationships between distributive and procedural justice and work attitudes such as job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organisational commitment, but fully mediates the relationship between interactional justice and these work attitudes. Similar results were obtained by Jiang et al. (2017), who, in a cross-cultural study of China, South Korea and Australia, found organisational trust to be a mediator in the relationship between procedural justice and affective organisational commitment. These results are similar to those obtained in other countries such as the USA (Hopkins & Weathington, 2006), Canada (Tremblay et al., 2010) and Portugal (Sousa-Lima et al., 2013), which confirms the generalisability of the mediating influence of trust on the POJ-organisational commitment relationship across various nationalities.

Some researchers have differentiated between cognitive and affective trust in their exploration of the mediating role of trust. Zhu et al. (2013), for example, found that affective trust fully mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and affective organisational commitment, OCB and job performance. This mediating effect did, however, not apply to cognitive trust (which only mediated the relationship between transactional leadership and job performance). Similarly, Colquitt et al. (2012) reported that affective trust mediated the relationship between organisational justice and work performance. Yang et al. (2009) found cognitive trust to be a mediator in the relationship between perceived procedural justice and employees' performance and job satisfaction, while affective trust mediated relations between perceived procedural justice and helping behaviour displayed by employees in the workplace. These findings again highlight the importance of specifying the type of trust (see section 5.1.2.6) when investigating the relationships between trust and its antecedents and outcomes in an organisational context.

In summary, it has been shown that organisational practices and employees' perceptions of the quality of the exchange relationship with their employing organisations as reflected in these practices, determine the extent to which they regard their employing organisations as trustworthy. High-quality exchange relationships that are based on support, fairness and consideration are anticipated to give rise to trusting employer-employee relations and positive

attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. Conversely, organisational practices that reflect a disregard for employees' needs and contributions to the organisation and exploit their vulnerability are expected to give rise to organisational cynicism and subsequent negative attitudes towards and behaviour in organisations. It has thus been established from extant literature that organisational cynicism and trust may have a mediating effect on the relationship between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and dependent variables (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) of relevance in this study.

5.4 EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS

It was suggested in this chapter that there are two ways in which employees may potentially react following their observations in terms of the quality of the social exchange relationship they have with their employing organisations. If employees conclude that a high-quality relationship exists, they are likely to place their trust in their organisation and its managers. Such employees are therefore likely to believe that the organisation and its management will act in good faith and uphold the commitments made, that the relationships between employees and management will be honest and that the parties will not take advantage of one another even if the opportunity arises (Altuntas & Baykal, 2010). Conversely, employees who experience a low-quality social exchange relationship with their employing organisations are more likely to become cynical towards their organisations believing that such organisations lack integrity and that organisational practices are based on self-interest and lack fairness, honesty and sincerity (Dean et al., 1998). While organisational trust is likely to enhance positive attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, organisational cynicism is expected to have the opposite effect, that is, disparaging and counterproductive behaviour (Abraham, 2000; Dean et al., 1998; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014). It is therefore anticipated that both organisational trust and cynicism will have a mediating effect on the relationship between work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and workplace experiences (psychological contract violation) as antecedent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace.

5.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the constructs of organisational cynicism and trust were conceptualised from a social exchange perspective. Organisational trust was regarded as a psychological state, reflecting an employee's willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of the employing

organisation. Vulnerability, control, dependence and expectations, as significant elements of the employment relationship, were highlighted. Organisational trust (i.e. trust in management) was differentiated from interpersonal trust (i.e. trust in a co-worker or immediate supervisor). The researcher relied on a number of theoretical models of organisational trust (Burke et al., 2007; Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Martins, 2002; Mayer et al., 1995; Von der Ohe, 2014) to inform the conceptualisation of trust in the particular context. It was postulated that employees' perceptions of the ability and intent (i.e. trustworthiness) of their employing organisations are formed by their work-related perceptions and work experiences. These perceptions and experiences may be obtained from managerial practices, and more specifically the extent to which employees perceive managerial practices as fair (POJ) and caring (POS). Employees also form perceptions based the extent to which their employers meet their obligations in terms of the psychological contract. Perceived trustworthiness is anticipated to be reciprocated with a willingness to be vulnerable (i.e. trust) and a greater preparedness to engage in risk-taking (trusting) behaviour. Specific attitudinal (organisational commitment) and behavioural (OCB) consequences of organisational trust were considered. It was also suggested that low levels of trust may coerce union support and commitment and may even provoke undesirable employee behaviour.

This was followed by a conceptualisation of organisational cynicism as an attitude derived from an employee's critical assessment of the intentions, actions and values of the employing organisations and its leaders (Abraham, 2000; Dean et al., 1998; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014). It was shown, however, that organisational cynicism entails more than a cognitive assessment of employer behaviour. It also involves both emotional (e.g. distrust, disillusionment, distress, pessimism) and behavioural (e.g. criticising the employer and questioning its intentions) employee reactions (Sheel & Vohra, 2016). Organisational cynicism was differentiated from related constructs such as social or dispositional cynicism, societal cynicism, burnout cynicism, work cynicism and cynicism towards organisational change (Abraham, 2000; Burgess, 2011; Chiaburu et al., 2013; Reichers et al., 1997; Stanley et al., 2005). It was posited that employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) may influence the development of cynicism towards their employing organisations and managers behaviour (Andersson, 1996; Biswas & Kapil, 2017; Coyle-Shapiro & Parzefall, 2008; Van der Vaart et al., 2013). It was further shown that high levels of organisational cynicism may be linked to increased union commitment (Turnley et al., 2004) and CWB and decreased OCB (Dean et al., 1998; Evans et al., 2010). Differential relationships between organisational cynicism and the three components of organisational commitment were shown. While negative relationships were reported for AC and NC, a positive relationship was shown to exist between organisational cynicism and CC

(Scott & Zweig, 2016). For the purposes of this study, it was thus deemed essential to differentiate between the three dimensions of organisational commitment when investigating its relationship with organisational cynicism.

It was emphasised that, although relationships exist between organisational cynicism and trust, these constructs should be regarded as distinct. While trust relates to a positive expectancy that organisations and managers will act in the employees' best interest, cynicism reflects negative expectations and a belief that the intentions, actions and values of organisations and managers cannot be trusted (Andersson, 1996; James, 2005). Cynicism also has an emotional aspect (e.g. contempt, anger, disappointment and frustration) that is not reflected in the conceptualisation of trust (Dean et al., 1998). Cynicism may be regarded as a potential contributor to mistrust towards an organisation and its leaders (Treadway et al., 2004).

It was argued that, although a fair amount of trust-related research has been conducted in South African organisations, there is a paucity of research relating to the development and consequences of organisational cynicism and the interactive effects of organisational cynicism and trust. In order to obtain a more balanced view and understanding of employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace and the impact thereof on their relational attitudes and behaviour, it was posited that both organisational cynicism and trust should be considered. Drawing on extant literature, it was suggested that organisational cynicism and trust may have a mediating effect on the relationship between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and dependent variables (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) of relevance in this study.

The following research aims in terms of the literature review were achieved in this chapter:

Literature research aim 4: To conceptualise organisational cynicism and trust as a set of mediating constructs in the relationship between work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB)

Literature research aim 6: To determine how the biographical characteristics of individuals (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) relate to their individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism, work-related perceptions and work experiences, their cynicism towards and trust in the organisation and their relational attitudes and behaviour (partially achieved)

In Chapter 6, it is emphasised that the particular context in which the employment relationship is conducted may influence the development and consequences of organisational cynicism and trust. Since this study was conducted in a South African organisational environment with a diverse workforce, it is theorised that cultural differences may provide a unique context, which has not yet been explored in extant literature. In Chapter 6, individualism/collectivism as a cultural disposition is thus investigated as a potential moderating variable in the proposed psychological framework.

CHAPTER 6: CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN THE WORKPLACE: THE MODERATING ROLE OF INDIVIDUALISM/COLLECTIVISM

Keywords: collectivism, individualism, moderation

In this chapter, employees' cultural dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism are presented as a moderating variable in the relationship between their work-related perceptions and work experiences, their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace as reflected in Figure 6.1.

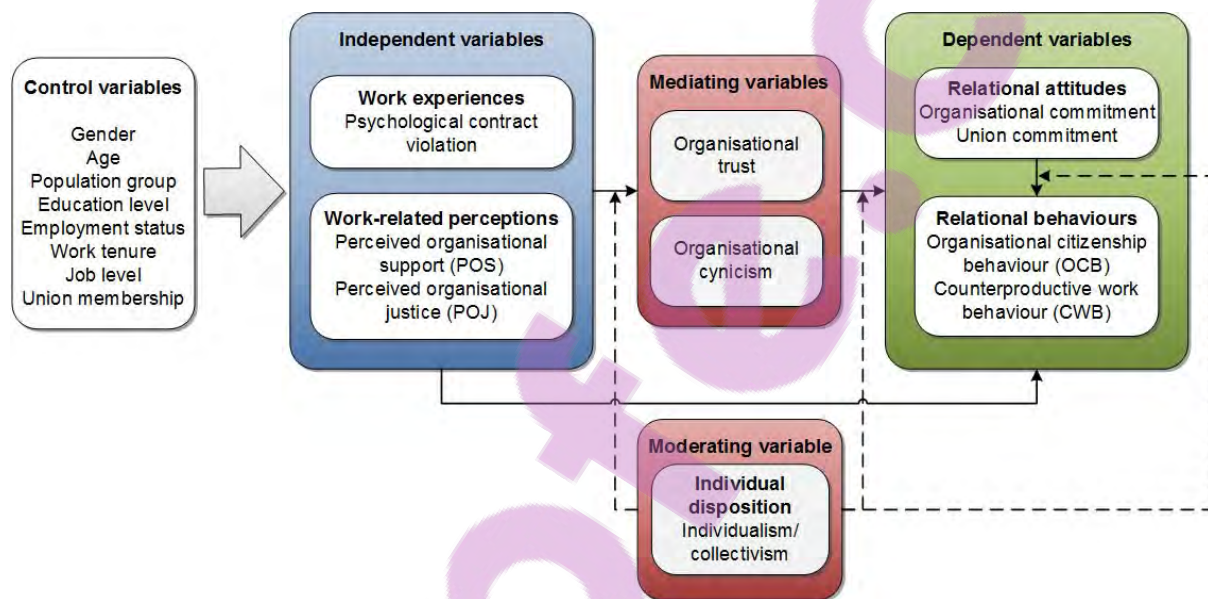


Figure 6.1. An Overview of the Relationships between the Control, Independent, Mediating, Moderating and Dependent Variables

Individualism/collectivism is conceptualised as an individual disposition that moderates the strength of the relationships between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) variables; the mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) variables and dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, CWB and OCB) variables; and relational attitudes and behaviour. The reported relationships between individualism/collectivism and the independent (psychological contract violation, POJ and POS), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) and dependent (organisational and union commitment, CWB and OCB) variables, are explored. In addition, those person-centred variables that have been shown to be interrelated with employees' individual dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism are reported. The implications for employment relations and practices are highlighted.

6.1 CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN THE WORKPLACE

It has been reported that individual differences influence the extent to which employees' relationships with their employing organisations are shaped by social exchange processes (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Van Knippenberg et al., 2015). Van Knippenberg et al. (2015) emphasise the importance of understanding these differences as this increases the ability of scholars and practitioners to predict the extent to which social exchange influences individual employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. In an attempt to better understand those factors that impact on employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, individual differences in terms of gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership have been considered throughout the study. These person-centred variables and their reported influence on the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) and dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables are addressed as part of the discussion of each of the variables (see Chapters 3, 4 and 5). In a culturally diverse country such as South Africa, which gives rise to a diverse workforce, it is deemed essential to also consider the potential impact of cultural disposition on the social exchange process and ultimately on employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace by focusing on individualism/collectivism as the most critical cultural dimension (Brewer & Chen, 2007; Schwartz, 1999; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011).

In a culturally diverse country such as South Africa, which remains divided by race and social class (see Chapter 2), employment relations are often characterised by animosity and confrontation, resulting from opposing expectations, values, behaviours or norms (O'Reilly et al., 1991; Shenkar, Luo, & Yehekel, 2008). Conflict between the parties in the employment relationship is exacerbated when individuals in organisations (employees and managers) come from different societal cultures, as each party to the relationship brings a different set of cultural norms, values, assumptions and expectations to the relationship (Thomas et al., 2010, 2003).

Culture is described as a set of common features that provides the standards for observing, believing, evaluating, communicating, and behaving among those who share a language, a historical period and a geographic location (Triandis, 1996). As Hofstede (1981, p. 24) explains, "culture is to a human collectivity what personality is to an individual". It is therefore a system of collectively held values, rules, norms and institutions, most of them unconscious and unwritten, that guides behaviour (Hofstede, 1981, p. 24; Hofstede, 2015). Culture incorporates what is good and desirable in a society and therefore worth transmitting to peers

or future generations (Schwartz, 2006; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011). It distinguishes one group or category of people from another (Hofstede, 2001). Culture is therefore a collective attribute, common to some but not all people, that manifests in behaviour (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004).

Different cultural groups have diverse values, which form the foundation of their collective norms and set the standard for appropriate behaviour in specific situations (Schwartz, 1999). Hence, individuals who find themselves in a specific culture are bound by a particular social environment with unique norms, systems and values (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015). Culture impacts on almost every aspect of psychological functioning as the perceptions and behaviour of people differ across cultures (Triandis, 1994; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011). Culture also shapes the attitudinal and behavioural responses of employees to various aspects of their working environments (Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006; Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007). In an organisational setting, it is essential to take cognisance of cultural norms and values and adapt organisational practices and expectations accordingly as individual behaviour is guided by the cultural norms of in-groups (Hofstede, 1985).

Culture differs on a number of dimensions such as complexity (i.t.o. religious, economic, political, educational, social, and aesthetic standards); tightness (i.e. many behavioural rules, norms are imposed rigorously), honour, which favours the use of aggression and self-protection to defend one's honour; and the active-passive dimension, which to various degrees, encompasses active (e.g. competition, action and self-fulfilment) and passive (e.g. reflective thought, leaving the initiative to others and cooperation) elements (Triandis, 1996, 2006, 2011; Triandis & Suh, 2002). The most critical dimension of culture, however, is individualism/collectivism, which relates to the extent to which individuals are autonomous or embedded in groups (Brewer & Chen, 2007; Schwartz, 1999; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011).

Individualism/collectivism is a broad cultural construct, which is widely regarded as valuable in explaining relational behaviour (Brewer & Chen, 2007; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Oyserman & Lee, 2008; Triandis, 1995). Individualism/collectivism can be regarded as a societal (Hofstede, 1980, 1991; House et al., 2004) or organisational level (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001) construct or an individual disposition (Triandis, 1995; Wagner, 1995). In this study, individualism/collectivism was conceptualised as individual disposition affecting employees' perceptions, attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. A brief overview of individualism/collectivism as a psychological construct and its development in the field of psychology is provided below in order to demonstrate the need to include this construct in an attempt to understand employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

6.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF INDIVIDUALISM/COLLECTIVISM

Individualism/collectivism refers to dual cultural, organisational or individual worldviews relating to the relationship between the self and the collective (Marcus & Le, 2013). Within a particular culture, individuals have individualistic (i.e. they think, feel and behave like people in individualist cultures) and collectivistic (i.e. they think, feel and behave like people in collectivist cultures) characteristics to varying degrees (Triandis, 2004). For the purposes of this study, individualism/collectivism was regarded as a multidimensional construct used to explain the perceptions, attitudes and behaviour of individuals from different cultures in a single country (South Africa). Individualism/collectivism is viewed as a personal disposition (i.e. an inherent individual characteristic), where individualism refers to an individual's tendency to value personal goals, independence, self-enhancement and competition, while in-group goals, interdependence, group enhancement and cooperation are emphasised in the case of collectivism (Györkös et al., 2013; Marcus & Le, 2013; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a).

Individualism at an individual level is defined as an individual's predisposition to prioritise personal goals and be self-reliant – that is, emphasising the self (the individual) over the collective (the group) (Marcus & Le, 2013). Individualism therefore reflects a social pattern where the self is defined as being independent of collectives, and personal goals are given priority over the goals of collectives. Social behaviour is shaped by attitudes and perceived rewards. The perceived costs and benefits associated with social relationships are determined and relationships are only maintained when the benefit is perceived to exceed the costs (Hofstede, 1980; Oyserman et al., 2002; Triandis, 1996).

Conversely, collectivism can be defined as a social pattern consisting of closely linked individuals who see themselves as part of one or more collectives (Li, Triandis, & Yu, 2006). Interdependence with in-groups is a distinguishing feature of collectivism, and behaviour is guided by group goals and norms, emphasising the need to maintain good relations with others. The self is defined as part of a collective (e.g. family, work organisation, state or ethnic group) and consideration of the needs of others in the regulation of social behaviour is widely practised. Interdependence is regarded as the core of social relationships. Personal goals are subordinated to the goals of the collective, while norms, duties and obligations regulate most social behaviour (Hofstede, 1980; Oyserman et al., 2002; Triandis, 1993, 1996).

6.3 THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE INDIVIDUALISM/COLLECTIVISM CONSTRUCT

Research relating to the individualism/collectivism construct, which concerns the relationship between the individual and the group and the emphasis on independence or interdependence, was initially limited mainly to the fields of sociology and anthropology (Triandis & Gelfand, 2011; Triandis, McCusker, & Hui, 1990). The latter part of the 20th century, however, heralded increasing interest in individualism and collectivism in the field of psychology, with the first empirical evidence of these constructs in psychology published by Hofstede (1980) as part of a large multinational project aimed at developing methods for comparing differences between cultures.

6.3.1 Hofstede's cultural dimensions

Hofstede (1980) questioned the assumption at the time that psychological findings could be regarded as universal, and therefore set out to understand the impact of culture on psychological processes. Using an inductive approach, Hofstede (1980, 1991) studied work-related values and beliefs by surveying more than 116 000 IBM employees and managers in 50 countries and three multicountry regions. This led to the formulation of the following four dimensions of national culture (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2010; G. Hofstede, 1980; Robbins & Judge, 2018; Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2015):

- **Power distance**, or orientation to authority, describes the degree to which the less powerful members of a society expect and accept the unequal distribution of power, wealth and status.
- **Uncertainty avoidance** is the degree to which people in a country tolerate or feel threatened by ambiguity and uncertainty. Cultures characterised by high uncertainty avoidance prefer structured situations and establish extensive formal rules aimed at reducing or eliminating uncertainty.
- **Individualism/collectivism** reflects cultural predispositions to emphasise either the satisfaction of personal needs and independence (i.e. the ties between individuals in a society are loose) or the needs of the collective and interdependence (i.e. people are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups).
- **Masculinity/femininity** refers to the social or emotional implications of gender roles. Masculinity is the degree to which the culture favours traditional masculine roles (e.g. achievement, independence, assertiveness and material success) as opposed to

femininity, where men and women are viewed as equals, and values such as interdependence, compassion, empathy and quality of life are esteemed.

These dimensions closely resemble and empirically supported the work of Inkeles and Levinson (1969, originally published in 1954) who identified three standard analytic issues (similar to Hofstede's cultural dimensions), namely relations to authority, conception of the self (including the individual's concepts of masculinity and femininity), and primary dilemmas or conflicts and ways of dealing with them.

A fifth dimension, **short-term/long-term orientation**, referring to a society's devotion to traditional values, was later added on the basis of a research project among students in 23 countries, overseen by Michael Harris Bond (Hofstede, 1991; Hofstede & Bond, 1988; The Chinese Culture Connection, 1987). The long-term/short-term dimension relates to the extent to which a society exhibits a pragmatic future-oriented perspective rather than a conventional historical or short-term point of view (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2010). Long-term values include focusing on the future – persistence and caution are respected – while short-term values are more oriented towards the past and the present, and include respect for tradition and social obligations (Hofstede, 1998; Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010).

Following research by Minkov (2009) on the predictors of happiness across 93 countries and regions, Hofstede added a sixth dimensions to his model, namely **indulgence/restraint** (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). This dimension refers to the gratification versus control of basic human desires relating to enjoying life (Hofstede, 2011). Indulgence refers to cultures that have a high regard for individual happiness and well-being, while restraint refers to cultures where positive emotions are less freely expressed and where gratification of needs is regulated by means of strict social norms (Hofstede & Hofstede, n.d.).

Hofstede (1980) was the first to use the terms “individualism” and “collectivism” in the context of psychology (Triandis, 2004). He presented individualism and collectivism as opposite ends of a single unidimensional construct. While individualism was seen to pertain to societies in which everyone is expected to care only for himself or herself and his or her immediate family (i.e. the ties between individuals are loose), collectivism referred to societies where tight relations with in-groups are the norm – that is, people are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups from birth, and these in-groups protect them throughout their lifetimes in exchange for absolute loyalty (Hofstede, 1980, p. 51).

Hofstede's model has become a cornerstone of cross-cultural research and provides a method for studying cultural differences in a wide range of disciplines such as cross-cultural psychology and international business management (Baskerville, 2003; Minkov & Hofstede, 2011). Although Hofstede's cultural dimensions have been widely accepted, there have been some criticisms, mainly relating to the unit of analysis (culture vs nation) (e.g. Baskerville, 2003; Gerhart & Fang, 2005; McSweeney, 2002) and the description of the dimensions (Ashkanasy, Gupta, Mayfield, & Trevor-Roberts, 2004; Brewer & Venaik, 2011; De Luque & Javidan, 2004). Concerns have also been raised about the fact that the data on which the research was based was collected in a single company (IBM), which influenced its reliability. In addition, the data was collected prior to a number of significant international changes, such as the fall of the Soviet Union, the transformation of central and eastern Europe and the rise of China as a global player, which occurred worldwide (Kirkman et al., 2006; McSweeney, 2002; Robbins & Judge, 2018). In South Africa, far-reaching political and societal changes, most notably the fall of apartheid and the first democratic elections (see Chapter 2 and Appendix C), have occurred since the 1970s when Hofstede's research was conducted. Furthermore, as Baskerville (2003) argues, cultures are distinct from nations or countries. South Africa consists of a vast number of diverse cultures, which means that a single set of attributes cannot be regarded as a description of the South African population as a whole (Laher, 2013; Valchev et al., 2012).

In conducting a meta-analysis of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) findings, including 598 studies representing over 200 000 individuals, Taras et al. (2010) found that measuring individual scores resulted in much better predictions of most outcomes than assigning all people in a country the same cultural values. This view was corroborated by Minkov and Hofstede (2011), who reiterated that Hofstede's (1980, 1991) dimensions were constructed at a national level and therefore not intended to use as predictors of individual differences. Hofstede's framework may therefore be a valuable way of thinking about differences between cultures or nations, but it cannot be used to explain differences within these cultures (i.e. at an individual level) – one cannot assume that all people from a particular country have the same values (Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2017; Oyserman et al., 2002; Robbins & Judge, 2018).

6.3.2 The GLOBE framework

Another important framework aimed at understanding cultural differences emerged in the 1990s. The *Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness* (GLOBE) project (House et al., 2004) was aimed at measuring interrelationships between societal culture, organisational culture and leadership, and to develop dimensions that could be used to predict

the impact of cultural variables on organisational phenomena (Fitzsimmons & Stamper, 2013; Luthans, 2011). The GLOBE project included multiple levels of analysis (i.e. relationships of individuals to organisations, individuals to societies and organisations to societies) and, by using data from 825 organisations in 62 countries, identified the following nine dimensions on which national cultures differ (House et al., 2004; Luthans, 2011; Robbins & Judge, 2018):

- **Power distance:** the degree to which members of a collective expect power to be distributed equally
- **Uncertainty avoidance:** the extent to which a society, organisation or group relies on norms, rules and procedures to alleviate the unpredictability of future events
- **Institutional collectivism:** the degree to which organisational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward the collective distribution of resources and collective actions
- **In-group collectivism:** the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty and cohesiveness in their organisations or families
- **Assertiveness:** the degree to which individuals are assertive, confrontational and aggressive in their relationships with others
- **Gender differentiation:** the degree a collective minimises gender inequality
- **Future orientation:** the extent to which individuals engage in future-oriented behaviour such as delaying gratification, planning and investing in the future
- **Performance orientation:** the degree to which a collective encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence
- **Humane orientation:** the degree to which a collective encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring and kind to others

Some dimensions, such as power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism (divided into institutional collectivism and in-group collectivism), masculinity/femininity (assertiveness and gender differentiation) and future orientation (similar to long-term vs short-term orientation), resemble Hofstede's (1980, 1991) dimensions. The main difference is that the GLOBE framework added two dimensions, namely humane orientation and performance orientation (Hofstede, 2006; Robbins & Judge, 2018). Although the Hofstede (1980, 1991) and GLOBE (House et al., 2004) frameworks therefore reported similar cultural dimensions, they differed in terms of a number of elements, including the number of countries involved, the subjects (Hofstede included all levels of employees in a single organisation, while the GLOBE studies focused on middle managers), the level of analysis (national vs multilevel), the dimension structure and number of dimensions, as well as conceptual and methodological differences (e.g. measuring what ought to be vs measuring what is). These differences and

the subsequent debate (Hofstede, 2006; Hofstede et al., 2010; McCrae, Terracciano, Realo, & Allik, 2008; Smith, 2006) ultimately resulted in a better understanding and greater appreciation of Hofstede's work (Minkov & Hofstede, 2011).

Hofstede's cultural dimensions have been widely accepted because of their simplicity, coherence, relevance and predictive capability in academic and business contexts (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2010), but they are aimed at understanding cross-cultural differences (Oyserman et al., 2002). Even though the GLOBE framework has been regarded as most useful for research and application at societal level, there has been some application at organisational level (e.g. the effects of cultural variables on organisational outcomes, organisational climate and organisational culture) (Peterson, 2011). Although both the Hofstede (1980, 1991) and GLOBE (House et al., 2004) frameworks have therefore been instrumental in addressing cultural differences at national or societal level and are widely used in cross-cultural research (Brewer & Venaik, 2011), cultural differences and their impact at individual level have not yet been explored.

6.3.3 Schwartz's cultural value orientations

Schwartz (1992, 1999, 2006) conducted seminal cross-cultural research, focusing on the individual differences in value priorities and their effects on attitudes and behaviour. He developed the following two different but interrelated value theories: a theory of personal values that distinguishes between individuals within cultures (Schwartz, 1992), and a theory of the cultural value orientation that distinguishes between societies (Schwartz, 1999). Schwartz (1992) postulated that, at individual level, values could be divided into ten distinguishable values (universalism, benevolence, conformity, tradition, security, power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation and self-direction), which can be represented two-dimensionally, based on the conflicts and compatibility between the motivations expressed by these values (Fischer, Vauclair, Fontaine, & Schwartz, 2010). Two basic conflicts are identified, namely the conflict between values of self-enhancement and self-transcendence, and conflict between values of openness to change and conservation (Sagiv, Schwartz, & Arieli, 2011).

Schwartz's (1992, 1999) value orientations address three basic issues that challenge societies, namely the extent to which people are embedded in a group; ensuring socially responsible, productive behaviour that preserves the social fabric; and relating to the natural and social world (Sagiv et al., 2011; Vauclair, Hanke, Fischer, & Fontaine, 2011). Schwartz (1994b, 1999) postulated that these challenges are handled differently in different societies as

the solutions are influenced by the prevalent culture in a particular society. He (Schwartz, 1994b, 1999) specified the following three bipolar dimensions of culture that represent alternate resolutions to each of the three challenges posed (see Figure 6.2) (Sagiv et al., 2011; Schwartz, 2006):

- **Autonomy versus embeddedness** relates to the relations or boundaries between an individual and a group.
- **Hierarchy versus egalitarianism** refers to the emphasis placed on hierarchical social order, as opposed to mutual concern and cooperation, and the level of equality in terms the distribution of power, roles and resources.
- **Harmony versus mastery** concerns the inclination in a society to either accept (i.e. fit in harmoniously) or control (i.e. master, direct and change) the social and natural environment.

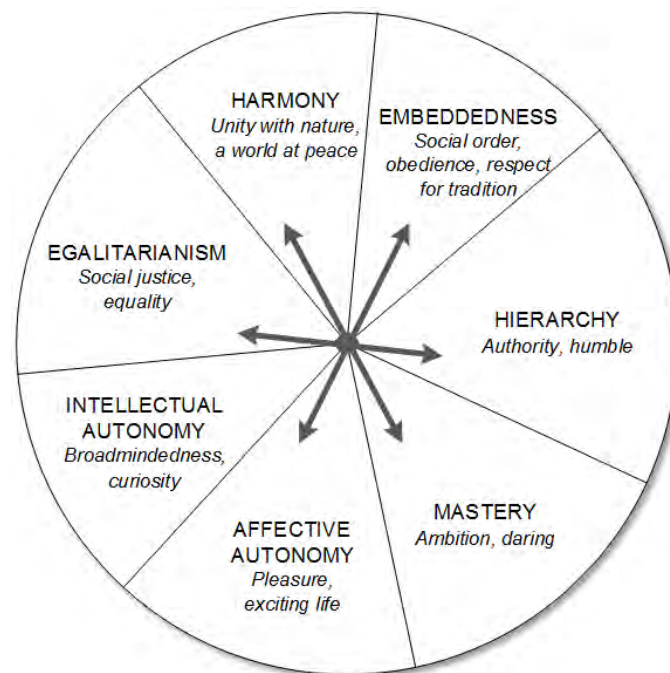


Figure 6.2. Cultural Value Orientations adapted from Schwartz (2009)

Schwartz (1994b, 1999) focused on both the structure and the content of the cultural dimensions. Although his research mirrored that of others (e.g. Hofstede, 2001; Inglehart, 1997) by averaging the value priorities of individuals across societies, the difference lies in his focus on basic values (i.e. values that are relevant across all situations or domains) (Schwartz, 2006). Schwartz's theory is unique in that it specifies the structure of the cultural dimensions in terms of the shared and opposing assumptions underlying them (Knafo, Roccas, & Sagiv, 2011). Schwartz's (1994b, 1999) theory therefore specifies three bipolar dimensions of culture that represent alternate resolutions to each of three societal challenges. A societal emphasis

on the cultural orientation at one pole of a dimension typically accompanies a de-emphasis on the polar orientation as they tend to conflict with each other (Schwartz, 2006). Cultural value orientations that share compatible assumptions are adjacent in the circle, whereas values that reflect conflicting assumptions are in opposing positions. These conflicts and compatibilities yield the circular order of orientations depicted in Figure 6.2.

The autonomy/embeddedness dimension closely resembles Hofstede's (1980, 1991) individualism/collectivism dimension (Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, et al., 2012). Autonomy (similar to Hofstede's individualism) refers to cultures in which independence and uniqueness are emphasised (Schwartz, 2006). There are two types of cultural autonomy. Intellectual autonomy encourages individuals to pursue their own ideas and intellectual aspirations independently. Values such as curiosity, broadmindedness and creativity are respected. Affective autonomy encourages individuals to pursue positive experiences for themselves and important values include pleasure, excitement and variation (Sagiv et al., 2011). Embeddedness refers to cultures in which people are viewed as entities entrenched in the collectivity (similar to Hofstede's collectivism) (Schwartz, 2006). Social relationships, group identification and shared goals are emphasised and social order, security, respect for tradition, obedience and wisdom are valued (Sagiv et al., 2011; Vauclair et al., 2011).

Schwartz's research has been extensively used by scholars studying values in international business research (Minkov & Hofstede, 2014). Because Schwartz postulated theories at both individual and cultural levels, this afforded researchers the opportunity to explore issues at both levels simultaneously and to develop a better understanding of the interaction between the two levels (Knafo et al., 2011). Although Schwartz's comprehensive approach to values is regarded as influential in psychology and business management research (Burgess, 2011), it was not deemed the most appropriate theoretical framework for the purposes of this study, because of the study's focus on the propensity of individuals to adopt individualistic or collectivistic tendencies in an organisational setting. The aim of this study was not to focus on the full spectrum of value dimensions (Schwartz, 1999), but rather on the impact that an individual's disposition towards independence and equity or interdependence and equality in a work setting may have on his or her perceptions, attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

As shown in this section, various researchers have addressed the extent to which autonomy or interdependence are emphasised in societies. Although different terminology is used (e.g. individualism/collectivism) (Hofstede, 1980, 1991); in-group and institutional collectivism versus assertiveness (House et al., 2004); autonomy/embeddedness (Schwartz, 2006); survival/self-expression (Inglehart & Welzel, 2005); and dependence/independence (Markus

& Kitayama, 1991), they all reflect the extent to which individuals are viewed as separate and autonomous entities or as interconnected and embedded in interdependent social relationships (Brewer & Chen, 2007). Furthermore, they reveal normative prescriptions and values about the priority that should be given to individual and group interests (Brewer & Chen, 2007). However, these researchers (e.g. Hofstede, 1980, 1991; House et al., 2004; Schwartz, 1994b, 1999) studied individualism/collectivism primarily as a cultural variable to explain differences between nations (Sender, Arnold, & Staffelbach, 2017). Cultural differences were mainly attributed to a geographical location or social structure that constitutes a particular cultural region (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004; Oyserman et al., 2002; Schwartz, 1994b).

Industrialised Western societies such as Western Europe and North America were regarded as examples of highly individualistic societies (Hofstede, 1980; Oyserman et al., 2002; Triandis, 1996), hence psychological theories originating from these countries focus mainly on individuals and processes internal to individuals (Morris & Peng, 1994). Individual attitudes, beliefs, needs, personality and personal values are emphasised (Triandis & Suh, 2002). In contrast, collectivist elements were reflected in many of the more traditional cultures and developing countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America, as well as parts of Europe (e.g. Southern Italy and rural Greece) (Hofstede, 1980; Oyserman et al., 2002; Triandis, 1993, 1996). In these cultures, the causes of behaviour are seen to be outside the person (Morris & Peng, 1994; Triandis & Suh, 2002). Cultural or group norms, collective needs, collective self-definitions, values and pressures from group members are therefore regarded as central to individual behaviour (Triandis, 1996).

Although this differentiation has proven valuable in understanding cross-cultural differences, it does not provide for cultural variability within countries (Arshad, 2016; Triandis, 2006). Different cultures, displaying varying degrees of individualism and collectivism, may be contained within one nation (Baskerville, 2003; Nazir, Shafi, Qun, Nazir, & Tran, 2016). Furthermore, it should not be assumed that everybody in individualist cultures has individualistic characteristics or that everyone in collectivist cultures has collectivist characteristics (Triandis, 2001). In a country such as South Africa, with its diverse population, a particular culture cannot be ascribed unanimously to all South Africans. If South Africa's culture is therefore described as individualist (Hofstede & Hofstede, n.d.), this does not mean that all South Africans have individualist characteristics. Also, in an era of increased globalisation, one cannot assume that all employees in a particular organisation have similar cultural dispositions. By contrast, globalisation has resulted in an increase of multicultural organisations with diverse workforces, necessitating research on and an understanding of cultural differences affecting employee attitudes and behaviour (Ehrhardt et al., 2012).

Although these models are widely acknowledged and regularly applied in cross-cultural studies, they are not sensitive to the way individuals respond to individualistic and collectivist values within cultures (Earley, 1993; Lam, Schaubroeck, & Aryee, 2002; Triandis, 1993, 2004; Wagner, 1995). They were therefore deemed inappropriate for this study, because the researcher's intention was not to consider differences between nations or societies, but rather to determine how individuals' dispositions in terms of a particular cultural dimension (individualism/collectivism) impact on their response (attitudes and behaviour) to certain work-related perceptions and work experiences.

Seminal research focusing on individual differences within national cultures was conducted by Triandis and colleagues (see Gelfand, Triandis, & Chan, 1996; Triandis, 1989; Triandis et al., 1993; Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai, & Lucca, 1988; Triandis et al., 1990). This individual-level approach to cultural differences endorsed the view that, although individuals generally develop dispositions that conform to the overall national culture of individualism or collectivism, individual differences also occur within national cultures (Triandis, 2001). In other words, all individuals in a collectivist culture do not necessarily have a collectivist disposition, and vice versa (Hassan et al., 2017; Moorman & Blakely, 1995). This conceptualisation of individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition that may affect employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace is outlined in the next section.

6.3.4 Triandis: Individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition

Following Hofstede's (1980, 1991) ground-breaking work, growing evidence suggested that individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition may differ significantly between individuals within a particular culture or nation (Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000; Cohen & Avrahami, 2006; Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Ramamoorthy & Carroll, 1998; Wagner, 1995). Attention shifted to the ways that cultural frames influence individual outcomes, behaviour, attitudes and beliefs (Oyserman et al., 2002). Researchers increasingly argued that individualism/collectivism, as an individual disposition, could be used to better understand differences between individuals (Oyserman et al., 2002; Triandis et al., 1988). Researchers also suggested that cultural value orientations, such as individualism/collectivism, may have a moderating effect when predicting individual behaviour (Thomas et al., 2003).

In contrast to Hofstede (1980, 1991), who viewed individualism and collectivism as opposites (i.e. two extremes of a unidimensional construct), researchers such as Triandis and colleagues (e.g. Gelfand et al., 1996; Triandis, 1989; Triandis et al., 1988, 1990, 1993), Oyserman et al. (2002), and Gelfand, Bhawuk, Nishii, and Bechtold (2004) argued for the conceptualisation of

individualism/collectivism as a multidimensional construct. Individualism, when measured at individual level, was found to consist of several components (such as distance from in-groups, self-satisfaction and competition), while collectivism comprised family integrity and sociability (Triandis, 2004). These factors were no longer on opposite poles, but could be correlated, so that an individual could be high in both collectivist and individualist tendencies (Hwang & Francesco, 2010; Triandis, 2004).

Triandis (1994, 1995) furthermore suggested that various individualist and collectivist patterns exist (i.e. all individual cultures and all collectivist cultures are not identical), and that cultures may be similar in terms of the main defining features of individualism and collectivism but are likely to differ on culture-specific elements of the constructs. Triandis (1994) proposed that individualism and collectivism, should be defined polythetically (i.e. having many, but not all properties in common), and he therefore set out to identify the defining attributes of individualism/collectivism.

6.3.4.1 *Defining attributes of individualism and collectivism*

The definition of the self may be regarded as the principal feature when differentiating between individualism and collectivism (Gelfand et al., 1996; Triandis, 1993). Other defining attributes of individualism and collectivism relate to the personal goals of individuals, the importance of attitudes and norms as determinants of social behaviour and social exchanges (Gelfand et al., 1996; Triandis, 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a). These attributes are summarised in Table 6.1 and briefly explained below.

Table 6.1
Defining Attributes of Individualism and Collectivism

Defining attributes	Individualists	Collectivists
Definition of the self (emphasises personal or collective aspects; dependent or independent)	Focus on self-concepts that are autonomous from groups.	Define themselves as parts or aspects of a group.
Personal goals	Have personal goals that may or may not overlap with the goals of their in-groups. If there is a discrepancy between the two sets of goals, they give	Have personal goals that are compatible with the goals of their in-groups. If there is discrepancy between the two sets of goals, they give priority

Defining attributes	Individualists	Collectivists
	priority to their personal goals over the group goals.	to the group goals over their personal goals.
The importance of attitudes and norms as determinants of social behaviour	Social behaviour is best predicted from attitudes and other such internal processes, as well as contracts made by the individual.	Social behaviour is best predicted from norms and perceived duties and obligations.
Social exchanges	Engage in exchange relationships: when the costs exceed the benefits, the relationship is often discontinued.	Engage in communal relationships: relationships are of the greatest importance, and even if the costs of these relationships exceed the benefits, individuals tend to stay with the relationship.

Source: Adapted from Triandis (1995)

While independence is the essence of individualism, collectivism is characterised by interdependence (Triandis, 1993). In collectivist cultures, the self is therefore conceived as part of and interdependent of a collective (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). This collective refers to any group considered as an in-group (category-based or relationship-based) by members of the culture such as family, ethnic or religious group, work group or geographic district (Brewer & Chen, 2007; Gelfand et al., 1996). The extent to which individuals identify with in-groups and their relationship with such groups are therefore significant in understanding cultural differences. The main distinction in individualist cultures is between the self and others, while in collectivist cultures, the main distinction is between in-groups and out-groups (Triandis, 2001).

In individualist cultures, the self is as an entity that is autonomous and distinct from groups. Although people in individualist cultures are influenced by in-groups, this influence is limited as in-groups tend to be narrow and they are less emotionally attached to larger in-groups (Triandis et al., 1990). The in-group in individualist cultures is defined by similarity in achieved attributes (e.g. profession) and perceived as more heterogeneous than out-groups. Individualists have many in-groups, but relations with these in-groups tend to be superficial. In individualistic cultures, debate and confrontation in in-groups are acceptable (and even encouraged) and self-sacrifice for the in-group is not expected (Triandis & Gelfand, 2011). Individualists may have personal goals that are inconsistent with the goals of their in-groups. When there is conflict between in-group and individual goals in individualist cultures, individual goals prevail over in-group goals. Individuals tend to leave unsatisfactory relationships. Less concern and emotional attachment are directed towards the in-group. The emphasis is on

personal fate, personal achievement and independence from the in-group. Behaviour is regulated largely by individual attitudes (rather than group norms) and cost-benefit analyses (i.e. social exchange), and less emphasis is placed on hierarchical relations. When vertical and horizontal relationships are in conflict, horizontal relationships take priority. Values such as achievement, pleasure and competition are emphasised (Gelfand et al., 1996; Triandis, 1993, 2001, Triandis et al., 1988, 1990; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011).

In collectivist cultures, the self is regarded as part of a group or groups and there is a strong contrast between the in-group and the out-group. The in-group is defined in terms of similarity in affiliation (e.g. race or language) and perceived as more homogeneous than out-groups. Collectivists tend to define the self as an appendage of the in-group and have intense relationships with few in-groups. Self-sacrifice for the in-group is expected and cooperation within in-groups is the norm (Triandis et al., 1990). The individual therefore does what is expected by the in-group and rarely opposes the will of the collective. The in-group is regarded as homogeneous, and if there are differences in opinion these are kept from out-groups. Concern for the integrity of the in-group is high and emotional attachment to the group intense. Behaviour is regulated largely by in-group norms, obligations and duties (Davidson, Jaccard, Triandis, Morales, & Diaz-Guerrero, 1976). In-group fate, in-group achievement and interdependence within the in-group are emphasised (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Hierarchy and harmony are key defining attributes. Vertical relationships that are in conflict with horizontal relationships therefore take priority, and subordination towards members of the in-group is expected. Collectivists value family integrity, security, obedience and conformity. Behaviour, in terms of a collectivist view, results from external factors such as norms and roles rather than internal factors such as attitudes and personality (Gelfand et al., 1996; Triandis, 1993, 2001, 2004, 2006, Triandis et al., 1988, 1990; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011).

6.3.4.2 Dimensions of individualist and collectivist cultures

There are many varieties of individualist and collectivist cultures that may be described in terms of several dimensions (Triandis, 1994, 1995). One dimension that has been found to be especially significant is the horizontal-vertical aspect, that is, the emphasis that different cultures place on equality or hierarchy (Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, & Gelfand, 1995; Triandis, 2001). In some cultures, hierarchy is crucial, and in-group authorities determine most social behaviour. In other cultures, social behaviour is more egalitarian (Triandis, 1996). The four cultural patterns depicted in Figure 6.3, with vertical cultures being more hierarchical in nature and horizontal cultures more egalitarian, were identified by Triandis (1995), and these patterns are supported by various theoretical and empirical studies (Bhagat, Segovis, & Nelson, 2012;

Billing, Bhagat, Babakus, Srivastava, Shin, & Brew, 2014; Chen & Li, 2005; Triandis & Singelis, 1998):

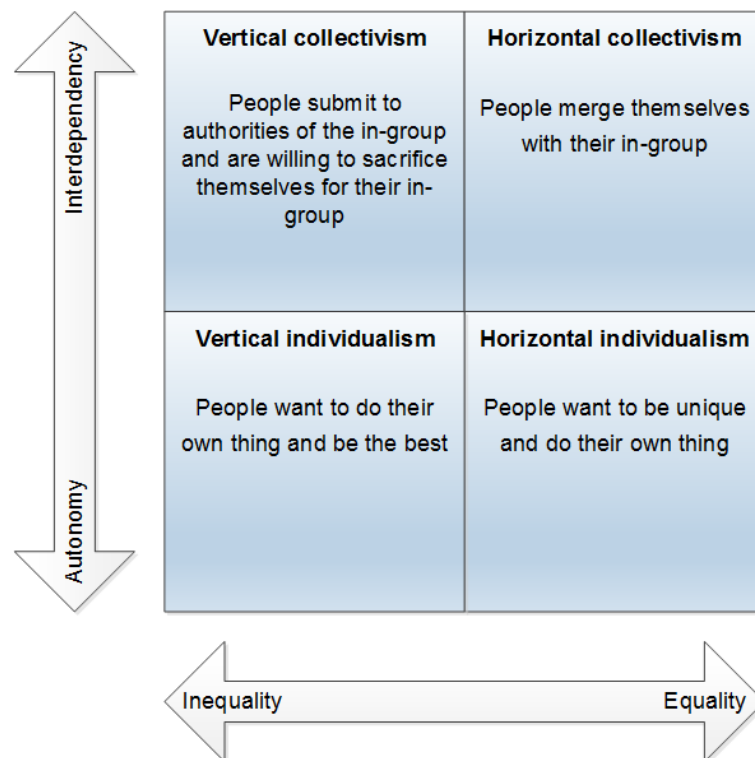


Figure 6.3. Vertical and Horizontal Cultural Patterns adapted from Singelis et al. (1995), Triandis and Gelfand (1998a) and Triandis (2001)

In considering individualism/collectivism as multidimensional rather than unidimensional, Triandis and Gelfand (1998a) extended Hofstede's (1980, 2001) conceptualisation of individualism/collectivism by arguing that the interaction between power distance and individualism/collectivism is hugely significant in understanding both concepts. The horizontal dimension of power distance captures the extent to which equality is important, while the vertical dimension captures the individual's attitude towards authority and hierarchy (Sarkar & Charlwood, 2014). By considering these dimensions, the following four cultural patterns were identified (Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis, 2001; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a):

- **Vertical collectivism** means that the self is viewed as a part of a collective (the in-group) and that differences and inequalities within the collective are accepted. Interdependency and conformity are characteristic of this cultural pattern, and serving and sacrificing for the in-group are imperative (Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis, 2011). Vertical collectivist cultures are traditionalist and emphasise in-group cohesion, duty, respect for in-group norms and the directives of authorities (Triandis, 1995, 2006;

Triandis & Gelfand, 2011). Vertical collectivist cultural patterns are found in countries such as Brazil, China, India and Mexico (Billing et al., 2014).

- **Horizontal collectivism** means that the self is viewed as a part of and closely associated with the collective (the in-group), and all members of the collective are regarded as similar to one another. Horizontal collectivist cultures are much less authoritarian, and common goals, interdependency, empathy, sociability and cooperation are emphasised. Equality is the essence of this cultural pattern and cooperation is valued. Decisions are therefore taken by consensus (Li et al., 2006; Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011; Triandis & Singelis, 1998). Few examples of horizontal collectivist societies exist – a case in point being the Israeli *kibbutz* (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a).
- **Vertical individualism** acknowledges the autonomy of the self and accepts differences and inequality. Individuals want to become distinguished and acquire status. The major value in this cultural pattern is achievement, and competition is therefore an essential element (Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a, 2011). Vertical individualism is often reflected in the Western corporate culture where individuals endeavour to be “the best” and competitiveness is common practice (Triandis, 2006). The USA, UK and France are examples of societies depicting this cultural pattern (Bhagat, Kedia, Harveston, & Triandis, 2002; Chen & Li, 2005; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a).
- **Horizontal individualism** embraces the conception of an autonomous individual and emphasises equality (Singelis et al., 1995). In this cultural pattern, individuals want to be unique and distinct from groups and are highly self-reliant, but they are not particularly interested in recognition or status (Triandis, 2006; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a). Societies reflecting this cultural pattern include Denmark, Sweden, Australia and New Zealand (Singelis et al., 1995).

The individualism/collectivism construct therefore consists of a set of contrasting dispositions that individuals adopt in varying degrees (Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis, 1993; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a). It is possible for individuals to be high or low on both individualism and collectivism, and in all cultures, there are individuals with individualist and collectivist characteristics in different proportions (Triandis, 2001; Triandis & Suh, 2002). Hence, within a particular culture, there are individuals who embrace individualistic characteristics (i.e. they

think, feel and behave like people in individualist cultures) as well as individuals who are more collectivist in nature (i.e. they think, feel and behave like people in collectivist cultures) (Triandis, 2004). Individualists emphasise self-reliance, self-satisfaction, distinctiveness, competition and emotional distance from in-groups, while collectivists stress interdependence, sociability and family integrity – they are guided by their relationships to their in-groups and the needs and concerns of in-group members (Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000).

The terminology used for these dispositions at an individual level include, for instance, psychological individualism or psychological collectivism (Jackson et al., 2006; Mayfield et al., 2016), independence and interdependence (Markus & Kitayama, 1991) or idiocentrism and allocentrism (Triandis, 1995; Triandis, Chan, Bhawuk, Iwao, & Sinha, 1995). The intention of using different terminology is to clearly differentiate between individualism and collectivism at a cultural level and its operationalisation at an individual level. Although different terminologies are evident in the literature, it has become customary to refer to individualism and collectivism, but to clearly indicate the level of analysis (Oyserman et al., 2002; Triandis & Singelis, 1998). In this study, the concepts of individualism and collectivism are used to refer to the manifestation of individualistic and collectivistic tendencies in employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace as impacted on by the particular context and the culture in which these individuals live and work (Triandis, 1993, 1994). Individualism and collectivism are regarded as orthogonal to each other (Gelfand et al., 1996). A person can therefore be high in both attributes, or high in one and low in the other (Shulruf et al., 2011). Both collectivist and individualist cognitions are present in every individual, but the manifestation of individualistic and collectivistic tendencies is elicited by the situation and context in which an individual finds himself or herself (Triandis & Gelfand, 2011).

According to Minkov and Hofstede (2011), the models and dimensions of individualism/collectivism used within a particular study depends on what the researcher seeks to explain. This study sought to understand the factors that shape individual perceptions, attitudes and behaviour in workplace, thereby influencing employer-employee relations. The model of individualism/collectivism proposed by Triandis and colleagues (Gelfand et al., 1996; Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis, 1993, 1994, 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a) is deemed the most appropriate for the following reasons (Billing et al., 2014; Van Knippenberg et al., 2015):

- It provides for an individual level of analysis enabling differentiation within cultures. Although societal or national characteristics are therefore acknowledged, it is accepted that individuals differ within cultures and adopt characteristics associated with individualism and collectivism in varying degrees.

- It allows for the conceptualisation of individualism and collectivism as individual dispositions, where employees with an individualistic disposition tend to emphasise the self (independence) and focus on personal interests, while employees with a collectivistic disposition value interdependence and focus on collective (in-group) interests.
- It provides for the conceptualisation of individualism and collectivism as a polythetic construct that can be delineated into vertical and horizontal dimensions, thereby enhancing operationalisation at the individual level in any society.

Individualism/collectivism in this context therefore relates to a personal disposition, which reflects particular cultural beliefs and values that emphasise independence and individual interests or interdependence and group interests, to varying degrees.

As stated previously, this study was conducted in a particular country (South Africa) consisting of a variety of cultures. Cognisance is taken of the fact that, within any culture there are individuals who embrace or distance themselves from the prevailing national or societal culture to various degrees. The focus is therefore not on the cultural constructs of individualism and collectivism but on the application of these constructs at an individual level of analysis (i.e. as a personal disposition) reflecting the way culture, demographics, perceptions and experiences influence individual attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

6.4 PERSON-CENTRED VARIABLES INFLUENCING INDIVIDUALISM/COLLECTIVISM

Although differences between cultures predispose individuals to be more individualistic or collectivistic, the nature of the self (individuals' individualistic or collectivistic tendencies) varies within cultures. Individuals' dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism (or the extent to which individualistic or collectivistic personality traits are revealed) are impacted on by demographic differences such as age, social class, level of education, gender, amount of contact with other cultures and exposure to the modern mass media (Triandis, 2011; Triandis & Singelis, 1998). These demographic differences and their reported relationships with individualism/collectivism are briefly outlined below.

6.4.1 Age and gender

Individualism has been found to be more prominent in men than in women and the young more than the old (Triandis, 1993; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011; Triandis et al., 1990). Men have been reported to be more likely to base their self-concepts on individualism and independence, whereas women are more likely to embrace the notion of a collectivist, interdependent self (Eaton & Louw, 2000; Josephs, Markus, & Tafarodi, 1992; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Wei, Wang, & MacDonald, 2015). Taras et al. (2010) reported that the relationship between cultural values and outcomes is stronger for men than for women as men are more inclined to adhere to their entrenched cultural values in social situations, while women may act against their values for the sake of relationships with others. Williams and Best (1982, 1990) found, however, that the more individualistic a culture, the less of a difference there is in the stereotypes and self-concepts of men and women. Gender therefore seems to impact on individuals' individualistic/collectivistic tendencies in collectivistic cultures but less so in individualist cultures (Triandis et al., 1995).

6.4.2 Social class, education and job level

Social class, which is often a direct outcome of an individual's level of employment, has been found to impact on individualism/collectivism (Triandis & Singelis, 1998). Lower social status, generally associated with a low level of employment or unemployment, requires the sharing of resources and the development of values that emphasise security, reliability and tradition which are characteristic of collectivism (Triandis & Gelfand, 2011). Furthermore, social class is often determined by education and environment. Daab (1991), as cited in Triandis and Singelis (1998), found that individualism is associated with higher levels of education. The upper class in all societies is likely to be individualistic, and individualism increases when a person has a leadership role in an organisation (i.e. supervisory or management positions) or society (Triandis, 2004). However, extreme lack of resources is also associated with individualism. Thus, resource availability is curvilinearly related to individualism (Triandis, 1993).

6.4.3 Population group

Individualism has been reported to be more prevalent in English-speaking cultures in the USA and Europe, while collectivism is a characteristic feature of many Asian, African and Latin American cultures (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1993, 1996). Differences, however, occur not

only between, but also within cultures, For instance, in the USA – a highly individualistic culture – persons of colour have been reported to display more collectivistic characteristics than Caucasians (Gaines et al., 1997).

The diversity of the South African population and the cultural divide between black and white South Africans, with its resultant impact on employment relations, were extensively discussed in Chapter 2. Although the South African culture has historically been viewed as individualistic (Hofstede & Hofstede, n.d.), this view is based on a white sample despite the fact that the majority of the South African workforce is black (Jang, Shen, Allen, & Zhang, 2018). This view may therefore not be representative of the current South African workforce as there are vast differences between different population groups. While white South Africans are generally expected to ascribe to the Western individualistic culture, and collectivism is assumed to prevail among black South Africans (reflecting their African heritage), these assumptions have not been empirically confirmed (Eaton & Louw, 2000). Some researchers have consequently opted to view “Black South Africa” and “White South Africa” as two separate entities in their analysis of individualism and collectivism across cultures (Gelfand et al., 2004; Schwartz, 1994a; Watkins et al., 1998).

In summary, extant literature suggests that collectivism appears to be more prominent among young, female employees from previously disadvantaged groups, employed at the lower levels of employment. In contrast, males (especially white males), who tend to dominate the senior positions in South African organisations (Commission for Employment Equity, 2017), tend to be more individualistic in nature. It is, however, essential to note that, while a general rise in individualism is occurring globally (Chang, Travaglione, & O’Neill, 2017), South Africa is experiencing a gradual increase in the number of females and blacks – who tend to display more collectivistic values – in the labour market (Nel et al., 2012; Valchev et al., 2012). These changing demographics of the labour force are likely to influence employee expectations and necessitate a re-evaluation by employers in terms of the ways in which they engage with their employees.

6.5 INDIVIDUALISM/COLLECTIVISM AS A MODERATING VARIABLE

In the preceding sections, it was shown that individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition shapes the beliefs, attitudes, self-conceptions, norms and values held by individuals (Triandis, 1995) and influences individual cognition, motivation and emotion (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2015; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Individualism/collectivism as a dynamic construct, affected by situational and person-centred variables, has been reported to impact

on a range of social phenomena including interpersonal relationships in the workplace (Singelis et al., 1995; Zagenczyk et al., 2015). The extent to which employees' perceptions and experiences influence their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace depends on their disposition towards individualistic or collectivistic values (Erdogan & Liden, 2006; Hassan et al., 2017). Individualism/collectivism may therefore be regarded as a moderator, which is described as a relatively stable characteristic, inherent attribute, enduring process or disposition, which modifies the strength or direction of a causal relationship (Wu & Zumbo, 2008).

The moderating effect of individualism/collectivism in the relationships between various workplace-related outcomes, such as organisational cynicism (Bedi & Schat, 2013) organisational commitment (Choi et al., 2015; Fischer & Mansell, 2009; Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, et al., 2012; Wang, 2014), turnover intention (Arshad, 2016) and OCB (Cetin et al., 2015; Cho & Faerman, 2010; Rockstuhl et al., 2012; Van Knippenberg et al., 2015) and their antecedents have been reported in the literature. Individualism/collectivism has also been presented as a moderator of relationships between employees' perceptions of organisational justice (Erdogan & Liden, 2006) and support (Van Knippenberg et al., 2015) and their subsequent responses. Hence, it is postulated that individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition will moderate (i.e. impact on the strength and direction) the effect of (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) on organisational cynicism and trust; (2) organisational cynicism and trust on relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and relational attitudes on relational behaviour. This moderation effect is depicted in Figure 6.4.

The reported impact of individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition on employees' responses to selected work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) is briefly discussed below. This is followed by discussions of the potential moderating effect of individualism/collectivism on the relationships between organisational cynicism and trust, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace.

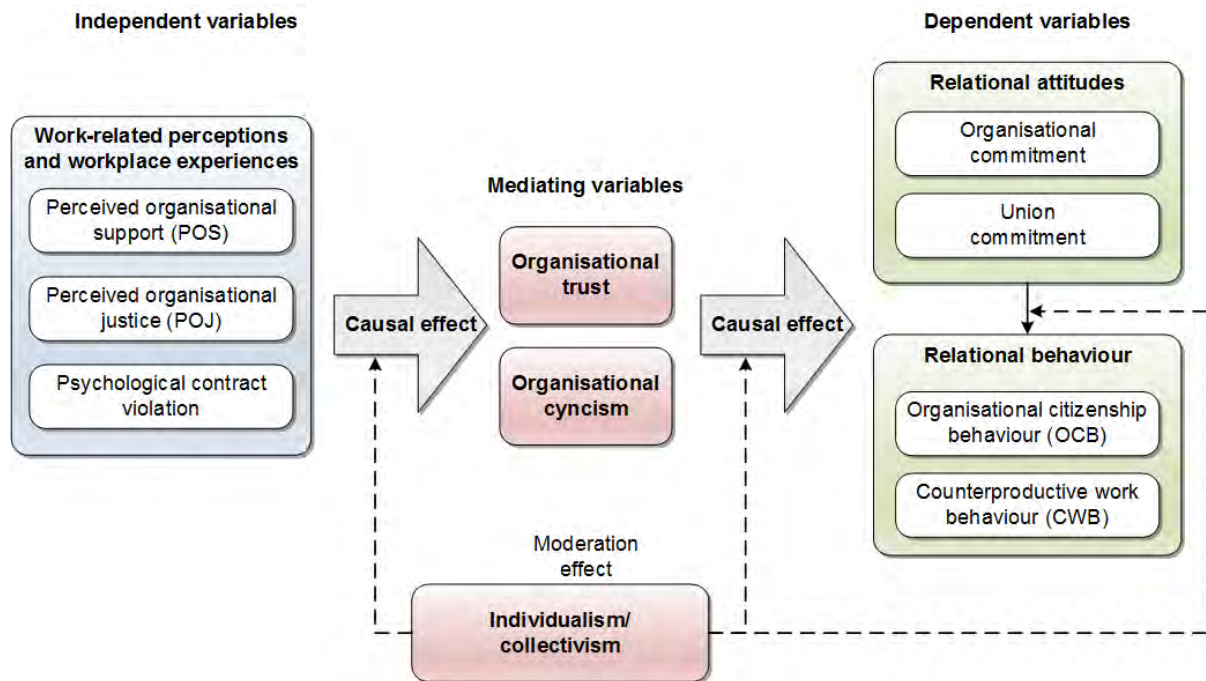


Figure 6.4. The Moderating Effect of Individualism/Collectivism

6.5.1 The influence of individualism/collectivism on employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences

Organisations are becoming increasingly diverse, which results in a workforce consisting of employees with different work-related norms and values, including those relating to employer-employee relationships (Zaidman & Elisha, 2016). These norms and values shape the expectations that employees hold of their employing organisations (Restubog et al., 2007). It may thus be anticipated that individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition will influence the way in which employees experience and react to events in the workplace. This section focuses on employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation). It is postulated that employees with different cultural dispositions in terms of individualism and collectivism will interpret organisational events and employer actions in different ways.

6.5.1.1 Psychological contract violation

Cultural differences may result in unique interpretations and reactions (manifested in employee attitudes and behaviour) to the perceived violation of the psychological contract (Arshad, 2016; Kickul et al., 2004; Thomas et al., 2003; Zagenczyk et al., 2015). Thomas et al. (2003) offer a conceptual model, grounded in social exchange theory, which postulates that

employees' behavioural reactions to psychological contract violations are based on their cultural orientations and associated values. These cultural values develop into cognitive frameworks that represent the employees' underlying exchange-based belief systems, and ultimately determine not only the formation of psychological contracts, but also what they regard as a violation of the psychological contract and the type of reaction that employees are likely to have after a perceived violation (Restubog et al., 2007). Thus, when an employee and an organisational representative have diverse cultural norms resulting in different assumptions and beliefs about employment obligations, there is likely to be greater incongruence, which increases the likelihood that an organisational event will be regarded as a psychological contract violation (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Zaidman & Elisha, 2016).

The perceptual threshold that determines whether unmet terms are perceived as contract violations partially depends on culturally based expectations that employees have regarding employers and the employment relationship (Thomas et al., 2003; Zhao & Chen, 2008). For instance, highly individualistic individuals are more concerned about balance and immediate compensation for effort. Such employees are therefore more likely to perceive a lack of balance and immediate compensation as a violation of the psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997) and are likely to respond in a confrontational manner (Thomas et al., 2003; Zagenczyk et al., 2015). In contrast, employees who are highly collectivist are less likely to expect direct immediate compensation for their contributions, and are more tolerant towards unequal outcomes (Triandis, 1995). Employees with highly collectivist dispositions are likely to respond to a perceived breach of the psychological contract by remaining loyal towards the organisation and making a concerted effort to restore the balance in the relationship, while individualists are more likely to exit the relationship (i.e. leave the organisation) if a psychological contract breach occurs (Thomas et al., 2003; Zagenczyk et al., 2015).

This study attempted to address calls by researchers (Rode et al., 2016; Suazo et al., 2005; Zagenczyk et al., 2015) to examine how cultural differences may impact on employees' tendencies to attribute negative experiences in the workplace to psychological contract breaches and/or violations, and how they react to a perceived breach or violation of their psychological contracts.

6.5.1.2 Perceived organisational justice

In terms of social exchange theory, employees who perceive their employing organisations to be fair and just, reciprocate by engaging in behaviour that is beyond what is formally required

and benefits the organisation and the people in it (Aryee et al., 2002; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Coyle-Shapiro, Shore, Taylor, & Tetrick, 2004). However, individuals' perceptions of and response to justice may vary across national and cultural contexts (Jiang et al., 2017) and may thus be influenced by their cultural dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism (Finkelstein, 2012; Hassan et al., 2017). Individuals develop normative structures for making justice judgements on the basis of their own internalised norms and values (Greenberg, 2001). These norms and values are shaped by societal or cultural values, and employees' responses to perceived injustice in organisations therefore vary across and within cultures (Lam et al., 2002; Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Timmerman, 2016). For example, collectivists emphasise equality and interdependence (Triandis & Gelfand, 2011) and are therefore more likely than individualists to form justice perceptions in the workplace (Earley & Gibson, 1998). However, collectives show greater tolerance to workplace injustice than their individualist counterparts (Erdogan & Liden, 2006). Ohbuchi, Fukushima, and Tedeschi (1999) reported that collectivists in conflict situations are primarily concerned with maintaining their relationship with others, whereas individualists are primarily concerned with achieving justice. Furthermore, when making judgements about the intentions of others, collectivists rely on situational signs (e.g. benevolent interactions with the other), whereas individualists tend to rely on dispositional signs (e.g. ability and integrity) (Branzei, Vertinsky, & Camp, 2007).

Individuals' disposition towards individualism/collectivism has furthermore been shown to have differential effects on the three justice dimensions (Hang-yue, Foley, & Loi, 2006). For instance, as Ehrhardt et al. (2012) explain, individuals in collectivistic societies may be more likely to define distributive fairness in terms of equal reward allocation across group members (i.e. equality), while differentiation in reward for specific levels of input (i.e. equity) is supported in individualist societies. Cultural norms and values also affect individuals' perceptions of procedural justice. Because of their desire to maintain social harmony and avoid confrontation, collectivists may be more inclined to accept less input and control in their jobs and working conditions, while individualists value opportunities for involvement and participation. Furthermore, it has been argued that individualists are more sensitive to interpersonal justice than collectivists (Earley & Gibson, 1998). In collectivist societies, where the maintenance of interpersonal relationships is a primary concern, individuals tend to maintain organisational relationships even when they perceive injustice. In contrast, individualistic employees seek interactional justice and are unwilling to tolerate perceived injustice (Özbek et al., 2016).

6.5.1.3 *Perceived organisational support*

Individual differences in employees' disposition towards individualism/collectivism have been found to moderate the relationship between perceived organisational support and employee attitudes and behaviour, because the relationship between the employee and the organisation is more likely to be based on social exchange the more collectivistic the employee is (Van Knippenberg et al., 2015). Since employees with a collectivistic disposition place high value on group membership and strongly identify with their in-group, their self-identity tends to be defined in terms of group membership (Oyserman et al., 2002). For such individuals, whose self-concepts depend largely on their organisational membership, POS has a relational value, working as a sense-giving tool (Tavares et al., 2016). Furthermore, highly collectivistic employees' perceptions of organisational support are not only determined by the extent to which they are cared for and valued by their employees, but also how members of their in-group (e.g. co-workers, work group members or fellow trade union members) are treated (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

In contrast, employees with an individualistic disposition assign little importance to organisational membership (i.e. their social identity is not based on organisational membership) and therefore associate POS mainly with the expectation of future gains relating to performance and the assurance of equity in the access to resources (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Tavares et al., 2016). Individualistic and collectivistic employees therefore differ in terms of the role that POS plays in determining their attitudes towards their employing organisations and their discretionary behaviour in the workplace. While POS serves a relational function for collectivistic employees, it has a more calculative and instrumental function for individualistic employees (Tavares et al., 2016).

Employees' individualistic/collectivistic dispositions thus influence what they regard as supportive actions and how they react to such actions. For instance, organisational actions aimed at creating a sense of belonging and providing opportunities to contribute to the greater good, may be perceived as supportive by collectivist employees, while individualists, who are more concerned about immediate need satisfaction, are unlikely to assign any supportive value to such actions (Fitzsimmons & Stamper, 2013). Collectivists, who are more likely than their individualistic counterparts to incorporate organisational membership into their self-identity and to develop emotional connections with their employing organisations, which are essential components of POS (Eisenberger et al., 1990), are less likely to leave the organisation when they do not perceive it as supportive. Conversely, individualists will easily exit a relationship (i.e. resign from the organisation) if they do not receive the necessary

support from their organisations (Triandis, 1995). It is therefore proposed that, while employees' perceptions of organisational support may be the same, their reactions to these perceptions may differ depending on their disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism and their resultant level of identification with the organisation. It is posited that, when employees perceive that they do not receive the necessary support from their organisations, those with a collective disposition may resort to retaliatory actions (CWB) or a greater dependency on a trade union for support and self-identity, while decreasing their commitment to the organisation and refraining from engaging in any behaviour that is not formally required in terms of their formal contracts of employment. In contrast, those with an individualistic disposition will, in all likelihood, not engage in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation. Because these individuals have a more calculative approach to organisational membership, engaging in OCB may be a less appealing behavioural response to POS, since it implies an enhanced effort without the assurance that it will pay off. In order to restore the balance in the exchange relationship, individualistic employees will be more likely to simply exit the organisation as their self-identity is not linked to organisational membership (Tavares et al., 2016).

6.5.2 The influence of individualism/collectivism on organisational cynicism and trust

From the above it may be deduced that employees' disposition in terms of individualism may influence not only the way in which they experience events in the workplace, but also their reactions to such events. In this section, the focus is on the potential influence of individualism/collectivism on employees' trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations.

6.5.2.1 *Organisational trust*

Early organisational trust researchers suggested that some societal cultures tend to be inherently more trusting than others (Fukuyama, 1995) and acknowledged that research on trust in an organisational context has largely been conducted in primarily individualistic cultures, raising questions about its applicability in collectivistic cultural settings (Aryee et al., 2002). Schoorman et al. (2007) highlighted the necessity for further research aimed at better understanding the influence of culture on individuals' propensity to trust. This call was reiterated by Wasti et al. (2011) and Fulmer and Gelfand (2012), who suggested that emic dimensions of trustworthiness (i.e. other than ability, benevolence and integrity) may be found in specific cultural settings. Nevertheless, few researchers have attempted to address this

dearth of comparative cross-cultural research in terms of the development and influence of trust in an organisational context (Hatipoglu & Inelmen, 2018).

It has nevertheless been reported that individuals' propensity to trust may be linked to their cultural dispositions (Bohnet, Herrmann, & Zeckhauser, 2010; Realo, Allik, & Greenfield, 2008). Doney, Cannon, and Mullen (1998) proposed that trustors' cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism will impact on the trust-building processes adopted. For instance, while trustors in individualist cultures are expected to develop trust on the basis of their calculation of the costs and rewards associated with trusting behaviour and the perceived capability of targets to fulfil their promises, those in collectivist cultures tend to emphasise the target's motivations and the extent to which a target's behaviour can be accurately predicted. In collectivist cultures, where there are strong interpersonal ties, transference of trust – especially towards those regarded as similar or part of an in-group – is expected to be the norm (Doney et al., 1998). Doney et al.'s (1998) propositions reflect the commonly held beliefs that collectivist cultures endorse strong, trusting relationships and benevolent motives, while individualist cultures tend to support weak interpersonal relationships marked by malevolent intent and low levels of trust. This widespread view that trust is high in collectivist cultures and low in individualist cultures, however, has been refuted in a number of studies (Huff & Kelley, 2003). It has, for instance, been suggested that cognition-based trust is likely to be higher when individuals are culturally similar (McAllister, 1995) and that trust varies in terms of the extent of familiarity (in-group and out-group membership) (Triandis, 1995; Williams, 2001).

Although collectivists value the formation and preservation of relationships, they tend to focus on building relationships with in-group members. They are thus less likely to build trusting relationships with individuals who are not regarded as part of the in-group (i.e. those who are dissimilar from themselves) (Huff & Kelley, 2003). Collectivist cultures are therefore not necessarily more trusting than individualist cultures, but the way in which trust forms and develops may differ as a result of cultural disposition (Wasti et al., 2011).

Branzei et al. (2007) focused on employees' beliefs in terms of the trustworthiness of their employing organisations, as determined by the perceived ability, benevolence and integrity (Mayer et al., 1995) as well as predictability (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006) of the organisation as a key factor in building trusting employer-employee relations. They (Branzei et al., 2007) found that, while people in individualistic cultures tend to develop trust on the basis of perceived ability and integrity, individuals in collectivistic cultures tend to rely on benevolence and predictability when making trustworthiness judgements. Tan and Lim (2009) reported that, in collectivist societies, employees' trust in their organisations will often be a reflection of the trust

that they have in their co-workers, while in more individualistic societies, interpersonal relations are more likely to be shaped by laws and rules than on trust in others.

Although the potential moderating influence of individualism/collectivism on the relationships between trust and attitudinal and behavioural variables has thus been explored by some researchers, the focus in these studies was on national cultures rather than individual cultural dispositions. In this study, it was suggested that employees' cultural dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism may moderate the strength of the relationships between trust and both its antecedents and outcomes.

6.5.2.2 Organisational cynicism

Employees' dispositions in terms of individualism and collectivism may also influence their propensity to hold cynical attitudes and their subsequent behaviour in the workplace. For example, collectivistic employees are not only concerned about how they are treated by their employer. Their perceptions of and attitudes towards the organisation and its managers are also shaped by the way their co-workers are treated (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). Their judgement of organisational practices is based on the morality of such actions for the group and its impact on harmonious workplace relationships (Alshetri, 2013; Kulkarni et al., 2010). It is therefore likely that employees with a collectivist worldview will be more inclined to perceive their employers' actions as unfair if the expectations of the group are not met, increasing their levels of cynicism towards the organisation and its managers. The converse, however, may also be true in that more individualistic employees have been found to be more sensitive to self-interested behaviour. Such employees are therefore inclined to view self-centred and self-serving actions by employers as inappropriate and react more negatively to such actions, increasing their levels of cynicism towards the organisation (Bedi & Schat, 2013).

6.5.3 The influence of individualism/collectivism on employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace

This section focuses on the potential influence of individualism/collectivism on employees' relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace.

6.5.3.1 *Organisational commitment*

Globalisation and the resulting increase of multicultural organisations with diverse workforces have necessitated research on cross-cultural differences in organisational commitment (Ehrhardt et al., 2012). The general expectation is that organisational commitment should be greater in collectivist cultures because of the importance placed on collectivity and shared goals (Hofstede, 2001; House et al., 2004; Nazir, Shafi et al., 2016; Triandis, 2004). Collectivists value security, social order, respect for tradition, harmony, politeness and loyalty to the employer (Triandis & Gelfand, 2011). Furthermore, collectivists think of the social environment as stable, with set duties and obligations, and the self as changeable (i.e. expected to fit into the environment) (Triandis, 2001). They have a high regard for the duties and obligations of all parties in the employment relationship. Collectivists will therefore rather find ways to resolve problems than leave the organisation when they are dissatisfied.

In individualist cultures, relations are built on contractual exchanges and are less intimate. Individualists tend to place greater value on independence and self-sufficiency and regard opportunities for creativity, excitement and self-development as essential (Triandis & Gelfand, 2011). In addition, individualists are skilled in entering and leaving groups, which means that commitment towards in-groups (e.g. the organisation) tends to be lower (Triandis & Gelfand, 2011). Individualists are inclined to think of the self as stable and the environment as changeable, and will therefore easily change jobs if they feel that their personal needs are no longer satisfied in their current jobs.

In addition, researchers have shown that the different dimensions of organisational commitment (AC, NC and CC) may be more or less significant in different cultural contexts (Wasti, 2005). For instance, various empirical studies have found evidence of positive relationships between AC and collectivism or values relating to collectivism (Clugston et al., 2000; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001; Wang, Bishop, Chen, & Scott, 2002). Furthermore, higher levels of collectivism have been associated with higher NC (Clugston et al., 2000; Felfe, Yan, & Six, 2008; Fischer & Mansell, 2009; Wasti, 2003). The belief that NC should be greater in collectivist cultures emanates from the significance attached to loyalty, obligation and duty in such cultures (Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, et al., 2012). Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, et al. (2012) found that cultural differences explained the greatest amount of variance in NC, followed by AC, but no variance was explained in CC. These findings, however, were reported at a national level and cannot necessarily be seen to reflect the potential impact of individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition at individual level.

6.5.3.2 *Union commitment*

Although collectivity and interdependence are valued by collectivists, their identification with particular groups (e.g. work groups, trade unions or even the organisation itself) cannot simply be assumed on the basis of their collectivist disposition (Triandis et al., 1988; Van Knippenberg et al., 2015). The group should be experienced as an in-group in order for collectivists to align themselves with such a group (Earley, 1993). Union membership and commitment are therefore dependent, not only on personal disposition, but also on shared beliefs and a sense of identification with the union (which they regard as the in-group) rather than with the organisation or management (regarded as the out-group) (Murphy & Turner, 2016). Individuals who are committed to the trade union tend to place great emphasis on the goals and needs of the trade union and have a strong emotional attachment to the union, which results in their personal goals, as well as those of the organisation, being considered subservient to those of the trade union (Thacker, 2015).

Collectivists tend to define themselves in relation to social entities such as trade unions. However, Sarkar and Charlwood (2014) found that, although employees' attitudes towards trade unions are impacted on by their disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism, this relationship is heavily dependent on the particular institutional context. For instance, the tendency of collectivists to relate to social entities decreases in highly individualistic cultures, especially when individuals are highly educated (Triandis, 2001).

Within an organisational environment, one can therefore predict that, in an individualistic culture, unskilled or uneducated employees with a highly collectivistic disposition will be more inclined to be committed to their employing organisations if they regard the organisation as an in-group. If an individual does not identify with the organisation, owing to, say, contradictory objectives or perceived injustice, a trade union may instead fulfil the need for belonging and interdependency in the workplace. In such an instance, the trade union would be regarded as the in-group and the individuals' loyalty would be directed towards the trade union. Hence, higher levels of collectivism may result in higher levels of trade unionism and union commitment in an organisation. However, this mostly applies to low skilled and uneducated employees. As individuals' levels of education increase, they rely less on the collective and rather emphasise the self (Nel et al., 2016). Such individuals are less inclined to join trade unions in order to fulfil their need for collective solidarity, but rather view trade unions as an individualistic means to an end, rendering services such as legal advice and representation (Beresford, 2012). Although they may therefore join trade unions as a means of personal protection – especially in South African workplaces, which are characterised by job insecurity

and adversity – they are not driven by collectivist tendencies to do so, and will in all likelihood display a lower level of commitment towards the trade union and be less inclined to participate in its activities.

6.5.3.3 *Organisational citizenship behaviour*

OCB may be understood and enacted differently in different cultural contexts because both employers' and employees' perceptions of what it means to be a good organisational citizen may vary according to their cultural contexts and dispositions (Özbek et al., 2016; Wang, 2015). When examining the relationship between POS and OCB, it is also necessary to take cognisance of the potential impact of employees' cultural dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism on the strength of the relationship (Lau et al., 2016). Van Knippenberg et al. (2015) proposed and empirically confirmed that there is a stronger relationship between POS and employees' attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation for employees with a more individualistic disposition than for their collectivistically inclined counterparts. This supports Traindis's (1995) conceptualisation of the defining attributes of individualism and collectivism, whereby individualistic employees are seen to value the exchange relationship as opposed to the communal relationships valued by collectivistic employees, as well as Eisenberg et al.'s (1986) view that the extent to which effort-outcome expectancies influence an employee's work effort depends on the strength of his or her exchange ideology. Employees with an individualistic disposition tend to have a high exchange ideology and are therefore expected to carefully calculate the balance between the support they receive from the organisation and what they are willing to offer in return (in terms of both in-role or extra-role performance). In contrast, employees with a collectivist disposition tend to have a low exchange ideology and are therefore less concerned about maintaining balance in the exchange relationship (Lee et al., 2014). One would thus expect the relationship between POS and OCB to be stronger for employees with an individualistic disposition as opposed to their more collectivistically inclined counterparts.

It is predicted that employees' disposition towards individualism/collectivism may impact on their perceptions of and reaction to fairness in their organisation (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Collectivistic employees, who are dispositionally inclined to engage in supportive and cooperative behaviour (Astakhova, 2015; Eby & Dobbins, 1997; Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Van Dyne, Vandewalle, Kostova, Latham, & Cummings, 2000), are expected not to necessarily be driven by organisational justice perceptions to engage in OCB as they are naturally inclined to engage in such behaviour if it is beneficial to the group. In contrast, individualist employees may choose to engage in OCB, because it will contribute to the

organisation's success and by implication also enhance their own success. However, since individualists are more concerned about their own self-interest rather than the interest of the group (the organisation and their co-workers), one would expect a stronger relationship between POJ (and specifically distributive justice) and OCB for this group of employees.

It has been reported that employees with a collectivist disposition would derive more of their sense of self from the organisation and therefore be more likely to engage in supportive and cooperative behaviour (Astakhova, 2015; Eby & Dobbins, 1997; Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Van Dyne et al., 2000). Collectivism is associated with greater conformity (Bond & Smith, 1996) and cooperation (Cox, Lobel, & McLeod, 1991; Eby & Dobbins, 1997; Wagner, 1995), which leads to higher levels of organisational citizenship behaviour (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). The assumption is therefore that employees in collectivist cultures are more likely to engage in behaviour aimed at the advancement of the organisation rather than focusing on individual performance or self-enrichment as their cultural disposition requires that time and energy be spent on helping others, rather than achieving personal goals (Cohen & Avrahami, 2006; Fitzsimmons & Stamper, 2013; Lau et al., 2016).

Finkelstein (2012) found, however, that a disposition towards individualism or collectivism does not necessarily predict to what extent an individual will be inclined to engage in OCB but rather what his or her motivation for engaging in such behaviour would be. For instance, individualists adhere more strongly to the norm of reciprocity (i.e. they have a higher exchange ideology) than their collectivist counterparts (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Triandis, 1995). Individualistic employees will therefore be more inclined to view their relationship with their employing organisations as a social exchange and will reciprocate high levels of support with increased effort aimed at benefiting the organisation (Van Knippenberg et al., 2015). Furthermore, collectivists strongly associate with their in-group. They regard helping an in-group member as their duty, while for the individualist, it is a matter of personal choice (Triandis, 2001). Collectivists also have a higher regard for the collective than for the individual. In an organisational environment, this may mean that collectivists will be more inclined to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour in order to assist members of the in-group (in this case, the organisation) as this will benefit not only the individual concerned but also the organisation (Takeuchi, Bolino, & Lin, 2015). Individualists, however, are more focused on their own performance and status in the organisation and will therefore not be inclined to engage in OCB unless they can also benefit by doing so. Therefore, if collectivists regard their workplace or work group as an in-group, they will be motivated to engage in OCB in response to their concern for members of their in-group (OCB-I) (Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Wagner, 1995). Individualists, however, are less concerned with the needs and objectives of

others but, as the success of their employing organisation impacts on their own success and goal achievement, they tend to engage in OCB aimed at the advancement of the organisation (OCB-O). A collectivist orientation is a significant predictor of altruism (OCB-I) but not civic virtue (OCB-O) (Daly, Owyar-Hosseini, & Alloughani, 2014).

6.5.3.4 *Counterproductive work behaviour*

Employees' disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism may also be regarded as a moderator in the relationship between POS and CWB. Van Knippenberg et al. (2015) empirically confirmed that employees' cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism affects the extent to which their relationships with their employing organisations are based on social exchange. This is in line with the conceptualisation of individualism and collectivism, where the former is associated with social exchange relationship, and the latter emphasises communal relationships (Triandis, 1995). Therefore, when individualists regard their employers as unsupportive they are likely to reciprocate by leaving the organisation rather than engaging in CWB. Collectivists, in contrast, tend to remain in a relationship even if they perceive that it is imbalanced as collective needs are regarded as more important than individual needs (Triandis, 1995). However, collectivists are less likely to tolerate social exchange behaviour that is detrimental to their in-group (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2015; Grijalva & Newman, 2015; House et al., 2004). When sensing a threat to the interests of the in-group, members of this group are more likely to display hostility and exclusionary attitudes (Gorodzeisky & Richards, 2016). Thus, when collectivistic employees perceive that employer behaviour is indicative of a disregard for the contributions of and well-being of their in-group (e.g. a work group or fellow trade union members), they may reciprocate by engaging in behaviour intended to demonstrate their solidarity with the in-group, even though such behaviour may be detrimental to the organisation (which is regarded as an out-group in such an instance) or individuals in the organisation (out-group members). Such employees would also be more likely to engage in collective action aimed at voicing the needs and expectations of their in-group (i.e. trade union members) (Gordon et al., 1980a; Upchurch & Grassman, 2016).

Although it has been shown that employees' disposition towards individualism/collectivism may impact on their perceptions of and reaction to fairness in their organisation (Daly et al., 2015; Finkelstein, 2012; Gupta & Singh, 2013; Hassan, Toyman, Semerciöz, & Aksel, 2012), the focus in the literature has mainly been on how individualism/collectivism may impact on OCB as a reaction to justice perceptions. Some researchers, however, have suggested that

cultural differences (e.g. a disposition towards individualism/collectivism) may also impact on the likelihood of employees engaging in CWB in response to perceived injustice (Yang et al., 2013). Collectivistic employees place greater value on maintaining harmonious relationships with others and achieving group goals rather than individual goals (Feys, Anseel, & Wille, 2013). Since they have a high regard for authority, the expression of aggressive and abusive behaviour is therefore deemed unacceptable (Khan, Quratulain, & Crawshaw, 2013). However, given the strong sense of group identity that characterises collectivism, collectivist employees are often more sensitive to injustice, constructing their perceptions of justice not only on the way they are treated by their employer as individuals, but also on how members of their in-group (e.g. work group, department or trade union) are treated (Zribi & Souai, 2013). Collectivists are less likely to tolerate perceived injustice if it is detrimental to the in-group (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2015; Grijalva & Newman, 2015; House et al., 2004). Such employees are therefore more likely to engage in CWB when this behaviour is intended to rectify or reciprocate injustice towards the in-group or a member of it and deemed beneficial to the in-group and its members over the long term (Triandis, 2001).

Collectivist cultures emphasise duty and loyalty to the in-group, cohesiveness among co-workers and kinship among peers. Collectivists are therefore less likely to tolerate social exchange violations or behaviour that is disloyal or detrimental to the in-group (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2015; Grijalva & Newman, 2015; House et al., 2004). Morality is highly regarded in collectivist cultures. Morality, however, entails doing what the in-group expects. When interacting with the out-group, exploitation and deceit are regarded as acceptable. In other words, morality is not applicable to all but only to some members of an individual's social environment (Triandis, 2001). The behaviour of collectivists is therefore largely determined by the norms and expectations of the in-group. In an organisational setting, this in-group may be the organisation itself, a trade union, department or work group. In employment relationships, opposing in-groups often exist in the form of management and trade unions. The behaviour of trade union members, who are highly collectivistic, would therefore be directed by the norms and expectations of the trade union (in-group). If these expectations differ from those of the out-group (management or the organisation), the trade union's norms and expectations would be prioritised. Such individuals will therefore be more likely to engage in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or people in it if the aim is to further the goals of the trade union or the interests of its members. Trade union members may, for instance, engage in strikes or even unlawful action (e.g. violence and intimidation) in order to further the goals of the trade union and its members. Their disregard for the organisation, which is regarded as the out-group, and its rules, is expected.

Furthermore, collectivists have been found to display uncooperative behaviour when they find themselves in organisations or societies in which an individualist culture prevails (Chatman & Barsade, 1995; Marcus & Le, 2013). From the perspective of anomie theory, collectivist societies promote group integration that would inhibit an individual's temptation to be deviant. Thus, in a collectivist culture, because an individual engaging in illegal behaviour would threaten to destroy group cohesion, these behaviours would be less likely to occur (Chen, 2014). In contrast, the cultural value of individualism enhances workers' self-interested thinking when selecting means to achieve a particular aim. Workers therefore have a higher propensity to engage in counterproductive work behaviour in a highly individualistic context (Chen, 2014).

The main findings, as reported in this section, are summarised in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2

The Influence of Cultural Disposition on Individual Perceptions, Experiences, Attitudes and Behaviour

	Individualism	Collectivism
Psychological contract violation	Highly individualistic individuals are more concerned about balance and immediate reciprocation for effort. A lack thereof is considered a violation of the psychological contract and is likely to elicit a confrontational reaction.	Highly collectivistic employees are less likely to expect direct, immediate reward for their contributions, and are more tolerant to unequal outcomes. They are less likely to regard such experiences as a psychological contract violation and tend to remain loyal towards the organisation and make an effort to restore the balance in the relationship.
Perceived organisational justice	Individualists emphasise equity and independence and are less likely than collectivists to form justice perceptions in the workplace. Collectivists base their justice judgements on dispositional signs. Individualists are primarily concerned with achieving balance and would	Collectivists emphasise equality and interdependence and are more likely than individualists to form justice perceptions in the workplace. Collectivists base their justice judgements on situational signs. Collectivists show greater tolerance to workplace injustice than individualists. They are primarily concerned with

	Individualism	Collectivism
	more likely leave the organisation if injustice is perceived.	maintaining their relationship with others.
Perceived organisational support	Individualists' social identity is not based on organisational membership. They associate POS mainly with the expectation of future gains relating to performance and the assurance of equity in the access to resources.	For collectivists, POS has a relational value as their self-identity tends to be defined in terms of group membership. Highly collectivistic employees' perceptions of organisational support are not only determined by the extent to which they are cared for and valued by their employees, but also by how members of their in-group are treated.
Organisational trust	Individualists develop trust based on the perceived ability and integrity of the trustee. Individualist cultures tend to support weak interpersonal relationships marked by malevolent intent and low levels of trust. For individualists, interpersonal relations are more likely to be shaped by laws and rules than by trust in others.	Collectivists tend to emphasise benevolence and predictability when making judgements about the trustworthiness of a trustee. Collectivist cultures endorse strong, trusting relationships and benevolent motives. Collectivistic employees' trust in their organisations is often a reflection of the trust they have in their co-workers.
Organisational cynicism	Individualists view self-centred and self-serving actions by employers as inappropriate and react more negatively to such actions by increasing their levels of cynicism towards the organisation.	Collectivists are more likely to perceive their employers' actions as unfair if the expectations of the group are not met, increasing their levels of cynicism towards the organisation and its managers.
Organisational commitment	Organisational commitment is generally lower among individualists because they tend to have less intimate relations in the workplace that mainly relate to contractual exchanges.	Organisational commitment tends to be greater among collectivist employees as they place great importance on collectivity and shared goals.

	Individualism	Collectivism
		Higher levels of both affective and normative commitment have been reported in collectivist cultures.
Union commitment	Individualistic employees value independence and are unlikely to join trade unions. When they do join unions, these unions are regarded as a means to an end (i.e. rendering services). It is thus unlikely that membership will give rise to union commitment.	Collectivity and interdependence are valued by collectivists. While they are more likely to join trade unions, their commitment to unions depends on shared beliefs and a sense of identification with the union.
Organisational citizenship behaviour	Employees with an individualistic disposition tend to have a high exchange ideology. They carefully calculate the balance in the exchange relationship and only engage in OCB if they feel that, by doing so, they are serving their own self-interest.	Employees with a collectivist disposition tend to have a low exchange ideology and derive their sense of self from the organisation. They are naturally inclined to engage in supportive and cooperative behaviour. They may engage in OCB for the "greater good" even if they receive nothing in return.
Counter-productive work behaviour	When individualists perceive an imbalance in the exchange relationship, they are likely to reciprocate by leaving the organisation rather than engaging in CWB.	Collectivists tend to remain in a relationship even if they perceive that it is imbalanced as collective needs are regarded as more important than individual needs. When collectivistic employees perceive that employer behaviour is indicative of a disregard for the contributions and well-being of their in-group, they may reciprocate by engaging in CWB to demonstrate their solidarity with the in-group.

From the above it can be surmised that individualistic and collectivistic employees will have different expectations of their employers' obligations in terms of the psychological contract. While collectivists are more concerned about relationships and value equality, individualists tend to value personal need fulfilment and equity. These differences in terms of expectations also relate to the employees' expectations in terms of justice and support. Owing to their

dispositional valuation of equality, collectivists are more inclined to form justice perceptions in the workplace.

Furthermore, employees have different ideas of what constitutes fairness, depending on their cultural disposition. For example, collectivists would regard equal reward allocation as fair, while individualists would regard it as unfair as it does not provide for recognition of individual inputs and effort. Since, collectivists are more likely to incorporate organisational membership in their self-identity, it is therefore natural for them to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour. For them, supportive employer actions will relate to a sense of belonging and the development of emotional connections with their employers. Owing to the importance placed on collectively and shared goals by collectivistic employees, one would expect their commitment towards the organisation to be high. However, their affinity towards the organisation would depend on the extent to which they identify with the organisation as an in-group. If they find that their beliefs are vastly different from those of the organisation, they may rather find a sense of belonging and need fulfilment by joining a trade union. The extent to which they actively participate in the activities of a trade union (possibly to the detriment of their commitment towards the organisation) would, however, depend on additional factors such as their level of education, age and the industry in which they work.

By contrast, individualists are less likely to incorporate organisational membership in their self-identity. Individualistic employees have a higher exchange ideology than their collectivistic counterparts and therefore place great value on a balanced exchange relationship with the employer. If they perceive that the organisation is fulfilling its commitment in terms of the exchange relationship, they are likely to reciprocate by engaging in organisational citizenship behaviour as such behaviour is likely to benefit both the organisation and, by implication, themselves. For them, supportive actions relate to opportunities for development and recognition for effort, while justice perceptions relate mainly to the fair distribution of resources. Because they value independence and self-sufficiency, they are likely to be less committed to the organisation and unlikely to join a trade union or participate in its activities.

Employees' disposition towards individualism/collectivism is also expected to impact on their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisation and its managers. Collectivist employees are likely to judge employer actions based on the morality of such actions for their in-groups and the impact of such actions on group relationships in the workplace. If they perceive that employer actions benefit their in-groups and strengthen relationships between role players, they are more likely to believe that the employer has their best interest at heart, which would increase their trust in the organisation and its managers. If, however, they see

organisational actions as self-serving and exploitative, this may lead to increased cynicism towards the organisation and its managers. Although individualists may also be sensitive towards employers' actions, their assessments of these actions are based on the perceived impact thereof on their personal interests. Owing to the emphasis that individualists place on their personal needs (as opposed to the needs of the organisation or groups in it), they would be more inclined to become cynical towards the organisation if they perceive organisational actions as self-serving. These individuals tend to have a more transactional relationship with their employing organisations and, because they value independence and self-sufficiency, they are likely to be less committed to the organisation. They will only remain in the organisation if their personal needs are met.

Cultural differences have also been reported in extant literature to impact on the way employees' react to organisational events or employer actions. For instance, collectivistic individuals would be unlikely to leave the organisation if they experience negative events as they value the relational aspects of the employment relationship and have a high regard for the duties and obligations of all parties in the relationship. They may, however, resort to counterproductive work behaviour, especially if they feel that the organisation's actions are detrimental to their in-group. However, if individualistic employees experience negative events in the workplace, they are likely to leave the organisation instead of adjusting their behaviour in the organisation.

Given the reported relationships between individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition and employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour in the workplace (OCB and CWB), it is posited that individualism/collectivism should be regarded as a moderating variable in the proposed psychological framework. It is anticipated that, by viewing individualism/collectivism as a moderating variable, a deeper and more refined understanding of the relationship between the independent, mediating and dependent variables may be obtained (Wu & Zumbo, 2008). Employees' disposition towards individualism/collectivism may therefore influence how they experience and perceive workplace events and how they react to such experiences and perceptions.

6.6 INDIVIDUALISM/COLLECTIVISM IN A SOUTH AFRICAN EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS CONTEXT

Hofstede (1980) found South Africa to be a highly individualistic society (65 on a scale of 1 to 100). The South African culture is therefore regarded as complex and heterogeneous. It is characterised by pluralism, which reflects different kinds of norms, roles, rules and values (Triandis, 1993). However, as Schwartz (2006) explains, although cultural value orientations are relatively stable (Hofstede, 2001), these may gradually change in response to shifting power relations in societies. Given the tremendous sociopolitical changes in South Africa, most notably the demise of apartheid and the first democratic elections, it is postulated that the same level of individualism described by Hofstede (1980) no longer applies.

It is acknowledged that one of the greatest limitations of cross-cultural research is that nations are treated as if they were cultures (Fiske, 2002). Countries are rarely homogeneous societies with a unified culture (Schwartz, 2006). In South Africa, a range of population groups, and therefore various cultures, are contained within a single geographical border. As shown in Chapter 2, employment relations in South Africa are characterised by conflict and adversity between these groups. The system of apartheid fostered the development of in-groups (i.e. white South Africans). The effect of this was that out-groups (the marginalised African, Indian and coloured communities) became more reliant on collectivist structures to function in an abnormal society. The environment was therefore conducive to developing collectivistic tendencies among members of these population groups (Laher, 2013). In addition, black South Africans (whose cultural roots are in Africa) are inclined to support collectivist values, including a tendency towards interdependence and the prominence placed on the community (Laher, 2013; Valchev et al., 2012; Watkins et al., 1998). These values are reflected in the uniquely South African concept *ubuntu* (loosely translated as humanness), which relates to values generally held by traditional black South Africans in their relationships with others (e.g. reverence, respect, sympathy, tolerance, loyalty, courtesy, patience, generosity, hospitality and cooperativeness) (Laher, 2013). In contrast, white South Africans, with their roots in Europe, tend to support individualistic values based on personal goals, independence, self-enhancement and competition (Györkös et al., 2013; Marcus & Le, 2013; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a; Valchev et al., 2012; Watkins et al., 1998).

It is furthermore argued that inferences about national culture depend on which subgroups are studied and that heterogeneous cultures are described in terms of the value culture of the dominant, majority group (Schwartz, 1999). In the case of South Africa, however, the

description as a highly individualistic society (Hofstede, 1980) was not based on the majority of the population (i.e. black South Africans), but resulted from a survey conducted in a single organisation (IBM) during the 1970s. Prior to the abolition of apartheid, the South African workforce consisted mainly of white males who have been reported to be more individualistic (Josephs et al., 1992; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Valchev et al., 2012; Wei, Wang et al., 2015). The current workforce, however, is far more diverse, including females and people from other population groups (Commission for Employment Equity, 2017), who have been shown to be more collectivistic in nature (Josephs et al., 1992; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Valchev et al., 2012; Wei, Wang et al., 2015). It is therefore argued that the finding that South Africa is a highly individualistic society is inaccurate. Hence, if workplaces are viewed as microcosms of the broader society in which they operate (Finnemore & Joubert, 2013), individualistic values and practices cannot be regarded as the norm.

Furthermore, it has been shown in this section that individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition may differ significantly between individuals within a particular culture or nation (Clugston et al., 2000; Cohen & Avrahami, 2006; Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Ramamoorthy & Carroll, 1998; Wagner, 1995). In the same way that one cannot assume that all South Africans have individualistic values, one cannot attribute a particular cultural disposition to an individual on the basis of his or her demographical characteristics (e.g. population group or gender). In an organisational context, cognisance should therefore be taken of individual-level differences, as individuals are likely to inject their own ideas, values and beliefs (based on their personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism) into the way they relate to others and deal with employment relations matters (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). This is evident in, for instance, the way personal dispositions towards individualism/collectivism guide managers' views of and approach to dealing with the employer-employee relationship as well as employees' inclination to join trade unions or engage behaviour driven by collectivistic values in the workplace.

In an organisational context, managers' decisions in terms of employment relations matters are guided by their personal beliefs and values (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). These beliefs and values are formed because of, inter alia, their cultural backgrounds. For example, a manager with a highly individualistic disposition will emphasise equality in the employment relationship and value employees as individuals (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011; Purcell & Gray, 1986). An individualistic manager would endorse organisational policies aimed at minimising employee costs, while acknowledging employees' needs for advancement and fulfilment. Such policies may, for instance, include promoting direct communication with individual employees; providing opportunities for personal development and advancement in the

organisation; monitoring and evaluating performance; and devising rewards that recognise individual effort (Rose, 2008). In contrast, when a collectivist approach to employment relations is followed, management recognises that some issues in the employment relationship are best dealt with on a collective basis and thus support employee participation in decision making and collective bargaining (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011; Purcell & Gray, 1986). Collectivism in an employment relations context is therefore concerned with the employers' relations with trade unions which may range from a complete disregard for representation to full partnership and cooperation (Rose, 2008).

Trade unions are founded on the sociocultural value of collectivism – by standing together workers increase their power base and improve their chances of promoting greater organisational and social justice (Nel et al., 2016). Collectivism entails emphasising the interests of and loyalty towards the in-group, referring to any group consisting of like-minded individuals with whom individuals (employees) choose to associate (Shkurko, 2015). In the workplace, these in-groups may refer to any long-term work or interest group (Laher, 2013; Zhang, Liang, & Sun, 2013) such as the organisation, as a collective, or subgroups in the organisation such as employees (vs management as the out-group), work teams or trade unions (Fitzsimmons & Stamper, 2013; Kelly & Kelly, 1994). In an employment relations context, collectivistic employees who regard trade unions as an in-group are likely to internalise the norms of the trade union, be loyal towards the trade union and enjoy doing what the trade union expects them to do, and receive social support in return (Triandis, 2001). The interests of the collective (trade union) are therefore placed above those of the individual (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012).

Because collectivists value the maintenance of social harmony and obligations to in-groups, distinctions between in-groups and out-groups are severe and significant (Forbes, Collinsworth, Zhao, Kohlman, & LeClaire, 2011; Triandis, 1993). Behaviour is mostly a function of norms resulting in differences in behaviour towards in-group and out-group members (Forbes et al., 2011; Triandis et al., 1990). Collectivists are more likely to hold out-groups (e.g. the organisation), rather than themselves, accountable for failure (Chiu, Morris, Hong, & Menon, 2000; Menon, Morris, Chiu, & Hong, 1999; Zemba, Young, & Morris, 2006), and when it comes to the distribution of resources, collectivists emphasise equality among the needs of in-group members (Triandis, 2001). Collectivists are thus more inclined to join trade unions and actively participate in their activities because they believe that, in doing so, the needs of the collective (trade union members) will be met (Finnemore & Joubert, 2013). In a unionised environment, this may imply that trade union goals and relationships are regarded as more important than organisational goals and relations with out-groups (e.g. management). It also

partly explains the willingness of trade union members to participate in activities driven by their unions (e.g. strikes), even though this could be detrimental to themselves (e.g. loss of income), as well as the persistently antagonistic relations between employers (the out-group) and trade unions (the in-group) in unionised organisations.

Finally, in Chapter 2, it was argued that employment relations should be approached in the context of social exchange theory focusing on the interdependence between the parties in the relationship. However, research has shown that employees with a collectivist disposition are less likely to base their relationship with the organisation on social exchange than employees who are disposed towards a more independent sense of self (i.e. individualistic disposition) (Triandis, 1995; Van Knippenberg et al., 2015). Individualists strive for independence, personal satisfaction and achievement. They continuously assess the costs and benefits in relationships and, if they feel that the costs exceed the benefits, they exit the relationship and move on the next. In contrast, collectivists value relationships and interdependence and are therefore more inclined to remain in a relationship even if the costs of these relationships exceed the benefits (Oyserman et al., 2002). Social exchange therefore has a smaller impact on the behaviour of collectivists in an organisational setting (Van Knippenberg et al., 2015). The implication of the distinction between individualist and collectivist employee dispositions in an organisational setting is that employers or managers cannot assume that exchange-based management practices will be equally effective for all employees (Van Knippenberg et al., 2015). Employers need to re-evaluate their management practices to accommodate both individualistic and collectivistic employees, because continuing with current practices, which mostly relate to individualistic dispositions, may not have the desired effect for employees with a more collectivist disposition. Understanding culture-driven individual differences, with a specific emphasis on dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism, is therefore not only essential in enhancing relations in the workplace, but also a key business imperative (Györkös et al., 2013; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011).

6.7 EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS

In this chapter it was established that the individualism and collectivism constructs have been prominent in organisational research following the seminal work of Hofstede (1980, 1991). The individualism/collectivism dimension of cultural variation is widely regarded as the major distinguishing characteristic when studying cultural variations in societies (Bhagat et al., 2002; Triandis, 1994, 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a). However, in this study, individualism/collectivism was regarded as the operationalisation of cultural differences at an individual level (Gelfand, Leslie, & Fehr, 2008; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011).

Despite a great deal of research on individualism/collectivism as a major dimension of cultural variation, it has mostly been used to identify differences between cultures (Hofstede, 1980, 1991; House et al., 2004; Schwartz, 1992, 1999). Less emphasis has been placed on individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition (Triandis, 1995). It is argued that, when examining the impact of individualism/collectivism on relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, it should be regarded as a personal disposition. It is furthermore proposed that, while relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace result from individual perceptions and experiences, differences in cultural dispositions (as characterised by individualism/collectivism) may potentially moderate the relationships between these variables. Examining the role of individualism/collectivism as a moderating variable in the relationship between employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences, their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, addresses the call by researchers to acknowledge the complexity of reciprocity in the exchange relationship by exploring moderators of exchange (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Van Knippenberg et al., 2015).

The main theoretical findings in terms of the individualism/collectivism construct are summarised in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3

Theoretical Integration: Individualism/collectivism

Theoretical model adopted	Triandis's (1995) conceptualisation of individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition	
Definition of individualism/collectivism	Individualism/collectivism is viewed as a personal disposition (i.e. an inherent individual characteristic), where individualism refers to an individual's tendency to value personal goals, independence, self-enhancement and competition; while in-group goals, interdependence, group enhancement and cooperation are emphasised in the case of collectivism (Györkös et al., 2013; Marcus & Le, 2013; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a).	
Core constructs	Horizontal individualism Vertical individualism Horizontal collectivism Vertical collectivism	
Person-centred variables impacting on individualism/collectivism	Job level Age Education level	Gender Population group Union membership

Individualism/collectivism as a moderating variable	<p>Individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition is expected to moderate</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the relationship between the employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and organisational cynicism and trust; • the relationship between organisational cynicism and trust and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and • the relationship relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB)
Relevance in enhancing employment relations	<p>Personal dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism impact on the way employees relate to others and behave in the workplace. They also influence the extent to which employees base their relationship with the organisation on social exchange. Employment relations policies, procedures and practices aimed at enhancing relations in the workplace will only be effective if cognisance is taken of culture-driven individual differences.</p>

From the analysis of extant research relating to individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition, as reflected in this chapter, it could be theorised that individual differences in employees' dispositions towards individualism/collectivism may serve as a moderating variable in the proposed psychological framework. It is posited that individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition influences the strength and direction of the following three relationships: (1) the relationship between the employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and organisational cynicism and trust; (2) the relationship between organisational cynicism and trust and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and (3) the relationship relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB).

6.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the final construct in the proposed psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in the South African employment relations context was conceptualised. It was posited that, individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition shape the beliefs, attitudes, self-conceptions, norms and values held by individuals. The importance of considering employees' cultural dispositions when attempting to understand how they

experience and react to organisational events in a culturally diverse society such as South Africa, was highlighted.

The following research aims in terms of the literature review were achieved in this chapter:

Literature research aim 5: To conceptualise individualism/collectivism as a moderating construct in the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations, and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB)

Literature research aim 6: To determine how the biographical characteristics of individuals (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) relate to their individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism, work-related perceptions and work experiences, their cynicism towards and trust in the organisation and their relational attitudes and behaviour (partially achieved)

The literature review is concluded in Chapter 7. The chapter provides an outline of the elements of the proposed psychological framework for improved employment relations, based on a synthesis of the theoretical relationship dynamics between the constructs and a critical evaluation of the implications of the psychological framework for employment relations practices. Recommendations are formulated to facilitate the development of high-quality employment relationships and positive relational outcomes.

CHAPTER 7: THEORETICAL INTEGRATION AND CONSTRUCTION OF A HYPOTHESISED PSYCHOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK FOR ENHANCING RELATIONAL ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR IN A SOUTH AFRICAN EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS CONTEXT

This chapter serves as a theoretical evaluation and synthesis of the constructs of relevance to the formulation of a psychological framework aimed at enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in South African organisations. Key findings relating to employees' relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace (Chapter 3) and the antecedents of these attitudes and behaviour in the form of work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) (Chapter 4) are summarised. A theoretical integration of the reported relationships between employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences and their attitudes towards and behaviour in their organisations is provided. In addition, the significance of organisational cynicism and trust as well as employees' cultural dispositions in terms of these relationships, is underscored, based on the theoretical discussion in Chapters 5 and 6. Furthermore, the influence of person-centred variables (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) on employees' perceptions, experiences, attitudes and behaviour are summarised. The synopsis of key findings informs the construction of a theoretical psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in a South African employment relations context. The implications of the proposed theoretical psychological framework for employment relations practices in South African organisations are considered.

This chapter thus provides a synthesis of the literature review, highlighting the conceptualisation of the constructs of relevance in this study, the main findings pertaining to each of these constructs and their interrelationships. Research gaps are identified and it is indicated how this study intends addressing these gaps. Hypothesised relationships between the constructs are specified, culminating in a theorised psychological framework for enhancing employee attitudes and behaviour in a South African organisational context and a description of the implications of this framework for employment relations practices. The chapter furthermore serves as a reflective evaluation of the literature review in order to determine whether the literature research aims, as identified in Chapter 1, were achieved. These aims serve as the framework for this chapter.

7.1 EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Literature research aim 1: To conceptualise employment relations in the South African organisational context

This study was conducted in the context of South African employment relations. The first step in the literature review was therefore to outline the metatheoretical context that forms the definitive boundary of the research. In Chapter 2, it was shown that employment relations is regarded as a complex and dynamic field of study and practice, with the employment relationship at its core (Kaufman, 2014). This relationship is multifaceted. It includes both individual and collective dimensions (Arrowsmith & Pulignano, 2013; Fritz et al., 2013; Iles, 2013; Williams, 2014) and incorporates conflict and cooperation between a variety of role players (Nel et al., 2016; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012).

For the purposes of this study, employment relations was defined as the study of all aspects that affect and impact on the employment relationship and the parties in this relationship, with the aim of finding fair ways to balance, integrate, reconcile and regulate both the mutual and opposing interests of these parties to the benefit of organisations, individuals in them and the societies in which they operate (Bendix, 2015; Budd & Bhave, 2008; Dundon & Rollinson, 2011; Farnham & Pimlott, 1995; Kaufman, 2014; Nel et al., 2016; Poole, 1986; Venter et al., 2014). This definition reflects a broader view of employment relations as advocated in contemporary literature (e.g. Arrowsmith & Pulignano, 2013; Fritz et al., 2013; Iles, 2013; Williams, 2014). While the existence of conflict in the employer-employee relationship is acknowledged, a belief in the compatibility of employer and employee interests (i.e. finding ways to enhance organisational effectiveness, while at the same time fulfilling workers socioemotional needs) prevails (Kochan, 1980; Rothmann & Cooper, 2015). It is suggested that employment relations in South Africa should move away from its overtly formal and highly institutionalised nature (i.e. focusing on the institutional infrastructure in which the parties operate) and its emphasis on conflict and collective relationships (Kaufman, 2008; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). Employment relations literature should draw on behavioural sciences theory in an attempt to better understand the development and effect of employer-employee relationships (Kaufman, 2014).

Drawing on social exchange theory as the overarching theoretical lens, it is argued that positive employee attitudes and behaviour can be encouraged by establishing high-quality exchange relationships with employees (Blau, 1964; Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). Social exchange theory posits that employees seek a fair and balanced relationship with their

employing organisations. Hence, they continuously assess the costs and benefits associated with their employment relationship (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). If they perceive an imbalance in the relationship, they adjust their attitudes and behaviour in order to restore balance (Parzefall, 2008). Social exchange theory thus provides a theoretical foundation for understanding how employees are likely to respond when they experience particular events in the workplace (Cropanzano & Baron, 1991; Hochwarter et al., 2003a; Li et al., 2014; Turnley et al., 2003). It is postulated that high-quality exchange relationships can be established if organisations understand their employees' expectations in terms of the employment relationship and make a sincere effort to meet these expectations (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). Greater emphasis should thus be placed on mutual interdependency and concern, which are the essence of social exchange relations, and the exchange of socioemotional currencies such as trust, fairness and support (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Li & Thatcher, 2015).

Employment relations in a South African organisational context were clearly outlined in Chapter 2. The first literature research aim was thus achieved. It was shown that, although a broader conceptualisation of employment relations has found support in South African literature, it has not yet been operationalised by incorporating different dimensions of the employment relationship in a single study. This study should contribute to employment relations research by operationalising a broader conceptualisation of employment relations as a field of study and practice. It is anticipated that, by focusing on the individual and informal dimensions of employment relations (which have received limited attention in extant employment relations literature), while incorporating collective aspects such as union membership, union commitment and union-related behaviour, a more comprehensive understanding may be gained of the organisational factors that shape employer-employee relations and influence organisational success.

7.2 RELATIONAL ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR AS A SET OF RELATIONAL OUTCOMES OR CONSEQUENCES IN EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS

Literature research aim 2: *To conceptualise relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a set of relational outcomes or consequences in employment relations*

In Chapter 3, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), as supported by psychological contract theory (Rousseau, 1989, 1995), was relied upon to gain a better understanding of how relationships between employees and their employing organisations develop and how positive

employment relationships can be maintained. The behavioural focus was on discretionary employee behaviour in the workplace, which may be either positive (OCB) or negative (CWB) in nature. These forms of behaviour were shown to be essential relational outcomes in employment relations as they shape the organisational, social and psychological context in which employers and employees operate, thereby affecting the functioning of the organisation (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994).

In terms of relational attitudes in the workplace, the emphasis was on employees' emotional attachment to and willingness to make an effort on behalf of two potentially conflicting entities that are regarded as key role players in an employment relations context, namely their employing organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997) and trade unions (Gordon & Nurick, 1981). Organisational commitment was presented not only as a relational outcome, but also as a significant predictor of both OCB (Cetin et al., 2015; Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016) and CWB (Demir, 2011; Wang, 2015). It was furthermore anticipated that trade union members' commitment to their unions might influence not only their commitment to their employing organisations (Redman & Snape, 2016), but also the likelihood that they would engage in discretionary behaviour in the workplace (Meyer & Morin, 2016).

Following the rationale that discretionary behaviour should be regarded as the main relational outcome in the suggested framework, this section commences with an evaluation and synthesis of the main findings in the literature review relating to OCB and CWB. The way in which OCB and CWB, as contrasting forms of discretionary employee behaviour, are conceptualised is reiterated. This is followed by a critical assessment of organisational and union commitment as relational outcomes in employment relations. The relationships between OCB, CWB, organisational commitment and union commitment, as reported in extant literature, are shown. Gaps in the literature are identified, and the ways in which this study endeavoured to address these gaps, are specified.

7.2.1 Discretionary employee behaviour as relational outcomes in employment relations

In Chapter 3 it was shown that discretionary employee behaviour is of particular importance for organisational success in today's fast-changing business environment (Bester et al., 2015; Reynolds et al., 2015; Weikamp & Göritz, 2016). Extant literature has revealed that both positive (OCB) and negative (CWB) discretionary behaviour may influence organisational-level outcomes such as productivity and efficiency (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Dalal et al.,

2009; Lee & Allen, 2002; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Shoss et al., 2016) as well as individual-level outcomes such as job satisfaction or intention to quit (Berry et al., 2012; Cohen, 2016; Shoss et al., 2016; Whelpley & McDaniel, 2016). While the significance of discretionary employee behaviour in the workplace is thus acknowledged, the relational nature of these behaviours has received inadequate attention in the literature (Zhu, 2016). There is a dearth of research on how desirable discretionary behaviour can be encouraged in an employment relations context (Moorman & Byrne, 2005; Park, 2018).

This study thus regarded OCB and CWB from an employment relations perspective, arguing that a willingness to engage in OCB and a tendency to refrain from engaging in CWB reflect constructive employer-employee relations, which is central to sustained organisational effectiveness (Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016). These behaviours either enhance (OCB) or detract from (CWB) organisational functioning (Reynolds et al., 2015).

OCB and CWB were regarded as theoretically distinct constructs rather than opposite ends of a continuum (Dalal, 2005; Kelloway et al., 2002; Ng et al., 2016; Sackett et al., 2006). OCB reflects constructive behaviour that employees engage in over and above their formally agreed-upon tasks. These actions are intended to positively contribute to the functioning of the organisation and/or people in it (Carpenter et al., 2014; Organ, 1997). The differentiation in terms of the intended beneficiaries of the behaviour is reflected in a two-dimensional conceptualisation of OCB, including OCB directed towards the organisation (OCB-O) and OCB directed towards individuals in it (OCB-I) (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) was conceptualised as intentional acts that harm organisations or people in them or run counter to an organisation's legitimate interests (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Skarlicki & Latham, 1997). CWB thus refers to a broad range of detrimental employee behaviours that manifest over an extended period and are specifically aimed at harming the organisation or individuals in it (Marcus et al., 2016; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Spector & Fox, 2010). A single, isolated act or an accidental act by an employee without the intent to harm is therefore not regarded as CWB (Sackett & DeVore, 2001). However, participation in union-related (i.e. collective) activities that may be detrimental to the organisation or individuals in it (e.g. strikes, picketing or protest action) is regarded as CWB, because such actions are likely to cause harm to the organisation and its stakeholders (Monnot et al., 2011).

This study relied on Robinson and Bennett's (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Robinson & Bennett, 1995, 1997) taxonomy and operationalisation of deviant workplace behaviour to conceptualise and measure CWB. CWB was thus regarded as a two-dimensional construct, consisting of interpersonal CWB (CWB-I) and organisational CWB (CWB-O) (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Robinson & Bennett, 1995, 1997). While the former is directed at other employees (e.g. physical or verbal aggression and other forms of interpersonal mistreatment), the latter is aimed at the organisation, and includes theft, sabotage, withdrawal of work efforts, and any other type of behaviour that is harmful to the organisation (Berry et al., 2007; Jensen & Patel, 2011; Mount et al., 2006; Sharkawi et al., 2013).

By adopting a target-similarity approach (Lavelle et al., 2007) to OCB and CWB, this study addressed the expressed need for research aimed at establishing a better understanding of the distinct antecedents of employee behaviour depending on the nature (positive or negative discretionary behaviour) and target (organisation or individuals) of the behaviours (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). The study furthermore addressed the lack of research integrating OCB and CWB in a single study in order to comprehend not only the relationships of these two opposing forms of behaviour with selected antecedents, but also the potential interactions between them (Dalal, 2005; Fox et al., 2012; Spector et al., 2010). In addition, this drew on Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model of CWB behaviour to argue that, when employees experience stressors in their working environment, such as injustice and a lack of support, they are likely to respond with negative emotions such as those associated with psychological contract violation and cynicism. These negative emotions may, in turn, enhance the likelihood of them engaging in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or people in the organisation (CWB). This is especially true in organisational environments where employees feel apprehensive and powerless to deal with stressors.

The aim of this study was therefore to contribute to organisational behaviour and employment relations literature by gleaning a comprehensive understanding of the antecedents of both positive (OCB) and negative (CWB) discretionary behaviour in the workplace. Although it was acknowledged that these behaviours may have additional antecedents, the focus in this study was on relational elements (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) that might influence the extent to which employees engage in either OCB or CWB. By its very nature, discretionary behaviour cannot be mandatory or enforced by means of contracts of employment (Methot et al., 2017). Therefore, organisations need to find ways in which employees can be encouraged to engage in positive discretionary behaviour and discouraged to engage in behaviour that may be detrimental to the organisation or people in it. Drawing on social exchange theory, it was argued that this can be achieved by creating high-quality

exchange relationships between employees and their employing organisations (Colquitt et al., 2013; Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012). Employers should therefore create an environment in which employees feel valued and supported (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Appreciating and addressing employees' socioemotional needs were expected to enhance their perceptions of the quality of the social exchange relationships they hold with their employing organisations, and ultimately to benefit both the organisation and its employees (Zhang et al., 2017).

This study should contribute to organisational behaviour and employment relations literature by incorporating both OCB and CWB in a single study and viewing these discretionary behaviours from an employment relations perspective. By focusing on the perceived quality of social exchange relationships, and investigating the relationships of a single set of antecedents with both positive (OCB) and negative (CWB) discretionary behaviour, the study endeavoured to gain an understanding of the antecedents of discretionary employee behaviour. It furthermore differentiated between the organisation and individuals in it as the intended targets of behaviour in order to establish whether there are differential effects between the antecedents of behaviour and behaviour directed at different targets. The study also incorporated collective actions aimed at promoting the interests of trade union members as a particular category of CWB in order to determine whether such behaviours are influenced by the perceived quality of the employer-employee relationship.

7.2.2 Organisational commitment and union commitment as relational outcomes in employment relations

Since this study relates to the relationship between employees and their employing organisations, the attitudinal focus is on the level of commitment that employees experience towards these organisations. For the purposes of this study, organisational commitment was conceptualised as a psychological state that portrays an employee's affective attachment to his or her employing organisation as a single anthropomorphic entity (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). This psychological state is characterised by three mind-sets reflecting an identification with the organisation's goals and values, a willingness to exert effort on the organisation's behalf and an intention to remain with the organisation for an extended period (Meyer & Allen, 1988, 1991, 1997). These mind-sets provide impetus for the conceptualisation of organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct comprising the following three dimensions (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997):

- Affective commitment (AC) reflects an employee's desire to remain a member of an organisation because of his or her emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in that organisation.
- Continuance commitment (CC) relates to a desire to remain a member of an organisation because of an awareness of the costs associated with leaving it and/or the lack of comparable alternative employment opportunities.
- Normative commitment (NC) relates to an employee's perceived obligation to remain with his or her employing organisation.

Extant research has shown that organisational commitment is positively related to OCB (Lavelle, Brockner, et al., 2009) and negatively related to CWB (Banks et al., 2012). Furthermore, all three forms or components of organisational commitment have been reported to influence employees' behaviour in the workplace, but in different ways (Brooks, 2012; Demir, 2011; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012). Employees' affective commitment (AC) to their employing organisations has consistently been identified as the strongest predictor of discretionary behaviour and has thus been the main commitment focus of OCB and CWB research (Colquitt et al., 2013; Tremblay et al., 2010). Positive, albeit weaker, relations have also been reported between employees' moral obligation to stay with their employing organisations (NC) and their willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour (OCB), especially in collectivistic societies (Akoto, 2014; Cetin et al., 2015; Felfe et al., 2008). While the relationship between organisational commitment and CWB has received less attention in the literature, there is evidence of negative relationships between all three components of commitment (AC, CC and NC), with AC again showing the strongest relationship (Demir, 2011). Research on the relationship between CC and OCB has produced conflicting results, with some researchers reporting positive relationships (e.g. Moorman et al., 1993) and others insignificant or even negative relationships (Meyer et al., 2002; Somers, 2010).

While it is thus acknowledged in extant literature that the various components of organisational commitment (AC, CC and NC) have differential effects on employee behaviour, empirical research on the behavioural consequences of organisational commitment has mainly focused on the independent or additive contributions of the three components (Kam et al., 2016). It has, however, been suggested that the three components of organisational commitment may have an interactive or synergistic effect on behaviour (Jaros, 1997; Randall et al., 1990; Somers, 1995). As a result, contemporary organisational commitment researchers adopt a person-centred approach in an attempt to better understand the complexity of the relationships between AC, CC, NC and behaviour (Kam et al., 2016; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Meyer, Stanley,

& Parfyonova, 2012; Meyer, Stanley, et al., 2013; Wang & Hanges, 2011; Zyphur, 2009). This approach supports the expectation that commitment profiles, reflecting different combinations of AC, CC and NC, may be formed and that employees experience these profiles differently (Meyer, Stanley, et al., 2013; Sinclair et al., 2005). Extant literature has suggested that there are optimal commitment profiles that encourage desirable employee behaviour in a particular workplace (Kabins et al., 2016). Fully committed, AC/NC-dominant, and AC-dominant profiles have shown the strongest associations with discretionary behaviour (both OCB and CWB, but in opposite directions) (Kam et al., 2016; Meyer et al., 2015; Somers, 2009, 2010; Wasti, 2005). The poorest outcomes tend to be associated with the uncommitted and CC-dominant profiles (Kam et al., 2016; Morin et al., 2015).

By considering organisational commitment as a potential predictor of both positive (OCB) and negative (CWB) discretionary behaviour in the workplace, this study endeavoured to address the imbalance in extant literature that tends to focus mainly on the organisational commitment-OCB relationship (Cetin et al., 2015; Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016; Demir, 2011; Wang, 2015). This contributed to a more comprehensive understanding of how employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace are formed. In addition, this study did not rely solely on AC as an indication of employees' commitment towards their employing organisations. Instead, it set out to examine how the interaction between the three components of commitment may shape the context in which organisational commitment is experienced and how it ultimately relates to discretionary employee behaviour (Gellatly et al., 2006; Kabins et al., 2016; Kam et al., 2016; Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Morin et al., 2016, 2015; Stanley et al., 2013). The literature review showed that organisations hoping to encourage OCB and discourage CWB in their workplaces by enhancing organisational commitment, should consider the prevalence, development and experience of various commitment profiles rather than individual dimensions of organisational commitment in isolation (Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012).

However, this study did not only focus on the predictive role that organisational commitment plays in shaping discretionary workplace behaviour, but also examined how commitment is formed. Drawing on Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) conceptualisation of the three components of organisational commitment, it was anticipated that AC, CC and NC would have different antecedents. While AC is increased by positive work experiences and NC is enhanced when reciprocal obligations in the employment relationship are met, CC exists when employees involuntarily remain with their employing organisations because of limited alternative employment options or the value derived from benefits received (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). It could thus be expected that employees' experiences and perceptions in the

workplace might influence the development of commitment profiles (Kabins et al., 2016). It was anticipated that optimal commitment profiles exist that would encourage desirable employee behaviour in a particular workplace (Kabins et al., 2016). Hence, it was deemed necessary to determine how organisations can contribute to the development of such profiles (Somers, 2009).

In an employment relations context, however, it was anticipated that employees' commitment profiles reflect not only the nature of their commitment to their employing organisations (i.e. their organisational commitment profiles) (Meyer & Morin, 2016), but also the extent to which they hold commitments towards trade unions (Cooper et al., 2016; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Olsen et al., 2016). This study drew on Gordon et al.'s (1980a) widely used conceptualisation of union commitment, viewing union commitment as an individual's desire to remain a member of the union, a willingness to exert effort on the union's behalf and a belief in and acceptance of the union's goals. Union commitment was thus regarded as a four-dimensional construct consisting of (1) union loyalty, (2) responsibility to the union, (3) willingness to work for the union and belief in unionism (Gordon et al., 1980a). These dimensions were expected to have a synergistic effect on trade union members' behaviour in and towards their employing organisations (Kelloway et al., 1992; Tetrick et al., 1989; Thacker et al., 1989).

Although one would expect employees' commitment to their employing organisations and trade unions (two potentially conflicting targets) to be interrelated and to mutually influence each other (Cooper et al., 2016; Meyer, Stanley, et al., 2013), no research has been conducted on dual commitment in a South African employment relations context. In this study, it was reiterated that organisations should not attempt to restrict union membership because this would infringe on employees' constitutionally protected rights. Instead, organisations need to prevent unilateral commitment to a trade union as this may be detrimental to the organisation and/or individuals in it (Redman & Snape, 2016; Wasti et al., 2016). It was furthermore posited that, in workplaces where trade unions are present, dual commitment to the organisation and trade union may be beneficial to the organisation (Redman & Snape, 2016). Dual commitment to these entities, however, is only possible where positive management-union relations exist (Cohen, 2005; Magenau et al., 1988). If these relations are negative and antagonistic, dual commitment is unlikely (Angle & Perry, 1986). In adversarial employment relations conditions, employees are thus compelled to direct their loyalties to either the organisation or trade union or even to commit to neither of these entities (Lee, 2004). In an employment relations context, it was therefore deemed imperative to find ways in which organisational commitment can be maintained even when trade unions are present. In this study, it was postulated that this could

be achieved by finding ways of enhancing employees' perceptions of the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employing organisations.

Within the domains of organisational and union commitment, another factor was identified that has received inadequate attention in extant literature, namely the extent to which commitment to one target may have an impact on behaviour directed at a different target (Meyer et al., 1993; Meyer, Stanley, et al., 2013; Vandenberghe, 2009). Although it can realistically be expected that union commitment will contribute to union-related outcomes (e.g. participation in union activities or working for the union) that may inadvertently be detrimental to the organisation or individuals in it (e.g. participation in strikes, often associated with violence) (Bamberger et al., 1999; Barling, Fullagar, Kelloway, et al., 1992; Deery et al., 2014; Fiorito et al., 2015; Kelloway & Barling, 1993; Monnot et al., 2011; Snape et al., 2000; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995; Tan & Aryee, 2002; Wöcke & Marais, 2016), it is less obvious that union commitment may influence desirable organisation-related outcomes. However, unpredicted positive relationships between union commitment and OCB towards both the organisation (OCB-O) and individuals in it (OCB-I) have been reported (Deery et al., 2014; Redman & Snape, 2016). These results suggest that an individual's commitment to a trade union does not necessarily impede his or her commitment to the organisation or participation in activities that are beneficial to the organisation, but that other determinants of commitment and behaviour exist.

It was furthermore shown that employees who regard employment relations in unionised organisations as positive, would be more likely to credit both the employer and the trade union for the positive outcome (Redman & Snape, 2016). Drawing on social exchange theory, one would therefore expect these employees to reciprocate by increasing their commitment towards the organisation and the union, which is seen as working towards outcomes that would benefit both the organisation and its employees (Deery et al., 2014). This, in turn, is likely to result in positive workplace behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation and individuals in it. Hence, it is posited that, instead of searching for ways to circumvent trade unions in the workplace (i.e. decreasing union commitment), employers may benefit by embracing them. A positive correlation between these two foci of commitment is likely to result in a positive ER climate where active participation in union-related activities is not discouraged but regarded as essential in building better employer-employee relations (Fuller & Hester, 1998).

While it was thus acknowledged that different antecedents exist for organisational and union commitment, cognisance was taken of the well established relationship between employees'

perceptions of the labour-management relationship and dual commitment towards the organisation and union (Angle & Perry, 1986; Redman & Snape, 2016; Wasti et al., 2016). It was consequently postulated that those relational variables that contribute towards employees' perceptions of the quality of their exchange relationship with their employing organisations (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) would influence their commitment towards both the organisation and the trade union. Trade union members who experience a positive employment relations environment, are likely to attribute this to both the union and the employer. It was therefore expected that high-quality exchange relationships, marked by high levels of organisational support and justice and fulfilment of employee expectations in terms of the psychological contract, would encourage dual commitment (i.e. high commitment to the organisation and union) in a unionised environment. In contrast, it was argued that employee perceptions of a poor-quality exchange relationship with their employing organisations (i.e. low levels of trust, lack of support and fairness, and disregard for reciprocal obligations) would place higher value on trade union membership as the union would be deemed instrumental in addressing the negative aspects of the employment relationship. This, in turn, would create a unilateral commitment to the union, resulting in undesirable employee behaviour (Beauvais et al., 1991).

From the preceding summary of the main outcomes of Chapter 3, it may be deduced that the second aim of the literature review, was successfully met. Drawing on extant literature, relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) were conceptualised in a South African employment relations context with due regard for the seminal theories informing the conceptualisation and operationalisation of these constructs. Furthermore, the relationships between these attitudinal and behavioural constructs were reported in order to position them as a set of interrelated outcome variables in the proposed psychological framework.

7.3 WORK-RELATED PERCEPTIONS AND WORK EXPERIENCES AS ANTECEDENTS OF RELATIONAL ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR

Literature research aim 3: To conceptualise work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as a set of antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour

Extant literature has shown that individuals' discretionary behaviour in the workplace relates more closely to their work-related attitudes and cognitive appraisal of workplace events than to their disposition or personality characteristics (Methot et al., 2017; Organ, 1990a). Hence,

employees who are committed to their employing organisations, experience good interpersonal relations in the workplace and feel that they are treated fairly are more likely to engage in positive discretionary behaviour (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Konovsky, 2000; Lavelle et al., 2007; Özbek et al., 2016). In contrast, employees who experience their working environments as unjust and unsupportive are more likely to withhold positive discretionary behaviour as a means of retribution (Alfonso et al., 2016; Rupp et al., 2013; Thornton & Rupp, 2016) or to reciprocate by engaging in CWB (Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano, Byrne, et al., 2001; Lavelle et al., 2007; Lee & Allen, 2002; Thornton & Rupp, 2016). High-quality social exchange relationships have, however, been shown to not only increase the likelihood that employees will engage in desired behaviour in the workplace, but also mitigate the adverse effect of negative workplace events (Mai et al., 2016; Zhu, 2016).

Based on this rationale, and drawing on social exchange and psychological contract theories, it was posited in Chapter 4 that employees' perceptions of the extent to which their expectations in terms of their psychological contracts with their employees are fulfilled and the levels of support and justice in the organisation may influence the quality of the exchange relationship. Employees' perceptions of the social exchange relationship they have with their employing organisation were expected to shape their attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation.

7.3.1 The psychological contract and its impact on relational attitudes and behaviour

The psychological contract is defined as an individual's beliefs about the mutual obligations between the individual, as an employee, and his or her employer (as a single anthropomorphic entity) in the workplace, in addition to those outlined in the formal contract of employment (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1989). It reflects employees' perceptions of the promissory obligations held by their employers rather than their general preconceived expectations of the employment relationship (Dawson et al., 2014; Fu & Cheng, 2014). The psychological contract thus constitutes an unspoken exchange agreement between the employee and his or her employer (Rousseau, 1995), reflecting employees' beliefs and perceptions regarding the implicit and explicit undertakings that form the basis of their relationships with their employers. It defines what they expect to receive from their employer and what they are obliged to contribute in return (Alcover et al., 2017b). The psychological contract was deemed an essential feature in this study as it highlights the reciprocal nature of the employment relationship (Robinson & Morrison, 1995) and provides a conceptual and analytical framework, which enables the researcher to investigate employees' work-related

perceptions, attitudes and behaviour (Andersson, 1996; Coyle-Shapiro & Parzefall, 2008; Van der Vaart et al., 2013).

In an employment relations context, it was deemed especially relevant to focus on instances in which employees perceive that the organisation has failed to fulfil its obligations in terms of the psychological contract, even though they have upheld their side of the agreement (i.e. psychological contract breach) (Agarwal, 2014; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 2000). The emphasis was specifically on the employer's perceived failure to meet its obligations, rather than the extent to which obligations are fulfilled, as the former has been shown to have a greater influence on outcomes compared with the latter (Conway et al., 2011).

However, it was not sufficient to focus only on the perceived breach as an employee's cognitive assessment of the balance in the social exchange relationship (Griep et al., 2016). Extant literature suggests that a perceived psychological contract breach is frequently accompanied by an affective reaction (Alcover et al., 2017a). This reaction, termed a "psychological contract violation", is regarded as an employee's emotional response, following the belief that the organisation has failed to meet one or more of its obligations in terms of the psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Employees who feel that they have fulfilled their obligations in terms of the psychological contract, but perceive that their employer has not reciprocated their actions, may experience feelings of frustration, betrayal, anger, resentment, a sense of injustice and wrongful harm (Griep et al., 2016). Thus, employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace are influenced not only by their beliefs that a breach of contract has taken place, but also by their affective reaction to such a breach (Robinson, 1996; Suazo et al., 2005).

This study has contributed to existing psychological contract theory, by exploring employees' cognitive and affective reactions to perceived imbalances in the social exchange relationship with their employing organisations (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989; Suazo et al., 2005; Zhao et al., 2007). It was posited that employees who perceive a breach of the psychological contract may experience lower levels of commitment to their employing organisations (Bal et al., 2008; Bal, De Lange, Zacher, et al., 2013; Lapalme et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2007). In unionised workplaces, these employees may decide to direct their loyalties towards the trade union, believing that the union will be more successful in fulfilling their expectations than their employing organisations (Turnley et al., 2004). In addition, such employees may be less prepared to engage in OCB (Bal et al., 2010; Lapalme et al., 2011; López Bohle et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2007) and more likely to engage in CWB (Chiu & Peng, 2008). Drawing on target-similarity theory (Lavelle et al., 2007), one would expect their

reciprocal behaviour to be directed towards the organisation (OCB-O and CWB-O), rather than individuals in it (OCB-I and CWB-I) (Chiu & Peng, 2008; Lee et al., 2014).

It was posited that employees' attitudinal and behavioural reactions to perceived imbalances in their social exchange relationships with their employing organisations may be exacerbated if a perceived psychological contract breach is accompanied by an intense emotional reaction (i.e. psychological contract violation) (Griep et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2007). This study attempted to promote a more comprehensive understanding of the antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace by distinguishing between psychological contract breach and violation as two related but independent constructs. The relative impact of both psychological contract breach and violation on relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) was explored. It was deemed essential to differentiate between psychological contract breach and violation as it has been reported that employees' behaviour is influenced by their affective reaction (e.g. feelings of frustration, betrayal, anger and resentment) to perceived breaches of their psychological contracts by their employing organisations rather than the perceived breach per se (Griep et al., 2016). Although it is not always possible to avoid employees' perceptions that their psychological contracts have been breached, their feelings of anger and betrayal (i.e. psychological contract violation) can be mitigated if organisational representatives deal with the perceived contract breach fairly, honestly and respectfully (Robinson & Morrison, 2000).

7.3.2 Perceived organisational justice (POJ) as an antecedent of relational attitudes and behaviour

Perceived organisational justice refers to employees' perceptions of the fairness of treatment received from the organisation and their reactions (attitudes and behaviour) to those perceptions in an organisational context (Greenberg, 1987; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013). It therefore relates to an employee's observation of the employer's (represented by a number of role players in the organisation) adherence to normative justice rules. These rules are reflected in the following three dimensions of justice (Adams, 1965; Bies, 2001; Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt et al., 2005; Greenberg, 1987; Leventhal, 1976; Thibaut & Walker, 1975):

- distributive justice, which refers to the fairness of outcomes received by employees
- procedural justice, which concerns the fairness of procedures used to determine the outcomes received by employees

- interactional justice, which relates to the fairness of treatment in terms of the distribution of resources and everyday interactions provided by the organisation or its representatives

Perceived organisational justice was thus regarded as a three-dimensional construct reflecting an affect-laden subjective employee experience (Taggar & Kuron, 2016), which is reactive in nature and focuses on the employee's response to perceived fair or unfair treatment in the workplace (Greenberg, 1987). Employees' justice perceptions are informed by a subjective assessment of what they receive from the organisation in comparison with what others receive, both inside and outside the organisation (Stouffer et al., 1949). Employees also judge their employer's actions in terms of their own expectations (Homans, 1961). They expect to receive certain returns (e.g. fair remuneration, benefits and status) on the investments (e.g. effort, loyalty and commitment) they make in the organisation. Their judgements in terms of justice, however, are not only dependent on the equitable distribution of resources (distributive justice), but also on the procedures used by the employer to make decisions in terms of the distribution process (procedural justice) and the quality of interpersonal treatment received from the employer (interactional justice) (Bies & Moag, 1986; Moorman, 1991).

When employees conclude that their expectations have not been met (i.e. inequity in resource allocation, procedural unfairness or unfair treatment by organisational representatives), this is expected to give rise to reciprocal actions (Adams, 1965). These actions may be either cognitive (e.g. re-evaluating expectations), attitudinal (e.g. decreasing their loyalty and commitment to the organisation) or behavioural (e.g. reducing task or discretionary effort) in nature (Adams, 1965). Employees' judgements in terms of the three justice dimensions (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) were expected to have differentiating effects on outcomes, with interactional and procedural justice perceptions expected to be the strongest predictors of relational outcomes (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). Employees' perceptions of justice may also alter their interpretation of and affective reactions to a psychological contract breach and hence its impact on their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Cassar & Buttigieg, 2015; Turnley & Feldman, 1999).

Although the three dimensions of justice are widely accepted in extant literature and the predictive relationships between POJ and various attitudinal and behavioural outcomes have been explored, there is a paucity of research adopting an integrative approach by incorporating all three organisational justice dimensions in a single study. However, it was anticipated that by incorporating all three dimensions of organisational justice (procedural, distributive and interactional justice) in a single study, a more comprehensive understanding

of the differential impact that employees' perceptions of each of these dimensions may have on relational outcomes would be gained. Furthermore, while justice has been hailed as a cornerstone of employment relations (Nel et al., 2016), and the potential negative effect of perceived injustice on employee attitudes and behaviour has been a common research focus, little attention has been paid to the potential influence of perceived injustice in the workplace on employees' commitment towards a trade union. This study endeavoured to contribute to employment relations literature by exploring this crossover effect – hence the focus not only on the nature of the relationships between the various dimensions of organisational justice and organisational commitment, but also on its relationship with union commitment.

7.3.3 Perceived organisational support (POS) as an antecedent of relational attitudes and behaviour

Perceived organisational support (POS) was conceptualised in Chapter 4 as an affect-free cognition (Wayne et al., 2009), which encompasses the degree to which employees perceive that the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 500). It was shown that employees' perceptions of organisational support reflect their evaluation of the organisation's role in the exchange relationship and are essential components of the social exchange process as these perceptions influence how they reciprocate in terms of attitudes and behaviour (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990, 1997, 2001). The value that employees assign to the support received, however, will depend on the organisation's sincerity, the discretionary nature of the support provided as well as the consistency thereof (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990; Teoh et al., 2016).

It was furthermore postulated that POS may be regarded as an indication of the quality of exchange relationships (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The caring, approval and respect associated with POS fulfil employees' socioemotional needs. POS, in turn, creates an employee obligation to care about and be loyal to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991) and to assist it in achieving its objectives (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Rousseau, 1995). Employees reciprocate such obligations with increased loyalty towards and effort in the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 2001). A high level of POS therefore increases an employee's commitment (most notably affective commitment) to the organisation and creates the expectation that expending greater effort in organisational goal achievement will be recognised and rewarded (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Suazo & Turnley, 2010).

Extant literature has shown indisputable support for the positive relationship between POS and affective commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Although the other forms of commitment have attracted less attention in POS research, a positive relationship between POS and normative commitment (Kurtessis et al., 2017) and a negative relationship between POS and continuance commitment (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Tetrick, 1991) have been reported. There is also limited research on the influence of POS on the development of commitment profiles (Kabins et al., 2016). While it has been suggested that higher levels of POS may be linked to optimal commitment profiles (i.e. fully committed, AC/NC dominant or AC-dominant), this aspect of the POS-commitment relationships has not yet received sufficient attention (Meyer et al., 2015). This study incorporated all three dimensions of organisational commitment (AC, NC and CC) in the proposed framework in order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the potential discrepancies in terms of the strength and the direction of the relationship between POS and each of the three dimensions of organisational commitment.

When examining the POS-commitment relationship, it is also essential to consider the value employees ascribe to employers' supportive actions. Employees tend to place higher value on the support received from their employers if the actions taken are voluntary, thereby reflecting a positive valuation of the employee (Eisenberger et al., 1997). If, however, employees perceive that the support results from trade union pressure or collective action, they will assign less value to this support (Eisenberger et al., 1997). Instead they will ascribe the support received to the trade union, and in terms of the norm of reciprocity, will be more inclined to direct their loyalties to the trade union (Thacker, 2015). Thus, employees who feel that their socioemotional needs are addressed by a union, rather than their employing organisations, will be more inclined to direct their loyalties and commitment to the trade union (Redman & Snape, 2016; Turnley et al., 2004). Therefore, although a negative relationship between supportive employer practices and union commitment is plausible (Redman & Snape, 2016; Turnley et al., 2004), this aspect of employer-employee relations has not attracted sufficient research attention. This study thus incorporated both organisational and union commitment in the proposed framework in order to explore the differential effects of POS on commitment to these two, potentially opposing, entities.

In addition, it was shown in Chapter 4 that POS may be positively associated with discretionary employee behaviour that benefits the organisation (Kim et al., 2016). High POS thus induces employee commitment to the organisation's goals and values and a willingness to engage in discretionary behaviour that benefits the organisation or individuals in it (OCB) (Chênevert et al., 2015). In contrast, employees who do not receive the anticipated support from their

employing organisation, may be less likely to engage in OCB and may even be more inclined to engage in behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or people in it (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012). Because employees regard supportive organisational actions towards the employing organisation as a single entity (rather than to individuals in the organisation) (Tekleab & Chiaburu, 2011), it is plausible that perceived support will be reciprocated by positive attitudes and behaviour aimed at their employing organisations (e.g. organisational commitment and OCB-O) (Lemmon & Wayne, 2015). Similarly, a perceived lack of support may give rise to actions aimed at harming the organisation (CWB-O).

It has been shown, however, that employees who perceive that their organisations value them and care about their well-being, are not only more inclined to trust the employers' intentions, but are more willing to engage in behaviour intended to benefit the organisation. These employees are also more likely to assist their co-workers (OCB-I) as this will ultimately contribute to the success of the organisation. Negative, albeit weaker relations, between POS and detrimental behaviour aimed at individuals (CWB-I) have also been reported as employees may hold particular individuals (e.g. supervisors or managers) responsible for a lack of organisational support. Although positive relationships between POS and both OCB-O and OCB-I were therefore expected, it was anticipated that the relationship would be stronger for organisationally directed behaviour (OCB-O). Similarly, POS was expected to negatively relate to both CWB-O and CWB-I, but the relationship with organisationally directed behaviour was expected to be stronger. In this study, it was thus deemed necessary to differentiate between discretionary behaviour directed towards the organisation (OCB-O and CWB-O) and individuals in it (OCB-I and CWB-I) in order to gain a richer understanding of the influence of POS on employee behaviour. It was anticipated that the relationships would be stronger for organisationally directed behaviour than for individually directed behaviour.

In conclusion, it was determined in Chapter 4 that, although employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) display some similarities in that they are all grounded in social exchange (Blau, 1964) and rely on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) as the explanatory theoretical framework for their impact on employee attitudes and behaviour, they remain distinct constructs (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). It was furthermore established that each of these constructs may be regarded as essential indicators of the quality of the social exchange relationship between an employee and employer (Colquitt et al., 2014). Employees' perceptions of the quality of the exchange relationship are therefore influenced not only by the extent to which their employers are perceived to fulfil their obligations in terms of the psychological contract, but also the perceived levels of justice demonstrated by and support received from the organisation (Alcover et al.,

2017a; Rosen et al., 2009; Tekleab et al., 2005). It was posited that a more comprehensive indication of the quality of the social exchange relationship may be obtained by considering the integrative effect of POS, POJ and psychological contract violation, rather than investigating the predictive influence of each of these constructs on employee attitudes and behaviour in isolation (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Karagonlar et al., 2016; Kiewitz et al., 2009; Tekleab et al., 2005). POS, POJ and psychological contract violation were thus conceptualised as a set of antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour, successfully achieving the third aim of the literature review.

7.4 ORGANISATIONAL CYNICISM AND TRUST AS MEDIATING VARIABLES

***Literature research aim 4:** To conceptualise organisational cynicism and trust as a set of mediating constructs in the relationship between work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB)*

For the purposes of this study, organisational cynicism and trust were conceptualised in Chapter 5 as two closely related but distinct constructs with similar antecedents and outcomes, albeit in contrasting directions (Stanley et al., 2005). Organisational trust was conceptualised as a psychological state, reflecting an employee's willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of the employing organisation, based on the conviction that the organisation and its management will act in good faith and uphold its obligations towards its employees without having to resort to formal processes to monitor or control employer actions (Altuntas & Baykal, 2010; Martins, 2000; Mayer et al., 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998; Von der Ohe, 2016). Organisational trust is thus viewed as a psychological state (Mayer et al., 1995), which arises from a trustor's (the employee) assessment of the trustee's (the employing organisation) trustworthiness. It was posited that employees form perceptions of their employing organisations' trustworthiness based on their observations and experiences in the workplace (Bagraim & Hime, 2007; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009) and the perceived quality of their relationships with their organisations (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Lewicki et al., 1998). It was furthermore suggested that, if these beliefs are positive (i.e. the employing organisation is deemed trustworthy), employees will be more likely to hold constructive attitudes towards their employing organisations (i.e. they will be willing to become vulnerable to the employer) and to engage in trusting behaviour expressing their vulnerability (Dietz et al., 2011; Rousseau et al., 1998).

Organisational cynicism, in comparison, was conceptualised as an attitude, ensuing from employees' critical assessment of the intentions, actions and values of their employing organisation and its leaders, resulting in negative perceptions towards the organisation and management, culminating in disparaging and counterproductive behaviour (Abraham, 2000; Dean et al., 1998; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014). It was shown that organisational cynicism develops not only as a result of employees' personal characteristics and dispositions but also as a result of organisational events that confirm employees' negative expectations about their employers' integrity, competence and intentions (Dean et al., 1998; Reichers et al., 1997). Cynical employee attitudes inadvertently affect the way employees feel about their employing organisations and their behaviour in the workplace (Chiaburu et al., 2013).

While the relationship between organisational cynicism and trust was acknowledged, they were shown to be distinct constructs (Chiaburu et al., 2013). Whereas trust is rooted in a positive expectancy of the employing organisation's actions and intent, cynicism encompasses negative expectations (hopelessness and disillusionment), as well as a belief that the intentions, actions and values of organisations and managers cannot be trusted (Andersson, 1996; James, 2005). Furthermore, there is an intensely emotional aspect (e.g. contempt, anger, disappointment and frustration) to cynicism that is devoid of trust (Dean et al., 1998).

It was anticipated that, by including organisational cynicism and trust in the proposed psychological framework, two identified gaps in extant research would be addressed. Firstly, organisational trust research tends to focus on interpersonal trust (i.e. between employees and their direct supervisors) and the antecedents and outcomes of trust in interpersonal relations (e.g. Bagrami & Hime, 2007; Mayer et al., 1995; Six & Skinner, 2010). Research relating to the trust between employees and their employing organisations (i.e. organisational trust) and the role it plays in shaping employees' attitudes and behaviour in and towards their employing organisations has received limited attention (Mishra & Mishra, 2013). This study attempted to address the expressed need for more research relating to the antecedents and relational consequences of organisational trust by viewing organisational trust as a reflection of the convictions that employees hold regarding the anticipated actions of their employing organisations and the intent of these actions. The expectation was that, by focusing on the two primary entities in the employment relationship (the employing organisation and employee), a richer understanding of employees' attitudinal and behaviour reactions to workplace events would be gained. Secondly, there seems to be a paucity of research on the development and prevalence of organisational cynicism in South African organisations and its impact on relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. It is anticipated that this study

will make a valuable contribution to extant employment relations literature by investigating the extent to which employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences contribute to their cynicism towards their employing organisations and managers. In addition, the relevance of organisational cynicism as a predictor of relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in South African organisations was explored, providing the impetus for an in-depth understanding of the ways in which employees' attitudes and perceptions are formed.

In order to establish whether organisational cynicism and trust intervene in the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), the following three factors had to be considered (Baron & Kenny, 1986): Firstly, the direct relationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) had to be determined. The relationships between these constructs, as reported in extant literature, were explored in Chapter 4. It was confirmed that psychological contract violation, POJ and POS may be regarded as antecedents to relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace. It was furthermore determined that these constructs may have both a direct and collaborative influence on employees' attitudes towards and behaviour in their employing organisations.

Secondly, it was necessary to determine whether employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) may serve as antecedents for organisational cynicism and trust. Thirdly, the extent to which organisational cynicism and trust serve as antecedents of relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) had to be determined.

Theoretical support for Baron and Kenny's (1986) first requirement in establishing the mediating role of organisational cynicism and trust was obtained by examining the direct relationships between the antecedent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and outcome (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables as reported in extant literature. However, according to the contemporary view of mediation, this is not a vital precondition in establishing mediation (Hayes, 2018a). The emphasis should rather be on the indirect influence of the antecedent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) on the outcome variables (organisational commitment, union commitment,

OCB and CWB) through the mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) variables. Hence, the latter two requirements were deemed vital in establishing mediation.

The main theoretical findings relating to these two requirements are briefly summarised in the sections below.

7.4.1 Work-related perceptions and work experiences as antecedents of organisational trust

It was shown in Chapter 5 that organisational trust may be predicted by individual differences (e.g. trust propensity and personality traits) and contextual factors such as organisational practices (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011; Von der Ohe, 2014). Organisational practices shape employees' perceptions of their employing organisations' intentions (benevolence and integrity) and ability to achieve their goals and meet their obligations (Dietz et al., 2011; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011). Extant literature has shown that organisational practices that are perceived as fair, demonstrate employer concern and compassion for employees and address employees' socioemotional expectations are likely to encourage trusting relationships (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011; Tan & Tan, 2000). The following relationships between organisational trust and the three independent variables of concern in this study have been reported:

- A violation of the psychological contract may be regarded by employees as indicative of employer untrustworthiness and increased risk in the employment relationship, resulting in a decline in organisational trust (Quratulain et al., 2016; Robinson, 1996).
- Supportive organisational actions communicate to employees that the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Kernan & Hanges, 2002). Hence the organisation is deemed trustworthy, which is reciprocated by higher levels of organisational trust (Freire & Azevedo, 2015).
- Fair treatment by an employer may also be regarded as indicative of benevolent intent and may thus enhance perceived trustworthiness (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Yang et al., 2009). Perceived fairness in organisational decision making and distribution of resources is therefore positively related to organisational trust (Worrall et al., 2011).

From the above it might be inferred that psychological contract violation, POJ and POS serve as antecedents of organisational trust, lending theoretical support for the second requirement

(Baron & Kenny, 1986) in establishing a potential mediating effect for organisational trust. This study thus extended existing research on the antecedents of organisational trust by including all three of these constructs in a single study in order to confirm their direct relationships with organisational trust and to investigate their interactive effect on the development of trusting employer-employee relations. The study furthermore included all three dimensions of organisational justice (procedural, distributive and interactional justice) in an attempt to address the scarcity of research relating to the POJ-organisational trust relationship that incorporates more than a single organisational justice dimension. It was anticipated that, although all three dimensions of justice would show positive relationships with organisational trust, stronger relationships would emerge for procedural and interactive justice, given the affective nature of trust (Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011).

7.4.2 Work-related perceptions and work experiences as antecedents of organisational cynicism

A variety of antecedents of organisational cynicism have been reported in extant literature. Of relevance in this study, were the reported relationships between organisational cynicism and psychological contract violation, POJ and POS. Extant literature has shown that organisational cynicism may arise in the event of psychological contract violations (Andersson, 1996; Chiaburu et al., 2013; Dean et al., 1998; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Pugh et al., 2003). These perceptions are not limited only to psychological contract violations by a current employer – violation by a previous employee may lead to anxiety in a new employment relationship (Sherman & Morley, 2015).

A lack of support and perceived injustice have also been linked to increased organisational cynicism (Biswas & Kapil, 2017). Thus, employees who perceive that their employers do not care about their well-being and do not value their contributions to the organisation tend to feel betrayed, resulting in higher levels of cynicism towards the organisation (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008; Chiaburu et al., 2013; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014). Similarly, employees who observe injustice in employer-employee relationships are more likely to become cynical towards their employing organisations (e.g. Bernerth et al., 2007; Biswas & Kapil, 2017).

It has therefore undoubtedly been revealed that psychological contract violation, POJ and POS serve as antecedents of organisational cynicism, lending theoretical support for the second requirement (Baron & Kenny, 1986) in establishing a potential mediating effect for organisational cynicism.

7.4.3 Relational attitudes and behaviour as outcomes of organisational trust

In Chapter 5, the relationships between organisational trust and relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) were also explored. It was shown that higher levels of organisational trust may be associated with more favourable attitudes towards the organisation and desirable workplace behaviour (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2004; Ferrin et al., 2008; Freire & Azevedo, 2015; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Hatipoglu & Inelmen, 2018; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013). Furthermore, employees who trust their employing organisations to act in their best interests are more likely to invest additional time and effort in the organisation, suggesting positive relationships between organisational trust and both organisational commitment (notably affective commitment) and OCB (Byrne et al., 2011; Pirson & Malhotra, 2011). In contrast, a lack of organisational trust may result in a decrease in organisational commitment, and an increase in CWB (Bies & Tripp, 1996) and organisational cynicism (Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016).

Although it has been suggested that the relationships between organisational trust and commitment may differ for each of the three dimensions of organisational commitment (AC, NC and CC), research investigating these differences is scarce (Albrecht & Travaglione, 2003; Colquitt et al., 2012; Hopkins & Weathington, 2006; Laschinger et al., 2000; Ozag, 2006). Researchers tend to focus on affective commitment, consistently reporting positive relationships between this dimension of organisational commitment and organisational trust (Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009; Kam et al., 2016; Tan & Lim, 2009; Yang & Mossholder, 2010). While a positive relationship between organisational trust and normative commitment has also been reported, this relationship is weaker than the AC-organisational trust relationship and holds only when an affect-based measure of trust is used (Colquitt et al., 2012; Ozag, 2006). In contrast, the relationship between organisational trust and continuance commitment has been reported as negative (Albrecht & Travaglione, 2003; Laschinger et al., 2000) or insignificant (Hopkins & Weathington, 2006; Ozag, 2006). In order to gain a clearer understanding of the relationship between organisational commitment and trust, it was thus deemed essential to include all three components of organisational commitment (AC, NC and CC). It was established on the basis of the literature review that organisational trust may influence the development of commitment profiles and that employees who perceive their organisations and its managers as trustworthy would be more likely to have appropriate (i.e. fully committed, AC/NC-dominant or AC-dominant) commitment profiles that might be

associated with desirable workplace behaviour (Gellatly et al., 2006; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Sinclair et al., 2005; Wasti, 2005).

Although research relating to the relationships between organisational trust and union commitment is limited, it has been suggested in extant literature that a negative relationship between these constructs may exist (Smit et al., 2016). This proposition, however, requires more robust empirical support. In this study, cognisance was therefore taken of the complexity of workplace relationships and commitments and the extent to which employees' trust (or lack thereof) in their employing organisations influences not only their commitment to these organisations, but also their commitment to trade unions.

In terms of the behavioural outcomes of organisational trust, it has been widely confirmed that trust serves as a predictor of OCB (e.g. Aryee et al., 2002; Coxen et al., 2016; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Gould-Williams, 2003; Lester & Brower, 2003; Pillai et al., 1999; Singh & Srivastava, 2016; Tyler & Blader, 2003; Wong et al., 2012). While a number of researchers have confirmed the positive relationship between organisational trust and OCB, fewer researchers have investigated the relationship between organisational trust and CWB. Colquitt et al. (2007), however, provided evidence of a negative association between organisational trust and CWB.

It was furthermore emphasised that research relating to the relationship between organisational trust and discretionary employee behaviour does also not always consider potential differential effects depending on the trust referent (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2004; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). This study attempted to enhance the understanding of the consequences of trust (or a lack thereof) in the employment relationship by considering both positive (OCB) and negative (CWB) behavioural outcomes. The study furthermore differentiated between organisationally directed behaviour (OCB-O and CWB-O) and individually directed behaviour (OCB-I and CWB-I) to determine whether differential effects exist when the organisation is regarded as the trust referent.

Based on the above reported relationships between organisational trust and the attitudinal and the behaviour constructs of relevance in this study, it was deemed reasonable to conclude that organisational trust serves as a predictor of relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace. Baron and Kenny's (1986) third requirement in terms of the mediating role of organisational trust thus received theoretical support.

7.4.4 Relational attitudes and behaviour as outcomes of organisational cynicism

In Chapter 5, it was shown that a decrease in both organisational commitment (Dean et al., 1998; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Nafei, 2014) and OCB (Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Evans et al., 2010; Nafei, 2014; Wanous et al., 2000) may be linked to organisational cynicism. Employees experiencing higher levels of cynicism have also been shown to have reservations about their employing organisations and their leaders, which may be reflected in higher levels of CWB (Stanley et al., 2005). In an employment relations context, cynical employees may be more inclined to participate in unprotected industrial action or to engage in unlawful behaviour such as destruction of property, violence and intimidation (Kelloway et al., 2010). Extant literature furthermore suggests that employees who believe that they are exploited and not appreciated by their employers are more likely to join a trade union and to actively participate in its activities, suggesting higher levels of union commitment (Bashir & Nasir, 2013; Turnley et al., 2004).

While relationships between organisational cynicism and all three dimensions of organisational commitment have been reported, the nature of these relationships tends to differ (Scott & Zweig, 2016). Low levels of affective and normative commitment tend to be associated with high instances of organisational cynicism. In contrast, a positive relationship between organisational cynicism and continuance commitment has been shown. Cynical employees are therefore less likely to be emotionally attached to their organisation or to feel a moral obligation to remain in employment if they experience negative events. They may, however, feel compelled to remain in the organisation, despite their negative views of the employer as they tend to believe that no alternative employment options exist (Scott & Zweig, 2016).

Given the associations between organisational cynicism and relational attitudes and behaviour reported above, it was deemed plausible that organisational cynicism may be regarded as an antecedent of relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB). This assertion provided theoretical support for the final requirement in terms of the mediating role of organisational cynicism (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

It was therefore established that, although direct relationships exist between employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and

CWB) in the workplace, these relationships may be mediated by organisational cynicism and trust. This observation was supported by extant research confirming the intervening roles of organisational cynicism and trust in the relationships between specific situational and behavioural variables, as outlined in section 5.3. It may thus be concluded that research aim 4 of the literature review has been achieved.

7.5 INDIVIDUALISM/COLLECTIVISM AS A MODERATING CONSTRUCT

***Literature research aim 5:** To conceptualise individualism/collectivism as a moderating construct in the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations, and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB)*

As indicated in Chapter 6, individualism/collectivism is viewed as a personal disposition (i.e. an inherent individual characteristic), where individualism refers to an individual's tendency to value personal goals, independence, self-enhancement and competition, while in-group goals, interdependence, group enhancement and cooperation are emphasised in the case of collectivism (Györkös et al., 2013; Marcus & Le, 2013; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a). In this study, individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition, thus refers to the extent to which individualistic and collectivistic tendencies manifest in employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Triandis, 1993, 1994).

The extent to which individualism/collectivism may influence employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ), work experiences (psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, and relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) was explored in depth in section 6.5 and summarised in Table 6.2. Only a brief integration of these relationships is thus provided here in order to present individualism/collectivism as a moderating variable in the proposed psychological framework. The following questions are addressed:

- Would an individualistically disposed employee view and experience organisational practices and events differently from an employee with a collectivist disposition?
- Is an employee with an individualistic disposition more or less likely to develop trust in or cynicism towards his or her employing organisation than a collectivistic employee?
- Do employees display different relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace depending on their cultural disposition?

7.5.1 The influence of individualism/collectivism on work-related perceptions and work experiences

It has been suggested that employees with different cultural dispositions hold different expectations of their employing organisations. It was therefore anticipated that employees' dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism would influence the way they view and experience organisational practices and events. This proposition was supported by extant literature in which individualism/collectivism has been shown to influence the relationships between employees' perceptions of organisational justice (Erdogan & Liden, 2006) and support (Van Knippenberg et al., 2015) and their subsequent responses to these perceptions. It has also been reported that cultural differences may give rise to differential understandings of employer obligations in terms of the psychological contract and the likelihood that negative workplace experiences will be perceived as psychological contract violations (Restubog et al., 2007).

Individualistic employees are highly concerned with equity and balance in the employment relationship (Ohbuchi et al., 1999; Triandis, 1995). They tend to evaluate organisational practices in terms of the advantages they hold for their personal goal achievement and expect immediate reciprocation for their efforts (Triandis & Gelfand, 2011). If these expectations are not met, they tend to regard this as psychological contract violation (Thomas et al., 2003; Zagenczyk et al., 2015). Their judgements in terms of justice and support are based on the extent to which organisational practices contribute to their personal gain (Özbek et al., 2016).

Collectivistic employees, in contrast, place high value on equality (Triandis & Gelfand, 2011). They accept that reciprocation cannot always be immediate and that organisational actions may be intended to benefit the collective (rather than individuals in the organisation) over the long term. Hence they do not necessarily view unmet expectations as a psychological contract violation and are more tolerant of perceived imbalances in the exchange relationship as long as they can perceive that the balance will be restored over time (Erdogan & Liden, 2006).

Individualists therefore tend to view and experience organisational practices and events in terms of the immediate implications for their personal goal achievement, while collectivists interpret these practices and events in terms of their contribution to collective needs over the long term (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Tavares et al., 2016). Collectivists are thus more likely to view the employer-employee relationship in terms of social exchange, while individualists regard employment relationships as a transactional exchange (Van Knippenberg

et al., 2015). Hence, it could be deduced that employees with different cultural dispositions will have different expectations in terms of their employing organisations' obligations and would react differently if these expectations were not met. While it was maintained that all employees place a high premium on the extent to which their employers fulfil their obligations in the exchange relationship and engage in fair and supportive practices, it was anticipated that individualistic employees would be more susceptible to experiencing psychological contract violations and less tolerant towards perceived injustice and lack of support in comparison with their collectivistic counterparts.

7.5.2 The influence of individualism/collectivism on organisational cynicism and trust

Variations in terms of the extent to which employees are likely to develop trusting or cynical attitudes towards their employing organisations in response to workplace experiences or events have also been reported for individualistic and collectivistic employees (Bedi & Schat, 2013; Bohnet et al., 2010; Realo et al., 2008).

Individualistic employees tend to rely on rules and regulations, rather than trust, to shape interpersonal relations in the workplace (Tan & Lim, 2009). When they do make trust judgements, they tend to emphasise the trustee's ability and integrity (Branzei et al., 2007). Since individualism is inherently characterised by self-interest (Triandis & Gelfand, 2011), organisational actions that do not support employees' goals are likely to be regarded as incongruous – especially if these actions are seen as serving the interests of others (e.g. managers) – giving rise to cynicism towards the organisation and/or organisational leaders (Bedi & Schat, 2013).

Collectivists place greater value on trusting relations in the workplace and tend to judge organisational events and actions in terms of their perceived benevolent intent and predictability (Branzei et al., 2007). Their judgements are furthermore based on the extent to which organisational actions and events contribute to collective need fulfilment and the maintenance of harmonious relationships (Alshetri, 2013; Kulkarni et al., 2010). They are more likely to become cynical if they perceive the organisation or its leaders to be placing their needs before those of the collective (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003).

Although there is a commonly held belief that collectivists are regarded as inherently more trusting than individualists (Doney et al., 1998), this assumption is questioned in extant

literature (Huff & Kelley, 2003). Wasti et al. (2011), for example, suggested that, rather than attributing varied levels of trust to different cultural dispositions, the focus should be on differences in terms of how trust is developed. Although similar assumptions in terms of organisational cynicism have not been reported, given the differences in terms of the predictors of organisational cynicism reported in section 6.5, it could be deduced that differences in both organisational cynicism and trust among individualists and collectivists may be ascribed to variations in the development process. Hence, the way in which employees perceive and react to organisational events was expected to differ in terms of their cultural disposition, giving rise to differential manifestations of organisational cynicism and trust. It was therefore anticipated that employees' cultural disposition (individualism/collectivism) might serve as a moderating variable in the relationship between their work-related perceptions and work experiences and their cynicism towards and trust in the organisation. Theoretical support for the moderating role of individualism/collectivism in this relationship was thus provided on the basis of extant literature, contributing to the achievement of literature research aim 5.

7.5.3 The influence of individualism/collectivism on relational attitudes and behaviour

The extent to which employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace influence their attitudes and behaviour may be determined by their cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (Erdogan & Liden, 2006; Hassan et al., 2017). It has, for instance, been established in extant literature that employees' disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism may influence the relationships between organisational commitment (Chiaburu, Thundiyil, & Wang, 2014; Choi et al., 2015), OCB (Cetin et al., 2015; Van Knippenberg et al., 2015) and CWB (Lau et al., 2016) and the antecedents of these attitudinal and behavioural outcomes.

In terms of commitment, it has been shown that individualistic employees tend to display lower levels of both organisational and union commitment than their collectivistic counterparts (Beresford, 2012; Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, et al., 2012). This may be ascribed to the types of relationships employees with different cultural dispositions tend to have with their employing organisations. Individualists are inclined to ascribe more value to the transactional relationship and therefore do not have strong emotional ties to their employing organisations (Triandis & Gelfand, 2011). This focus on personal costs and benefits also implies that they are unlikely to join trade unions to meet socioemotional needs. When individualists do become union members, they most likely do so as a means to promote their self-interest (e.g. assistance

with disciplinary matters and grievances) and are therefore unlikely to become actively participating union members (Nel et al., 2016). Therefore, even when individualists are trade union members, they tend to display low levels of union commitment.

In contrast, collectivists place great importance on interdependence, shared goals and collective relationships (Triandis, 2011). Consequently, they tend to display higher levels of both organisational and union commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, et al., 2012). Their commitment to either of these entities, however, will be determined by the extent to which they share similar beliefs with the organisation or trade union (Murphy & Turner, 2016).

Differences between individualistic and collectivistic employees also exist in terms of their relational behaviours in the workplace. While individualists will only engage in behaviour if, by doing so, their own self-interests are promoted, collectivists are naturally inclined to engage in supportive and cooperative behaviour (Astakhova, 2015; Triandis, 2011). Higher levels of OCB are thus expected among collectivistically disposed employees (Özbek et al., 2016; Wang, 2015). This does not, however, imply that collectivistic employees will be less likely to engage in CWB. On the contrary, collectivists are unlikely to leave the organisation (as individualists would do) when they have a negative experience in the workplace (Thomas et al., 2003; Zagenczyk et al., 2015). Therefore, rather than reciprocating by leaving the organisation, they may retaliate by engaging in undesirable behaviour, which may include individual actions (e.g. badmouthing the employer) or collective behaviour in support of their in-group (e.g. fellow trade union members).

While differences in terms of relational attitudes and behaviour have been reported between employees' cultural dispositions in terms of individualism or collectivism, it has been suggested that cultural disposition does not necessarily predict to what extent employees will be inclined to adopt particular attitudes or engage in certain behaviour (Finkelstein, 2012). Rather, cultural differences are expected to influence the nature of the relationships between the relational attitudes and behaviour and their antecedents. Differences between individualistic and collectivistic employees, for instance, have been reported in terms of their behavioural reactions to perceived justice (Schilpzand, Martins, Kirkman, Lowe, & Chen, 2013) and support (Van Knippenberg et al., 2015). It was thus anticipated that individualistically and collectivistically disposed employees would react differently to organisational events, supporting the anticipated moderating effects of individualism/collectivism in the relationships between employees' trust in and cynicism in their employing organisations and their relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace, as well as the relationship between their

relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. It may thus be concluded that literature research aim 5 has been achieved.

7.6 THE POTENTIAL INFLUENCE OF PERSON-CENTRED VARIABLES

***Literature research aim 6:** To determine how the biographical characteristics of individuals (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) relate to their individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism, work-related perceptions and work experiences, their cynicism towards and trust in the organisation and their relational attitudes and behaviour*

In order to address this research aim, the associations between employees' personal and work-related characteristics and the independent, mediating, moderating and dependent variables of relevance in this study were explored throughout the literature review. Relevant findings relating to each of the variables, as reported in extant literature, were included following the conceptualisation and discussion of the relevant theoretical underpinnings of each construct in Chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6. These findings are briefly summarised in the following sections.

7.6.1 Person-centred variables associated with relational attitudes and behaviour

Extant literature has shown inconclusive, often weak and inconsistent, results in terms of the relationships between a range of person-centred variables and employees' engagement in both positive and negative discretionary behaviour in the workplace and their commitment towards their employing organisations and trade unions. However, some differences have been reported, as reflected in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1

Person-centred Variables Associated with Relational Attitudes and Behaviour

Person-centred variables	Relational attitudes and behaviour			
	Organisational commitment	Union commitment	Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)	Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB)
Gender	Although gender and overall commitment are unrelated, women have been found to display higher levels of NC than men.	Although males tend to be more active trade unionists than females, female union members display higher levels of commitment to their unions than males.	Although women are theorised to be more willing to engage in OCB than men, empirical studies report no or weak differences between genders.	Men are more likely to engage in CWB than women are.
Age	Although older employees tend to be more committed to their organisations, the positive relationship between age and OC may be confounded by age-related variables such as level of education and tenure.	Older employees tend to have a strong belief in the ideology of unionism, remain loyal to their trade unions and actively participate in union activities.	Older employees are more likely to engage in OCB than younger employees are.	Younger employees are more likely to engage in CWB than older employees are.
Population group		Black workers are more willing to join unions than their white counterparts. Black and white workers have different reasons for displaying union commitment.		A small positive correlation exists between being white and both CWB-O and CWB-I.

Person-centred variables	Relational attitudes and behaviour			
	Organisational commitment	Union commitment	Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)	Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB)
Education level	There is an inverse relationship between employees' level of education and organisational commitment because of the availability of more alternative employment options and higher expectations held by highly educated employees.	Unskilled or semi-skilled employees are more likely to join trade unions and participate in union activities than highly educated employees.	Higher levels of education are associated with increased OCB.	Unskilled or semi-skilled employees are more likely to engage in CWB in response to negative workplace events.
Employment status	Temporary workers demonstrate lower levels of organisational commitment than permanent employees. Permanent employees display higher levels of AC, while temporary employees demonstrate higher NC and CC.	Permanent employees are more likely to join trade unions and display higher levels of union commitment than temporary workers.	Temporary workers are less likely to engage in OCB than permanent employees.	Temporary employees are more likely to engage in CWB when experiencing negative workplace events than permanent employees.
Tenure	A positive relationship exists between tenure and organisational commitment.	Trade union members tend to have longer tenure than nonmembers.	Positive, negative and curvilinear relationships between tenure and OCB have been reported.	A small negative correlation exists between tenure and CWB.

Person-centred variables	Relational attitudes and behaviour			
	Organisational commitment	Union commitment	Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)	Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB)
	The importance ascribed to the three commitment mind-sets vary over the course of an individual's career.	Longer-tenured employees are more likely to display high levels of union commitment.	The type of OCB that employees are willing to engage in changes over time.	
Job level		Higher-level employees are unlikely to commit to a trade union.	Limited evidence of a positive relationship between job level and OCB exists.	Senior employees are expected to be less likely to engage in CWB.
Union membership	Union members and nonmembers display equal levels of organisational commitment.	Union members display higher levels of union commitment than nonmembers. Individuals who have relinquished their union membership display lower levels of union commitment than those who have never been union members.		

Sources: Barling et al. (1990); Bemmels (1995); Berglund & Furåker (2016); Berry et al. (2007); Chaison & Dhavale (1992); Cohen (2016); Colquitt et al. (2017); Conlon & Gallagher (1987); Conway & Briner (2002); Cooper et al. (2016); Deery et al. (1994); Fiorito & Greer (1982); Fullagar & Barling (1989); Gruys & Sacket (2003); Gordon et al. (1980a); Kabins et al. (2016); Khalili & Asmawi (2012); Kim & Rowley (2006); Kochan (1980); Lau et al. (2003); Lee (2004); Mai et al. (2016); Martin et al. (1986); Mathieu & Zajac (1990); Mayer & Schoorman (1998); Methot et al. (2017); Meyer & Allen (1997); Meyer et al. (2002); Monnot et al. (2011); Morrison (1994); Mowday et al. (1982); Nel et al. (2016); Ng et al. (2006); Ngo & Tsang (1998); Peng, Chen et al. (2016); Redman & Snape (2016); Restubog et al. (2015); Sherer & Morishima (1989); Smith et al. (1983); Spector & Zhou (2014); Spreitzer et al. (2017); Tornau & Frese (2013); Van der Velde et al. (2003); Van Dyne et al. (1994); Wasti et al. (2016); Zhu (2016)

Although the reported associations have been weak, it has been suggested that permanent, more senior and highly educated employees will be more willing to engage in OCB (Redman & Snape, 2016; Smith et al., 1983; Spreitzer et al., 2017; Van Dyne et al., 1994). In contrast, temporary, lower-level employees who are unskilled or semi-skilled may be more likely to engage in CWB in response to negative workplace events (Mai et al., 2016; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Restubog et al., 2015). The willingness of employees to engage in OCB and the types of OCB they are prepared to engage in may also change over time (Methot et al., 2017; Schalk et al., 2010; Zhu, 2016), while extended tenure has been associated with lower levels of CWB (Berry et al., 2007).

In terms of personal characteristics, it has been reported that females and older employees are more likely to engage in OCB (Eagly & Crowley, 1986; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Lau et al., 2003; Peng & Zeng, 2017), while males and younger employees may resort to CWB if they experience dissatisfaction in the workplace (Ariani, 2013; Berry et al., 2007; Bowling & Burns, 2015). Research on the relationship between population group and behaviour is scarce, with only one study (Berry et al., 2007) showing a small positive correlation between being white and CWB.

In terms of commitment, it has been reported that, although permanent employees display higher levels of commitment than their temporary counterparts (Conway & Briner, 2002; Cooper et al., 2016), they are also more likely to join trade unions and therefore display higher levels of union commitment as well (Gallagher et al., 1997; Sherer & Morishima, 1989). Longer-tenured employees tend to display higher levels of both organisational and union commitment (Barling et al., 1990; Kim & Rowley, 2006; Lee, 2004; Meyer et al., 2002). However, this does not apply to higher levels of employees, who, because of their role as representatives of the employer, are less likely to join and commit to a trade union (Lee, 2004). Contemporary organisational research studies have also linked characteristics such as employment status, education, job level and tenure to the development of particular commitment profiles (Cooper et al., 2016; Morin et al., 2016, 2015).

While only weak correlations between personal characteristics and commitment to the organisation and union have been reported, it has been suggested that females have a greater moral obligation (i.e. NC) to remain in their employing organisations (Khalili & Asmawi, 2012). In addition, while females are less likely to join a trade union than males, those who are trade union members tend to be more committed to the union than male union members (Bemmels, 1995; Chaison & Dhavale, 1992; Fiorito & Greer, 1982; Gordon et al., 1980a). Although black and unskilled or semi-skilled employees, are more likely to join trade unions and participate in

union activities, thereby displaying higher levels of union commitment (Fullagar & Barling, 1989; Gordon et al., 1980a; Kochan, 1980; Martin et al., 1986; Monnot et al., 2011; Sherer & Morishima, 1989), this does not imply that they are less committed to their employing organisations. The finding that there is no significant difference between the levels of organisational commitment of union members and nonmembers, supports the observation in extant literature that the extent to which trade union members commit to either the organisation or trade union (or both) depends mainly on their perceptions of the nature of the labour-management relationship (Angle & Perry, 1986).

In this study, cognisance was thus taken of the potential influence of employees' personal characteristics on relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace. Although the associations that have been reported necessitated the inclusion of these characteristics as control variables in the proposed psychological framework in order to explore any confounding effects, the relationships were expected to be weak and/or insignificant. The expectation was that employees' propensity to engage in discretionary behaviours would depend more on their work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), and their attitudinal reactions to such perceptions and experiences than on these individual differences.

7.6.2 Person-centred variables associated with work-related perceptions and work experiences

Individual's perceptions and interpretations of workplace events are subjective in nature. One would therefore expect the way that they experience and react to workplace events to be influenced by individual differences in terms of personal characteristics or dispositions (Boey & Vantilborgh, 2015; Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015; Johnston et al., 2016; Shukla & Rai, 2014; Taggar & Kuron, 2016). A number of person-centred variables that have been reported as having an impact on employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) are indicated in Table 7.2. These variables include gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership. It should, however, be noted that the reported relationships of these individual characteristics with employees' work-related perceptions and experiences are often negligible and sometimes contradictory. Nevertheless, the main findings reported are briefly summarised below.

Table 7.2

Person-centred Variables Associated with Work-related Perceptions and Work Experiences

Person-centred variables	Work-related perceptions and work experiences		
	Psychological contract violation	Perceived organisational justice (POJ)	Perceived organisational support (POS)
Gender	Females place more value on the relational component of the psychological contract than men, who place higher value on the transactional component.	Procedural and interactional justice are more important for women while distributive justice is more important for men. Women are more likely to perceive injustice in the workplace but less likely to react to these perceptions.	Females feel that they receive less support and are not as highly valued as males in the workplace.
Age	The formulation of psychological contracts and employees' reactions to perceived violation thereof differ according to age. Younger employees are more inclined than older employees to experience psychological contract violations and their reactions to contract breaches are more severe.	The effect of perceived injustices on the attitudes of younger individuals is expected to be stronger than on those of older individuals. The significance of the different dimensions of justice change over time. Younger employees value procedural justice, while employees in middle adulthood regard distributive justice as more important and older employees value interactional justice.	A significant correlation exists between age and POS because older employees place a higher value on socioemotional support in the workplace than younger employees.
Population group		The population group to which employees belong may influence their perceptions of justice in the workplace and the value they assign to different justice dimensions.	

Person-centred variables	Work-related perceptions and work experiences		
	Psychological contract violation	Perceived organisational justice (POJ)	Perceived organisational support (POS)
		Black women place greater value on being treated with dignity and respect (i.e. interactional justice) than on procedural or distributive justice.	
Education level		Highly educated employees are more likely to observe distributive and integrative injustices in their relationships with their employers.	Employees with higher levels of education receive more support from their employing organisations.
		Employees with lower status in an organisation (owing to lower levels of education and limited experience) are likely to place a higher value on procedural justice.	
Employment status	Temporary employees tend to hold transactional contracts, while permanent employees are more likely to have relational psychological contracts with their employers. Temporary employees are less likely to experience psychological contract breaches than permanent employees, and their reactions to breaches are less severe.	Differential treatment of permanent and temporary employees may be viewed as interactional injustice by temporary employees, which may, in turn, lead to perceptions of inequity and psychological contract breach. Permanent and temporary employees have different expectations of the employment relationship and therefore diverse perceptions of what constitutes justice. They also react differently to perceived injustice.	Permanent employees are more inclined to perceive their employing organisations as supportive than temporary employees.

Person-centred variables	Work-related perceptions and work experiences		
	Psychological contract violation	Perceived organisational justice (POJ)	Perceived organisational support (POS)
Tenure	<p>Employees' perceptions of employers' obligations in terms of the employment relationship and their expectations of this relationship evolve over time.</p> <p>Longer-tenured employees are more likely to regard unmet expectations as a psychological contract breach and to respond by engaging in negative behaviour.</p>	<p>Positive relationships between tenure and all three dimensions of organisational justice (DJ, PJ and IJ) have been reported.</p>	<p>Longer-tenured employees tend to have a more favourable view of the organisation and therefore positive associations exist between tenure and POS.</p>
Job level		<p>Senior employees tend to have a better understanding of the reasons for decisions and resource allocation in organisations and are thus more likely to experience procedural justice.</p>	
Union membership		<p>A positive relationship exists between procedural injustice and union membership.</p>	

Sources: Bal et al. (2008); Bal, De Lange, Jansen et al. (2013); Bal, De Lange, Zacher et al. (2013); Bellou (2009); Carter et al. (2014); Chambel et al. (2016); Clay-Warner et al. (2013); Cohen-Charash & Spector (2001); Conway & Briner (2002); Conway & Coyle-Shapiro (2012); Coyle-Shapiro (2002); Dineen et al. (2004); Elamin & Tlaiss (2015); Farr & Ringseis (2002); Fortin et al. (2016); Heffernan (2012); Johlke et al. (2002); Lee et al. (2018); Lemmon et al. (2016); Morrison & Robinson (1997); Ng & Feldman (2009); Nielsen (2014); Park (2016); Ramamoorthy & Flood (2004); Rhoades & Eisenberger (2002); Robbins et al. (2012); Roschk et al. (2013); Rousseau (2001); Rousseau & McLean Parks (1993); Sherman & Morley (2015); Simpson & Kaminski (2007); Sweeney & McFarlin (1997); Tata (2000); Tenhiälä et al. (2013); Thomas & Anderson (1998); Wayne et al. (1997); Wei, Ma et al. (2015); Wright & Bonett (2002)

Employees' personal characteristics may influence their expectations in terms of the exchange relationship and the way they interpret and respond to imbalances in this relationship. It has, for instance, been shown that females value the relational (social) component of the psychological contract, while males place higher value on the transactional relationship (Wei, Ma et al., 2015). Owing to this relational focus, females tend to value organisational support more than males (Smit et al., 2015). However, females often feel that they receive less support and are not as highly valued as their male counterparts (Johlke et al., 2002). Female employees also tend to value procedural and interactional justice, while males value distributive justice, reflecting their emphasis on the transactional relationship (Lee et al., 2000; Simpson & Kaminski, 2007; Tata, 2000).

Since older employees' cognitive frameworks may differ from those of their younger colleagues, they are expected to hold different expectations of their employing organisations and to react differently if these expectations are not met (Bal, De Lange, Jansen, et al., 2013; Bellou, 2009; Farr & Ringseis, 2002; Ng & Feldman, 2009). Younger employees tend to place a high value on procedural justice (Roschk et al., 2013), and are more likely to interpret unmet expectations as psychological contract violation and to reciprocate by developing negative attitudes towards and behaviour in their organisations (Bal et al., 2008; Rousseau, 2001). In contrast, older employees place a higher premium on maintaining relations and thus tend to have a favourable view of the support they receive from their employing organisations (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). They also value interactional justice and are less likely to display negative attitudes and behaviour when they experience dissatisfaction in the workplace (Bal, De Lange, Zacher, et al., 2013; Fortin et al., 2016; Tenhiälä et al., 2013).

It also stands to reason that employees from different population groups will ascribe dissimilar values to the justice dimensions (Simpson & Kaminski, 2007) and that they will experience and react to perceived injustices in different ways (Carter et al., 2014). In South Africa, these differences may be ascribed to the country's history of a dual employment relations system based on race (see Chapter 2) and the diverse cultural dispositions reflected in the workplace (Hassan et al., 2017). For instance, a collectivist disposition, which is often associated with the African culture, may lead to a higher regard for justice in the workplace and a tendency to resort to trade unionism in response to perceived injustice (Blader, 2007; Buttigieg et al., 2007).

The expectations that employees hold and their reactions when these expectations are not met, may also be influenced by job-related factors such as employment status, job level, education and tenure, including tenure in the current and previous workplaces (Clay-Warner

et al., 2013; Sherman & Morley, 2015). Extant literature has shown that temporary employees are unlikely to have relational psychological contracts with organisations and are consequently less likely to experience psychological contract violations (Chambel et al., 2016; Conway & Briner, 2002) or to expect socioemotional support from their employers (Park, 2016). As permanent and temporary employees have different expectations of their employers, they also have diverse perceptions of what justice and support in the employment relationship entail, and tend to react differently when perceiving injustice or a lack of support in the workplace (Chambel et al., 2016; Park, 2016; Sherman & Morley, 2015).

Longer-tenured employees tend to have a positive view of their employers' intentions and the way their employers treat them, which results in higher levels of POS (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012). However, these employees also have higher expectations of their employers as they contribute a certain level of knowledge and experience to the organisation (Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993). Hence they tend to monitor the balance in the exchange relationship more vigilantly, and are more likely to experience psychological contract violations (Bal, De Lange, Zacher, et al., 2013; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Wright & Bonett, 2002) and to perceive injustice in the workplace (Elamin & Tlaiss, 2015; Heffernan, 2012). Furthermore, as employees' tenure within an organisation increases, or as they are promoted to supervisory or managerial positions, they tend to gain a better understanding of the factors impacting on resource allocation and decision making in the organisation, resulting in more realistic expectations and an enhanced perception of procedural fairness (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; H. D. C. Thomas & Anderson, 1998).

Employees' level of education has also been shown to influence the support they receive from their employing organisations and the value they ascribe to different dimensions of justice in the workplace. While highly educated employees have a high regard for distributive and integrative justice (Elamin & Tlaiss, 2015), unskilled and semi-skilled employees place a greater value on procedural justice (Clay-Warner et al., 2013). Better qualified employees also tend to receive more socioemotional support from their employing organisations (Nielsen, 2014).

The above findings suggest that standardised methods of dealing with employees are not sufficient in the modern workplace. Employees have diverse expectations of their employing organisations and increasingly expect their employers to acknowledge and accommodate these differences (Avery et al., 2012). While it was thus acknowledged that individual differences should be considered when dealing with employees, it was reiterated that the relationships as reported in this section are often negligible. Although cognisance was

therefore taken of these factors, it was anticipated that their influence on employees' work-related perceptions and experiences might be insignificant, and that employees' perceptions of justice and support and the extent to which they experience psychological contract violations in the workplace, might rather be a function of situational or organisational factors.

7.6.3 Person-centred variables associated with organisational cynicism and trust and cultural disposition

It has been suggested that person-centred variables exist that may influence individuals' inclination to trust others and to engage in trusting behaviour (Bews & Martins, 2002; Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006). In addition, various person-centred variables have also been shown to influence the way in which trust develops in relationships (Bews & Uys, 2002; Hatipoglu & Inelmen, 2018; Shoss et al., 2016; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010; Wöhrle et al., 2014). Such variables include, for instance, gender, age, population group, experience, tenure, disciplinary background, employment status and levels of education and employment (Bews & Uys, 2002; Jiang et al., 2017; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010; Yakovleva et al., 2010).

Research on the potential influence of person-centred variables on organisational cynicism and trust, however, has been largely inconclusive and, in some instances, contradictory. Nevertheless, to ensure that all variables that may potentially influence the development of organisational cynicism and trust in organisations are considered, the main relationships that have been reported in extant literature are summarised in Table 7.3 below and briefly discussed.

Lower levels of organisational trust exist among temporary, unskilled or semi-skilled, lower-level employees – especially those who are union members (Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Cyster, 2009; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011). As trust develops over time, the significance of its antecedents changes, which implies that longer-tenured employees may have different views on the trustworthiness of their employing organisations than newly appointed employees (Frazier et al., 2016; Jones & Shah, 2016). In terms of personal characteristics, younger, white females are anticipated to be the most trusting towards their employing organisations and its managers (Burns, 2006; Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Dohmen et al., 2008; Posel & Hinks, 2013; Smith, 2010).

Table 7.3

Person-centred Variables Associated with Organisational Cynicism and Trust and Cultural Disposition

Person-centred variables	Mediating variables		Moderating variable
	Organisational cynicism	Organisational trust	Individualism/collectivism
Gender	Males are reported to experience higher levels of cynicism than females.	Owing to innate role differences, females tend to be more trusting than males.	Men have been reported to be more likely to base their self-concepts on individualism and independence, whereas women are more likely to embrace the notion of a collectivist, interdependent self.
Age	Cynicism has been shown to more prevalent in specific age categories (18–24 years and 55 years old and above). Older and younger employees tend to respond differently to cynicism.	While interdisciplinary trust has been shown to increase with age, a negative relationship exists between age and trust in management.	Individualism has been found to be more prominent among younger individuals.
Population group	Different levels of cynicism are reported among members of different population groups. These differences may, however, be ascribed to educational attainment and economic well-being, resulting from being part of a particular population group.	Blacks tend to be less trusting than whites, but these differences may be ascribed to factors such as socioeconomic status and education rather than belonging to a particular population group. Individuals who are members of a discriminated or disadvantaged group are less likely to trust individuals from another group.	Persons of colour have been reported to display more collectivistic characteristics than Caucasians.
Education level	Cynicism is more prevalent among less-educated employees.	Skilled or highly educated employees tend to more trusting than their semi-skilled or unskilled counterparts.	Individualism is associated with higher levels of education.

Person-centred variables	Mediating variables		Moderating variable
	Organisational cynicism	Organisational trust	Individualism/collectivism
Employment status	Permanent employees tend to be less cynical. This may, however, be ascribed to higher levels of education and income associated with long-term full-time employment.	Although it has been theorised that temporary employees experience lower levels of organisational trust, this assumption has not found empirical support.	
Tenure	As employees' expectations become more realistic over time, it is anticipated that a negative relationship exists between tenure and cynicism towards the organisation and its managers.	Longer-tenured employees are expected to be more inclined to trust their employing organisations, and their trusting relationships with their employers are less likely to change on the basis of solitary events. Tenure influences the development of trust in that the different antecedents of trust (propensity to trust, ability, benevolence and integrity) become more or less significant over time.	
Job level	Employees at the lower levels in organisations tend to be more cynical than senior employees.	Senior managers are less vulnerable and are therefore more likely to trust their employing organisations.	Lower levels of employment are often associated with collectivism.
Union membership	Union members are more cynical and the presence of a trade union may contribute to higher levels of cynicism in organisations.	Trade union members tend to display lower levels trust towards their employing organisations.	Because unionisation is intrinsically collectivist in nature, positive associations between collectivism and union membership may be expected.

Sources: Alesina & La Ferrara (2002); Andersson (1996); Ballinger & Rockmann (2010); Blunsdon & Reed (2003); Bommer et al. (2004); Bosman, Buitendach, et al. (2005); Brandes et al. (2008); Brown & Cregan (2008); Burns (2006); Chang, O'Neill et al. (2016); Clark & Eisenstein (2013); Cyster (2009); De Gilder (2003); Dohmen et al. (2008); Eaton & Louw (2000); Frazier et al. (2016); Gaines et al. (1997); González-Morales et al. (2012); Josephs et al. (1992); Meyer & Steyn (2008); Mirvis & Kanter (1989, 1991); Naus et al. (2007); Posel & Hinks (2013); Reichers et al. (1997); Robinson & Jackson (2001); Schwartz & Rubel (2005); Searle, Den Hartog, et al. (2011); Smith (2010); Thacker (2015); Triandis & Gelfand (2011); Triandis & Singelis (1998); Triandis (1993, 2004); Triandis et al. (1990); Wei, Ma et al. (2015); Wrightsman (1992)

It has also been shown that younger workers at the lower levels in organisations, especially those who are unskilled and in temporary employment and have not been in the organisation for an extended period, tend to be more cynical towards their employing organisations and their managers (Andersson, 1996; Brandes et al., 2008; Brown & Cregan, 2008; Mirvis & Kanter, 1989; Naus et al., 2007; Sheel & Vohra, 2016; Wrightsman, 1992). Higher levels of cynicism are also expected among black men who are trade union members (Brown & Cregan, 2008; González-Morales et al., 2012; Meyer & Steyn, 2008; Mirvis & Kanter, 1991).

Although some differences in terms of organisational cynicism and trust have therefore been reported on the basis of individual characteristics, it was anticipated that these characteristics play a relatively minor role when attempting to predict the development of trust or cynicism in an employment relations context. Although cognisance was thus taken of the potential impact of these characteristics on the development of organisational cynicism and trust, necessitating the inclusion of personal characteristics as control variables in the proposed psychological framework, it was postulated that employees' trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations would depend more on their work-related perceptions and work experiences than on these individual differences.

The relationship between person-centred variables and cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism was also considered. It was suggested that collectivism may be more prominent among young, female employees from previously disadvantaged groups who are in lower-level employment (Eaton & Louw, 2000; Josephs et al., 1992; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Wei, Wang et al., 2015). Positive associations with an individualistic disposition were found for white males who are highly educated and appointed at a senior level (Triandis, 1993; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011; Triandis et al., 1990; Triandis & Singelis, 1998). It was posited that, while the associations between employees' individual characteristics and their cultural dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism, might inform a clearer understanding of the underpinnings of employees' perceptions, attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, these differences were not expected to have a significant influence on the relationships between the independent, mediating, moderating and dependent variables of relevance in the proposed psychological framework.

In order to address literature research aim 7, the reported associations between a range of person-centred characteristics (gender, age, population group, experience, tenure, disciplinary background, employment status and levels of education and employment) and the independent, mediating, moderating and dependent variables of relevance in this study were thus documented. Because some associations between these variables were reported, it was

deemed necessary to retain them as control variables in the proposed psychological framework. Although extant research has suggested that the relationships are likely to be weak and/or insignificant, the inclusion of these person-centred variables in the theorised psychological framework would ensure that any potential confounding effects would be eliminated, resulting in a more accurate and robust comprehension of employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences and their influence on relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. It may thus be concluded that literature research aim 7 has been successfully achieved.

7.7 INTEGRATED THEORETICAL PSYCHOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

***Literature research aim 7:** To outline the elements of the psychological framework for enhancing employees' relational attitudes and behaviour based on the theoretical relationship dynamics between the constructs*

A comprehensive review of the literature relating to the independent (psychological contract violation, POS and POJ), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust), moderating (individualism/collectivism) and dependent (organisational and union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables that were deemed of relevance in achieving the aims of this study were provided in the preceding chapters. All these constructs were conceptualised and explained, drawing on valid theoretical models. The relationships between these variables, as supported by extant theory, were explored and reported throughout. This section concludes with the presentation of an integrated theorised psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in a South African employment relations context as informed by the literature review. This psychological framework is presented in Figure 7.1, and the hypothesised relationships between the elements of the framework that were derived from the literature review are stated.

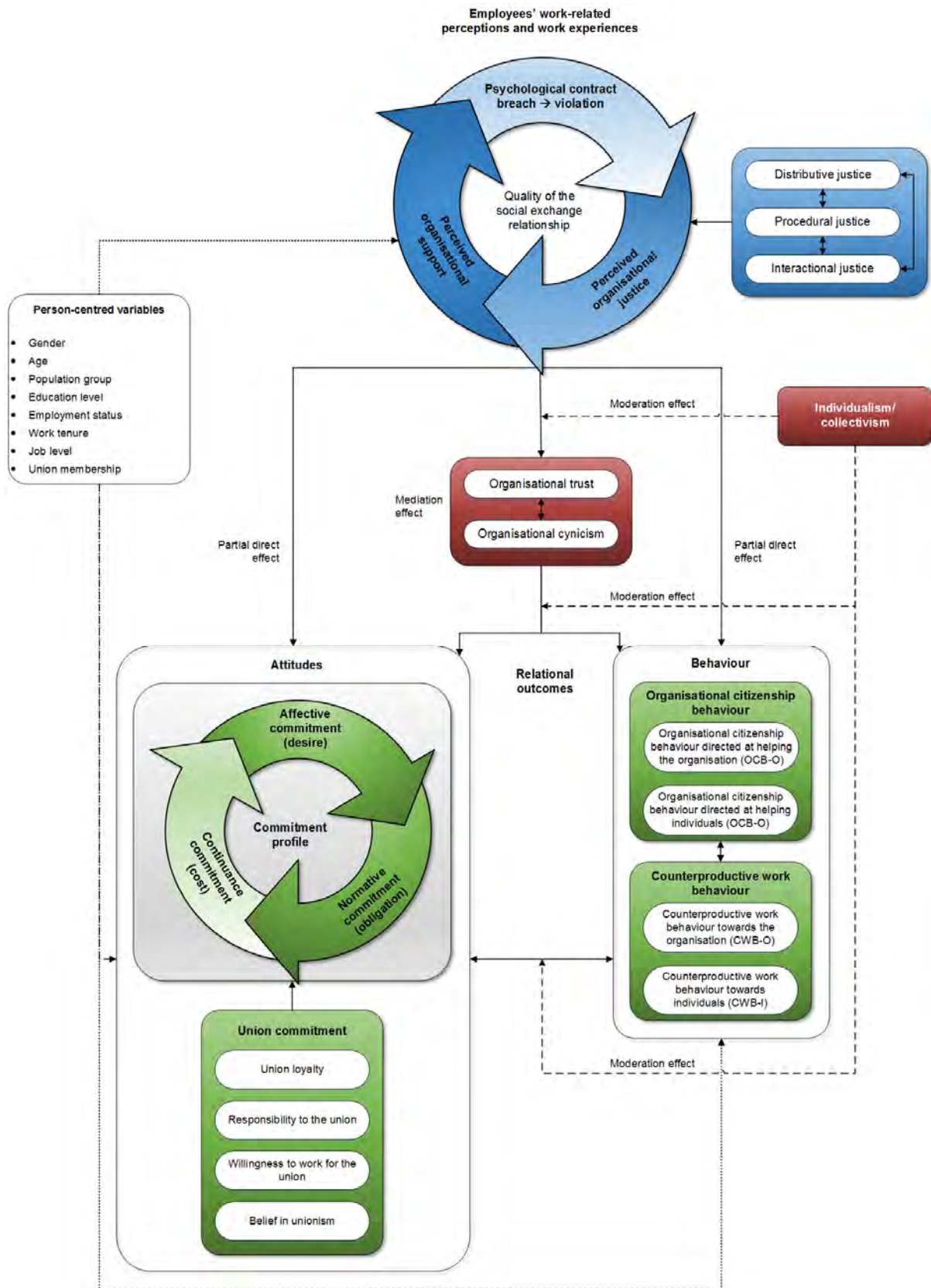


Figure 7.1. Integrated Theorised Psychological Framework for Enhancing Relational Attitudes and Behaviour in a South African Employment Relations Context

The point of departure in conceptualising the theorised psychological framework was the behavioural outcomes deemed essential in an employment relations context. Employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace was posited as the main relational outcome. These behaviours include both organisational citizenship behaviour (positive) and counterproductive work behaviour (negative) as theoretically distinct constructs. The study focused specifically on these behavioural outcomes as they have been shown to shape the organisational, social and psychological context in which employers and employees operate, thereby affecting the organisation's functioning. It was shown that both these forms of discretionary behaviour may be directed at the employing organisation (OCB-O and CWB-O) or individuals in it (OCB-I and CWB-I).

It was furthermore envisaged that employees may hold relational attitudes that influence employer-employee relationships. These attitudes were posited as employees' commitment to two potentially opposing entities in employment relations, namely the employing organisation and trade unions. Organisational commitment was consequently advanced as the main attitudinal outcome in an employment relations context because the primary relationship exists between employees and their employing organisations. Organisational commitment, however, was presented from two perspectives. Firstly, it was regarded as an attitudinal outcome reflecting employees' emotional attachment to and willingness to make an effort on behalf of their employing organisations. Secondly, it was viewed as a predictor of discretionary employee behaviour in the workplace.

Hypothesised relationship 1: Organisational commitment is a significant predictor of employees' discretionary behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace.

The literature review (see section 3.3.4) supports this proposition because significant positive associations between organisational commitment (as a global construct) and OCB as well as significant negative relationships between organisational commitment and CWB were shown to exist. However, differential associations between the three dimensions of organisational commitment (AC, NC and CC) and behavioural outcomes were reported. AC was shown to be the strongest predictor of OCB, followed by NC, while contradictory findings were reported in terms of the CC-OCB relationship, showing both significant (positive and negative) and insignificant associations. Negative relationships with all three dimensions of organisational commitment (AC, NC and CC) and CWB were shown to exist, with AC showing the strongest relationship. It was furthermore indicated that AC, NC and CC have an interactive or synergistic effect on discretionary behaviour. Hence, optimal commitment profiles (most likely

fully committed, AC/NC-dominant and AC-dominant) exist that will significantly relate to discretionary behaviour (both OCB and CWB, but in opposite directions).

Trade union members' commitment to their unions (i.e. union commitment) was presented as a contrasting attitudinal outcome reflecting employees' affective attachment to and willingness to make an effort on behalf of a trade union (as opposed to their employing organisation).

Hypothesised relationship 2: Union commitment is a significant predictor of organisational commitment and employees' discretionary behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace.

Drawing on union commitment literature (see section 3.4.5), it was posited that union commitment may serve as a predictor of discretionary employee behaviour (OCB and CWB). While relationships between union commitment and both OCB and CWB have been reported, the directions of these relationships were unexpected. Positive relationships between union commitment and both OCB-O and OCB-I, for instance, have been shown to exist.

Although union commitment has thus been linked to both positive and negative discretionary employee behaviour, one would expect its main influence on organisation-related behaviour to lie in its interaction with organisational commitment. In section 3.4.4, it was shown that dual commitment to the organisation and trade union is unlikely to exist in an antagonistic employment relations environment typically found in South African organisations. It was thus posited that a strong commitment to a trade union, might negatively influence the extent to which trade union members commit to their employing organisations.

The next step in constructing the theorised psychological framework was to consider the extent to which employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) as a set of antecedent variables may predict their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in an organisation. These antecedents were selected on the basis of their prominence in the literature and their relevance in an employment relations context. Specific care was taken to select variables that reflect both the conflict and collaborative dimensions of the employment relationship in order to embrace the broader conceptualisation of employment relations advanced in Chapter 2.

Hypothesised relationship 3: *Psychological contract violation is a significant predictor of employees' discretionary behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace.*

Opposing relationships between psychological contract breach and the two forms of discretionary behaviour have been reported (see section 4.2.5). Thus, while OCB has been shown to be negatively related to a psychological contract breach, higher levels of CWB have been reported following a psychological contract breach (i.e. a positive relationship exists). These relationships are exacerbated when a psychological contract violation is experienced. Hence, when employees experience an intense emotional reaction (i.e. a psychological contract violation) to a perceived imbalance in the exchange relationship (i.e. a psychological contract breach), they are more likely to withhold positive discretionary behaviour (OCB) and/or engage in undesirable actions (CWB).

The strength of the associations differs, depending on the target of behaviour. Stronger relationships exist between psychological contract breach and violation and organisationally directed behaviour (OCB-O and CWB-O) than behaviour directed at individuals in the organisation (OCB-I and CWB-I).

Hypothesised relationship 4: *Psychological contract violation is a significant predictor of organisational and union commitment.*

Employees who perceive a breach of the psychological contract typically display lower levels of commitment towards their employing organisations (see section 4.2.5.1). A direct negative relationship between perceived psychological contract breach and organisational commitment therefore exists. It has also been shown that an indirect relationship between these constructs may exist, with psychological contract violation as intervening variable (depicted in Figure 4.3). This implies that organisational commitment will be lower when a psychological contract violation (as opposed to a breach) is experienced.

In unionised workplaces, employees who observe a breach of the psychological contract may display higher levels of union commitment, reflecting a direct positive relationship between psychological contract breach and union commitment (see section 4.2.5.2). An indirect relationship between these constructs, with psychological contract violation as an intervening variable, may also exist (depicted in Figure 4.4). Union commitment is postulated to be higher in the event of an experienced psychological contract violation than when a perceived psychological contract breach occurs without the ensuing affective reaction.

Hypothesised relationship 5: *Perceived organisational justice (POJ) is a significant predictor of employees' discretionary behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace.*

Employees who perceive that they are fairly treated by their employing organisations are more likely to reciprocate by engaging in discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation and its people. Hence, there are positive relationships between perceived organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour directed towards both the organisation (OCB-O) and individuals in it (OCB-I) (see section 4.3.5.3). In contrast, as indicated in section 4.3.5.4, employees who experience injustice in their working environments may resort to CWB to restore the perceived relational imbalance, supporting a negative relationship between POJ and CWB. Perceived injustice may elicit behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation as a whole (CWB-O) or individual organisational representatives (CWB-I). Negative associations therefore exist between POJ and CWB as a global construct, as well as the two dimensions of CWB (CWB-O and CWB-I). It may be anticipated that stronger relationships exist between POJ and organisationally directed behaviour (OCB-O and CWB-O) than behaviour directed at individuals in the organisation (OCB-I and CWB-I).

The three justice dimensions (PJ, DJ and IJ) have been shown to have differentiating effects on behavioural outcomes. While associations between all three dimensions and OCB (positive) and CWB (negative) have been shown to exist, the strength of their relationships with discretionary employee behaviour has been reported to differ. Interactional justice has been found to be a better predictor of discretionary employee behaviour, followed by procedural and then distributive justice.

Hypothesised relationship 6: *Perceived organisational justice (POJ) is a significant predictor of organisational and union commitment.*

Contrasting relationships exist between employees' perceptions of organisational justice (POJ) and their commitment to their employing organisations and trade unions. While high levels of commitment exist when employees regard their employing organisations' dealings with their employees as fair (see section 4.3.5.1), higher levels of union commitment are expected to prevail in unionised organisations when injustice in employer-employee interactions is observed (see section 4.3.5.2).

Furthermore, the three justice dimensions (procedural, distributive and interactional) have differentiating effects on attitudinal outcomes. Although strong positive correlations between

all three dimensions and organisational commitment have been reported, procedural and interactional justice have been shown to be the most robust predictors of organisational commitment, with interactional justice being dominant in collectivistic societies. Similar (but negative) relationships have been reported for union commitment, with union members' perceptions of procedural fairness in their organisations reported to be the strongest predictor of union commitment.

Hypothesised relationship 7: *Perceived organisational support (POS) is a significant predictor of employees' discretionary behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace.*

Perceived organisational support is positively associated with discretionary employee behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation (OCB-O) or individuals in it (OCB-I) (see section 4.4.6.3). Similarly, a perceived lack of support may give rise to actions aimed at harming the organisation (CWB-O) or people in it (CWB-I), reflecting a negative relationship between POS and CWB, as described in section 4.4.6.4. Since employees' discretionary behaviour is intended as a reciprocal reaction to the employing organisation's actions (rather than the actions of individual organisational representatives), it was anticipated that the relationships would be stronger for organisationally directed behaviour (OCB-O and CWB-O) than for individually directed behaviour (OCB-I and CWB-I).

Hypothesised relationship 8: *Perceived organisational support (POS) is a significant predictor of organisational and union commitment.*

A positive relationship between employees' perceptions of organisational support (POS) and their commitment to their employing organisations exists (see section 4.4.6.1). Hence, employees who observe that their employing organisations value their contributions and care for their well-being, are more inclined to be loyal towards and to make an effort in support of these organisations.

However, differential relationship between POS and the three dimensions of organisational commitment have been reported. While positive associations between POS and both affective commitment and normative commitment have been found, a negative relationship has been reported between POS and continuance commitment. It has also been suggested that higher levels of POS may be associated with the development of optimal commitment profiles (i.e. fully committed, AC/NC-dominant or AC-dominant).

In section 4.4.6.2, it was suggested that a negative relationship might exist between POS and union commitment. Employees, whose socioemotional needs are addressed by a union rather than their employing organisations, will thus be more inclined to direct their loyalties and commitment to the trade union.

Hypothesised relationship 9: *Perceived organisational support (POS), perceived organisational justice (POJ) and psychological contract violation will have a synergistic effect on employees' attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace.*

Negative relationships between psychological contract breach/violation and organisational justice perceptions have been reported (see section 4.3.3). Thus, employees who perceive that their psychological contracts have been violated are more likely to experience injustice in the workplace. Likewise, these employees may perceive that they are not cared for and valued by their employers, reflecting a negative relationship between psychological contract violation and perceived organisational support (POS) (see section 4.4.5). It might thus be anticipated that employees' perceptions of psychological contract violations, organisational support (POS) and organisational justice (POJ) interactively contribute to shaping their views in terms of the quality of the social exchange relationship. The quality they ascribe to the social exchange relationships with their employing organisations, in turn, influences their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

Hypothesised relationship 10: *Organisational trust is an outcome of employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation).*

In section 5.1.4.1, it was reported that a negative relationship exists between psychological contract violation and organisational trust. This may be ascribed to the perceived untrustworthiness of the employer and the increased risk associated with psychosocial contract violation. In addition, positive relationships between both POS and POJ and organisational trust have been reported (see sections 5.1.4.2 and 5.1.4.3). Hence, employees are expected to develop trust in their employing organisations if these organisations treat their employees fairly, while demonstrating consideration for the needs of their employees and support for their general well-being.

While all three dimensions of organisational justice (procedural, distributive and interactional) have been associated with organisational trust, because of the relational focus of this study,

it was anticipated that procedural and interactive justice would show stronger relationships with organisational trust (viewed as an affective psychological state) than distributive justice.

Hypothesised relationship 11: *Organisational trust is a predictor of relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB).*

Positive relationships between organisational trust (notably affect-based trust) and both organisational commitment and OCB have consistently been reported (see sections 5.1.5.1 and 5.1.5.2). As indicated in section 5.1.5.1, different relationships, however, have been reported for the three dimensions of organisational commitment. While organisational trust has been positively linked to both affective and normative commitment, the former relationship was stronger. In addition, negative or insignificant associations have been reported between organisational trust and continuance commitment.

While it has been suggested that a negative relationship might exist between organisational trust and union commitment (see section 5.1.5.1), this relationship needs to be empirically confirmed. Organisational trust was expected to relate more significantly to organisational commitment than to union commitment.

In terms of OCB, positive relationships between organisational trust and both organisationally directed (OCB-O) and individually directed (OCB-I) OCB have been reported, and the former was found to be stronger. In contrast, a negative association between organisational trust and CWB has been reported (see section 5.1.5.2). It was anticipated that a stronger relationship would exist between organisational trust and CWB directed towards the organisation (CWB-O) than CWB directed towards individuals in it (CWB-I).

High levels of organisational trust have also been associated with decreased cynicism among employees (see section 5.2.1.2), suggesting a synergistic effect of organisational cynicism and trust on relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

Hypothesised relationship 12: *Organisational cynicism is an outcome of employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation).*

While a positive relationship between psychological contract violation and organisational cynicism has been reported, negative associations exist between both POS and POJ and organisational cynicism (see section 5.2.4). Employees who perceive an imbalance in the social exchange relationship might thus attribute this imbalance to their employing

organisations questioning their ability, integrity and intent, resulting in higher levels of cynicism towards the organisation or people in it. If, however, employees feel appreciated and are treated with respect and impartiality, they are unlikely to become cynical towards their organisations.

Hypothesised relationship 13: *Organisational cynicism is a predictor of relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB).*

It was shown in section 5.2.5 that organisational cynicism might be negatively associated with both organisational commitment and OCB, while positive relationships exist between organisational cynicism and CWB. Employees who have negative expectations about the intent, ability and integrity of their employing organisation and its managers will therefore be unlikely to engage in positive behaviour beyond what is formally required. In addition, they will be more likely to engage in CWB, which may include engaging in union-related activities. Such employees are consequently also expected to report higher levels of union commitment and are unlikely to harbour an affective attachment (AC) or moral obligation (NC) towards the organisation. Even if they feel pressurised to remain in the organisation (high CC), they are unlikely to engage in desired behaviour in the workplace, especially if it is not required in terms of a contract of employment. While negative relations therefore exist between both AC and NC and organisational cynicism, there is a positive association between CC and organisational cynicism.

Hypothesised relationship 14: *Organisational cynicism and trust may be regarded as mediating variables in the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB).*

It was established in Chapter 5 that organisational cynicism and trust might have a mediating effect on the relationship between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and dependent variables (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) of relevance in this study.

Hypothesised relationship 15a: *Individualism/collectivism may be regarded as a moderating construct in the relationship between the employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations.*

Hypothesised relationship 15b: Individualism/collectivism may be regarded as a moderating construct in the relationship between the employees' trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB).

Hypothesised relationship 15c: Individualism/collectivism may be regarded as a moderating construct in the relationship between the employees' relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB).

The moderating role of individualism/collectivism was explored in Chapter 6. It was posited that employees with different cultural dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism may have varied expectations of their employing organisations' obligations and the requisites of fairness in employment relationships. In addition, individualists and collectivists may have contradictory notions in terms of the kind of support needed from their employers. It was anticipated that individualists and collectivists may adopt different attitudes and display dissimilar behaviour in the workplace, based on the values embedded in their cultural orientations. However, it was suggested that the main moderating effect of individualism/collectivism lies in the ways employees with opposing cultural dispositions experience and react to events in the workplace.

In summary, it was posited that employers need to find ways of encouraging positive discretionary behaviour (OCB), while discouraging employees from engaging in undesirable behaviour (CWB) that might be detrimental to the organisation's success. This may be achieved by means of a relational focus incorporating elements of both conflict and cooperation that are deemed inherent in the employment relationship. It was suggested that OCB may be encouraged and CWB discouraged by enhancing employees' valuations of the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employing organisations. This may be achieved in the following three ways: (1) by fulfilling its reciprocal obligations in terms of the psychological contract; (2) by demonstrating appreciation for employees' contributions to the organisation and care for their wellbeing; and (3) by enhancing fairness in organisational practices. However, the relationship between employees' perceptions and experiences and their behaviour is immensely complex. Employers therefore need to understand that there are intervening factors that might influence the intended effect of positive organisational practices.

For instance, while employees who perceive high-quality social exchange relationships with their employing organisations, might be expected to more readily engage in OCB, this may not necessarily be the case if these employees do not experience an emotional attachment or

moral obligation (i.e. high levels of affective and normative commitment) towards their organisations. Employees' commitment to their employing organisations may, however, be challenged by an opposing commitment to a trade union. Although dual commitment to organisations and unions is theoretically plausible, it is unlikely in a highly antagonistic employment relations environment. It might thus be anticipated that employees who find socioemotional support in trade unionism, may display higher levels of union commitment, which may, in turn, be detrimental to their commitment to the organisation and their behaviour in the workplace. Employers also need to bear in mind, that employees form trusting or cynical beliefs about the organisation because of their experiences in the workplace. While trusting employees are more likely to engage in desirable workplace behaviour, cynical employees are less likely to do so, and may even choose to engage in behaviour intended to harm the organisation or people in it. In a country such as South Africa, with its diverse workforce, the influence of employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences may be further complicated by their cultural dispositions. It was anticipated that employees who hold collectivistic values might experience and react to workplace events differently than those with an individualistic disposition. Employers can therefore no longer afford to carelessly subscribe to Westernised (individualistic) organisational practices on the assumption that these actions will have the desired effect.

The purpose of the integrated theoretical psychological framework proposed in this section was to improve awareness of the complexities inherent in the employment relationship and the ways in which these elements might influence employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. The elements of the psychological framework, as theorised in the literature review, were illustrated in Figure 7.1. The theoretical relationship dynamics between the constructs were reported, providing support for the configuration of the elements in the framework. It was suggested that this framework may assist employers to find ways of enhancing employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the South African employment relations context, thereby contributing to both organisational success and individual need achievement. Literature research aim 7 was therefore achieved. The reported associations informed the research hypotheses that were formulated in Chapter 8 and guided the empirical study, which formed the second phase of this research.

While the purpose of the theorised psychological framework was to enhance relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, it was specifically conceptualised in an employment relations context. It was therefore also deemed essential to highlight its implications for employment relations practices, which was the final research aim of the literature review.

7.8 IMPLICATIONS FOR EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS PRACTICES

Literature research aim 8: *To identify the implications of the psychological framework for employment relations practices and to formulate recommendations to facilitate the development of high-quality employment relationships and positive relational outcomes*

As outlined in Chapter 2, this study was conducted in a South African employment relations context. It was posited that employers who wish to enhance employees' commitment to and behaviour in support of the organisation must determine how individual employees' dispositions, perceptions and work experiences impact on the way they regard management, how they feel towards the organisation, and ultimately, how they behave in the workplace. With this goal in mind, a theorised psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in an employment relations context was proposed. The elements of this framework were outlined in the previous section. The relevance of each of these elements for employment relations was described in the literature review. The main implications of the proposed psychological framework for employment relations practices are integrated in Table 7.4, and recommendations are made for facilitating the development of high-quality employment relationships and positive relational outcomes. Literature research aim 8 was therefore successfully achieved.

Table 7.4

Implications of the Psychological Framework for Employment Relations Practices

Element	Implications for ER practices	Recommendations
Organisational citizenship behaviour (see section 3.2.7)	OCB is regarded as reflective of cooperation in employment relations – an element that has received limited attention in comparison with conflict, which is deemed inherent in the employment relationship. Enhancing OCB has been shown to be critical for organisational success. This can, however, only be achieved if the social exchange relationship between employees and their employing organisations is improved.	Organisations should not focus only on the transactional and legal aspects of employment relationships. They should cultivate an understanding of employees' socioeconomic needs. Appreciating and addressing these needs are expected to enhance employees' perceptions of the quality of the social exchange relationships they hold with their employing organisations and ultimately to benefit both the organisation and its employees.
Counter-productive work behaviour (see section 3.2.7)	CWB incorporates a range of undesirable employee behaviours reflecting the adversarial nature of employer-employee relations. These behaviours may be individual (e.g. theft or sabotage) or collective (e.g. industrial action) in nature. Employment relations practices are traditionally aimed at dealing with the consequences of undesirable behaviour rather than finding proactive ways of discouraging such behaviour.	Instead of relying on laws and procedures to reprimand employees who engage in undesirable behaviour, organisations should find ways of enhancing the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employees. This may be achieved by showing compassion for employees' needs and consideration of their contributions to the organisation, while ensuring fairness in all employer-employee interactions.
Organisational commitment (see section 3.3.5)	When aiming to devise ways of improving employment relationships, it is essential to consider not only employees' emotional attachment towards their employing organisations, but also to contemplate the context in which this commitment is experienced.	Employers who are able to create positive work conditions that encourage both a desire to remain in the organisation (AC) and a moral imperative to do (NC) so, are more likely to succeed in fostering positive employer-employee relations and increasing the likelihood of employees engaging in desired behaviour.
Union commitment (see section 3.4.7)	When negative management-union relationships exist, employees are forced to direct their loyalties to either the organisation or the trade union (or neither of them). Dual commitment to these entities, however, is	Rather than searching for ways to circumvent trade unions in the workplace (i.e. decreasing union commitment), employers may benefit by embracing them. Union-related activities should thus not be discouraged,

Element	Implications for ER practices	Recommendations
	possible if a positive ER climate prevails. In a unionised environment, dual commitment to the organisation and trade union is more likely to result in positive workplace behaviour than unilateral commitment to either entity.	but should rather be regarded as essential in building better employer-employee relations.
Psychological contract violation (see section 4.2.6)	The psychological contract relates to the informal and individual dimensions of the employment relationship, which are often neglected in employment relations theory and practice. Because the psychological contract reflects the employee's beliefs about the employment relationship, it is a primary lens through which employee experiences are filtered, making it central to understanding employer-employee relations in the workplace. When an employer is perceived as failing to meet its psychological contract obligations, either deliberately (reneging) or unknowingly (incongruence), it has negative consequences, including reductions in organisational commitment and OCB and increased union commitment and CWB.	A better understanding of the psychological contract, and more specifically, the impact of perceived breach or violation thereof on employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace is needed to promote more positive and sustainable employment relationships. Employers need to find ways of addressing the negative attitudinal and behavioural responses that often follow employees' perceptions of unfulfilled social obligations in terms of the psychological contract.
Perceived organisational justice (see section 4.3.6)	Employees' perceptions of justice in their organisations are central to employment relations. When employees perceive injustice or inequity in their workplaces, they respond by adjusting their attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation.	A better understanding of organisational justice, and more specifically employees' perceptions of and reaction to injustice in the workplace, is essential to enable employers and employees to find common ground and enhance relations in the workplace.
Perceived organisational support (see section 4.4.8)	In an unstable and often antagonistic employment relations environment, it is essential for organisations to provide the support needed by employees to conduct their work and to deal with the uncertainty and challenges that arise.	In order to enhance the quality of the employer-employee relationship, supportive actions should be seen as sincere and discretionary initiatives aimed at addressing specific employee needs, rewarding effort and ensuring long-term well-being.

Element	Implications for ER practices	Recommendations
Organisational trust (see section 5.1.6)	Trust is an essential element of effective employer-employee relations and enhances the parties' willingness to work together towards a common goal.	<p>Trusting employer-employee relations are only possible if organisations find ways of balancing control with cooperation and consensus. By refraining from relying on overtly legalistic and formal approaches to dealing with employees, trusting, high-quality exchange relationships may be established. Organisational and ER practices should have a relational focus by providing employees with the necessary support and enhancing fairness, while showing employees that they are trusted and that their contributions to the organisation are recognised.</p> <p>In instances where the trust relationship has been violated, it is essential for organisations to find ways in which the trustworthiness that employees ascribe to their employing organisations can be restored.</p>
Organisational cynicism (see section 5.2.6)	Cynical employees perceive that their employers are uninterested in their personal well-being, resulting in bitterness and resentment towards the organisation and its managers. Cynicism is reflected in employees' lack of faith in the integrity of organisations and a belief that they are exploited. Organisational cynicism often results in decreased commitment and an unwillingness to engage in desirable behaviour in the workplace.	Employees who perceive their social exchange relationship with their employing organisations as negative, are more likely to become cynical and reciprocate by engaging in behaviour that is detrimental to their employing organisations and their managers. An increased awareness of possible adverse reactions to employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace may enable managers to better understand and react to cynical employees' attitudes towards and behaviour in organisations.
Individualism/collectivism (see section 6.6)	Personal dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism impact on the way employees relate to others and behave in the workplace. This also influences the extent to which employees base their relationship with the organisation on social exchange.	Employment relations policies, procedures and practices aimed at enhancing relations in the workplace will only be effective if cognisance is taken of culture-driven individual differences.

7.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter concluded the literature review by providing a theoretical integration and evaluation of the literature. It was reiterated that employment relations in South Africa served as the meta-theoretical context of this study. This was followed by a synthesis of the literature review, highlighting the conceptualisation of the constructs of relevance in this study, the main findings relating to each of these constructs and the interrelationships between them. Research gaps were identified and it was indicated how these gaps were addressed in the study. An integrated theorised psychological framework for enhancing employee attitudes and behaviour in a South African organisational context was proposed and the hypothesised relationships between the constructs specified. Finally, the implications of this framework for employment relations practices were explained and recommendations made in terms of employment relations practices.

The following research aims in terms of the literature review were achieved in this chapter:

Literature research aim 6: To determine how the biographical characteristics of individuals (gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) relate to their individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism, work-related perceptions and work experiences, their cynicism towards and trust in the organisation and their relational attitudes and behaviour

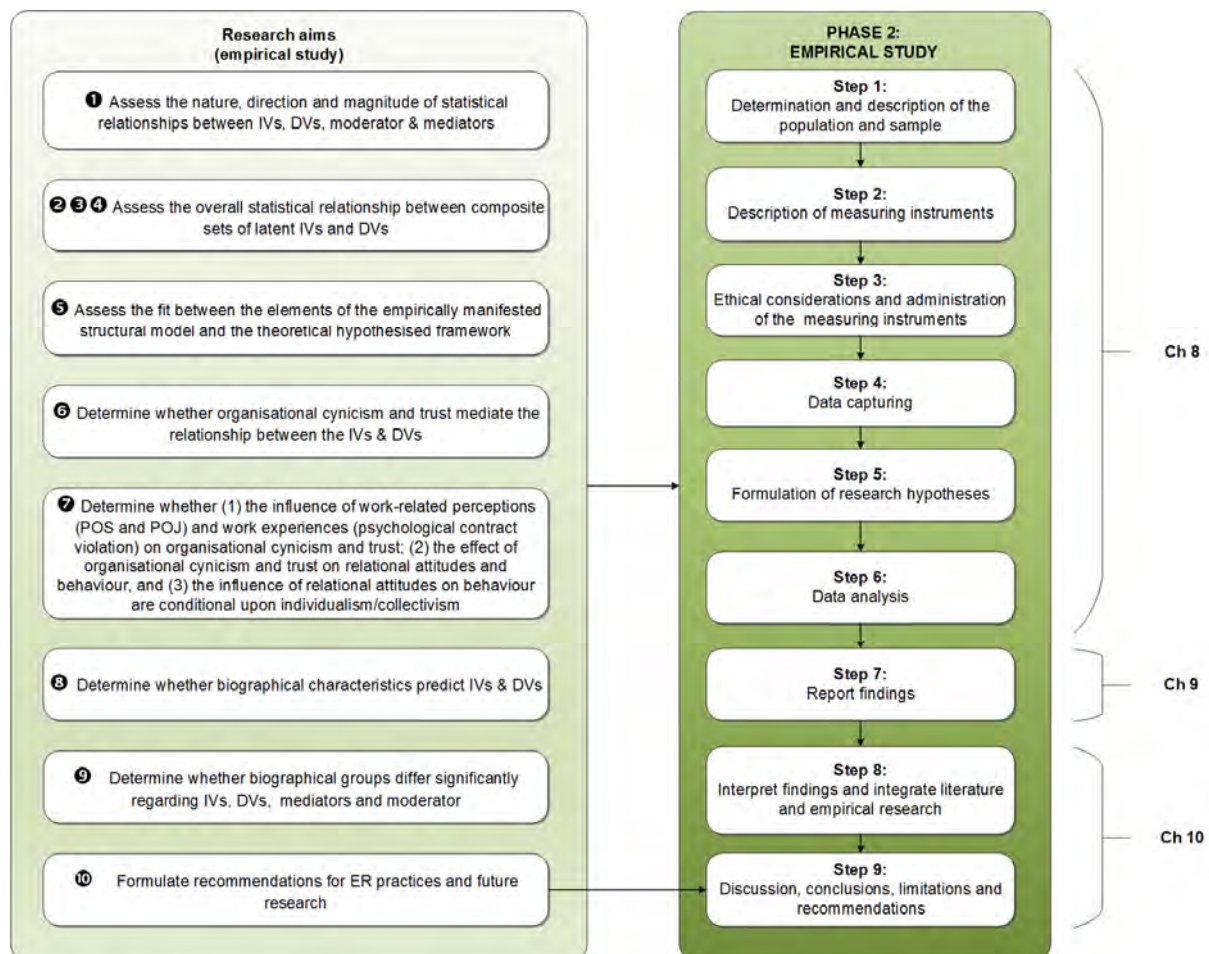
Literature research aim 7: To outline the elements of the psychological framework for enhancing employees' relational attitudes and behaviour based on the theoretical relationship dynamics between the constructs

Literature research aim 8: To identify the implications of the psychological framework for employment relations practices and to formulate recommendations to facilitate the development of high-quality employment relationships and positive relational outcomes

This chapter concludes the first phase of the research, namely the literature review (see Figure 1.3). The second phase (empirical study) is reported in the remaining chapters. Chapter 8 outlines the empirical investigation with the specific aim of assessing whether an empirically tested psychological framework aimed at enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in a South African employment relations context can be constructed. This is done by exploring the statistical strategies that can be employed to determine whether there is empirical support for the hypothesised relationships between the constructs (depicted in Figure 7.1).

CHAPTER 8: RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter is the starting point for the second phase of the research, namely the empirical study (see Figure 1.3 in Chapter 1). It highlights the statistical approach that was applied to determine whether a psychological framework aimed at enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in a South African employment relations context could be constructed. As indicated in Chapter 1 (see section 1.8.2), the empirical research phase consists of nine steps aimed at addressing the empirical research aims as illustrated in Figure 8.1.



Notes: IVs = Independent Variables; DVs = Dependent Variables; ER = Employment Relations

Figure 8.1. The Empirical Study: Research Aims and Steps

The main purpose of the chapter is thus to describe the empirical research method used in this study. It serves as a starting point for addressing the empirical research aims by presenting an overview of the population and sample of the study; discussing and justifying the choice of measuring instruments; describing the methods used for data gathering and analysis; outlining the ethical considerations and how they were addressed; formulating the

research hypotheses; and, finally, describing the process followed in analysing the data. Steps 1 to 6 (see Figure 8.1) of the empirical study are addressed in this chapter, while the remaining steps are addressed in Chapters 9 (research results) and 10 (discussion, conclusions, limitations and recommendations).

8.1 RESEARCH APPROACH

In this study, a deductive research approach was adopted in order to use empirical data to test theoretically posited relationships between identified variables (Saunders et al., 2016). This approach enabled the researcher to (1) identify and conceptualise the variables of relevance in the proposed psychological framework; (2) posit relationships between these variables based on what has been reported in extant literature; and (3) obtain empirical evidence and/or verification of these theoretically posited relationships.

In support of this approach, the researcher relied on a cross-sectional quantitative research design. Empirical data was collected from individual employees in South African organisations by means of an electronic survey. The unit of observation was therefore individual employees in South African organisations. The unit of analysis reflected the attitudes and behaviour of both individual employees and groups of employees in the organisational environment. Collecting primary data ensured that the operationalisation of the variables was in line with the theoretical conceptualisation thereof and that the information collected was aligned with the specific purposes of the study (Hair et al., 2016).

Cross-sectional quantitative designs have a number of limitations mainly relating to the analysis of causal relationships or changes over time and the comparability of samples (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). They are also susceptible to cohort effects (i.e. differences between age groups arising from the effects of growing up in different historical eras), which may reduce the internal validity of the results (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2017). Cross-sectional designs are, however, commonly used in social research because of their efficiency (when large volumes of data need to be collected in a limited period of time) and economical feasibility (the costs are relatively low) (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). Although a cross-sectional design does not lend itself to making causal inferences from the data, it was deemed appropriate for the purposes of this study because of its usefulness in gathering large-scale data from a wide target population that could be objectively analysed to make inferences about the relationships between the variables (Cohen et al., 2018). By including a broad cross-section of participants (in terms of gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) in the sample, it could be regarded as

reasonably representative of the broader South African workforce, as reflected in the quarterly Labour Force Survey (Statistics South Africa, 2016).

In this study, the quantitative nature of the data enabled the researcher to obtain descriptive, inferential and explanatory information that could be used to test hypotheses pertaining to the interrelationships between the variables (Cohen et al., 2018).

8.2 DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE POPULATION AND SAMPLE

A population can be defined as the total number of elements sharing a set of characteristics relevant to the research project (Hair et al., 2016). A sample is drawn from the population and may therefore be regarded as a selection of members of the population who are of interest in addressing the research objectives (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). Although representivity is a significant factor when making decisions relating to the sampling strategy to be adopted (Salkind, 2018), additional factors such as the availability of a suitable sampling frame, the accessibility and geographic dispersion of the population, the heterogeneity/homogeneity (i.e. the uniformity in composition or character) of the population and the time frame and resources available for the research should also be considered (Saunders et al., 2016).

The aim of the research was to enhance understanding of the factors influencing employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in a South African employment relations context. It was thus deemed essential to obtain data from a broad range of individuals employed in South African organisations rather than employees employed in selected organisations. The population of relevance in this study therefore constituted employed individuals working in a South African organisational context. However, because all employees in South Africa are not known or listed, it was necessary to identify a functional target population (i.e. a subset of the population) that would enable the researcher to glean information on the perceptions, experiences, attitudes and behaviours of a wide range of employees in South African workplaces.

The target population for this study, described as the actual focus of the research inquiry (Saunders et al., 2016), constituted 40 544 part-time and full-time students registered for selected qualifications and modules in business management at a higher education institution in South Africa. These qualifications and modules were selected because of their connection with the business or organisational environment, which functioned as the context for this particular study. Employment in an organisation operating in South Africa was set as a criterion

for participating in the research. Individuals were invited to complete an online survey. Although an element of self-selection sampling therefore existed, ensuring that inputs were obtained from individuals who harbour strong feelings about the research topic (Saunders et al., 2016), volunteers were only eligible to participate if they met set criteria (i.e. employed in a South African organisational setting).

A nonprobability sampling method was deemed appropriate for the purposes of this research as it was unlikely that equal probability for all South African employees being included in the research could be achieved, given the magnitude of the population, the absence of an accurate sampling frame and the limited period and resources available to complete the research. While applying a probability sampling method would have enhanced the representivity of the sample and hence the generalisability of the results (Hair et al., 2016), the use of purposive sampling (a nonprobability sampling method) was deemed more viable and appropriate in addressing the particular research questions, as outlined in Chapter 1 (see section 1.3). By adopting a heterogeneous purposive sampling strategy (Saunders et al., 2016), the units to be observed were selected on the basis of their usefulness or representivity in terms of the objectives of the research (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). This sampling strategy was aimed at gleaning a deeper understanding of the research questions, rather than generalising the findings to a broad population (Neuman & Robson, 2018). Care was taken to include employees from different groups in terms of gender, age, population group, education level, employment status (permanent and contract workers), tenure and job levels, as well as union membership. This strategy was deemed appropriate as it allowed for the selection of participants who reflect the diverse characteristics of the South African workforce, enhancing its representivity of the population while taking cognisance of the restrictions identified. It should be pointed out that the main objective of the research was not to make generalisations to the overall population, but rather to explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the proposed relationships between the various variables of concern to this study.

An invitation to participate in the research was extended to selected students per electronic mail and via the student portal. These students included all part-time and full-time students registered for selected qualifications and modules in business management at a higher education institution in South Africa during the 2016 academic year. By selecting students with similar fields of study, alternative sources of variance were reduced, thereby minimising potential noise (Li & Aksoy, 2007). Following the invitation, 1 887 students indicated their willingness to complete the research survey. Of these 1 887 students, 806 (42.7%) returned fully completed questionnaires. However, 66 of the respondents indicated that they were self-employed, doing informal work or unemployed, which meant that they did not meet the criteria

for participating in the study. This resulted in a final set of 740 responses from students employed in either a full-time or a temporary capacity in a South African organisation and who were willing to share their perceptions and experiences in the workplace. Although the sample represents a miniscule proportion of the target population (1.83%), the intention was not to generalise the findings to all students in business management, but rather to use the student population as a sample frame to obtain information on employed individuals' perceptions, experiences, attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. It is furthermore acknowledged that the results of this research may not reflect the perceptions, experiences, attitudes and behaviour of all South African employees. However, it is posited that, by ensuring heterogeneity in terms of the sample distribution and thereby reflecting the diverse characteristics of the South African workforce, an enriched understanding of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace could be obtained.

The profile of the sample is described according to the following sociodemographic variables: gender, age, population group, education level, employment status, tenure, job level, and union membership. The decision to include these categories of sociodemographic variables was based on the exploration of the variables that influence the constructs of relevance in the theorised psychological framework, namely OCB, CWB, organisational commitment, union commitment, organisational cynicism and trust, POS, POJ, psychological contract violation and individualism/collectivism (see section 7.6 in Chapter 7 for a summary of the potential influence of these person-centred variables on employees' perceptions, experiences, attitudes and behaviour).

8.2.1 Composition of the gender groups in the sample

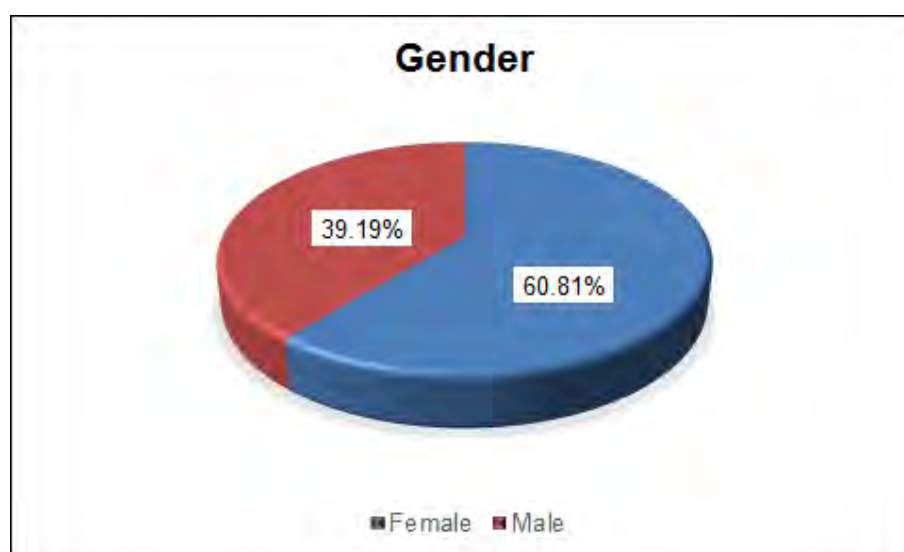
Table 8.1 and Figure 8.2 illustrate the gender distribution of respondents in the sample. Females comprised 60.81 per cent and males 39.19 per cent of the respondents (n = 740). This gender distribution differed somewhat from the national labour force at the time of data collection when 50.51 per cent of employees were reported to be females and 49.49 per cent males (Statistics South Africa, 2016).

Table 8.1

Gender Distribution of the Sample

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Female	450	60.81	60.81	60.81
Male	290	39.19	39.19	100.00
Total	740	100.00	100.00	

Note: n = 740.



Note: n = 740.

Figure 8.2. Sample Distribution by Gender

8.2.2 Composition of the age groups in the sample

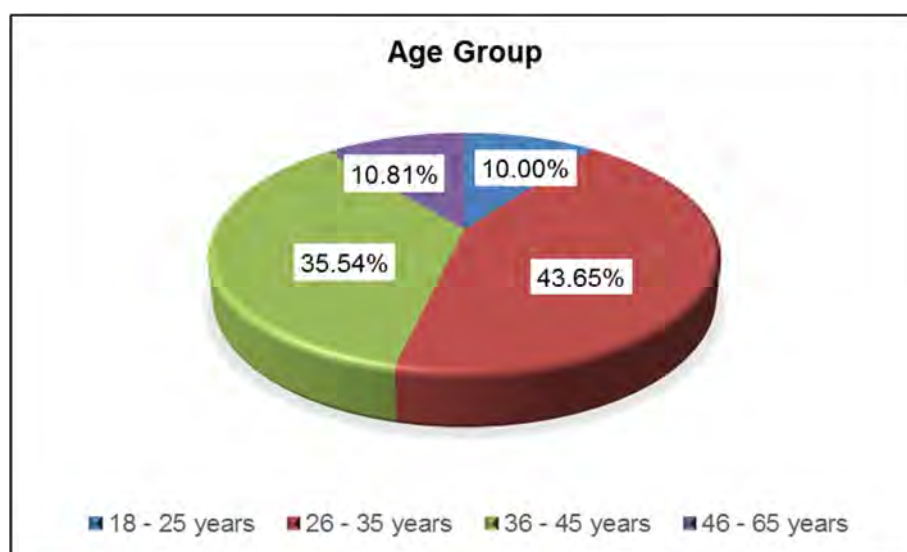
Table 8.2 and Figure 8.3 illustrate the composition of sample in terms of age groups. The age of the respondents was measured in categories, ranging from 18 to 65 years (none of the respondents were older than 65 years). The frequencies seemed to be concentrated mostly around the 26 to 35 age group (43.65%), and the 36 to 45 age group (35.54%). Respondents aged 18 to 25 years comprised 10.00 per cent of the sample (n = 740), while those between the ages of 46 and 65 comprised 10.81 per cent. This distribution differs slightly from that of the national labour force at the time of data collection, reflecting a deficit at the upper age cohort in the sample. At the time, Statistics South Africa (2016) reported representative figures of 8.30 per cent, 30.83 per cent, 31.07 per cent and 29.81 per cent respectively for the four age groups. Given the sample frame (employed business management students), it was anticipated, however, that there would be fewer respondents in the latter category (46 – 65 years). While the distribution of the sample in terms of age reflected the nature of the South

African workforce to some extent, with the majority of respondents falling within the 26 to 45 years age range, it is acknowledged that the relatively limited number of respondents in the 46 to 65 year category, may have influenced the data analysis and findings. The results relating to the influence of employee age on the dependent, independent, mediating and moderating variables were therefore interpreted with caution.

Table 8.2
Age Group Distribution of the Sample

Age group	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
18 – 25 years	74	10.00	10.00	10.00
26 – 35 years	323	43.65	43.65	53.65
36 – 45 years	263	35.54	35.54	89.19
46 – 65 years	80	10.81	10.81	100.00
Total	740	100.00	100.00	

Note: n = 740.



Note: n = 740.

Figure 8.3. Sample Distribution by Age Group

8.2.3 Composition of the population groups in the sample

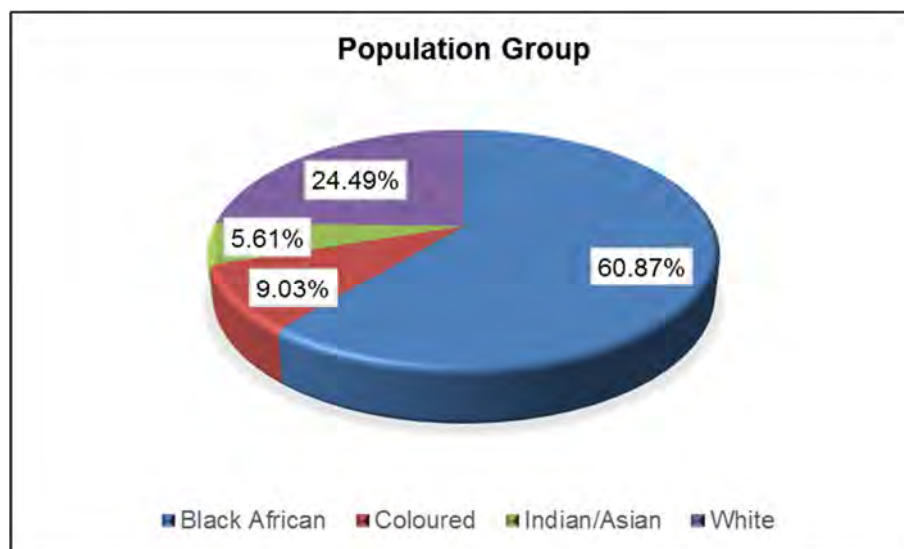
Table 8.3 and Figure 8.4 illustrate the population group distribution of the sample (n = 740). Black Africans comprised 60.87 per cent of the sample, followed by whites (24.49%), coloureds (9.03%) and Indians or Asians (5.61%). Some of the participants (1.22% of the total sample) preferred not to disclose their population groups and were regarded as missing values

in subsequent analyses. At the time of data collection, the composition of the national labour force in terms of population groups constituted 74.30 per cent black Africans, 10.49 per cent coloureds, 3.33 per cent Indians or Asians and 11.89 per cent whites (Statistics South Africa, 2016). Although there was a slight underrepresentation of black Africans and a certain extent of overrepresentation of white respondents in the sample in comparison with the national distribution, the sample was deemed representative of the broader dynamics of the South African workforce in terms of race. The results relating to the influence of population group on the dependent, independent, mediating and moderating variables were interpreted with caution, however, given the slight deviation from the national distribution.

Table 8.3
Population Group Distribution of the Sample

Population group	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Black African	445	60.13	60.87	60.87
Coloured	66	8.92	9.03	69.90
Indian or Asian	41	5.54	5.61	75.51
White	179	24.19	24.49	100.00
Total	731	98.78	100.00	
Missing (not specified)	9	1.22		
Total	740	100.00		

Note: n = 740.



Note: n = 740.

Figure 8.4. Sample Distribution by Population Group

8.2.4 Composition of the education level groups in the sample

The composition of the sample in terms of the respondents' level of education is illustrated in Table 8.4 and Figure 8.5. Given the sampling frame (students enrolled for business-related qualifications at a higher education institution), one might have expected the sample to comprise mainly respondents with at least a Grade 12 (NQF level 4) qualification. Registration for a tertiary qualification, however, is sometimes permitted on the basis of other criteria (e.g. age or work experience), which would explain the small number of respondents (0.68%) without a Grade 12 or equivalent (NQF level 4) qualification.

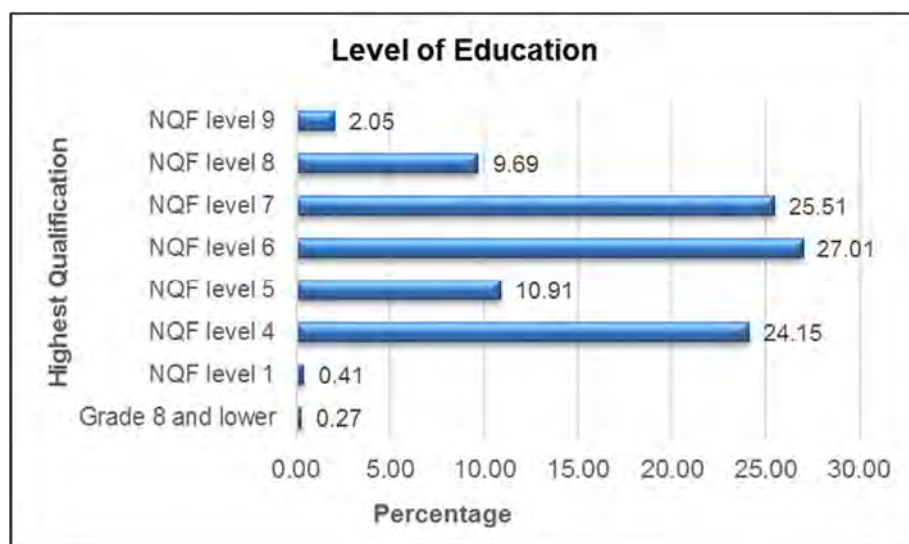
The distribution of the sample in terms of highest qualifications indicates that most of the respondents (27.01%) had completed a Diploma or Advanced Certificate at NQF level 6. While 35.06 per cent of the sample were undergraduate students who had completed Grade 12 (National Senior Certificate) (24.15%) or a Higher Certificate (10.91%), the sample also included postgraduate students who had completed a Bachelor's Degree or Advanced Diploma (25.51%), a Bachelor's Honours Degree, Postgraduate Diploma or professional qualification (9.69%) or a Master's degree (2.05%). Seven of the respondents (0.95% of the total sample) opted not to disclose their highest qualifications and were subsequently regarded as missing values in further analyses. This distribution understandably differs from the national workforce distribution, where close to half of the workforce (47.19%) are reported as not having completed their secondary school education (Statistics South Africa, 2016). It should thus be noted that the results of this study represent the work-related perceptions, work experiences, attitudes and behaviour of South African employees at the higher end of the educational spectrum and that this may differ from those of the unskilled or semi-skilled employees.

Table 8.4

Education Level Distribution of the Sample

Highest qualification obtained	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Grade 8 and lower	2	0.27	0.27	0.27
Grade 9 (General Education and Training Certificate; NQF level 1)	3	0.40	0.41	0.68
Grade 12 (Matric/National Senior Certificate; NQF level 4)	177	23.92	24.15	24.83
Higher Certificate (NQF level 5)	80	10.81	10.91	35.74
Diploma or Advanced Certificate (NQF level 6)	198	26.76	27.01	62.76
Bachelor's Degree or Advanced Diploma (NQF level 7)	187	25.27	25.51	88.27
Bachelor's Honours Degree, Postgraduate Diploma or professional qualification (NQF level 8)	71	9.59	9.69	97.95
Master's degree (NQF level 9)	15	2.03	2.05	100.00
Total	733	99.05	100.00	
Missing (not specified)	7	0.95		
Total	740	100.00		

Note: n = 740.



Note: n = 740.

Figure 8.5. Sample Distribution by Level of Education

8.2.5 Composition of the employment status groups in the sample

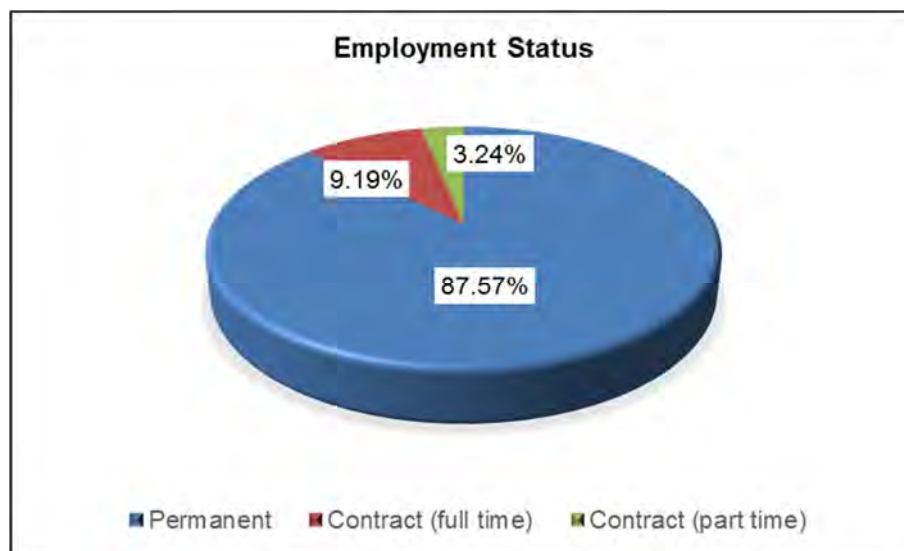
The composition of the groups in terms of employment status is reflected in Table 8.5 and Figure 8.6. Employment status was measured in terms of either permanent or contract employment, and contract employment was further delineated in terms of full-time or part-time contracts. The majority of respondents (87.57%) were employed on a permanent (long-term) basis. This corresponds with the norm in the South African labour market where formal employment relationships are mostly entered into on a permanent (indefinite) basis (Statistics South Africa, 2016).

Table 8.5

Employment Status Distribution of the Sample

Employment status	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Permanent	648	87.57	87.57	87.57
Contract (full-time)	68	9.19	9.19	96.76
Contract (part-time)	24	3.24	3.24	100.00
Total	740	100.00	100.00	

Note: n = 740.



Note: n = 740.

Figure 8.6. Sample Distribution by Employment Status

8.2.6 Composition of the tenure groups in the sample

The tenure distribution of the sample is indicated in terms of respondents' tenure with their current employers as well as their overall work tenure (all employers). The composition of the groups in terms of tenure is indicated in Tables 8.6 and 8.7 as well as Figure 8.7.

Table 8.6
Tenure Distribution (Current Employer) of the Sample

Tenure (current employer)	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Less than a year	50	6.76	6.76	6.76
1 – 2 years	115	15.54	15.54	22.30
More than 2 but less than 5 years	186	25.14	25.14	47.44
More than 5 but less than 10 years	212	28.65	28.65	76.09
More than 10 but less than 15 years	104	14.05	14.05	90.14
More than 15 but less than 20 years	38	5.13	5.13	95.27
20+ years	35	4.73	4.73	100.00
Total	740	100.00	100.00	

Note: n = 740.

From the above it may be deduced that 28.65 per cent of respondents (n = 740) were employed for five to ten years with their current employing organisations. The frequencies seem to be concentrated mostly around two to ten years (53.79%), with only 6.76 per cent of employees indicating that they were employed with their current employing organisations for less than a year, 15.54 percent reporting that they were employed for between one and two years and 23.91 per cent indicating that they were employed for more than ten years.

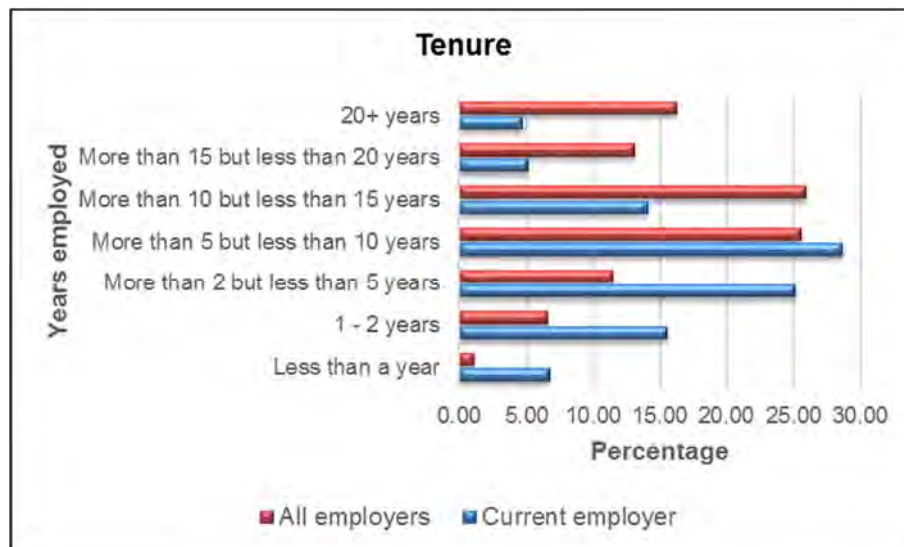
Table 8.7

Tenure Distribution (All Employers) of the Sample

Tenure (All employers)	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Less than a year	8	1.08	1.08	1.08
1 – 2 years	49	6.62	6.62	7.70
More than 2 but less than 5 years	85	11.49	11.49	19.19
More than 5 but less than 10 years	189	25.54	25.54	44.73
More than 10 but less than 15 years	192	25.94	25.94	70.67
years				
More than 15 but less than 20 years	97	13.11	13.11	83.78
years				
20+ years	120	16.22	16.22	100.00
Total	740	100.00	100.00	

Note: n = 740.

In terms of overall tenure (i.e. all employers), the distribution of the sample implies that most of the respondents (51.48%) had been employed for five to 15 years. Few respondents indicated that they had been employed for less than a year (1.08%) or between one and five years (18.11%), while 29.33 per cent of the respondents indicated that their total period of employment exceeded 15 years.



Note: n = 740.

Figure 8.7. Sample Distribution by Tenure

8.2.7 Composition of the job level groups in the sample

Table 8.8 and Figure 8.8 indicate the job level distribution of the sample. The distribution of the sample implied that 45.68 per cent of the respondents (n = 740) were employed at managerial or supervisory level, while 54.32 per cent were employed at staff level. Although the distribution was relatively equal, the majority of respondents were employed at staff level.

Table 8.8

Job Level Distribution of the Sample

Job level	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Management/supervisory level	338	45.68	45.68	45.68
Staff level	402	54.32	54.32	100.00
Total	740	100.00	100.00	

Note: n = 740.



Note: n = 740.

Figure 8.8. Sample Distribution by Job Level

8.2.8 Composition of the union membership groups in the sample

The composition of the sample in terms of union membership is represented in Table 8.9 and Figure 8.9. The majority of the respondents (66.08%) indicated that they were not trade union members, while 33.92 per cent were trade union members. These figures reflect the reported trade union membership in South Africa at the time of data collection, when 28.21 per cent of employees were reported to be trade union members (Statistics South Africa, 2016). In this

study, it was also deemed essential to differentiate between individuals who had never been union members and those who had been trade union members but had cancelled their membership. The former group of respondents comprised the largest part of the sample (55.00%), while the later comprised 11.08 per cent.

Table 8.9
Union Membership Distribution of the Sample

Trade union membership	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Union members	251	33.92	33.92	33.92
Nonmembers (cancelled membership)	82	11.08	11.08	45.00
Nonmembers (never a member)	407	55.00	55.00	100.00
Total	740	100.00	100.00	

Note: n = 740.



Note: n = 740.

Figure 8.9. Sample Distribution by Trade Union Membership

8.2.9 Summary and interpretation of the sample sociodemographic profile

In summary, the sociodemographic profile obtained for the sample showed that the sample characteristics that needed to be considered in the interpretation of the empirical results included both personal characteristics such as gender, age, population group and level of education, as well as work-related characteristics, including employment status, tenure, job level and union membership.

As illustrated in Table 8.10, the respondents in the sample were predominantly black females between the ages of 26 and 45 who had obtained at least a Grade 12 (NQF level 4) qualification. Although all respondents were employed as required in terms of the sampling frame, most of the respondents were employed in terms of long-term (permanent) contracts of employment. These individuals worked mostly at an operational (staff) level, had been employed with their current employers for a period of two to ten years, had five to 15 years of work experience and were not trade union members.

Table 8.10

Summary of Frequency Distribution: Sociodemographic Profile of Sample

Biographical characteristic		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Gender	Female	450	60.81	60.81	60.81
	Male	290	39.19	39.19	100.00
Age	18 – 25 years	74	10.00	10.00	10.00
	26 – 35 years	323	43.65	43.65	53.65
	36 – 45 years	263	35.54	35.54	89.19
	46 – 65 years	80	10.81	10.81	100.00
Population group	Black African	445	60.13	60.87	60.87
	Coloured	66	8.92	9.03	69.90
	Indian or Asian	41	5.54	5.61	75.51
	White	179	24.19	24.49	100.00
	Not specified	9	1.22		
Education level	Grade 8 and lower	2	0.27	0.27	0.27
	Grade 9 (General Education and Training Certificate; NQF level 1)	3	0.40	0.41	0.68
	Grade 12 (Matric/National Senior Certificate; NQF level 4)	177	23.92	24.15	24.83
	Higher Certificate (NQF level 5)	80	10.81	10.91	35.74
	Diploma or Advanced Certificate (NQF level 6)	198	26.76	27.01	62.76
	Bachelor's Degree or Advanced Certificate (NQF level 7)	187	25.27	25.51	88.27
	Bachelor's Honours Degree, Postgraduate Diploma or professional qualification (NQF level 8)	71	9.59	9.69	97.95

Biographical characteristic		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
	Master's degree (NQF level 9)	15	2.03	2.05	100.00
	Not specified	7	0.95		
Employment status	Permanent	648	87.57	87.57	87.57
	Contract (full-time)	68	9.19	9.19	96.76
	Contract (part-time)	24	3.24	3.24	100.00
Tenure (current employer)	Less than a year	50	6.76	6.76	6.76
	1 – 2 years	115	15.54	15.54	22.30
	More than 2 but less than 5 years	186	25.14	25.14	47.44
	More than 5 but less than 10 years	212	28.65	28.65	76.09
	More than 10 but less than 15 years	104	14.05	14.05	90.14
	More than 15 but less than 20 years	38	5.13	5.13	95.27
	20+ years	35	4.73	4.73	100.00
Tenure (all employers)	Less than a year	8	1.08	1.08	1.08
	1 – 2 years	49	6.62	6.62	7.70
	More than 2 but less than 5 years	85	11.49	11.49	19.19
	More than 5 but less than 10 years	189	25.54	25.54	44.73
	More than 10 but less than 15 years	192	25.94	25.94	70.68
	More than 15 but less than 20 years	97	13.11	13.11	83.78
	20+ years	120	16.22	16.22	100.00
Job level	Management/supervisory level	338	45.68	45.68	45.68
	Staff level	402	54.32	54.32	100.00
Union membership	Union members	251	33.92	33.92	33.92
	Nonmembers (cancelled membership)	82	11.08	11.08	45.00
	Nonmembers (never a member)	407	55.00	55.00	100.00

Note: n = 740.

8.3 CHOOSING AND JUSTIFYING THE MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS

Data collection took place by means of a self-administered web-based questionnaire consisting of relevant and standardised measuring instruments. The selection of the measuring instruments used to measure the constructs of work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation); relational attitudes and behaviour (organisational commitment, union commitment CWB and OCB); organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individual disposition (individualism/collectivism), was directed by the literature review. Specific measuring instruments were chosen, based on the extent to which they reflected the conceptualisation of the constructs and their relevance in terms of the models and theories adopted in this research as well as their availability and cost effectiveness. All the measuring instruments used in this study had been previously validated and published in industrial and organisational psychology and management research.

Care was thus taken to measure specific information (as theoretically conceptualised in the literature review), using established measures (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). Table 8.11 provides a summary of the measurement instruments used in this study. The measuring instruments are identified and a brief description of each instrument is provided. In addition, the dimensions of each of the constructs measured by subscales of the selected instruments are identified and the number of items relating to each of these dimensions indicated. This is followed by a discussion of the purpose, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and the justification for choosing each of the selected instruments.

Table 8.11

Description of Measurement Instruments

Construct	Measuring Instrument	Description	Dimensions and number of items
Biographical information	Self-reporting instrument	A self-reporting biographical instrument was developed to collect biographical data on personal and work-related characteristics of relevance to this study.	Gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level, union membership

Construct	Measuring Instrument	Description	Dimensions and number of items
Organisational citizenship behaviour	The Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002)	The scale measures OCB in terms of the intended target or beneficiary of the citizenship behaviour (i.e. the organisation or individuals in it).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) (8 items) Organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation) (8 items)
Counter-productive work behaviour	The Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale (Bennett & Robinson, 2000b)	The scale assesses employee behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or individuals in it.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interpersonal deviance (7 items) Organisational deviance (12 items) Additional items relating to industrial/collective action as a form of organisational deviance were added (5 items)
Organisational commitment	Organisational Commitment Survey (Meyer & Allen, 1997)	The Organisational Commitment Survey measures organisational commitment as a three-dimensional construct.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Affective commitment (6 items) Continuance commitment (6 items) Normative commitment (6 items)
Union commitment	Bayazit, Hammer, and Wazeter's (2004a) modified version of Friedman and Harvey's (1986) Union Commitment Scale	The scale measures trade union members' commitment to their unions as a multidimensional construct.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Loyalty (12 items) Responsibility to the union (4 items) Willingness to work for the union (4 items)
Psychological contract breach and violation	The Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures (Robinson & Morrison, 2000)	The scale assesses employees' perceptions of the extent to which their employers fulfil their obligations in terms of the psychological contract and their emotional reactions if these obligations are not met.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Psychological contract breach (5 items) Psychological contract violation (4 items)

Construct	Measuring Instrument	Description	Dimensions and number of items
Perceived organisational justice	The Justice Scale (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993b)	This scale measures individuals' perceptions of organisational justice in terms of the fairness of work outcomes, formal procedures and individual interactions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distributive justice (5 items) • Procedural justice (6 items) • Interactional justice (9 items)
Perceived organisational support	The Survey of Perceived Organisational Support–Shortened Version (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Hochwarter et al., 2003b)	The survey measures individuals' opinions about the degree to which an organisation values their contribution and shows an overriding concern for their well-being.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived organisational support (8 items)
Organisational cynicism	Organisational Cynicism Scale (Dean et al., 1998)	The scale measures employees' cynical attitudes towards their employing organisations and its leaders.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affective cynicism (4 items) • Behavioural cynicism (5 items) • Cognitive cynicism (5 items)
Organisational trust	Trust in Management Scale (Mayer & Davis, 1999)	This scale reflects employees' trust in their employing organisations and its leaders.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisational trust (5 items)
Individualism/collectivism	The Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b)	The scales are intended to distinguish between different kinds of individualism and collectivism by assessing horizontal and vertical social relationships.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Horizontal individualism (4 items) • Vertical individualism (4 items) • Horizontal collectivism (4 items) • Vertical collectivism (4 items)

Note: The order of the items in each scale was randomly sorted to minimise conceptual associations with the aim of eliminating biased response patterns.

8.3.1 Biographical instrument

A self-reporting biographical instrument was developed to collect data on the following biographical variables reflecting the personal and work-related characteristics of the participants: gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure (current employer and all employers), job level and union membership. These person-centred variables were selected on the basis of their reported relationships with the constructs of relevance in this study, as outlined in the literature review and summarised in Chapter 7 (see section 7.6).

8.3.2 Measurement of organisational citizenship behaviour

The Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002) was used to measure OCB in terms of the intended target or beneficiary of the citizenship behaviour.

8.3.2.1 Purpose of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

Lee and Allen (2002) developed a measure for OCB specifically intended to differentiate between two potential targets of behaviour, namely the organisation and individuals in it. Items included in their Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale were selected from a pool created by preceding OCB scales such as Smith et al.'s (1983) altruism and compliance subscales and Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCB-I and OCB-O scales. Specific care was taken to clearly distinguish between the different targets of citizenship behaviour and to differentiate items used to measure OCB items from items reflecting CWB.

8.3.2.2 Dimensions of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

The Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002) comprises 16 items representing two dimensions. The first dimension reflects OCB directed towards individuals in the organisation (8 items). Examples of OCB-I items include "I help others who have been absent" and "I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems".

The second dimension relates to OCB directed towards the organisation (8 items) and includes items such as "I defend the organisation when other people criticise it" and "I take action to protect the organisation from potential problems".

8.3.2.3 *Administration of the instrument*

The Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002) is a self-administered questionnaire. The items are structured in a statement format with a rating scale for each statement. Respondents rate the statements reflecting how often they engage in particular behaviour in the workplace. Respondents are provided with clear instructions to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire takes between five and ten minutes to complete.

8.3.2.4 *Interpretation of the responses*

Each item in the questionnaire is an example of OCB directed at advancing either the organisation or individuals in it. Respondents are required to rate each item in terms of how often they have engaged in the particular behaviour in their workplaces. Responses are indicated on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (all the time). Items with the highest scores therefore reflect the behaviours that are engaged in most frequently. Each subscale (OCB-I and OCB-O) is measured separately. Subscales with the highest mean scores thus reflect the dominant targets of OCB.

Lee and Allen's (2002) Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale has been used in extant research reflecting different sources of behavioural ratings (self, peers and supervisors) and a variety of cultural settings (Lilly & Virick, 2013; Suifan, 2016; Weikamp & Göritz, 2016; Yang et al., 2016).

8.3.2.5 *Psychometric properties of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale*

Lee and Allen (2002) reported internal consistency reliabilities of .83 (OCB-I) and .88 (OCB-O) for the two subscales. High internal consistency reliabilities were also found in subsequent studies that used this scale as a self-reporting instrument to measure OCB. For example, Beal III, Stavros, and Cole (2013) found strong internal consistency reliability for the two subscales (OCBI $\alpha = .91$ and OCBO $\alpha = .92$), as well as the overall scale ($\alpha = .95$). Beal III et al. (2013) furthermore confirmed the construct validity of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale for a sample of employees from a government organisation by means of second-order confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The overall model fit was $\chi^2 = 171.82$; $df = 98$; $p < .01$; RMSEA (90% CI) = .08 (.07–.11); and CFI = .94 (Beal III et al., 2013). In a South African study, Ramsden (2015) reported high internal consistency reliability for both OCB-I ($\alpha = .88$)

and OCB-O ($\alpha = .93$) in a sample of South African employees across a wide spectrum of industries and organisations.

8.3.2.6 *Rationale for using the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale*

Given the relational focus of this study, it was deemed essential to categorise employees' citizenship behaviours in terms of the intended beneficiaries of the behaviour, as advocated by Williams and Anderson (1991) (see section 3.2.2 in Chapter 3). Although Williams and Anderson's (1991) two-dimensional model of OCB has been criticised because of the strong correlation between OCB-O and OCB-I found in some studies (Dalal, 2005; Hoffman et al., 2007; LePine et al., 2002), the clear conceptual distinction between the dimensions and the fact that they are driven by different motives has merited continued use in OCB research (Weikamp & Göritz, 2016). The Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale was deemed appropriate for this study because it allows for differentiation in terms of the beneficiaries of OCB, and clearly distinguishes between OCB and CWB as opposing forms of discretionary employee behaviour (Lee & Allen, 2002). The psychometric properties of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale also made it a valid and reliable measure of OCB directed towards the organisation (OCB-O) and individuals in it (OCB-I).

Although some concerns have been expressed about the effectiveness of self-rating when examining employee behaviour in the workplace, it has been argued that this form of assessment remains valid as peers or supervisors may not have knowledge of particular behaviours that employees engage in in their workplaces (Lee & Allen, 2002). It has also been suggested that employees may adapt their normal behaviour when they are being observed by peers or supervisors (Lee & Allen, 2002). Self-reports have also been less subject to halo biases than supervisor or peer reports (Dalal, 2005; Fox et al., 2012). For these reasons, self-reporting was deemed appropriate in determining the extent to which employees engage in OCB in the workplace. It is, however, acknowledged that the results may differ if other sources of behavioural information are relied upon (Fox et al., 2012; Lee & Allen, 2002).

It was anticipated that, by using the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale as part of the research instrument in this study, a contribution could be made to promoting an in-depth understanding of the OCB construct and more specifically the intended beneficiaries of OCB in a South African employment relations context. As the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale has not been widely used in South African research, the study might also contribute towards establishing the validity and reliability of the instrument in a South African sample.

8.3.3 Measurement of counterproductive work behaviour

The Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a) was used to assess employee behaviour that is detrimental to the organisation or individuals in it.

8.3.3.1 Purpose of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale

Bennett and Robinson's (2000a) Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale provides a broad, theoretically derived measure of employee deviant behaviour (CWB) directed towards two distinct targets, namely the employing organisation (organisational deviance) and individuals within the organisation (interpersonal deviance).

8.3.3.2 Dimensions of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale

The items of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale were derived from an initial pool of 314 items. These items were subjected to three rounds of analyses, including reviews by subject experts, the calculation of inter-item correlations, variances and factor loadings for each item and a CFA to verify the proposed dimensionality of the remaining 19 items.

Two subscales were developed from the CFA results. The first subscale relates to organisational deviance (termed CWB-O in this study). CWB-O is undesirable behaviour directed at the organisation such as stealing or withholding effort (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). This subscale comprised 12 items, including, for instance, "I neglect to follow my supervisor's instructions" and "I come in late to work without permission".

Since this study was conducted in an employment relations context, it was deemed essential to also include behavioural items that reflect protest actions by employees (e.g. industrial action aimed at resolving perceived injustice) that are inherently detrimental to their employing organisations (Kelloway et al., 2010). These additions to Bennett and Robinson's (2000a) instrument, were supported by Bowling and Gruys's (2010) observation that additional dimensions of CWB may exist that are relevant to particular situations. Such behaviour includes, for instance, participating in industrial action, damaging property in an attempt to be heard and coercion of fellow employees to participate in industrial action. Five additional items were written to measure those counterproductive behaviours that typically occur in unionised organisations. It was envisaged that these items would resort under the OCB-O dimension.

Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted in order to test this assumption (see section 9.1.2 in Chapter 9).

The second subscale, comprising seven items, pertains to interpersonal deviance (CWB-I). The CWB-I dimension relates to undesirable behaviour directed at members of the organisation, including, for instance, saying something hurtful or acting rudely towards a colleague (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Examples of items in this subscale include “I act rudely towards some people at work” and “I make fun of someone at work”.

8.3.3.3 Administration of the instrument

The Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a) is a self-administered questionnaire. The items are structured in a statement format with a rating scale for each statement. Respondents rate the statements reflecting how often they engage in particular behaviour in the workplace. Respondents are provided with clear instructions to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire takes between five and ten minutes to complete.

8.3.3.4 Interpretation of the responses

Each item in the questionnaire is an example of deviant behaviour by an employee directed towards the employing organisation or individuals in it. Respondents are required to rate each item in terms of how often they have engaged in the particular behaviour in their workplaces. Responses are indicated on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (all the time). Items with the highest scores therefore reflect the behaviours that are engaged in most often. Each subscale (organisational deviance and interpersonal deviance) is measured separately. Subscales with the highest mean scores thus reflect the dominant targets of CWB.

8.3.3.5 Psychometric properties of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale

Bennett and Robinson’s (2000a) Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale has been widely used in extant research aimed at better understanding the antecedents of employee behaviour in the workplace (Chiu & Peng, 2008; El Akremi et al., 2010; Holtz & Harold, 2013). Researchers have followed self-rated, peer-rated and supervisor-rated approaches (Bowling,

Burns, Stewart, & Gruys, 2011; Colbert et al., 2004; Holtz & Harold, 2013; Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006).

Bennett and Robinson (2000a) reported internal reliabilities of .81 for the organisational deviance subscale and .78 for the interpersonal deviance subscale. They (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a) furthermore empirically verified the dimensionality of the instrument by means of a CFA, and provided additional evidence of construct validity by showing high correlations with alternative measures of similar constructs and moderate correlations with theoretically relevant constructs (frustration, perceived injustice, normlessness, Machiavellianism and OCB) in the hypothesised directions. The scales showed discriminant validity as they did not correlate highly with measures of unrelated constructs (exit, voice and loyalty) (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a).

High internal consistency reliabilities across diverse cultural settings have also been reported in subsequent studies that have used this scale as a self-reporting instrument to measure CWB. For example, Yam et al. (2016) reported Cronbach's alphas of .87 (OCB-I) and .91 (CWB-O) respectively in a sample of employees across diverse industries in China; Bowling and colleagues (Bowling & Burns, 2015; Bowling et al., 2011) reported internal consistency reliabilities of .84 (CWB-I) and .85 (CWB-O) in a sample of employed psychology undergraduate students and .93 (CWB-I) and .94 (CWB-O) among participants recruited from a US-based study-response database; and Al-atwi and Bakir (2014) reported Cronbach's alpha values of .94 (CWB-O) and .90 (CWB-I) for a sample of employees in the south of Iraq. The dimensionality and construct validity of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale have also been confirmed in various settings (Al-Atwi & Bakir, 2014; Bowling & Burns, 2015; Cohen & Diamant, 2017; Sackett et al., 2006; Van den Broeck et al., 2014).

In a South African context, Du Toit (2015) reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .77 for the overall scale among a sample of first-line managers and nonmanagerial employees in South African organisations. No additional studies utilising the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale to measure employee behaviour in a South African context could be found.

8.3.3.6 Rationale for using the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale

Bennett and Robinson's (2000a) Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale is widely used in CWB research (Ones & Dilchert, 2013). It is deemed appropriate when aiming to examine CWB as a general phenomenon. It is not intended to address specific detrimental

behaviour such as theft, absence, unsafe actions or sexual harassment. Using this instrument to measure CWB thus enabled the researcher to gain a broad understanding of the underlying construct and how it relates to other attitudinal (e.g. organisational commitment) and behavioural (e.g. OCB) outcomes in the workplace (Bowling & Gruys, 2010).

Using the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale, enabled the researcher to differentiate between two targets of CWB, namely the organisation and employees in it. As explained in Chapter 3, this differentiation was deemed necessary as CWB directed at different targets might have dissimilar antecedents (Colbert et al., 2004). As a similar differentiation in terms of the target of behaviour was made for OCB (i.e. OCB-I and OCB-O), this enabled the researcher to determine whether correlations exist between individually directed (OCB-I and CWB-I) and organisationally directed (OCB-O and CWB-O) behaviour, as suggested by Sackett et al. (2006).

Although concerns have been expressed about the effectiveness of self-rating and the possibility of skewed responses due to social desirability when examining negative employee behaviour in the workplace (Bowling & Gruys, 2010), it has been shown that this form of assessment remains valid as employees often engage in CWB without their supervisors' knowledge (Liu & Ding, 2012). As a result, instead of rating behaviour, supervisor rates tend to reflect their general impressions of their subordinates (Bowling et al., 2011). It has also been suggested that employees may adapt their normal behaviour when they are being observed by peers or supervisors (Lee & Allen, 2002). Self-reports have furthermore been shown to be less subject to halo biases than supervisor or peer reports (Dalal, 2005; Fox et al., 2012). It has been reported that, contrary to common expectation, individuals are willing to provide information on their own negative behaviour in the workplace, provided that they are guaranteed anonymity (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Peng, Cheng et al., 2016). Berry et al. (2012) and Carpenter, Rangel, Jeon, and Cottrell (2017) provided meta-analytic evidence that self-rater reports of CWB are in fact more predictive of employees' actual engagement in CWB than peer or supervisor reports. For these reasons, self-reporting was deemed appropriate in determining the extent to which employees engage in CWB in the workplace. It is, however, acknowledged that the results may differ if other sources of behavioural information are relied upon (Fox et al., 2012; Lee & Allen, 2002).

Concerns have also been raised about the construct validity of Bennett and Robinson's (2000a) Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale as it is a generic measure of employee counterproductivity and does not take specific situational factors into account (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). As a result, items may be included that are irrelevant for some jobs

or organisations. Similarly, some counterproductive behaviours that are specific to a particular job may be excluded. This could influence the construct validity of the instrument and even influence the responses. For example, a respondent would probably indicate that he or she does not engage in specific CWB if the item is irrelevant to his or her working environment, artificially lowering the mean levels of CWB found across the sample. It was thus essential to take appropriate statistical measures to address potential problems in terms of content validity, range restriction and skewness (Bowling & Gruys, 2010).

The Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale was deemed appropriate for the purpose of this research study because it operationalises the conceptualisation of CWB as a two-dimensional construct, as discussed in Chapter 3. It furthermore allows for a clear differentiation between OCB and CWB as independent but related constructs (Fox et al., 2012) as well as the beneficiaries of CWB (Sackett et al., 2006). The psychometric properties of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale also make it a valid and reliable measure of CWB directed towards the organisation (CWB-O) and people in it (CWB-I). It was anticipated that by utilising the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale as part of the research instrument in this study, a contribution could be made to CWB literature. This could be done by not only promoting an in-depth understanding of the CWB construct, and more specifically the intended beneficiaries of CWB in a South African employment relations context, but also by establishing the discriminant validity of the CWB-I and CWB-O measures in this particular context. Hence, since the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale has not been widely used in South African research, it was envisaged that this study might contribute towards establishing the validity and reliability of the instrument in a South African sample.

8.3.4 Measurement of organisational commitment

The Organisational Commitment Survey (Meyer & Allen, 1997) was used to measure organisational commitment as a three-dimensional construct, as conceptualised in Chapter 3.

8.3.4.1 Purpose of the Organisational Commitment Survey

The Organisational Commitment Survey (Meyer & Allen, 1997) was designed to measure organisational commitment as a three-dimensional construct comprising affective (emotionally attached to an organisation), continuance (aware of the costs associated with leaving an organisation) and normative (feeling of obligation to continue employment with an organisation) commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

8.3.4.2 *Dimensions of the Organisational Commitment Survey*

The Organisational Commitment Survey (Meyer & Allen, 1997) is an 18-item structured questionnaire comprising three subscales, namely affective, continuance and normative commitment.

The first subscale measures the affective dimension of organisational commitment (AC). It therefore relates to an individual's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in his or her employing organisation (i.e. individuals remain in the organisation because they want to) (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The affective commitment subscale consists of six items of which three are negatively stated to control for an agreement response bias. An example of an AC item includes "My organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me".

The second subscale, also comprising six items, relates to the continuance commitment dimension of organisational commitment (CC). Continuance commitment reflects an individual's commitment to the organisation based on the costs associated with leaving (i.e. individuals remain in the organisation because they need to) (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Examples of items included in this subscale are "It would be hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to" and "I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving my organisation".

The third subscale, normative commitment (NC), consists of six items reflecting employees' feelings of responsibility to remain with the organisation (i.e. individuals remain in the organisation because they have to) (Meyer & Allen, 1997). An example of an NC-item is "I would feel guilty if I left my organisation right now". One of the items in this subscale was negatively stated to prevent agreement response bias.

8.3.4.3 *Administration of the instrument*

The Organisational Commitment Survey (Meyer & Allen, 1997) is a self-administered questionnaire. The items are in a statement format and reflect employees' self-perceived commitment towards their employing organisations. Respondents rate the statements reflecting the extent to which they agree or disagree with them. Respondents are provided with clear instructions to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire takes between five and ten minutes to complete.

8.3.4.4 *Interpretation of the responses*

Each item in the questionnaire is a statement reflecting an individual's commitment to his or her employing organisation. Respondents are required to rate each item in terms of the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statement. Responses are indicated on a seven-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Each dimension (AC, CC and NC) is measured separately and reflects participants' perceptions and feelings relating to each of the dimensions. Hence, it is possible to analyse which dimensions are perceived to be true for the participants and which are not. The higher the score, the truer the statement is for the respondent. Subscales with the highest mean scores are regarded as the respondents' dominant organisational commitment attribute.

8.3.4.5 *Psychometric properties of the Organisational Commitment Survey*

Meyer and Allen (1997) reported internal consistency reliabilities of .85 for affective commitment, .79 for continuance commitment and .73 for normative commitment. The overall reliability estimates for the Organisational Commitment Survey exceeded .70 (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The construct validity of the Organisational Commitment Survey is based on the fact that each of the dimensions correlates as predicted with the proposed antecedents' variables, such as personality, experience and demographic factors, and situational variables, such as task interdependence, job involvement and work group attachment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Various researchers have reported acceptable internal consistency reliabilities (in excess of .70) for the subscales. These studies were conducted in a broad range of cultural settings including, for instance, Kam et al.'s (2016) research on commitment profiles among Canadian employees ($\alpha = .83 - .86$), Valaei and Rezaei's (2016) research on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the Malaysian telecommunications industry ($\alpha = .90 - .93$) and Chan et al.'s (2015) research on the attitudinal and behavioural outcomes of US employees' psychological empowerment ($\alpha = .73 - .85$). These results confirm the universal applicability of the instrument.

In South Africa, Ferreira (2012) reported alpha values of .56 (AC), .74 (CC) and .73 (NC) for the three subscales in a sample of human resource management students, while Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane, and Ferreira (2011) reported acceptable alpha values (AC = .79; CC = .68; NC = .82) for a sample of IT employees in KwaZulu-Natal.

8.3.4.6 *Rationale for using the Organisational Commitment Survey*

Meyer and Allen's (1997) Organisational Commitment Survey is one of the most widely used organisational commitment measures in the literature and has been validated in a number of cultural contexts (Hansen & Kjeldsen, 2017). This instrument has been extensively and successfully used in extant research to predict significant work-related outcomes such as turnover intentions, job performance and OCB (Colquitt et al., 2012; Daly et al., 2015; Yücel, 2012).

This instrument operationalises Meyer and Allen's (1997) three-dimensional conceptualisation of organisational commitment as outlined in Chapter 3. Although researchers often elect to include only the affective commitment dimension in their research (e.g. Brunetto, Teo, Farr-Wharton, Shacklock, & Shriberg, 2017; Buonocore, Russo, & Ferrara, 2015; De la Torre-Ruiz, Vidal-Salazar, & Cordon-Pozo, 2017; Lee & Wei, 2017; Öztürk, Karagonlar, & Emirza, 2017), it was deemed essential for the purposes of this research to incorporate all three dimensions (AC, CC and NC) and to investigate their simultaneous influence on work-related outcomes. In this way, a better understanding of employees' relationships with their employing organisations could be gained, because each component develops as a result of different experiences and has different implications for employees' behaviour in the workplace (see Gellatly et al., 2006; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Sinclair et al., 2005; Somers, 2009, 2010; Wasti, 2005).

Meyer and Allen's (1997) Organisational Commitment Survey has thus been shown to be a valid and reliable instrument for the measurement of organisational commitment. The measure effectively operationalises the conceptualisation of organisational commitment as a three-dimensional construct, as described in Chapter 3. By separating the dimensions (AC, CC and NC), it would be possible to determine employees' commitment profiles and to investigate the interactive effect of the three organisational commitment dimensions on employees' relational behaviour in the workplace.

8.3.5 Measurement of union commitment

Bayazit et al. (2004a) modified version of Friedman and Harvey's (1986) Union Commitment Scale was used to measure trade union members' commitment to their unions.

8.3.5.1 Purpose of the Union Commitment Scale

The purpose of the Union Commitment Scale (Bayazit et al., 2004b, 2004a) is to assess trade union members' belief in unionism and their attitudes towards their union, including their loyalty towards the union as well as their willingness to accept union responsibility and to work for the union.

8.3.5.2 Dimensions of the Union Commitment Scale

Union commitment, as conceptualised by Gordon et al. (1980a), consists of four dimensions, namely union members' loyalty towards their union, their responsibility towards the union, their willingness to work for the union and a belief in unionism. Gordon et al. (1980a) developed a 30-item Commitment to the Union Scale to measure these dimensions. Although Gordon et al.'s (1980a) scale was found to be a valid measure of union commitment (e.g. Kelloway et al., 1992), Friedman and Harvey (1986), in an attempt to achieve parsimony, developed a shortened 20-item version of the scale. This scale was subsequently modified by Bayazit et al. (2004a) to reflect their specific research context (i.e. union members and union representatives in the US educational sector). In this study, minor revisions were made to the items, mainly involving replacing the word "teachers' association" with "trade union" to reflect its broader application in the specific sample.

Bayazit et al.'s (2004a) Union Commitment Scale was used to measure three subscales, the first relating to union loyalty. Union loyalty reflected a clear awareness of the benefits of union membership and a sense of pride associated with belonging to a trade union (Gordon et al., 1980a). The union loyalty subscale comprised 12 items, of which five were negatively worded. Examples include "I feel a sense of pride in being part of the trade union" and "There is a lot to be gained from joining a trade union". One of the items – "As long as I am doing the kind of work I enjoy, it does not matter if I belong to a trade union" – originally formed part of Gordon et al.'s (1980a) belief in unionism scale.

The second subscale, namely responsibility to the union, measured trade union members' willingness to fulfil the obligations associated with union membership in order to protect the union's interests (Gordon et al., 1980a). The subscale comprised four items, including, for example, "Every trade union member must be prepared to take the risk of filing a grievance".

The third subscale, consisting of four items, related to trade union members' willingness to work for the union. It thus reflected union members' inclination to participate in union-related activities beyond what is required of normal union membership (Gordon et al., 1980a). Examples of items included in this subscale were "If asked, I would run for an elected office in the trade union" and "I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected of a member to make the trade union successful". One of the items was negatively worded.

8.3.5.3 Administration of the instrument

The Union Commitment Scale (Bayazit et al., 2004a) is a self-administered questionnaire. The items reflect trade union members' beliefs about their unions. Respondents rate the statements reflecting the extent to which they agree or disagree with the each statement. Respondents are provided with clear instructions to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire takes between five and ten minutes to complete.

8.3.5.4 Interpretation of the responses

Each item in the questionnaire reflects a specific belief about a trade union held by its members. Respondents are required to rate each item in terms of the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statement. Responses are indicated on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Each dimension (loyalty, responsibility to the union and willingness to work for the union) is specifically measured. High scores on each of these dimensions reflect greater commitment to the union.

8.3.5.5 Psychometric properties of the Union Commitment Scale

Bayazit et al.'s (2004a) Union Commitment Scale is a modified version of the 20-item scale developed by Friedman and Harvey (1986). This scale has been found to be a valid measure of three of Gordon et al.'s (1980a) theorised dimensions of union commitment, namely union loyalty, responsibility to the union and willingness to work for the union.

Modified versions of Friedman and Harvey's (1986) Union Commitment Scale have been empirically tested in diverse samples. For instance, Kelloway et al. (1992) tested a 13-item modification of the scale among Canadian public service employees. They (Kelloway et al., 1992) reported Cronbach's alpha values of .92 for union loyalty, .83 for willingness to work for the union and .82 for responsibility to the union. In a subsequent study, using the same modified version of the scale, Kelloway and Barling (1993) reported internal consistencies of .92, .76 and .85 respectively for the three subscales among airline employees. Similar reliability coefficients, ranging from .76 to .94, were reported by Fullagar et al. (2004) in a US-based study. Hammer, Bayazit and Wazeter (2009), using a 19-item version of the scale, reported internal consistencies of .92 for union loyalty, .82 for willingness to work for the union and .72 for responsibility to the union among a sample of US-based teachers.

No studies that have used Bayazit et al.'s (2004a) Union Commitment Scale in a South African context could be found. This study should therefore make a unique contribution in testing the factor structure and psychometric properties of the instrument in a South African sample.

8.3.5.6 Rationale for using the Union Commitment Scale

For the purposes of this study, union commitment was conceptualised as a four-dimensional construct as theorised by Gordon et al. (1980a). Although the dimensionality of the union commitment construct has been widely debated (see section 3.4.2 in Chapter 3 for a detailed discussion), research in this area has relied mainly on Gordon et al.'s (1980a) conceptualisation and measurement thereof. However, owing to the length of the original Commitment to the Union Scale (Gordon et al., 1980a), as well as concern expressed about the belief in unionism subscale (Cohen, 2005; Kelloway et al., 1992), union commitment researchers tend to prefer abbreviated scales (Snape et al., 2000). This study adopted a similar approach and relied on Bamberger et al.'s (1999) meta-analytic findings suggesting that multidimensional measures are better representations of union commitment than unidimensional measures.

Although Bayazit et al.'s (2004a) Union Commitment Scale supports Gordon et al.'s (1980a) conceptualisation of union commitment as a multidimensional construct (described in Chapter 3), Kelloway et al.'s (1992) recommendation that belief in unionism should not be measured as part of union commitment was adopted. It has been argued in extant literature that the belief in unionism dimension tends to deviate from the conceptualisation of union commitment as it relates to unionism in general rather than trade union members' commitment to their own unions, and has been found to be the weakest factor in terms of construct validity and internal

consistency in various studies (Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995). It has been suggested that belief in unionism should be regarded as an antecedent of union commitment rather than a dimension thereof (Snape et al., 2000). As a result, this dimension is commonly omitted in union commitment research (Bayazit et al., 2004a; Sinclair et al., 1995).

In alternative approach that has commonly been adopted in union commitment research (e.g. Deery & Iverson, 2005; Fullagar et al., 1992; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Kim & Rowley, 2006; Morishima, 1995; Redman & Snape, 2016; Robinson et al., 2012; Tan & Aryee, 2002; Tetrick et al., 2007; Zacharewicz et al., 2016) is to focus on union loyalty only, because this dimension of union commitment has consistently been shown to account for most of the variance in union commitment (Fullagar, 1986; Gordon et al., 1980a; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Ladd et al., 1982). Cohen (2005) demonstrated, however, that utilising only one dimension of union commitment may result in the loss of valuable information, especially when the interrelationship between organisational and union commitment is investigated. As a result, it was deemed inappropriate for the purposes of this research to rely on union loyalty as an indication of trade union members' attitudes towards their unions only. Bayazit et al.'s (2004a) three-dimensional scale was thus deemed suitable for measuring union commitment in the context of this study.

8.3.6 Measurement of psychological contract violation

The Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures (Robinson & Morrison, 2000) were used to assess employees' perceptions of the extent to which their employers fulfil their obligations in terms of the psychological contract and their emotional reactions if these obligations are not met.

8.3.6.1 *Purpose of the Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures*

The purpose of Robinson and Morrison's (2000) Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures is twofold. Firstly, it measures the extent to which employees perceive that their psychological contracts with their employers are fulfilled (i.e. the cognitive perception of a breach). Secondly, it measures employees' emotional reaction to perceived breaches of the psychological contract (i.e. psychological contract violation).

8.3.6.2 *Dimensions of the Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures*

The nine-item Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures (Robinson & Morrison, 2000) comprise two subscales measuring psychological contract breach and feelings of violation respectively.

The first subscale measures psychological contract breach and consists of five items describing the extent to which employees perceive their employers as fulfilling their psychological contracts (Robinson & Morrison, 2000). An example of an item describing a psychological contract breach is “My employer has broken many of its promises to me even though I have upheld my side of the deal”. Three of the five items in this scale were negatively stated.

The second subscale relates to feelings of violation, that is, employees’ emotional reaction to a perceived breach of the psychological contract (Robinson & Morrison, 2000). An example of an item describing employees’ feelings of violation is “I feel betrayed by my organisation”.

8.3.6.3 *Administration of the instrument*

The Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures (Robinson & Morrison, 2000) comprise a self-administered questionnaire. The items reflect individual perceptions of psychological contract breach and violation. Respondents rate the statements reflecting the extent to which they agree or disagree with them. Respondents are provided with clear instructions to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire takes approximately three minutes to complete.

8.3.6.4 *Interpretation of the responses*

Each item in the questionnaire reflects an individual’s views on aspects of their psychological contracts with their employers. Respondents are required to rate each item in terms of the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statement. Responses are indicated on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Each dimension (psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation) is measured separately. A high score on the psychological contract breach scale indicates that an employee perceives his or her employer as not meeting its obligations in terms of the

psychological contract, while a high score on the psychological contract violation scale shows that the individual experiences a high level of felt violation.

8.3.6.5 Psychometric properties of the Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures

Robinson and Morrison (2000) reported Cronbach's alpha values of .92 for both subscales (psychological contract breach and feelings of violation) confirming construct reliability in measuring the two dimensions.

Robinson and Morrison (2000) found the psychological contract breach and feelings of violations measures to be significantly correlated ($r = .68$; $p < 0.01$). Given the magnitude of this correlation, they conducted a factor analysis and post hoc regression analysis confirming the discriminant validity of the measures.

Although Robinson and Morrison's (2000) Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures have been widely used in extant empirical studies relating to the antecedents and consequences of psychological contract breach and/or violation, researchers often elect to include only one of the dimensions. In some instances, researchers were only interested in determining employees' global perceptions of how well their psychological contracts had been fulfilled by their employing organisations. Consequently, these researchers (Costa & Neves, 2017; Kakarika, González-Gómez, & Dimitriades, 2017; Lv & Xu, 2018; Peng, Jien, & Lin, 2016) elected to use only the psychological contract breach subscale reporting internal consistency reliabilities ranging from .88 to .90. Other researchers, such as Salin and Notelaers (2017), Biswas (2016) and Erkutlu and Chafra (2013), focused on employees' emotional responses to perceived breaches of the psychological contract (i.e. psychological contract violation) only, thus including only the four items relating to feelings of violation in their measurements. These studies reported Cronbach's alpha values of between .90 and .92 for the subscale.

Fewer researchers have included both dimensions in their measurement models. Examples include Peng, Wong, and Song (2016), who investigated Chinese employees' reactions to psychological contract violations, Restubog et al. (2015), who examined the relationship between psychological contract breach and workplace deviance, and Paillé and Dufour (2013), who explored employee responses to psychological contract breach and violation. These researchers reported acceptable internal consistency reliabilities (.71 to .96 for

psychological contract breach and .93 to .96 for feelings of violation). High correlations between the two dimensions (psychological contract breach and violation) are commonly reported, but further analyses have supported the independence of the constructs (see Dulac et al., 2008; Peng, Wong et al., 2016; Suazo et al., 2005). Suazo (2011), for instance, performed a CFA to test the distinctiveness of the measures for psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation. The results revealed that the two-factor model ($\chi^2 = 62.45$, $df = 26$, CFI = .95, GFI = .96, AGFI = .90, RMSEA = .08) fits the data better than the one-factor model ($\chi^2 = 66.22$, $df = 27$, CFI = .93, GFI = .93, AGFI = .89, RMSEA = .10). In addition, the difference in chi-squares was significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 3.77$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.01$), which suggested that psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation are distinct constructs. Some researchers, such as Restubog et al. (2015), however, choose to regard psychological contract violation as a single construct integrating psychological contract breach and feelings of violation as a result of the high correlation reported between these dimensions. In order to determine the appropriate approach for this sample, a CFA was performed to test the factor structure for the particular sample. The results are reported in Chapter 9 (section 9.1.5).

8.3.6.6 *Rationale for using the Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures*

Robinson and Morrison's (2000) Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures have been shown to be valid and reliable in measuring employees' perceptions of psychological contract breach and their emotional reactions to perceived breaches. The instrument supports the conceptualisation of psychological contract breach and violation as two distinct, albeit highly interrelated, constructs, as advocated in Chapter 4. By incorporating both subscales, the conceptual distinction between breach (cognition) and violation (affect) is reflected (Cassar & Briner, 2011). Use of this measure, would enable the researcher in this study to determine whether psychological contract violation mediates the relationship between psychological contract breach and work-related outcomes such as organisational commitment or discretionary behaviour in the workplace (Cassar & Briner, 2011).

A potential limitation of using this instrument to measure psychological contract violation is that it requires employees to determine how well their psychological contracts have been fulfilled. The instrument is therefore highly subjective in nature. Robinson and Morrison (2000) argue, however, that the psychological contract is inherently subjective and that the results will therefore not be influenced by the subjective nature of the instrument.

8.3.7 Measurement of perceived organisational justice

Niehoff and Moorman's (1993a) Justice Scale was used to measure employees' perceptions of justice in their working environments.

8.3.7.1 Purpose of the Justice Scale

The purpose of Niehoff and Moorman's (1993a) Justice Scale is to assess employee perceptions of distributive and procedural justice in organisations. The measurement instrument, which was based on a scale used by Moorman (1991), was developed as part of a study examining the associations between different methods of leader monitoring, POJ and OCB (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993a).

8.3.7.2 Dimensions of the Justice Scale

The 20-item Justice Scale (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993a) comprises two subscales measuring employee perceptions of distributive and procedural justice.

The first subscale measures the distributive justice (DJ) dimension and consists of five items describing the extent to which employees believe that their work outcomes are fair. These outcomes include pay level, work schedule, work load and job responsibilities. An example of a DJ item is "I consider my work load to be quite fair".

The second subscale relates to two procedural justice dimensions, namely formal organisational procedures (commonly referred to as procedural justice or PJ in the literature) and interactional justice (IJ). The first dimension (PJ), comprising six items, reflects the extent to which formal procedures exist and whether job decisions include mechanisms that ensure the gathering of accurate and unbiased information, employee voice and an appeals process. Examples of such items include "Job decisions are made by my supervisor/manager in an unbiased manner" and "All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees".

The second dimension, interactional justice (IJ), reflects the extent to which employees perceive that their needs are considered when job-related decisions are made and adequate explanations are provided for such decisions. The nine items relating to interactional justice include, for instance, "When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor/manager treats

me with kindness and consideration” and “My supervisor/manager offers adequate justification for decisions about my job”.

8.3.7.3 Administration of the instrument

The Justice Scale (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993a) is a self-administered questionnaire. The items reflect individual perceptions of justice (distributive, interactional and procedural justice) in their organisations. Respondents rate the statements reflecting the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statements. Respondents are provided with clear instructions to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire takes between five and ten minutes to complete.

8.3.7.4 Interpretation of the responses

Each item in the questionnaire reflects an individual's views on aspects of distributive, interactional or procedural justice. Respondents are required to rate each item in terms of the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statement. Responses are indicated on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Each dimension (DJ, IJ and PJ) is measured separately.

8.3.7.5 Psychometric properties of the Justice Scale

Niehoff and Moorman (1993a), relying on CFA, found the three dimensions of organisational justice (DJ, IJ and PJ) to be empirically distinct and reported reliability coefficients in excess of .70 for all three dimensions. They (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993a) furthermore reported correlations with both antecedent (formal procedures) and outcome (OCB) variables in the expected directions, confirming the construct validity of the measuring instrument.

Various researchers have reported acceptable internal consistency reliabilities (in excess of .70) for the subscales. These studies include a variety of cultural settings such as China (Lee et al., 2000), Turkey (Ertürk, Yılmaz, & Ceylan, 2004), Israel (Cohen & Avrahami, 2006), India (Biswas & Kapil, 2017), Pakistan (Hassan et al., 2017), Saudi Arabia (Elamin & Tlaiss, 2015) and the United Arab Emirates (Al Afari & Abu Elanain, 2014; Ibrahim & Perez, 2014), confirming the universal applicability of the instrument. In South Africa, Arnold (2013) reported alpha values of .92 (DJ), .98 (IJ) and .86 (PJ) for the three subscales in a sample of middle managers employed by an automotive retail group in South Africa, while Wolmarans (2014)

reported similar results ($> .90$ for all three dimensions) for a sample of nonmanagerial employees in South African organisations.

Niehoff and Moorman (1993a) reported significant correlations between the justice dimensions and specifically between formal procedures and interactional justice (.76), raising concern about multicollinearity. They (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993a) subsequently used nested-models analysis to address this concern.

8.3.7.6 Rationale for using the Justice Scale

Niehoff and Moorman's (1993a) Justice Scale has been shown to be a valid and reliable instrument for the measurement of organisational justice perceptions. The measure effectively operationalises the conceptualisation of POJ as a three-dimensional construct, as outlined in Chapter 4. By separating the dimensions (DJ, PJ and IJ), the scale enables the researcher to establish whether they differentially influence employees' attitudinal and behavioural reactions to perceived injustice (Colquitt et al., 2001; Roch & Shanock, 2006).

8.3.8 Measurement of perceived organisational support

The Survey of Perceived Organisational Support–Shortened Version (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Hochwarter et al., 2003b) was used to measure employees' perceptions about the support they receive from their employing organisations.

8.3.8.1 Purpose of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support

The purpose of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support is to measure individuals' opinions concerning the degree to which an organisation values their contribution and shows an overriding concern for their well-being (Hochwarter et al., 2003a). The Survey of Perceived Organisational Support is a shorter version of the original Survey of Perceived Organisational Support developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986, 1990) and was created as a measure intended to investigate the mediating role of POS in the relationships between politics perceptions and work outcomes.

8.3.8.2 Dimensions of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support

The Survey of Perceived Organisational Support measures POS as a unidimensional construct consisting of the eight items that loaded the highest in Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) factor analysis. Items include, for example, "My organisation cares about my opinions" and "Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem".

8.3.8.3 Administration of the instrument

The Survey of Perceived Organisational Support (Hochwarter et al., 2003a) is a self-administered questionnaire. The items are structured in a statement format with a rating scale for each statement. Respondents rate the statements reflecting the degree to which they agree or disagree with them. Respondents are provided with clear instructions to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire takes approximately three minutes to complete.

8.3.8.4 Interpretation of the responses

Each item in the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support is a statement relating to employees' perceptions of the support they receive from their employing organisations (i.e. their valuation of the discretionary actions the organisation might take in diverse situations to benefit or harm the employee). It therefore relates to employees global beliefs concerning the extent to which their employing organisations value their contributions and care about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Respondents are required to rate each item in terms of the extent to which they agree with the particular statement. Responses are indicated on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (agree). In order to control for an agreement response bias, two of the statements were negatively worded.

8.3.8.5 Psychometric properties of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support

Hochwarter et al. (2003a) reported high internal consistency reliability ($\alpha = .92$) for the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support in a sample of college students at a large US-based university. Similar results were obtained in subsequent studies such as Treadway et al.'s (2004) research on the effect of leader political skill on POS among students at a large US-based university ($\alpha = .90$) and Collins' (2017) surveys among employees in the entertainment services sector ($\alpha = .92$) and business management students ($\alpha = .96$) aimed at examining

the moderating effect of workplace cynicism on the relationship between interactional fairness and POS.

The Survey of Perceived Organisational Support has also been validated for South African samples. Acceptable internal consistencies for the measurement instrument were, for instance, reported by Scott (2014) for employees at a South African higher education institution ($\alpha = .96$) and Solarsh (2012) for employees in South African organisations operating in the industries of imports and sales, vehicle tracking, engineering and property management and development ($\alpha = .94$).

8.3.8.6 Rationale for using the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support

The eight-item shortened version of Eisenberger et al.'s (1986, 1990) Survey of Perceived Organisational Support has been used in numerous studies, both internationally (e.g. Hochwarter et al., 2003a; Rhoades et al., 2001) and in South Africa (e.g. Satardien, 2014; Scott, 2014; Solarsh, 2012), to determine employees' perceptions of organisational support. Worley, Fuqua, and Hellman (2009) empirically confirmed that this shortened version of Eisenberger et al.'s (1986, 1990) original 36-item scale is a valid and reliable measure of POS as a unidimensional construct, as conceptualised in Chapter 4. These researchers (Worley et al., 2009) found minor differences in psychometric properties between the 36-item and eight-item versions of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support and recommended using the eight-item version because of its efficiency in accurately measuring the theorised construct.

8.3.9 Measurement of organisational cynicism

The Organisational Cynicism Scale (Brandes et al., 1999) was used to measure employees' cynical attitudes towards their employing organisations and its leaders.

8.3.9.1 Purpose of the Organisational Cynicism Scale

Brandes et al.'s (1999) Organisational Cynicism Scale was developed to operationalise the measurement of organisational cynicism as conceptualised in their earlier work (Dean et al., 1998). The purpose of the Organisational Cynicism Scale is thus to measure the extent to which employees harbour cynical attitudes towards their employing organisations. These attitudes include negative beliefs about the integrity and intentions of the organisation and its

leaders; negative affect towards the organisation; and disparaging and critical behaviour towards the organisation that is consistent with these beliefs and affect (Brandes et al., 1999).

8.3.9.2 *Dimensions of the Organisational Cynicism Scale*

The 14-item Organisational Cynicism Scale (Dean et al., 1998) comprises three subscales measuring employee attitudes towards their employing organisations and their behaviour in these organisations.

The first subscale measures cognitive cynicism (CCyn), which relates to employees' beliefs about the integrity and intentions of their employing organisation and its leaders (Dean et al., 1998). These beliefs are negative and include, for instance, beliefs that their organisations lack fairness, honesty and sincerity and that their decisions are based on self-interest (Brandes et al., 1999). The subscale consists of five items, including "I believe my organisation says one thing and does another" and "My organisation's policies and practices seem to have little in common".

The second subscale measures the affective cynicism (ACyn) dimension and consists of four items describing a variety of negative emotions (irritation, anger, tension, anxiety) that cynical employees may experience towards their employing organisations (i.e. an emotional response to a cynical attitude) (Dean et al., 1998). An example of an ACyn item is "I often experience tension when I think about my organisation".

The third subscale, comprising five items, relates to behavioural cynicism (BCyn). It measures employees' tendencies towards undesirable or disparaging behaviour in response to negative beliefs about the integrity and intentions of their employing organisations (Dean et al., 1998). An example of a BCyn item is "I complain about how things happen in my organisation to friends outside the organisation".

8.3.9.3 *Administration of the instrument*

The Organisational Cynicism Scale (Brandes et al., 1999) is a self-administered questionnaire. The items reflect beliefs, affect and behaviour associated with organisational cynicism. Respondents rate the statements, reflecting the extent to which they agree or disagree with the each statement. Respondents are provided with clear instructions to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire takes between three to five minutes to complete.

8.3.9.4 *Interpretation of the responses*

Each item in the questionnaire reflects an individual's beliefs about, affect towards or behaviour in his or her employing organisation. Respondents are required to rate each item in terms of the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statement. Responses are indicated on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Although each dimension (ACyn, BCyn and CCyn) is specifically measured, Brandes et al. (1999) used a global measure for organisational cynicism in their analysis of the effect of organisational cynicism on work outcomes.

8.3.9.5 *Psychometric properties of the Organisational Cynicism Scale*

Brandes et al. (1999), building on their earlier work (Dean et al., 1998), created a pool of 45 items reflecting the beliefs, affect and behaviour associated with organisational cynicism. Following a pretest among subject experts aimed at enhancing the face validity and content validity of the instrument and subsequent exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, a 14-item scale was retained.

Although Brandes et al.'s (1999) instrument contained items reflecting all three theorised dimensions of organisational cynicism (cognition, affect and behaviour), they did not report on the three subscales, but regarded all 14 items as a single measure of organisational cynicism, recording a reliability coefficient of .87 and thereby confirming the internal consistency reliability of the global Organisational Cynicism Scale.

Brandes et al.'s (1999) Organisational Cynicism Scale has been used in subsequent studies, thus confirming its reliability and validity in diverse contexts. For instance, James (2005) confirmed the three-dimensional structure and psychometric properties of organisational cynicism by means of an EFA and reported a Cronbach's alpha value of .94 for a sample of school employees in a rural school district in the South-eastern region of the USA. Arabac (2010), in a study among Turkish educational inspectors, found the best model fit for the measurement of organisational cynicism to be a single-factor model retaining 11 of Brandes et al.'s (1999) items ($\alpha = .92$).

No studies could be found that explored the antecedents and outcomes of the three theorised dimensions of organisational cynicism separately. Instead, researchers who have investigated employees' affective and behavioural reactions to cynical beliefs often rely on alternative

measures to operationalise these dimensions of organisational cynicism. This includes measures of psychological contract violation as the affective component (Bashir & Nasir, 2013; Biswas, 2016; Pugh et al., 2003) and CWB as the behavioural component (James, 2005). As a result, organisational cynicism is measured in terms of its cognitive dimension only, reflecting employees' beliefs about the integrity and intent of their employing organisations. Organisational cynicism is thus measured with the five items of the cognitive cynicism subscale. Examples include Pugh et al. (2003), who investigated retrenchees' trust and cynicism in re-employment; Scott and Zweig (2008), who studied dispositional predictors of organisational cynicism among adults in the USA and Canada; Sheel and Vohra (2016), who explored the role of positive corporate social responsibility perceptions of employees in reducing cynicism in India; and Biswas and Kapil (2017), who focused on organisational cynicism as an outcome of POS, POJ and organisational trust among managerial-level employees in India. These studies reported Cronbach's alpha values of between .71 and .92 for their organisational cynicism measures, which consisted of Brandes et al.'s (1999) five cognitive cynicism items.

No studies utilising Brandes et al.'s (1999) Organisational Cynicism Scale in a South African context could be found. This study should therefore make a unique contribution in testing the factor structure and psychometric properties of the instrument in a South African sample.

8.3.9.6 Rationale for using the Organisational Cynicism Scale

Brandes et al.'s (1999) Organisational Cynicism Scale effectively operationalises the conceptualisation of organisational cynicism as an attitude comprising cognitive, affective and behavioural components, as described in Chapter 5. It therefore allows for the measurement of organisational cynicism as a three-dimensional construct reflecting the extent to which employees hold certain beliefs about their employing organisations (e.g. lack of integrity and malevolent intent), their emotional reactions to these beliefs and the behavioural tendencies they display towards their organisations (Dean et al., 1998).

8.3.10 Measurement of organisational trust

The Trust in Management Scale of Mayer and Davis (1999), as adapted by Stanley et al. (2005), was used to measure employees' trust in their employing organisation and its leaders.

8.3.10.1 Purpose of the Trust in Management Scale

The purpose of the Trust in Management Scale (Stanley et al., 2005) is to reflect trust in top management. It therefore reflects employees' willingness to make themselves vulnerable to the potential negative consequences of the decisions or actions of their managers.

8.3.10.2 Dimensions of the Trust in Management Scale

The Trust in Management Scale (Stanley et al., 2005) measures organisational trust as a unidimensional construct consisting of five items. It forms part of a broader measure developed by Stanley et al. (2005) that was based on earlier work by Mayer et al. (1995) and Mayer and Davis (1999). The Trust in Management Scale, as a subscale of Stanley et al.'s (2005) instrument, includes items such as "I trust management to make the right decisions in situations that affect me personally" and "Even if a bad decision could have very negative consequences for me, I would trust management's judgment".

8.3.10.3 Administration of the instrument

The Trust in Management Scale (Stanley et al., 2005) is a self-administered questionnaire. The items are structured in a statement format with a rating scale for each statement. Respondents rate the statements reflecting the degree to which they agree or disagree with them. Respondents are provided with clear instructions to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire takes approximately two minutes to complete.

8.3.10.4 Interpretation of the responses

Each item in the Trust in Management Scale (Stanley et al., 2005) is a statement relating to employees' perceptions of the implied motives of their employing organisation's management for their decisions and actions. Respondents are required to rate each item in terms of the extent to which they agree with the particular statement. Responses are indicated on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (agree). In order to control for an agreement response bias, one of the statements was negatively worded.

8.3.10.5 Psychometric properties of the Trust in Management Scale

Stanley et al.'s (2005) measurement instrument was based on the work of Mayer and Davis (1999) whose four-item measure for trust in management has been extensively used in organisational trust research, reporting reliability coefficients in excess of the required minimum of .70 (e.g. Brower et al., 2009; Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017; Mayer et al., 2011; Mayer & Gavin, 2005). Mayer and Davis's (1999) measurement model is derived from theory and has been subjected to extensive analyses to assess its construct validity (McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011). A strength of Mayer and Davis's (1999) original trust measure is that it can be applied (with slight adaptations) to a wide variety of organisational relationships (McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011), which was the approach followed by Stanley et al. (2005).

Stanley et al. (2005) administered the Trust in Management Scale as part of a broader instrument aimed at investigating organisational cynicism and trust as potential antecedents of resistance to change. Stanley et al. (2005) reported a Cronbach's alpha value of .85 for the measure. Although a high correlation between organisational cynicism and trust was found, Stanley et al. (2005) argued that this was not unexpected as cynicism may serve as a sufficient condition for mistrust. They posited, however, that organisational cynicism and trust should be regarded as distinct constructs as mistrust can exist even in the absence of cynicism.

No studies using Stanley et al.'s (2005) adaptation of Mayer and Davis's (1999) Trust in Management Scale in a South African context could be found. This study should therefore contribute to the validation of the instrument for use in a South African context.

8.3.10.6 Rationale for using the Trust in Management Scale

The Trust in Management Scale (Stanley et al., 2005) was developed specifically to reflect a focus on top management as a trust referent. A clear distinction is also made between the measures for trust in management, which was used in this study, and measures aimed at measuring employer trustworthiness (ability, benevolence and integrity) (Mayer et al., 1995). It serves as a clear operationalisation of the conceptualisation of organisational trust adopted for the purposes of this study (see Chapter 5). In this study, organisational trust relates specifically to employees' convictions about the intentions of their employing organisations and its leaders (management). The focus is on employees' relationship with their employing organisations (represented by management) as primary parties in the employment

relationship (Nel et al., 2016). Trust is therefore not viewed in terms of the direct relationship between individual employees and their direct supervisors.

8.3.11 Measurement of individualism/collectivism

The Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b) were used to measure employees' dispositions towards individualism/collectivism.

8.3.11.1 Purpose of the Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales

The Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b) distinguish between different kinds of individualism and collectivism by assessing horizontal and vertical social relationships. Horizontal patterns assume that one self is more or less like every other self, while vertical patterns consist of hierarchies, and one self is different from other selves (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b). Triandis and Gelfand (1998b) found that the ways in which these relative emphases combine with individualism and collectivism produces four distinct patterns: horizontal individualism (HI), vertical individualism (VI), horizontal collectivism (HC) and vertical collectivism (VC).

8.3.11.2 Dimensions of the Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales

The Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b) were developed using a 32-item measure by Singelis et al. (1995). An exploratory factor analysis, including 27 items with high factor loadings on the constructs, was conducted and a four-factor solution obtained. The 16 items with the highest factor loadings (4 per factor) were retained.

The Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b) thus comprise 16 items representing four dimensions (4 items each). The first dimension, horizontal individualism (HI), reflects individuals' preference for being unique and distinct from groups. Individuals with an HI disposition tend to be self-reliant, but they are not particularly concerned with becoming distinguished or acquiring status (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b). An example of an HI item is "I would rather depend on myself than others".

Vertical individualism (VI) differs from HI in that individuals with a VI disposition want to strive towards acquiring distinction and status. As a result, such individuals are extremely competitive (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b). An example of a VI item is “Winning is everything”.

Horizontal collectivism (HC) relates to similarity. Individuals with an HC disposition tend to emphasise common goals, interdependence and amiability, but they do not submit easily to authority (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b). An example of an HC item is “I feel good when I cooperate with others”.

Vertical collectivism (VC) relates to the emphasis placed on the in-group. Individuals with a VC disposition emphasise the integrity of the in-group and support the in-group’s goals even if it is to their own detriment (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b). An example of a VC item is “It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by groups I belong to”.

8.3.11.3 Administration of the instrument

The Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b) are a self-administered questionnaire. The items reflect individual attitudes and are structured in a statement format with a rating scale for each statement. Respondents rate the statements reflecting the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statements. Respondents are provided with clear instructions to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire takes between three and five minutes to complete.

8.3.11.4 Interpretation of the responses

Each item in the questionnaire reflects an individual’s views relating to individualism and collectivism. Respondents are required to rate each item in terms of the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statement. Responses are indicated on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Each subscale (HI, VI, HC and VC) is measured separately. Participants obtain four scores that classify them in terms of their orientation towards individualism and collectivism as well as the vertical and horizontal attributes associated with these orientations (Gouveia, Clemente, & Espinosa, 2003). Individuals are classified according to the predominance of the dimensions. Subscales with the highest mean scores thus reflect the dominant disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism.

8.3.11.5 *Psychometric properties of the Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales*

Triandis and Gelfand (1998b) reported reliability coefficients ranging from .73 to .82 for the four subscales (HI, VI, HC and VC) and empirically confirmed that the four constructs (HI, VI, HC and VC) that were found in an individualist (USA) culture (Singelis et al., 1995) were also evident in an individualist (Korean) culture. Subsequent research reiterated these findings in various cultural settings, which represent wide-ranging levels of individualism and collectivism such as China and Turkey (collectivistic), Spain (individualistic compared with the rest of the world but more collectivist than other European countries), and Australia (individualistic) (Chen & Li, 2005; Gouveia et al., 2003; Li & Aksoy, 2007). Solarsh (2012) confirmed the reliability of the Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales for a South African sample of employees in a diverse range of industries, reporting alpha coefficients well above the .70 required (HI = .83; VI = .88; HC = .87; VC = .82). Similarly, Györkös et al. (2013) reported Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging between .75 and .83 for the four scales for a sample of South African employees in their investigation of the psychometric properties of the Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales.

Triandis and Gelfand (1998b) furthermore demonstrated the convergent and divergent validity of the constructs by conducting multitrait-multimethod analyses using attitudinal- and scenario-based measurements. They (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b) found HI and VI to be discriminable, but reported some overlap between VC and HC. However, they explained that although VC and HC are related because they both emphasise sociability, they are distinct in terms of their emphasis on family integrity and interdependence, respectively.

8.3.11.6 *Rationale for using the Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales*

A number of measuring instruments have been developed by researchers with the aim of measuring individualism/collectivism at an individual level of analysis. However, these instruments tend to focus mainly on the HC construct (Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b). Researchers also tend to focus either on collectivism (HC and VC) (e.g. Friedman Hong, Simons, Chi, Oh, & Lachowicz, 2018; Rhee, Zhao, Jun, & Kim, 2017) or individualism (HI and VI) (e.g. Özbek et al., 2016), rather than incorporating all four dimensions of individualism/collectivism as advocated by Triandis and Gelfand (1998b). They (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b) emphasise the importance of differentiating not only between individualism

and collectivism, but also between the two kinds of individualism and collectivism (i.e. horizontal and vertical). The measurement of four constructs (HI, VI, HC and VC) allows for a more comprehensive understanding of individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition. By incorporating these dimensions, predictions can be made about how HI, VI, HC and VC relate to employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS), work experiences (psychological contract violation), relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace and their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations.

The Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b) are well accepted and one of the instruments most commonly used to measure individualism/collectivism in cultural and business research (Jackson et al., 2006; Li & Aksoy, 2007). It provides for the possibility that individualism and collectivism may coexist, as theorised in Chapter 6, and operationalises Triandis and Gelfand's (1998b) model, which emphasises interpersonal relationships and the identification of individuals with in-groups, reflecting the relational focus of this study.

However, the main concern in using the Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales to measure individual dispositions towards individualism/collectivism is that the instrument has not been validated in a South African context. While its robustness across cultures (with slight variations) has been confirmed in other cultural contexts, such as the USA (Li & Aksoy, 2007; Singelis et al., 1995), Korea (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b), Spain (Gouveia et al., 2003), China and Australia (Chen & Li, 2005) and Turkey (Li & Aksoy, 2007), it has not been widely used in a South African setting. This study addresses the need expressed in extant research (Gouveia et al., 2003) to test the appropriateness of the instrument across cultures rather than developing new measures for each culture or research situation.

8.3.12 Limitations of the measuring instruments

All the instruments chosen for this study were self-report assessments. Although self-reporting measures are commonly used to assess individual perceptions, attitudes and behaviour, they have a few disadvantages. The results of self-reporting measures may be biased, since participants may lack the ability for introspection or to recall particular information, and as a result they provide inaccurate responses to the questions, despite their best attempts to offer true and honest answers (Cohen et al., 2018; Field, 2018). Self-report measures are also susceptible to socially desirable responding (e.g. employees may exaggerate positive discretionary behaviour and underreport negative behaviour) (Holtz & Harold, 2013).

Individuals may thus attempt to conceal their own perceptions, attitudes and behaviour by providing spurious or false responses, especially if their true responses may be deemed unacceptable to society (Babbie & Roberts, 2018).

Furthermore, self-report measures are prone to problems of common method bias, which is further exacerbated by using the same sample to gather data on both independent and dependent variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Common method bias exists when the observed relationship between variables deviates from the “true” relationship due to using a single method for data collection (LaPlaca, Lindgreen, & Vanhamme, 2018). It therefore relates to variance that may be attributed to the measurement method rather than the constructs represented by the measures (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To reduce this bias, in this study, a number of preliminary precautions were taken with the data collection process and the conceptualisation of the framework, as recommended by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff et al. (2012).

Respondents were assured of the anonymity and confidentiality of the study, that there were no right or wrong answers and that they were expected answer as honestly as possible (Chang, Van Wittelosstuijn, & Eden, 2010). Existing, previously validated measuring instruments were used to enhance construct validity (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). Different scales were utilised for items in the questionnaire. This included both attitudinal and frequency scales. In addition, the order of the items of each scale was randomly sorted to minimise associations between them, thereby eliminating biased response patterns. Some items were negatively worded and reverse-coded to ensure that the participants remained focused on answering the questions and to decrease the consistent motif effect (Peng, Chen et al., 2016). In addition, complex relationships between the dependent and independent variables (i.e. moderating and mediating effects as guided by relevant theory) were conceptualised (Chang et al., 2010).

Finally, this research study incorporated ten constructs, and as a result, the measuring instrument contained a large number of items. This may have impacted on the response rate and the accuracy of the data due to response fatigue (Toepoel, 2016). In anticipation of these potential adverse effects, respondents were clearly informed of the objectives and relevance of the research and clear and concise instructions were provided throughout (Cohen et al., 2018).

Although the various instruments as outlined below were thus deemed appropriate in addressing the research objectives, it is acknowledged that there were some limitations.

Cognisance was taken of these limitations in interpreting the research results based on the empirical research findings.

8.4 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The biographical instrument and the ten measuring instruments, as outlined in Table 8.11 and discussed and justified in section 8.2, were integrated and presented as an electronic (web-based) survey that could be completed online. This procedure was deemed appropriate for this study because of its multiple advantages. These advantages included the following: the ability to reach large samples; cost effectiveness and flexibility; enhanced confidence (in comparison with paper-based surveys) that the intended person received and responded to the invitation to participate; ease of data capturing and a low likelihood of contamination or distortion of respondents' answers; and the ability to collect data over a relatively short period of time (Neuman & Robson, 2018; Saunders et al., 2016). The main disadvantage of web-based surveys is that they tend to result in low response rates (often lower than 10%) (Babbie & Roberts, 2018; Saunders et al., 2016). Various efforts, however, were made to ensure the highest possible response rate while refraining from coercing students to participate in the research (Salkind, 2018). The steps taken in terms of the collection of data and the administration of the measuring instruments are outlined below.

8.4.1 Pretest and pilot study

To enhance the reliability of the research instrument, a pretest and a pilot study as suggested by Hair et al. (2016), were conducted. Firstly, the questionnaire was pretested by a selected group of experts in the field of industrial and organisational psychology and employment relations to ensure the suitability and representativeness of the questions included. Minor changes were effected, mainly to enhance the clarity of questions and the comprehension thereof in a South African context.

Following this initial pretest, a pilot study was conducted by sending the questionnaire to 20 individuals whose profiles were similar to those of the final population sampled and who were easily accessible for personal consultation following completion of the questionnaire. These individuals were requested to not only complete the questionnaire, but also to provide feedback in terms of the clarity of the instructions, their understanding of the items, any discomfort experienced in answering the questions, the layout and presentation, their ability

to complete and submit the questionnaire (i.e. technical difficulties) and how long the questionnaire took to complete. Follow-up interviews were conducted with nine of the participants who provided extensive feedback on these matters. Final amendments to the instrument, mainly intended to enhance its face validity, were subsequently made.

The pretest and pilot study assisted the researcher in amending or eliminating items and instructions that were unclear, thereby enhancing the face validity and content validity of the research instrument (Salkind, 2018).

8.4.2 Extending an invitation to participate in the research

As the target population of this research (i.e. students registered for selected qualifications and modules in business management at a higher education institution in South Africa) were required to interact with the institution online by means of a student portal, this portal was deemed an appropriate means of distributing the invitation and link to the survey. An invitation e-mail with a hyperlink to the electronic survey was mailed via the student portal to the sample group of students inviting them to participate in the research.

Particular care was taken to minimise the effects of external events (Salkind, 2018) in terms of extending the invitation to students to participate in the research. The invitation was sent out shortly after the examinations had been concluded, thereby ensuring that participation would not be limited because of an unwillingness or inability to participate due to pressing academic responsibilities.

A first follow-up e-mail was sent to all students one week after the initial invitation to participate in the research had been extended. The intention of this e-mail was to thank early respondents and to remind non-respondents to answer. A second follow-up e-mail was sent after three weeks. In both instances, the hyperlink was again provided and the importance of completing the questionnaire was emphasised (Saunders et al., 2016). Care was taken to prevent multiple responses by selecting the relevant online survey tool on the electronic platform (LimeSurvey).

8.4.3 Ethical considerations

Ethical clearance was obtained from the University of South Africa's Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology and the Research Permission Subcommittee (RPSC) of the

Unisa Research Ethics Review Committee (URERC) following prescribed procedures (see Appendices A and B).

The letter of invitation (contained in Appendix D) explained the aim of the research, clearly outlining its relevance and potential contribution to enhancing employment relations in South Africa. It was clearly stated that an invitation to participate in the research had been extended to all students registered for business management-related qualifications, but that participation in the research was voluntary. Direct or indirect coercion, as well as undue inducement of people in the name of research, was avoided, to prevent individuals from consenting, against their better judgement, to participate in the research study. The letter furthermore clearly stated the criteria for participation in the research, namely employment in a formal organisational setting in South Africa.

Informed consent from participants was required prior to completing the survey. By agreeing to participate in the survey, participants confirmed that they were aware of the nature of the research, the procedure to be followed, the potential benefits of the research and the anticipated inconvenience of participating. This inconvenience related mainly to the time spent completing the questionnaire (an average of 35 minutes was recorded). No harm to individuals because of their participation in the study was anticipated. The researcher's contact details were provided, however, and an invitation was extended to all participants to address any potential concerns with the researcher. There was no exploitation of research participants. Only information that was relevant and necessary was collected. Participants were free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. However, once the completed questionnaire had been submitted, it was not possible to withdraw the questionnaire owing to the non-identifiable nature of the data.

Participants were furthermore assured of complete anonymity and confidentiality. Anonymity was ensured by not asking or recording any identifying information (e.g. names or student numbers). Individuals could therefore not be linked to data and were assured that the reporting of the research findings would not reflect any individual or identifying information. An opportunity for obtaining information about the research was created by reporting the research process and findings in the form of a thesis.

Ethical concerns in terms of discrimination were also taken into consideration. The Employment Equity Act (Republic of South Africa, 1998a) requires all psychological tests and other similar assessments to be valid, reliable, fair and not biased against any employee or any specific group of employees. In order to comply with legislation, the instruments included

in the psychometric test battery were scientifically valid and reliable, could be applied fairly to all employees and were not biased against any employee or group. Cultural differences were respected and incorporated into the research design.

The research was conducted with the highest integrity, continuously striving to achieve objectivity and legitimacy in the collection, recording and analysis of data and the interpretation of results, transparency in terms of the research process and due diligence in avoiding plagiarism.

8.4.4 Capturing of the data

LimeSurvey, an on-line survey application, was used to develop and publish the survey, to collect responses from participants and to produce response-related statistics. Clear instructions relating to the completion of the survey were provided throughout, and appropriate design and colours were used to help respondents navigate the survey (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). This web-based interface was also used to export the survey data to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet for further processing and analysis. By using an electronic platform for the recording of data, human error in the capturing process was eliminated, thereby enhancing the accuracy of the data (Salkind, 2018). The accuracy of the data was further ensured by using appropriate statistical techniques (see the description of the statistical processing and analysis of the data in section 8.6).

The IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 25 (IBM Corp, 2017) was used to conduct the initial statistical analyses (see section 8.6). Advanced analyses were conducted using AMOS version 25 (Arbuckle, 2017) and the PROCESS macro for SPSS, version 3.0 (Hayes, 2018a).

8.5 FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

A hypothesis is an initial, tentative, explanation for a social phenomenon, which has to be tested empirically before it can be accepted as true and incorporated into a theory (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014; Brynard, Hanekom, & Brynard, 2014). The research hypotheses for this study were derived from the literature study and the central hypothesis (see section 1.6.2.3 in Chapter 1), and aligned with the stated empirical research aims (see section 1.4.2.2). The research hypotheses are summarised in Table 8.12 below.

Table 8.12

Research Hypotheses

Empirical research aims	Research hypotheses	Statistical procedures
<p>Research aim 1:</p> <p>To assess the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical interrelationships between the independent variables (work-related perceptions and work experiences), dependent variables (relational attitudes and behaviour), mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust) and moderating variable (individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism) in a sample of respondents employed in the South African organisational context.</p>	<p>H1: There are significant relationships between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), organisational cynicism and trust, and individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism.</p>	<p>Correlation analysis:</p> <p>Pearson product-moment correlation</p>
<p>Research aim 2:</p> <p>To assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of independent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables.</p>	<p>H2: There is a significant relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, and individualism/collectivism, as a composite set of independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables.</p>	<p>Canonical correlation analysis</p>
<p>Research aim 3:</p> <p>To assess the overall statistical relationship between horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of independent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables.</p>	<p>H3: There is a significant relationship between horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables.</p>	<p>Canonical correlation analysis</p>

Empirical research aims	Research hypotheses	Statistical procedures
<p>Research aim 4:</p> <p>To assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as a composite set of independent variables and organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent dependent variables.</p>	<p>H4: There is a significant relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), as a composite set of independent variables, and organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent dependent variables.</p>	<p>Canonical correlation analysis</p>
<p>Research aim 5:</p> <p>Based on the overall statistical relationship between the construct variables, to assess the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretical hypothesised framework.</p>	<p>H5: The theoretical hypothesised framework has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model.</p>	<p>Structural equation modelling</p>
<p>Research aim 6:</p> <p>To determine whether (1) organisational cynicism and (2) organisational trust significantly mediate the relationship between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB).</p>	<p>H6: Individuals' sense of organisational cynicism and trust significantly mediates the relationship between their work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB).</p>	<p>Mediation analysis</p>
<p>Research aim 7:</p> <p>To determine whether the influence of individuals' (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) on their sense of organisational cynicism and trust; (2) trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations on their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and (3) relational attitudes</p>	<p>H7: The effects of individuals' (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) on organisational cynicism and trust; (2) organisational cynicism and trust on relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and (3) relational attitudes (organisational</p>	<p>Moderation analysis</p>

Empirical research aims	Research hypotheses	Statistical procedures
(organisational commitment and union commitment) on their behaviour (OCB and CWB), is conditional upon their disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (moderating variable).	commitment and union commitment) on behaviour (OCB and CWB) are conditional upon individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism.	
<p>Research aim 8:</p> <p>To empirically assess whether gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership significantly predict work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB).</p>	<p>H8: Gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership significantly predict work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB).</p>	<p>Multiple regression analysis</p>
<p>Research aim 9:</p> <p>To empirically assess whether individuals from various biographical groups (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) differ significantly regarding the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust), moderating (individualism/collectivism) and dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables.</p>	<p>H9: Individuals from different biographical groups (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) differ statistically significantly regarding POS, POJ and psychological contract violation (independent variables), organisational cynicism and trust (mediating variables), individualism/collectivism (moderating variable) and organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB (dependent variables).</p>	<p>Tests for significant mean differences (Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis) and Dunn's post hoc test to ascertain the source of differences where applicable</p> <p>Tests for mean differences also included tests of normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov) and homogeneity (Levene's test) to ascertain whether parametric or nonparametric tests were appropriate.</p>

8.6 STATISTICAL PROCESSING/ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The statistical processing of the data comprised three stages, each consisting of various steps of statistical analysis as depicted in Figure 8.10. The process commenced with the preliminary descriptive analysis, which entailed screening of all cases and variables to ensure data accuracy prior to further statistical analysis. This was followed by a description of the sample features in terms of respondents' personal (gender, age, population group and level of education) and work-related (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics.

The subsequent step in the descriptive statistical analyses entailed an assessment of the psychometric suitability of the measuring instruments, followed by a description and interpretation of the construct-level data by means of measures of central tendency (means) and dispersion (standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis). Next, bivariate correlational analyses were conducted to test the strength of the relationships between numerous the independent, mediating, moderating and dependent variables. This was followed by inferential (multivariate) analyses (canonical correlation analysis, structural equation modelling, mediation analysis, moderation analysis, multiple regression analysis and tests for significant mean differences) that were relied upon to test the research hypotheses as outlined in section 8.5.

The three stages of the data analysis process, as depicted in Figure 8.10, are briefly described below.

8.6.1 Stage 1: Descriptive statistical analysis

The purpose of the preliminary descriptive analysis was twofold. Firstly, the aim was to ensure that the data was accurately recorded and useable. Secondly, descriptive statistics were used to obtain a quantitative summary of the data as a means of gaining an overall understanding of the sample distribution (Salkind, 2018). These statistics included measures of distribution (frequency and percentage), central tendency (mean) and dispersion (range, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis) (Babbie, 2017).

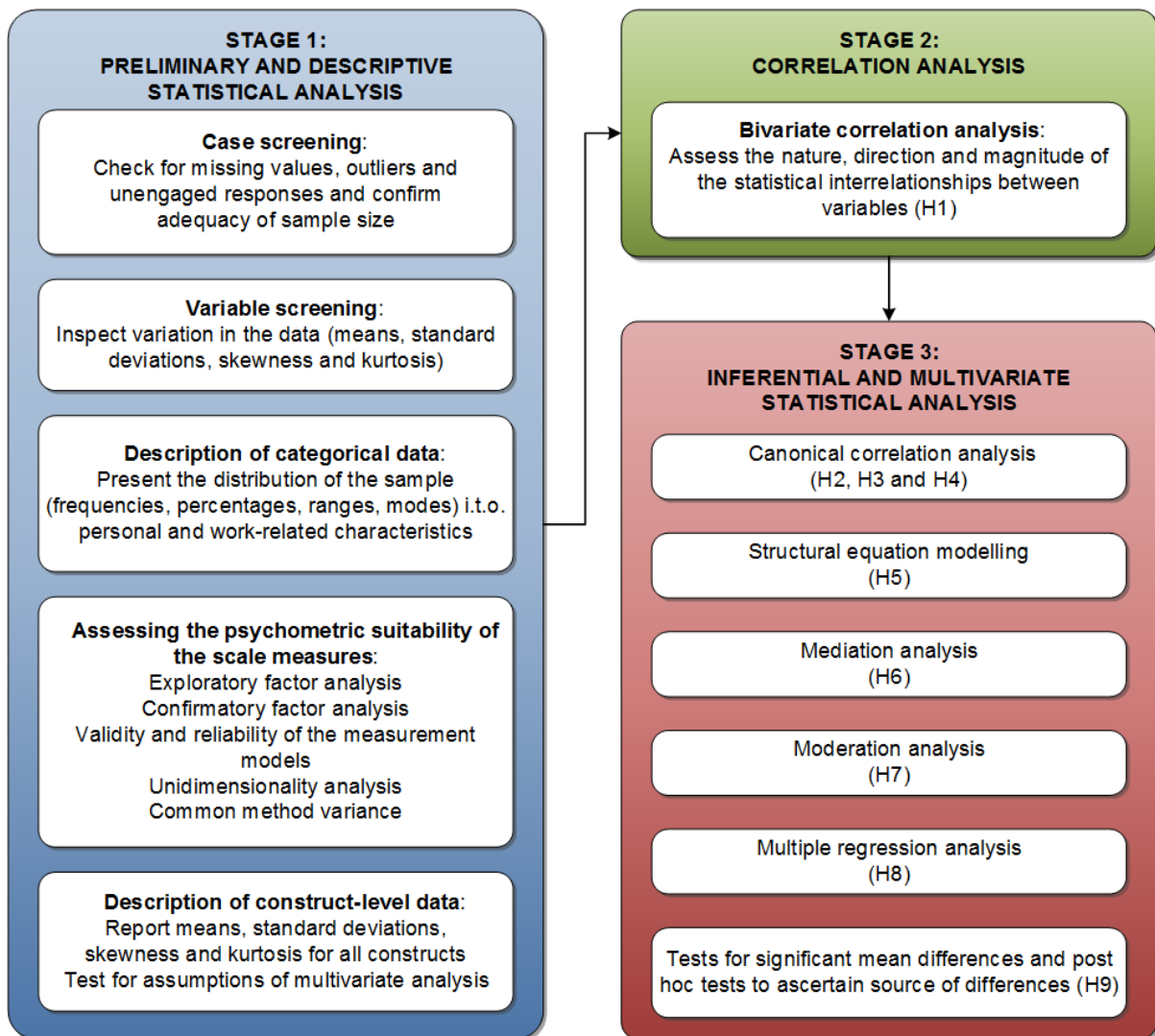


Figure 8.10. Data Analysis Process and Statistical Procedures

The preliminary descriptive analysis stage included the following steps:

- (1) screening all recorded cases for accuracy, missing data, outliers and unengaged responses
- (2) screening all variables in order to obtain a general feel for the variation in the data
- (3) describing the sample distribution in terms of personal and work-related characteristics

8.6.1.1 Case screening

This first step in the preliminary data analysis included various actions performed to screen all recorded cases for accuracy, missing data, outliers and unengaged responses.

As the questionnaire was distributed and accessed through an electronic platform, respondents recorded their own responses in a precoded format. This ensured the accuracy

of the data as no human intervention was needed in the recording thereof (Salkind, 2018). However, as a precaution, SPSS version 25 (IBM Corp, 2017) was used to calculate frequency statistics for each of the items. These frequencies were subsequently scrutinised in terms of minimum and maximum values. Since all the items fell within the possible range of values, the data was regarded as accurate.

Respondents were compelled to answer all the questions, which resulted in no missing data (i.e. a complete case approach was followed). Although forced answering may raise ethical concerns, it is an increasing phenomenon in internet-based research (Gideon, 2012; Toepoel, 2016). Care was, however, taken to address potential ethical concerns by informing prospective participants that participation in the study was voluntary and that they had the option of withdrawing (by exiting the electronic survey) at any time prior to final submission. Hence, if respondents experienced any discomfort in answering the questions, they had the option of withdrawing. Although forcing respondents to reply to all questions may negatively influence the participation rate (this is reflected in 1 063 partially completed questionnaires), this may be counterbalanced by the advantage of only accurate and usable responses remaining in the database (Albaum, Roster, Wiley, Rossiter, & Smith, 2010).

Case screening also entailed scrutinising all cases for outliers. Outliers may be described as extreme or unusual values on a single variable (i.e. univariate outliers) or on a combination of variables (i.e. multivariate outliers) (Meyers et al., 2017). Outliers may result from data collection or data entry errors and, because they can influence the validity of research findings, they should be identified and dealt with (Hair et al., 2016). In the current research study, no outliers were detected because of the use of precoded responses for categorical (demographic) data and the use of Likert scales to measure the identified constructs. Therefore, as no discrepancies were found, all cases (fully completed questionnaires) were retained for further analysis.

Finally, it was vital to establish whether the sample size was adequate to obtain reasonable statistical power. A rule of thumb to calculate the ratio of cases to independent variables entails that the sample size be equal to at least $n \geq 50 + 8k$ (k is the number of independent variables) (Pallant, 2016). However, when the dependent variables are skewed, a small effect size is anticipated or substantial measurement error is expected, the sample size should be enlarged (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). They (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019) suggest an even larger sample size ($n \geq 50 + 8k$) if stepwise regression is used. Based on this equation, the minimum required sample size was 74 with three independent variables (i.e. psychological contract violation, POS and POJ). However, if the mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) and moderating

(individualism/collectivism) variables are also regarded as independent variables, the required sample size increases to 98. The sample size of 740 obtained in this study was therefore deemed adequate for achieving satisfactory statistical power for identifying effects by means of the correlation and regression analyses. This sample also met Hair et al.'s (2014) recommended level of 500 for models with large numbers of constructs when some of these constructs have lower communalities or fewer than three measured items.

8.6.1.2 Variable screening

The second step in the preliminary data analysis entailed a thorough screening of all variables in order to obtain a general feel for the variation in the data. This included identifying and recognising deviations from a typical normal distribution by conducting a visual inspection (histograms) of the data and calculating means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis for all variables. The visual inspection entailed plotting histograms with a normal curve superimposed on the distribution to assess whether the actual distribution of the data corresponded to the desired (normal) distribution (Hair et al., 2014). This enabled the researcher to identify possible key areas of deviations from the norm that could later assist in improving the model fit. Furthermore, variances and standard deviations for all responses were scrutinised to identify monotone or unengaged responses, confirming that all cases could be retained for analysis.

An assessment of the kurtosis to the standard error (SE) of kurtosis ratio revealed ratios above the norm. Although variation was thus restricted for some of the variables, influencing their predictive ability, no serious issues warranting specific decisions in terms of item exclusion, were detected. In terms of the central limit theorem, it could be assumed that, given the large sample size ($n = 740$), the sampling distribution would be normal, regardless of the shape of the sample data (Field, 2018).

8.6.1.3 Description of the categorical data

Frequencies and percentages of the categorical data were presented in tabular and graphical format (see section 8.1). The distribution of cases in terms of each of the demographic variables was thus reported by indicating both the number and percentage of cases in each category (Neuman & Robson, 2018). The most frequently observed values or attributes (i.e. modes) were identified and the ranges (i.e. the distance between the lowest and highest values) were reported where applicable (Babbie & Roberts, 2018).

The sample was thus described in terms of respondents' personal (gender, age, population group and level of education) and work-related (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics. The categorisation of respondents in terms of their sociodemographic profiles enabled the researcher to investigate whether significant differences existed between respondents because of their personal and work-related characteristics.

8.6.1.4 Assessing the psychometric suitability of the scale measures

Although the validity and reliability of the measures have been widely reported in extant literature, the instruments were developed in countries other than South Africa, where the study took place, and had not all been used in South African samples. It was thus deemed necessary to assess the presence of measurement errors by determining the validity and reliability of each measure for the particular sample. Validity relates to the extent to which a scale measures what it was intended to measure, while reliability reflects the extent to which a scale measures a particular construct consistently (Hair et al., 2014).

The psychometric suitability of the scale measures for the current sample was assessed by means of the following steps:

- (1) conducting exploratory factor analyses (EFAs) for each of the measures to confirm the theorised factor structure of each construct and to reduce the data
- (2) establishing the best fit measurement model for each construct by means of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and ensuring that common method variance did not pose a threat to the research findings
- (3) establishing the validity and reliability of each of the measurement models

(a) Exploratory factor analyses

Although all the scales used in this study had been validated in a variety of settings and thus had pre-existing factor structures, it was deemed necessary to determine how closely these factor structures aligned with the ones established in the sample for this study. Exploratory factor analyses (EFAs), using SPSS version 25 (IBM Corp, 2017), were thus performed on the data obtained from the scales to achieve the following aims in terms of the specific sample: (1) to determine the number of factors underlying the variation in and correlations among the items; (2) to identify the items that load onto particular factors; and (3) to identify items for possible omission in order to obtain the best measurement model (Matsunaga, 2010). The

EFA's thus served as a means of data reduction, while at the same time providing evidence in support of the validity of each of the self-reporting scales.

The following actions were taken: Firstly, the data's suitability for conducting an EFA was assessed, using both the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954). Measures of sampling adequacy evaluate how strongly an item is correlated with other items in the EFA correlation matrix (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). Bartlett's test of sphericity should be significant ($p < .05$) for the factor analysis to be deemed appropriate, while the KMO index, which ranges from 0 to 1, should be at least .6 for a good factor analysis (Pallant, 2016).

Secondly, the principal axis factoring (PAF) extraction method with an oblique (Promax) rotation was used to determine the underlying factor structures in the data. PAF is an extraction method that seeks to transform the original set of variables into a new set of orthogonal variables that retains the total amount of variance in the observed variables (Kaplan, 2009). This method therefore does not assume a measurement model for the data per se, but simply constitutes a mathematical transformation of the original variables (Spencer, 2014). An oblique rotation method was used where the variables (i.e. construct dimensions) were conceptualised as interdependent or correlated (Vogt & Johnson, 2016).

Finally, the Kaiser-Guttman criterion (i.e. eigenvalues > 1) was used as an indication of the appropriate number of meaningful factors for each measure (Kaiser, 1960).

As recommended by Matsunaga (2010), these statistical indications, together with an examination of the interpretability of the factors and a consideration of the theoretical expectations about the constructs, were used to determine the optimal number of factors for each construct. Items were retained if their loadings were .30 or higher on a factor and if a cross-loading across factors (i.e. substantial loadings on two factors that differed by .25 or less) were not detected (Hair et al., 2014). All items that did not comply with the above inclusion criteria were marked for possible omission in the CFA. Finally, the clusters of items were carefully studied and compared with the theorised constructs and dimensions. Items that did not correspond with the theorised dimensions (i.e. loaded on theoretically inappropriate factors) were also marked for potential omission from the measurement model.

The measures used and the criteria applied in the EFAs are summarised in Table 8.13.

Table 8.13

Summary of Measures and Criteria used in the Exploratory Factor Analyses

Measure/ Index	Description	Criteria
Sample size	The number of subjects or cases selected for inclusion in a sample.	When using factor analysis (EFA and CFA), the sample size should be as large as possible to promote generalisability. n = 50: Very poor n = 100: Poor n = 200 : Fair n = 300 : Good n = 500 : Very good n = 1 000: Excellent For stepwise regression analysis, a minimum sample of $n > 50 + 40m$ (where m = number of independent variables) is required.
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1970, 1974)	The KMO test is a measure of how suitable the data is for factor analysis. The test is an indicator of the strength of relationships between variables in a correlation matrix. It is determined by calculating the correlations between each pair of variables after controlling for the effects of all other variables.	0.00 – 0.49: unacceptable 0.50 – 0.59: miserable 0.60 – 0.69: mediocre 0.70 – 0.79: middling 0.80 – 0.89: meritorious 0.90 – 1.00: marvellous A KMO-value $\geq .6$ indicates that the data is suitable for factor analysis.
Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954)	This test is used in factor analysis to test the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix of the variables is an identity matrix (i.e. each variable is perfectly correlated with itself and the variables are uncorrelated with each other).	The null hypothesis must be rejected (i.e. should be significant, $p < .05$) for the factor analysis to be considered appropriate.
Kaiser-Guttman criterion (Guttman, 1954; Kaiser, 1960)	A classic technique for determining the appropriate number of factors based on eigenvalues. Eigenvalues measure the amount of variation in the total sample accounted for by each factor.	Components based on eigenvalues > 1 should be retained.

Measure/ Index	Description	Criteria
Factor loadings	Loadings obtained in factor analysis and used to interpret the factors. They are similar to regression coefficients and indicate the unique contribution of each factor to the variance of an observed variable. Squared factor loadings indicate what percentage of the variance in an original variable is explained by a factor.	The higher the loading, the closer the association of the item is with the group of items that make up the factor. For samples of 350 or more, a factor loading of .30 is regarded as significant.
Cross-loadings	Exist when a variable has two or more factor loadings exceeding the threshold value deemed necessary for inclusion in the factor interpretation process.	Variables that load significantly on two factors (both $\geq .30$) are retained when the discrepancy between the primary and secondary factor loadings is sufficiently large ($\geq .25$).

Sources: Brown (2015); Hair et al. (2014); Matsunaga (2010); Pallant (2016); Vogt & Johnson (2016).

(b) *Confirmatory factor analysis*

In contrast to EFA, which is used to generate a new theory, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is used to test existing theory by hypothesising an a priori model of the underlying structure of the target construct and examining whether this model fits the data adequately (i.e. testing an existing theory) (Matsunaga, 2010). A series of CFA analyses was conducted to verify the factor structures of the ten measures, to evaluate their discriminant and convergent validity and to address concerns about common method variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

The number of latent factors and the patterns in which each item loads onto a particular factor were informed by the results of the EFAs and the theoretical conceptualisation of the constructs as described in the literature review (Chapters 3 to 6). The maximum likelihood method and a selection of fit indices (see Table 8.14) were used to determine the best model fit for each of the measures.

As the point of departure, the model fit was evaluated, using traditional absolute-fit indices (χ^2 and χ^2/df). These indices provide an initial indication of how well an a priori model fits the sample data (Kline, 2016). The chi-square (χ^2 or CMIN) value indicates the degree of discrepancy between the data's variance/covariance pattern and that of the model being

tested (Matsunaga, 2010). A smaller χ^2 value indicates better fitting models, and an insignificant χ^2 at a .05 threshold is desirable (Hair et al., 2014). However, chi-square is highly sensitive to departures from multivariate normality and sensitive to correlations among observed variables, unique variance and sample size (Hair et al., 2014; Kline, 2016). The larger the sample size, the more likely it becomes that the results of the test will be statistically significant (Kline, 2016). Thus, the chi-square index tends to be upwardly biased with sample size (Byrne, 2016).

In an attempt to reduce the sensitivity of the chi-square to sample size, Wheaton, Muthén, Alwin, & Summers (1977) recommended that researchers calculate and report the normed chi-square (χ^2/df or CMIN/DF). Although χ^2/df values of less than 3.0 are generally deemed acceptable (Hair et al., 2014), it has also been suggested that 5.0 may be an acceptable ratio for this statistic (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). However, this statistic remains problematic as it tends to be sensitive to sample size only for incorrect models and a universally acceptable criterion for its interpretation has not been found (Kline, 2016). Consequently, the χ^2 statistics (i.e. χ^2 and χ^2/df) were mainly included as a preliminary assessment of model fit. Additional indices, including both absolute and incremental indices, were used to examine different aspects of the measurement models (Kline, 2016). These indices are specified in Table 8.14 and briefly discussed below.

Table 8.14

Summary of Measures/Indices and Criteria used in the Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Measure/Index	Description	Criteria applied
Absolute fit indices: Determine how well an a priori model fits the sample data and demonstrate which proposed model has the most superior fit.		
Chi-square (χ^2 or CMIN)	A statistical measure of difference used to compare the observed and estimated covariance matrices. It is the only measure that has a direct statistical test to determine its significance, and forms the basis for many other goodness-of-fit measures.	If the computed χ^2 value is statistically significant, the model is considered discrepant from the population's true covariance structure. The absence of statistical significance (i.e. $p \geq .05$) thus supports the model.
Normed chi-square (χ^2/df or CMIN/DF) (Wheaton et al., 1977)	A significant χ^2 value relative to the degrees of freedom indicates that the observed and implied variance-covariance matrices are different.	For an acceptable model fit the ratio of χ^2 to df (CMIN/DF) should be ≤ 3 (≤ 5 is sometimes permissible).

Measure/Index	Description	Criteria applied
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI) (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1984; Tanaka & Huba, 1985)	A measure of the proportion of variance and covariance that a given model is able to explain.	Ranges between 0 and 1. Higher values indicate a better fit. A value of $\geq .90$ is traditionally deemed acceptable, but $\geq .95$ is preferred.
Adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989)	Corrects the GFI, which is affected by the number of indicators of each latent variable.	Ranges between 0 and 1. Higher values indicate a better fit. A value of $\geq .90$ is deemed indicative of a good model fit.
Standardised root mean squared residual (SRMR) (Hu & Bentler, 1995; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989)	Indicates the average value of the standardised residuals between observed and predicted covariances.	A lower SRMR value represents better fit, while a higher value represents a worse fit. A rule of thumb is that the SRMR should be $< .05$ for a good fit. Values smaller than $.10$ may be interpreted as acceptable.
Relative or incremental fit indices: Represent the degree to which the tested model accounts for the variance in the data in relation to a baseline model.		
Normed fit index (NFI) (Bentler & Bonett, 1980)	Used to compare a restricted model with a full model using a baseline null model.	Ranges between 0 and 1, and a model with perfect fit would produce an NFI of 1. The rule of thumb for this index is that $.95$ is indicative of good fit relative to the baseline model. Values $> .90$ are typically interpreted as indicating an acceptable fit.
Comparative fit index (CFI) (Bentler, 1990)	An incremental fit index that is an improved version of the normed fit index (NFI). Indicates the ratio of improvement in noncentrality when moving from the null to a considered model, to the noncentrality of the null model.	Values range between 0 and 1, with higher values indicating better fit. CFI values of $\geq .90$ are conventionally associated with good model fit, but a value of $\geq .95$ is recommended.
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) (Tucker & Lewis, 1973)	The measure can be used to compare alternative models or to compare a proposed model against a null model	Ranges between 0 and 1, and a model with perfect fit would produce an NFI of 1. TLI values $\geq .90$ are conventionally associated with good model fit, but a value of $\geq .95$ is recommended.

Measure/Index	Description	Criteria applied
Fit indices based on the noncentral chi-square distribution: These measures are based on the assumption that no model is “correct” but that it can only be “approximately correct”.		
Root mean square error of approximations (RMSEA) (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Steiger, 1990)	A measure indicating an evaluation of the model in terms of how well it reproduces the sample covariance matrix.	Lower RMSEA values indicate better fit. Values of $\leq .06$ or $\leq .08$ are generally recommended, with $\leq .05$ regarded as good fit, between $.05$ and $.08$ regarded as an adequate fit, between $.08$ and $.10$ regarded as a mediocre fit, and $> .10$ deemed unacceptable. For a well-fitting model, the lower limit of the confidence interval should be close to 0, while the upper limit should be $< .08$.
Information theoretic fit measures: These measures express the extent to which the present model will cross-validate in future samples of the same size from the same population.		
Akaike information criterion (AIC) (Akaike, 1987)	A measure used to select among statistical models based on an estimation of the relative quality of statistical models for a given set of data.	The better the fit, the lower the AIC value.

Sources: Arbuckle (2017); Blunch (2013); Hair et al. (2014); Hooper et al. (2008); Hu & Bentler (1999); Kline (2016); Matsunaga (2010); Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King (2006); Vogt & Johnson (2016).

Both the goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) indices were used to compare the fit of alternative models (one-factor, original and modified models) (Schumacker & Lomax, 2016). GFI evaluates the model fit by measuring the fit between an estimated model and the observed covariance matrix. By looking at the variances and covariances accounted for by the model, it shows how closely the model comes to replicating the observed covariance matrix (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). The AGFI index (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989) differs from the GFI only in the fact that it adjusts for the number of degrees of freedom in the specified model (Byrne, 2016). Criticisms against the GFI and AGFI indices are that, in theory, they may be negative (i.e. the model fits worse than no model at all) and that they are influenced by sample size (Byrne, 2016). Hence, these two fit indices were not relied upon as standalone indices of model fit, but reported on account of their historical importance in covariance structure analyses (Hooper et al., 2008). Both indices range from 0 to 1, with values close to 1 ($\geq .90$) indicating of a good fit (Hair et al., 2014).

The standardised root mean squared residual (SRMR) (Hu & Bentler, 1995; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989) is defined as the difference between the observed correlation and the predicted correlation (Vogt & Johnson, 2016). The SRMR allows one to assess the average magnitude of the discrepancies between observed and expected correlations as an absolute measure of model fit (Kline, 2016). The SRMR ranges from 0 to 1. In a well-fitting model this value will be small ($\leq .05$), but values as high as .08 are deemed acceptable (Byrne, 2016; Kline, 2016). An SRMR of 0 indicates perfect fit, but it should be noted that SRMR will be lower when there is a high number of parameters in the model and in models based on large sample sizes (Hair et al., 2014).

Incremental fit indices, also known as comparative or relative fit indices (Kline, 2016), are a group of indices that do not use the chi-square in its raw form, but compare the chi-square value to a baseline model. For these models, the null hypothesis is that all variables are uncorrelated (i.e. complete independence exists between all observed variables) (Kaplan, 2009). For the purposes of this study, the following incremental fit indices were reported: the normed fit index (NFI) (Bentler & Bonett, 1980), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) (Tucker & Lewis, 1973) and the Comparative fit index (CFI) (Bentler, 1990).

The NFI (Bentler & Bonett, 1980) is used to evaluate the estimated model by relating the difference of the chi-square value for a proposed model to the chi-square value for the independence or null model (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). It ranges between 0 and 1, and a model with perfect fit would produce an NFI of 1 (Hair et al., 2014). An NFI value between .90 and .95 is considered marginal, above .95 is good, and below .90 is considered a poorly fitting model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). One disadvantage of the NFI is that models that are more complex will have higher index values and that the estimate of model fit may thus be artificially inflated (Hair et al., 2014).

To address evidence that the NFI tends to underestimate fit in small samples, Bentler (1990) developed a coefficient of comparative fit in the context of specifying a population parameter and distribution, namely the comparative fit index (CFI) (Schumacker & Lomax, 2016). Similar to the CFI value, the NFI value is derived from the comparison of a hypothesised model with the independence model, providing a measure of complete covariation in the data, and ranges from 0 to 1 (Byrne, 2016). Although a value $>.90$ was originally considered to be representative of a well-fitting model (Bentler, 1992), a revised cut-off value close to .95 has been advised (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Both indices of fit are reported in the AMOS output, but Bentler (1990) has suggested that the CFI should be the index of choice (Byrne, 2016).

The Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) (Tucker & Lewis, 1973) is conceptually similar to the NFI, but varies in that it is actually a comparison of the normed chi-square values for the null and specified model, taking into account model complexity (Hair et al., 2014). The TLI is not normed, and its values can therefore fall below 0 or above 1 (Kline, 2016). However, models with good fit typically have values close to 1 (values in excess of .90 reflect a good model fit), while 0 represents no model fit (Schumacker & Lomax, 2016).

The Akaike information criterion uses χ^2 in the comparison of non-nested models taking into account model fit and model complexity (Brown, 2015). Generally, models with the lowest AIC values are deemed to fit the data better in relation to alternative solutions (Schumacker & Lomax, 2016).

Finally, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Steiger, 1990) evaluates the model fit by assessing how well an unknown but optimally chosen parameter estimate fits the population covariance matrix, and an RMSEA value lower than .06 suggests a good fit relative to the model degrees of freedom (Schumacker & Lomax, 2016). RMSEA values ranging from .05 to .08 suggest an adequate model fit, those between .08 and .10 indicate a mediocre fit, and those greater than .10 suggest a poor fit (Byrne, 2016). The RMSEA index explicitly tries to correct for both model complexity and sample size by including each in its computation, and is especially well suited to larger (> 500) samples (Hair et al., 2014). A key advantage of the RMSEA index is its ability for a confidence interval to be calculated, providing a range of RMSEA values for a given level of confidence. The confidence interval is generally reported in conjunction with the RMSEA, and in a well-fitting model, the lower limit is close to 0, while the upper limit should be less than .08 (Kline, 2016).

Finally, Harman's post hoc one-factor analysis (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) and a single-factor confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were used to statistically detect and control for possible common method variance. Common method variance refers to the systematic variance resulting from use of a single data collection method (e.g. a self-reporting survey is used to collect data on the independent and dependent variables at the same time) (Weiner, Schmitt, & Highhouse, 2013). Harman's single-factor test entails an exploratory factor analysis where all the items assumed to be affected by the common method are loaded and a forced single-factor solution is extracted. If a single factor accounts for the majority of covariance between the measures, this may be an indication that common method bias poses a threat to the research findings (Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015). The Harman's single-factor test has been criticised for its insufficient sensitivity to detect moderate or small levels of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To overcome this limitation, the results were interpreted in

conjunction with the model fit statistics obtained from a CFA to assess common method variance (Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015). In testing the single-factor model, all the items of the research constructs were loaded onto a single latent factor. The model fit statistics were assessed in terms of the criteria reflected in Table 8.14, and the single-factor model was compared with alternative multidimensional models in order to determine the best model fit. In instances where the literature proposed a multidimensional measurement model, but Harman's single-factor test suggested that the majority of the variance in the data could be explained by a general factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003), the results of the CFA were used to establish the dimensionality of the measurement model for the current sample.

(c) *Establishing the validity and reliability of the measurement models*

The construct validity of the measuring scales for the particular sample was confirmed as follows: (1) scrutinising the standardised loading estimates calculated in the CFAs; (2) calculating the average variance extracted (AVE), maximum shared variance (MSV) and average shared variance (ASV) for each measurement model; (3) considering item-to-total and inter-item correlations; and (4) computing the internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's alpha) and composite reliability (Raykov's rho) coefficients for each of the measures. Information on these measures and the criteria applied is provided in Table 8.15, followed by a brief discussion of the process.

Table 8.15

Construct Validity of the Measurement Models

Indicator	Description	Criteria applied
Convergent validity: Items that are indicators of a specific construct should share a high proportion of variance		
Factor loadings	Standardised loading estimates for all observed variables were scrutinised – high loadings on a factor indicated that they converge on a common point, the latent construct.	All standardised loadings estimates should be significant (ideally > .7 but > .5 acceptable).
Average variance extracted (AVE)	The AVE is the mean variance extracted for the items loading on a construct and is a summary indicator of convergence.	AVE should be $\geq .5$ to suggest adequate convergent validity.
Item-to-total correlation (ITC)	The ITC reflects the correlation of the item to the summated scale score.	ITC should be $\geq .5$ to suggest internal consistency.

Indicator	Description	Criteria applied
Inter-item correlation (IIC)	The IIC reflects the correlation among scale items.	IIC should be $\geq .3$ to suggest internal consistency (if there are fewer than 10 scale items $\geq .2$ is acceptable).
Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha, α)	An indication of the internal consistency reliability of a measure. The intercorrelation of the items is measured and the proportion of the variance in all the items that is accounted for by a common factor is estimated.	$\alpha \geq .7$ is considered acceptable to indicate adequate convergence.
Composite reliability (CR)	Raykov's rho (ρ) coefficient (also known as coefficient omega [ω] or composite reliability coefficient) is the ratio of explained variance over total variance.	CR $\geq .7$ is considered acceptable to indicate adequate convergence.
Discriminant validity: The extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs		
Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)	Theorised models were compared to a number of alternative models, including one-factor models to test for unidimensionality.	The best-fit models were determined by applying the criteria listed in Table 8.14.
Comparing average variance extracted (AVE), maximum shared variance (MSV) and average shared variance (ASV)	MSV is the square of the highest correlation coefficient between latent constructs, while ASV is the mean of the squared correlation coefficients between latent constructs.	MSV < AVE ASV < AVE The square root of AVE should be greater than inter-construct correlations to provide evidence of discriminant validity.

Sources: Arbuckle (2017); Hair et al. (2014); Hu & Bentler (1999); Kline (2016)

Convergent validity exists when variables presumed to measure the same construct show high intercorrelations, while discriminant validity is supported if the intercorrelations between a set of variables presumed to measure different constructs are not too high (Kline, 2016). Convergent and discriminant validity may thus be regarded as converse characteristics, where the former reflects high correlations between theoretically similar constructs and the latter, low correlations with theoretically distinct constructs (Vogt & Johnson, 2016).

Significant factor loadings from items to their specified latent constructs provided evidence of convergent validity for each of the scales (Hair et al., 2014). In addition, convergent validity

was assessed by calculating the average variance extracted (AVE) and evaluating it against its correlation with the other constructs. Where AVE was larger than the construct's correlation with other constructs (i.e. $AVE \geq .5$), convergent validity was considered to be confirmed (Hair et al., 2014). It was noted, however, that, although higher factor loadings are associated with higher AVE (and vice versa), researchers need to consider the item wording and their theorised contribution towards measuring the construct. According to DeVellis (2017), in some instances the correlation between items might not necessarily be high (resulting in lower factor loadings), but the items remain adequate measures of the construct.

As a final step in establishing convergent validity, the reliability (i.e. the degree to which a set of indicators of a latent construct is internally consistent in their measurements) of the constructs was examined. According to Hair et al. (2014), the indicators of highly reliable constructs are highly interrelated items. Hence, to assess internal consistency, the item-total correlation (i.e. the correlation of each item to the summated scale score) and the inter-item correlation (the correlation between items) were considered. Item-to-total correlations exceeding .5 and inter-item correlations in excess of .3 were regarded as indicating internal consistency (Hair et al., 2014).

Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha coefficients (also referred to as the alpha coefficient), as a measure of internal consistency, were calculated for each of the latent factors. Cronbach's alpha provides a coefficient of inter-item correlations (i.e. the correlation of each item with the sum of all the other relevant items) (Cohen et al., 2018). The internal consistencies derived in this manner reflected the coherence (or redundancy) of the scale components and provided additional support for the appropriateness of the measurement models for the particular sample (McCrae, Kurtz, Yamagata, & Terracciano, 2011). Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges from 0 to 1, with values of .90 and higher deemed outstanding, and values between .80 and .90 regarded as good (Meyers et al., 2017). The rule of thumb is to regard alpha values of .70 and higher as acceptable, but values of at least .60 may be deemed acceptable in some instances (Meyers et al., 2017). It has also been suggested that reliability coefficients as low as .30 may be regarded as acceptable for broad group measures (Hair et al., 2014).

Raykov (1997, 1998), however, has shown that Cronbach's alpha can be both an under- or over-estimate of reliability. Therefore, Raykov's rho (ρ) coefficient (also known as coefficient omega [ω] or composite reliability coefficient) was also calculated as this has been shown to lead to higher estimates of true reliability. Raykov's rho is the ratio of explained variance over total variance (Kline, 2016).

To evaluate discriminant validity, the theorised models were compared to a number of alternative models, including one-factor models to test for unidimensionality. In addition, discriminant validity was established where maximum shared variance (MSV) and average shared squared variance (ASV) were both lower than the AVE for all the constructs (Hair et al., 2014). As MSV and ASV would be equal for measurement models with two latent constructs, only MSV was reported in such instances. The square root of AVE should be greater than inter-construct correlations to provide support for discriminant validity. Final evidence of discriminant validity was provided by calculating the square root of AVE and comparing it with the inter-construct correlations (Hair et al., 2014).

The investigation outlined above was useful in establishing the psychometric suitability of the scale measures in the South African context. Each of the measures exhibited sufficient internal consistency when applied to a South African sample (see section 9.1 in Chapter 9). The internal validity of the scale structures was also supported by the factor analyses conducted. These analyses indicated that the measures were psychometrically sound and, more importantly, suitable for use in the South African context.

8.6.1.5 Description of the construct-level data

The next step in the data analysis process entailed the application of descriptive statistical techniques to organise, analyse and interpret the data at a construct level. Although, the item-descriptive statistics were reported, the emphasis was on construct descriptives, because the focus of the study was on investigating the interrelationships between selected constructs of relevance in employment relations. Descriptive statistics were thus applied to explain the features of the data with regard to the research constructs, namely work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) and cultural disposition (individualism/collectivism).

Measurements of central tendency were applied to describe the average scores on the various scales and subscales to obtain indications of typical tendencies and outliers. The means and standard deviations for all the dimensions of these constructs were determined. The mean is a measure of central tendency for one variable that indicates the arithmetic average (i.e. the sum of all scores divided by the total number of scores), while the standard deviation is a measure of dispersion for one variable that indicates an average distance between the scores and the mean (Neuman & Robson, 2018). The standard deviation is thus the square root of the variance (Vogt & Johnson, 2016). In a normal distribution, approximately two-thirds (68%)

of scores fall within one standard deviation above or below the mean, about 95% of the scores fall within two standard deviations above or below the mean and over 99% of cases are located plus or minus three standard deviations from the mean (Kline, 2016).

The distribution of the data was further described by calculating the skewness and kurtosis for each of the variables containing ordinal data. Kurtosis is a measure of the peakedness or flatness of a distribution when compared with a normal distribution, while skewness is a measure of the symmetry of a distribution (Hair et al., 2014). A symmetric distribution has a skewness value of 0 (Meyers et al., 2017). A positively skewed distribution has relatively few large values and tails off to the right, and a negatively skewed distribution has relatively few small values and tails off to the left. A normal distribution has a kurtosis value of 0 (mesokurtic). Positive values of kurtosis (leptokurtic) indicate that the bulk of scores are drawn in towards the middle. Negative values of kurtosis (platykurtic) indicate that the scores are more equally distributed across the entire continuum (Meyers et al., 2017). Skewness and kurtosis values ranging from -1 to +1 are regarded as indicative of a normal distribution, which is a recommended for conducting parametric tests (Hair et al., 2014).

8.6.1.6 Testing the assumptions of multivariate analysis

Normally research aims to make valid interpretations and conclusions from a sample of data from a population. However, random samples from a larger population may create difficulties to provide exact values that can be attributed to the entire population (Salkind, 2018). Statistical procedures are applied in order to establish the confidence level with which research conclusions and inferences can be made. These procedures include testing the following assumptions of multivariate analysis: normality, homoscedasticity, linearity and absence of correlated errors.

(a) Normality

Multivariate normality assumes that each variable and all linear combinations of the variables are distributed normally (Hair et al., 2014). In this study, skewness and kurtosis values as well as a visual inspection of the histograms and normal probability plots were used to assess univariate normality (Pallant, 2016). Although both the Shapiro-Wilk test and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test can be used to evaluate normality, these tests are sensitive to sample size and tend to suggest violation of the assumption of normality in larger samples (Pallant, 2016). The assessment of univariate normality was therefore combined with an examination of bivariate

scatterplots of key variable pairs in order to assess multivariate normality (Meyers et al., 2017).

A positive skewness was detected for the CWB-O construct, suggesting a clustering of low values (i.e. a low frequency of CWB), while negative skewness (i.e. a clustering of the end side of the scale) was identified for both the collectivism (horizontal and individual) dimensions of the individualism/collectivism scales. It has, however, been shown that, with reasonably large samples (100 or more cases), skewness will not make a substantive difference in the analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

Evidence of both positive (CWB-O, horizontal collectivism and vertical collectivism) and negative (willingness to work for the union and cognitive cynicism) kurtosis was also found. While kurtosis may result in an underestimate of the variance, the risk associated with high levels of kurtosis is reduced in samples exceeding 200 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). The large sample size ($n = 740$) thus reduced the potential detrimental effects of nonnormality in the data (Field, 2018).

Linear relationships and homoscedasticity (uniform distributions) among variables are dimensions of multivariate normality (Kline, 2016).

(b) Linearity

Linearity assumes that the independent and dependent variables in an analysis are related to one another in a linear manner (Meyers et al., 2017). The assumption of linearity is thus verified when the relationship between the X- and Y-values on a bivariate scatterplot represents a straight line (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). The present study tested this assumption by visually inspecting the bivariate scatterplots. Variables that are both normally distributed and linearly related to each other produce elliptical (i.e. oval shaped) scatterplots (Meyers et al., 2017). Since no evidence of curvilinear relationships was detected, it was concluded that the relationships between the variables were sufficiently linear to proceed with inferential and multivariate statistical analyses (regression analysis, SEM and moderation-mediation modelling) (Pallant, 2016).

(c) Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity (or homogeneity of variance when assessing grouped data) refers to the assumption that quantitative dependent variables exhibit equal levels of variance across the

range of (either quantitative or categorical) predictor variable(s) (Hair et al., 2014). Parametric statistical tests often assume homoscedasticity (Vogt & Johnson, 2016). Violation of this assumption results in heteroscedasticity and requires the use of nonparametric tests (Meyers et al., 2017).

Homoscedasticity, as an assumption for analysing ungrouped univariate data, exists when the variability in scores for one continuous variable is roughly the same at all values of another continuous variable (Vogt & Johnson, 2016). The assumption of homoscedasticity is closely related to the assumption of normality because when the assumption of multivariate normality is met, the relationships between the variables are homoscedastic (Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2012). In this study, bivariate scatterplots for all possible variable pairs were visually inspected to assess homoscedasticity. No problems were evident in the scatterplots.

When analysing grouped data, the assumption of homogeneity of variance states that the variability in the dependent variable is expected to be about the same at all levels of the grouping variable (independent variable) (Vogt & Johnson, 2016). Levene's test was used to detect homogeneity of variance violations for grouped data. Reaching a significant value ($p < .05$) on this test means that heterogeneity of variance exists (i.e. variances significantly different) and that the assumption of homogeneity of variance has been violated (Cohen et al., 2018). Meyers et al. (2017) caution, however, that Levene's test is extremely sensitive to violations of normality and that, in large samples, small differences in group variances can produce a significant Levene's test result. To overcome this problem, Field (2018) suggests that Levene's test should be interpreted in conjunction with the variance ratio.

(d) Multicollinearity and singularity

Multicollinearity and singularity are problems that occur when variables are too highly correlated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). Multicollinearity exists when the independent variables are highly correlated ($r \geq .90$), while singularity occurs when one independent variable is actually a combination of other independent variables (Pallant, 2016).

In the current research, correlation matrices, tolerance parameters, variance inflation factors (VIFs), condition indices and eigenvalues were used to test for the assumptions of multicollinearity and singularity (Field, 2018; Meyers et al., 2017). The correlation matrices were scanned to ensure that at least some relationship (preferably $>.30$) between the independent and dependent variables existed, but that these correlations were not too high ($>.70$) (Pallant, 2016). Tolerance parameters refer to the amount of a predictor's variance not

accounted for by the other predictors (Meyers et al., 2017). Lower tolerance values indicate that there are stronger relationships (increasing the chances of obtaining multicollinearity) between the predictor variables. Tolerances below .20 are worthy of concern, while tolerances below .10 suggest possible multicollinearity (Field, 2018; Pallant, 2016). In addition a VIF, which is the inverse of the tolerance value (Vogt & Johnson, 2016), exceeding 10 may be indicative of multicollinearity (Field, 2018; Pallant, 2016). The condition index is a measure of tightness or dependency of one variable on the other, and is calculated as the square root of the ratio of the largest eigenvalue to each preceding eigenvalue (Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2012). A condition index greater than 30 for a given dimension, coupled with variance proportions greater than .50 for at least two different variables, is associated with multicollinearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). No anomalies were detected in the tests.

8.6.2 Stage 2: Correlation analyses

Empirical research aim 1: *To assess the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical interrelationships between the independent variables (work-related perceptions and work experiences), dependent variables (relational attitudes and behaviour), mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust) and moderating variable (individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism) in a sample of respondents employed in the South African organisational context (this research aim relates to research hypothesis H1)*

In the second stage of the statistical analysis process, correlation analysis was used to test the strength of the relationships between numerous metric independent, mediating, moderating and dependent variables as hypothesised in Chapter 7 (see section 7.7) and reflected in research hypothesis H1 (see table 8.12). Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient (r) was applied to assess the strength and direction of the relationships between the following variables, as demonstrated in a sample of respondents employed in South African organisations:

- (1) organisational commitment as an independent variable and employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace (OCB and CWB) as dependent variables
- (2) union commitment as an independent variable and employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace (OCB and CWB) as dependent variables
- (3) psychological contract violation as an independent variable and employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace (OCB and CWB) as dependent variables
- (4) psychological contract violation as an independent variable and organisational and union commitment as dependent variables
- (5) POJ as an independent variable and employees' discretionary behaviour in the

- workplace (OCB and CWB) as dependent variables
- (6) POJ as an independent variable and organisational and union commitment as dependent variables
 - (7) POS as an independent variable and employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace (OCB and CWB) as dependent variables
 - (8) POS as an independent variable and organisational and union commitment as dependent variables
 - (9) employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) as independent variables and organisational trust as a dependent variable
 - (10) organisational trust as an independent variable and employees' relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as dependent variables
 - (11) employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) as independent variables and organisational cynicism as a dependent variable
 - (12) organisational cynicism as an independent variable and employees' relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as dependent variables
 - (13) individualism/collectivism as an independent variable and employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ, psychological contract violation), their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as dependent variables

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) represents the linear association between two metric variables and serves as the basis for many multivariate calculations (Hair et al., 2014; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). The correlation coefficient ranges from -1.00 to +1.00, with 0 indicating no association between the variables, +1.00 indicating a perfect positive relationship and -1.00 representing a perfect negative relationship (Pallant, 2016). Pearson's r can thus be either positive or negative, depending on the direction of the relationship between the variables (Hair et al., 2014). A positive Pearson's r indicates that higher values on one variable are consistently associated with higher scores on another variable (and vice versa), while a negative value reflects an inverse relationship (Meyers et al., 2017). A strong correlation does not necessarily imply a cause-effect relationship, but denotes the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the variables (Vogt & Johnson, 2016). The coefficient of determination (R^2) shows the amount of variance shared by two variables

(Pallant, 2016).

For the purposes of this study, the researcher decided to set the value in terms of statistical significance at a 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq .05$). In line with Cohen's (1988) guidelines, a Pearson's r of between .10 and .29 was regarded as indicative of a small practical effect size, while $r \geq .30 < .50$ presented a medium practical effect and $r \geq .50$ a large practical effect. Although all significant bivariate correlations were reported, a significance level of $r \geq .10$ (small practical effect size) was selected in the interpretation of the results as the limit for rejecting the null hypothesis. Significant bivariate correlations with practical effect sizes of less than .10 were regarded as negligible and did not lend sufficient support for rejecting the null hypothesis. The calculated effect sizes were also interpreted in the context of extant literature as discussed in the literature review (see Chapters 3 to 7), as suggested by Field (2018).

8.6.3 Stage 3: Inferential and multivariate statistical analysis

Inferential and multivariate statistics were performed to draw conclusions about the data. This stage entailed the following five steps:

- Canonical correlation analysis was conducted to assess the overall statistical relationship between three sets of latent dependent and independent variables.
 - Set 1 consisted of work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables (research hypothesis H2).
 - Set 2 included horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of latent independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables (research hypothesis H3).
 - Set 3 incorporated work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), as a composite set of independent variables, and

organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent dependent variables (research hypothesis H4).

- Structural equation modelling (SEM) was conducted to assess the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised framework (research hypothesis H5).
- Mediation analysis was conducted to assess whether organisational cynicism and trust statistically significantly mediated the relationship between work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) (independent variables) and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) (dependent variables), while controlling for gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure (current employer and all employers), job level and union membership (research hypothesis H6).
- Moderation analysis was conducted to determine whether the effects of individuals' (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) on their sense of organisational cynicism and trust in employing organisations; (2) trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations on their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and (3) their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) on behaviour (OCB and CWB), were conditional upon their disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (moderating variable) (research hypothesis H7).
- Multiple regression analyses were conducted to ascertain whether gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure (current employer and all employers), job level and union membership significantly predicted work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB) (research hypothesis H8).
- Tests for significant mean differences and post hoc tests to ascertain the source of differences were conducted to determine whether individuals from various biographical groups (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) differed significantly regarding the variables: work-

related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) (independent variables), organisational cynicism and trust (mediating variables), relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) (dependent variables), and cultural disposition (individualism/collectivism) (moderating variable) (research hypothesis H9).

8.6.3.1 *Canonical correlation analysis*

The canonical correlation analysis method was deemed appropriate for determining the number of ways in which two composite sets of latent dependent and independent variables are related and establishing the strength and nature of these relationships, which addressed research aims 2, 3 and 4 of the empirical study.

Empirical research aim 2: *To assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables (this research aim relates to research hypothesis H2).*

Empirical research aim 3: *To assess the overall statistical relationship between horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of independent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment), and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables (this research aim relates to research hypothesis H3).*

Empirical research aim 4: *To assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as a composite set of independent variables, and organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent dependent variables (this research aim relates to research hypothesis H4).*

Canonical correlation analysis (CCA) is a multivariate analytic technique used to examine the relationships between two sets of variables, with each set consisting of at least two variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). The aim of CCA is to discover the pattern of variables that combine to produce the highest predictive values for both sets (Blumentritt, 2010).

Canonical correlation analysis (CCA) is often disregarded as an analytical technique because the results are not easily interpretable (Dattalo, 2014). Tabachnick and Fidell (2019) posit, however, that CCA is useful as an exploratory technique and that it provides support for structural equation modelling (SEM) as the parallel confirmatory technique. CCA is an effective means of gaining insight into what otherwise may be an unmanageable number of bivariate correlations between sets of variables (Dattalo, 2014). Given the large number of variables in this study, CCA was used to gain a deeper understanding of the multivariate relational patterns between two hypothesised sets of variables and to describe these relational patterns parsimoniously (Fan & Konold, 2010).

The two variable sets in the first CCA, aimed at addressing empirical research aim 2 (see table 8.12), included work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent independent variables describing a range of antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. For the purposes of the CCA, these antecedents were termed work-related perceptions, experiences, attitudes and dispositions. The composite set of latent dependent variables included organisational and union commitment (relational attitudes) as well as OCB and CWB (relational behaviour). The variable sets are depicted in Figure 9.13 in Chapter 9.

The two variable sets in the second CCA, addressing empirical research aim 3 (see Table 8.12), included horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of latent independent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables. The variable sets are depicted in Figure 9.14 in Chapter 9.

Finally, the two variable sets in the third CCA, addressing empirical research aim 4 (see Table 8.12), included work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), as a composite set of independent variables, and organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism as the dependent variables. The variable sets are depicted in Figure 9.15 in Chapter 9.

Canonical correlation analysis was deemed an appropriate analytic technique for addressing these research aims as it enabled the researcher to investigate complicated relational patterns that could not be detected by means of an inspection of the bivariate correlations (Fan & Konold, 2010). By conducting CCA it was possible to examine the nature and magnitude of

the relationships between the sets of dependent and independent variables by measuring the relative contribution of each variable to the canonical functions that were extracted (Fan & Konold, 2010). A further advantage of CCA is that it limits the probability of committing Type I errors (Thompson, 2000). Type I errors refer to the likelihood of concluding that a significant effect exists when it does not – the possibility of rejecting a true null hypothesis (Salkind, 2018). In CCA, the null hypothesis means that none of the variance of the set of dependent variables can be explained on the basis of the predictor variable set (Meyers et al., 2017). In this study, the sample size ($n = 740$) was deemed sufficient for performing CCA as it exceeded the minimum requirement of at least 20 times the number of variables in the analysis (Stevens, 1996).

The first step in conducting the CCA was to derive one or more canonical functions (Dattalo, 2014). Dattalo (2014) explains that, in CCA, the first canonical function is derived to maximise the correlation between the two composite sets of dependent and independent variables. Since canonical functions are based on residual variance, successive functions are extracted from the residual variance of preceding functions. Each function is uncorrelated (i.e. orthogonal) from other functions derived from the same dataset (Sherry & Henson, 2005).

The following criteria were used to determine those canonical functions that had to be interpreted (Thompson, 2000): First, the level of statistical significance of the functions was considered. In an effort to counteract the probability of a Type I error, the significance value to interpret the results was set at the 95 per cent confidence interval level ($Fp \leq .05$). In addition, four different multivariate significance tests (Pillai's trace, Hotelling's trace, Wilks' lambda and Roy's greatest characteristic root) were computed to determine whether the canonical correlation coefficients associated with the variates were statistically significant (Thompson, 2000). If these tests were to return statistically significant ($Fp \leq .05$) outcomes, it would be possible to conclude that the overall squared canonical correlation was more than zero, and that the predictor variables would therefore explain at least some of the variance associated with the set of dependent variables (Meyers et al., 2017).

Moreover, Wilks' Lambda r^2 -type effect size (yielded by $1 - \lambda$) was utilised to determine the practical significance of the findings (Cohen, 1992). Effect sizes for the r^2 metric are as follows (Cohen, 1992): $> .01 < .09$ = small practical effect size; $> .09$ to $< .25$ = moderate practical effect size; and $> .25$ = large practical effect size.

Statistical significance was furthermore established by interpreting the canonical correlation coefficients and their squared values (Fan & Konold, 2010). For the overall model, the

canonical correlation coefficient (R_c) measures the strength of the association between two canonical variates (i.e. the weighted sum of the variables in the analysis) and has a value in the range of 0 to +1 (Vogt & Johnson, 2016). The practical significance of the canonical functions is determined by the size of the canonical correlation, which should be taken into account when determining which functions to interpret. It is generally accepted that an adequate size for the canonical correlations is set at a R_c loading $\geq .30$ (Blumentritt, 2010).

The squared canonical correlation coefficient (R_c^2) indicates the proportion of variance that the two composites derived from the two-variate sets linearly share (Dattalo, 2014), and is used to determine the effect size (Thompson, 2000). The interpretation of the squared canonical correlation (R_c^2) values in terms of the strength and practical significance of the results was based on the following guidelines in terms of effect sizes provided by Cohen (1992): $\leq .12$ = small practical effect; $\geq .13 \leq .25$ = medium practical effect; and $\geq .26$ = large practical effect.

The redundancy index (R_I) was also considered in determining the magnitude of the overall relationships (correlations) between the two variates of a canonical function. Hair et al. (2014) suggested that the redundancy index, which represents how redundant one set of variables is, given the other set of variables, may be used to determine the practical significance of the predictive ability of the canonical relationship.

The next step in conducting the CCA was to determine the origins of the reported canonical correlations, which entailed an examination of the standardised canonical correlation coefficients (i.e. canonical weights) and structure coefficients (canonical loadings and cross-loadings) (Thompson, 2000). Only the canonical correlations for those functions that were found to be statistically ($p \leq .05$) and practically significant, in terms of the criteria explained above, were analysed (Dattalo, 2014).

Both the direction (indicated by a + or -) and the magnitude of the standardised canonical correlation coefficients (also referred to as canonical weight) assigned to each variable in its canonical variate were interpreted (Dattalo, 2014). Variables with relatively larger standardised canonical correlation coefficients were seen as contributing more to the variates. Standardised canonical correlation coefficients with opposing signs were regarded as being indicative of an inverse relationship between the variables; those with similar signs were seen to exhibit direct relationships (Fan & Konold, 2010).

The structure coefficients (also referred to as canonical loadings or R_c) measure the simple

linear correlation between an original observed variable in a variable set and that set's canonical variate (Dattalo, 2014). The larger the structure coefficient, the more important the observed variable is in deriving the canonical variate (Dattalo, 2014). For the current study, the threshold for considering a loading practically significant was $R_c \geq .30$.

In addition, to enhance identification of meaningful relationships between the subsets of variables and improve the predictive ability of the model, canonical cross-loadings were computed (Rovai, Baker, & Ponton, 2014). The canonical cross-loadings, which entail the correlation of each observed independent or dependent variable with the opposite canonical variate, offered an additional measure for interpreting CCA results (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2008). The squared multiple correlations (R_c^2) were used to assess the practical effect of the canonical cross-loadings (see Cohen's R^2 effect sizes as reflected in Table 8.16). Finally, a sensitivity analysis was performed for the independent variate of each of the variable sets to determine whether the loadings change when an independent variable is deleted (Fan & Konold, 2010).

Research hypotheses H2, H3 and H4 (see Table 8.12) were thus tested by conducting canonical correlation analysis.

8.6.3.2 *Structural equation modelling (SEM)*

Structural equation modelling was conducted in order to test empirical research aim 5.

Empirical research aim 5: *Based on the overall statistical relationship between the construct variables, to assess the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretical hypothesised framework (this research aim relates to research hypothesis H5).*

Structural equation modelling (SEM) can be described as a theory-driven approach to data analysis which is used to evaluate a priori specified hypotheses about causal relations among measured and/or latent variables (Mueller & Hancock, 2010). SEM is not viewed as a mere statistical technique, but rather as an analytical process involving model conceptualisation, parameter identification and estimation, data-model fit assessment and potential model specification (Mueller & Hancock, 2010). SEM is used as a causal inference statistical method which assesses both the quality of measurement (i.e. the measurement model) and the strength of the directional paths between latent variables referred to as the structural model by combining aspects of factor analysis and multiple regression (Hair et al., 2014; Meyers et

al., 2017).

In this study, the main aim in conducting SEM was to determine whether the sample data supported the theoretically manifested model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). A three-step approach (Kline, 2016; Meyers et al., 2017) was followed. This approach entailed first performing exploratory factor analyses as a means of reducing the data and providing evidence in support of the validity of each of the self-reporting scales, followed by confirmatory factor analyses specifically aimed at evaluating the components of the measurement model and making the necessary modifications to achieve acceptable model fit (see section 8.6.1.4). The results of these analyses are reported in section 9.1 in Chapter 9.

The third step, which is the focus in this section, entailed drawing a path structure indicating the directional influences and mediation structures that were believed to best represent the theoretical framework proposed in Chapter 7 (see Figure 7.1), while taking cognisance of the results of the canonical correlation analyses reported in the previous section. This structural model was subsequently tested to establish to what extent it fit the data. A competing models strategy (Hair et al., 2014) was used whereby the proposed structural model, which was based on the theorised relationships (as outlined in Chapters 3 to 7) between the variables, was compared to three alternative models to determine the best model fit in terms of the model fit criteria reflected in Table 8.14.

Following the selection of the best-fit model, it was necessary to determine how well the endogenous variables (OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, organisational cynicism and organisational trust) were predicted. This was achieved by determining the statistical significance of the standardised regression weights ($p < .05$) and establishing whether the parameter estimates were in the predicted directions (Hair et al., 2014). In addition, the amount of variance of the endogenous variables that was explained by the configuration of the model was determined by estimating the value of the squared multiple correlations (R^2) (Meyers et al., 2017).

Structural equation modelling was therefore used to test research hypothesis H5 (see Table 8.12). A structural model was developed in order to assess the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model (see Chapter 7). The structural model was based on the statistical relationships between psychological contract violation, perceived organisational justice and perceived organisational support as exogenous variables, and organisational cynicism, organisational trust, organisationally directed OCB and affective commitment as endogenous variables.

8.6.3.3 Mediation analysis

Mediation analysis was applied to address research aim 6 of the empirical study.

Empirical research aim 6: To determine whether (1) organisational cynicism and (2) organisational trust significantly mediate the relationship between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) (this research aim relates to research hypothesis H6).

Mediation occurs when an indirect effect (also referred to as an intervening or mediating effect) of one variable (the independent variable, X) on another (dependent variable, Y) is carried or transmitted by a third variable, known as the mediator or intervening variable (M) (Holland, Shore, & Cortina, 2017). These variables and the relationships between them are depicted in the form of path diagrams in Figure 8.11.

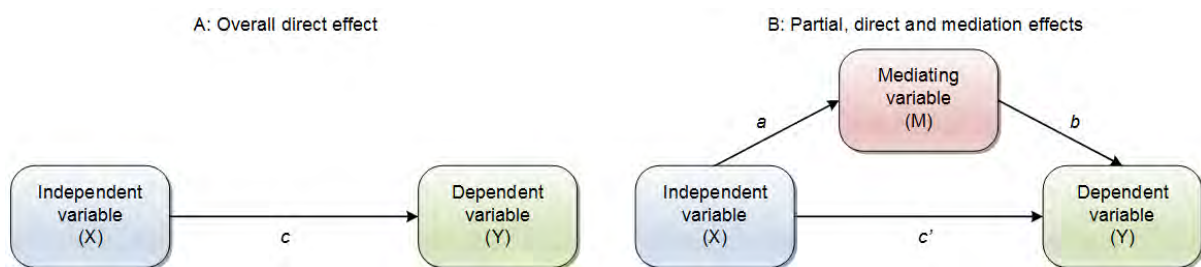


Figure 8.11. Path Diagrams Illustrating a Simple Mediation Model

The first path diagram (A) in Figure 8.11 reflects an overall causal effect, denoted as c , from the independent variable (X) to the dependent variable (Y). The second path diagram (B) introduces a mediating effect and includes three variables (X, Y and M) with two causal paths between these variables (Wu & Zumbo, 2008). The simple mediation model depicted in path diagram B assumes that M is affected by changes in X (i.e. one unit change in X is associated with a change of a units in M), while changes in M are associated with changes in Y, above and beyond the direct effect of X on Y (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Furthermore, a unit change of M is associated with a change of b units in Y when X is held constant. As a result, X is said to have an indirect effect on Y through the mediator M (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). The partial direct effect of the independent variable (X) on the dependent variable (Y) is quantified as c' and the mediating variable (M) plays a dual role in the causal relationship by acting as a dependent variable for X (denoted by a) and an independent variable for Y (denoted by b) (Wu & Zumbo, 2008). The product of a and b thus quantifies the indirect effect of the independent variable

(X) on the dependent variable (Y) through the mediating variable (M) (Hayes, 2009). Hence, the purpose of mediation analysis is to explain why and how cause-and-effect occur (Wu & Zumbo, 2008).

In this study, organisational cynicism and trust were theorised as mediating variables in the relationship between employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences and their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (see Chapter 5).

Traditionally, hypotheses about the intervening effects of mediating variables have been tested by means of Barron and Kenny's (1986) causal steps approach using regression analysis principles (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). This approach entails determining the paths in the model and establishing to what extent the following criteria are met by estimating regression coefficients for three regression models (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Hayes, 2009; Hayes & Rockwood, 2017):

- (1) The first criterion relates to the total effect of the independent variable (X) on the dependent variable (Y) – X must be related to Y, manifested by a statistically significant *c* coefficient. In terms of this study, significant relationships should thus exist between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and dependent (organisational and union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables.
- (2) The second criterion reflects a statistically significant relationship between the independent (X) and mediating (M) variables. The regression coefficient denoted as *a* in Figure 8.11 should therefore be statistically significant. Variations in the levels of the independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) should therefore significantly account for variations in organisational cynicism and trust (mediating variables) respectively.
- (3) The third criterion specifies that a statistically significant relationship should exist between the mediating (M) and dependent (Y) variables when X is statistically controlled (path *b* in Figure 8.11). Hence, variations in organisational cynicism and trust (mediating variables) should significantly account for variations in the dependent variables (organisational and union commitment, OCB and CWB). When controlling paths *a* and *b*, previously significant relations between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and dependent organisational and union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables, should no longer be significant.

In terms of Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach, the first condition was thus regarded as evidence that there were significant relationships between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables to be mediated (Aguinis, Edwards, & Bradley, 2017). In addition, the second and third conditions established whether the paths to and from the mediator variables (organisational cynicism and trust) were significant. Baron and Kenny (1986) posited that, if these three conditions are met, and if the effect of X on Y when M is held constant (coefficient c' in Figure 8.11, called the direct effect of X) is closer to zero than X's effect without controlling for M (coefficient c in Figure 8.11, the total effect of X), then M can be deemed a mediator of X's effect on Y (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). The final step in the causal steps approach thus established whether the mediating effects of organisational cynicism and trust were considered complete (full mediation) or partial. A full mediation model was seen to exist when the effect of X on Y was transmitted by M ($ab \neq 0$ and $c' = 0$), while a partial mediation model existed if only part of the effect of X on Y was transmitted by M ($ab \neq 0$ and $c' \neq 0$) (Aguinis et al., 2017; Holland et al., 2017).

However, the causal steps approach has been criticised for its lack of power, and it has been argued that it does not quantify the intervening effect but rather relies on logical inference to establish mediation, which increases the likelihood of decision errors (Hayes, 2009; Wu & Zumbo, 2008). The contemporary approach to mediation analysis holds that the existence of a significant relationship between the independent (X) and dependent (Y) variables (i.e. the first criterion in the causal steps approach) should not be regarded as a determining factor in establishing mediation (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). Instead, the indirect effect of X on Y or the product of the regression coefficient relating X to M and the regression coefficient relating M to A (indicated as ab) is viewed as a more precise explanation of how X affects Y (MacKinnon, Coxé, & Baraldi, 2012).

Therefore, while Baron and Kenny's (1986) criterion was used in the current study to illustrate the principles of mediation, the strength of mediation was measured by the size of the indirect effect (Field, 2018; Zhao, Lynch Jr., & Chen, 2010). Baron and Kenny (1986) recommended using the Sobel z-test (Sobel, 1982, 1986) to analyse and interpret the effects of mediators. This test requires an estimate of the standard error of ab (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). The ratio of ab to its standard error is then used as a test statistic for testing the null hypothesis that the "true" indirect effect is zero, with the p -value derived from the standard normal distribution (Hayes, 2009). The main criticism against the Sobel test, however, is that it assumes a normal sampling distribution of the indirect effect while it often departs from a normal distribution (Meyers et al., 2017).

Although Baron and Kenny's (1986) causal steps approach is often used in conjunction with the Sobel test, it has been argued (Hayes, 2009; X. Zhao et al., 2010) that this approach is flawed because no additional information on the size or significance of the mediating effect is obtained in this way. More powerful inference techniques that limit the likelihood of Type I errors, such as bootstrapping, the empirical M-test (the distribution of products approach), the Monte Carlo confidence interval and the Bayesian credible interval, have been proposed (Hayes, 2009; Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). Of these techniques, the bootstrap test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007) is regarded as the least cumbersome, and is readily available for use with statistical and SEM software such as SPSS and AMOS, which were used in the current study (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). The bootstrapping technique also addresses the criticisms expressed against the Sobel test by not making any assumptions about the shape of the sampling distribution of the mediating effect (Hayes, 2009).

Bootstrapping was thus selected as an appropriate inference technique in testing the intervening effects of organisational cynicism and trust in this study. A bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect is constructed by randomly resampling n cases from the data with replacement, where n is the original sample size in the study, and estimating the model and resulting indirect effect (ab) in this bootstrap sample. Repeated thousands of times (5 000 in this instance), an empirical representation of the sampling distribution of ab is built and a confidence interval ($c\%$) for the indirect effects is constructed using various percentiles of the bootstrap distribution (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). If the interval is entirely above or below zero, this supports a claim of mediation with $c\%$ confidence, whereas a confidence interval straddling zero does not provide definitive evidence that X's effect on Y operates through M (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017).

Finally, criticism of Baron and Kenny's (1986) causal steps approach has also resulted in a reassessment of the norm in social sciences research to distinguish between complete and partial mediation. It has been suggested that this distinction fails to add substantive value or theoretical meaning to the mediation results and should therefore be avoided when stating mediation-related hypotheses and reporting the results (Hayes, 2018a; Hayes & Rockwood, 2017; Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, & Petty, 2011). The following reasons have been advanced for this recommendation (Hayes, 2018a; Rucker et al., 2011):

- (1) In terms of the conceptualisation of complete and partial mediation, their existence can only be established if the total effect is significant (i.e. different from zero). However, it has been shown that a mediating effect may exist in the absence of a significant total effect, signifying inconsistency between the conceptualisation of complete and partial

mediation and reported statistical findings.

- (2) Claiming that one mediator completely mediates the effect of the independent variable (X) on the dependent variable (Y), suggests that no other mediator exists that may account for the effect of X on Y.
- (3) The existence of partial mediation in a model can be regarded as an indication of a misspecified model, whereby it is acknowledged that part of the effect of X on Y has not been accounted for by the mediating variable.
- (4) The distinction relies heavily on sample size in that small sample sizes are more likely to show complete mediation. Findings can therefore be manipulated by limiting the sample size, which contradicts the commonly accepted practice of increasing sample size to enhance statistical power.

In this study, mediation analysis was conducted by means of the PROCESS (v 3.0) macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2018a) and SPSS version 25 (IBM Corp, 2017). The contemporary approach to mediation analysis, whereby inferences about mediation are based on the indirect effect of X on Y (ab) (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017), was followed. Ordinary least squares regression-based analysis was used to estimate the effects in the mediation models (Hayes, Montoya, & Rockwood, 2017). Rejection of the null hypotheses that the indirect effect (ab) is zero (or an interval estimate that does not include zero) was regarded as sufficient supporting evidence of a mediation effect of X on Y through M (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). The indirect effect was interpreted in terms of the signs (+ or -) of the indirect effect (ab) and its constituent components (paths a and b) (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). In line with Hayes' (2018a) recommendation, no distinction was made between complete and partial mediation.

8.6.3.4 Moderation analysis

Moderation analyses were performed in order to address research aim 7.

Empirical research aim 7: *To determine whether the influence of individuals' (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) on their sense of organisational cynicism and trust; (2) trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations on their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and (3) relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) on their behaviour (OCB and CWB), is conditional upon their disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (moderating variable) (this research aim relates to research hypothesis H7).*

A moderator may be described as any variable (qualitative or quantitative) that influences the strength and/or direction of the relationship between an independent and dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). A moderation or interaction effect may thus be described as a causal model that postulates when or for whom an independent variable most strongly (or weakly) causes a dependent variable (Wu & Zumbo, 2008).

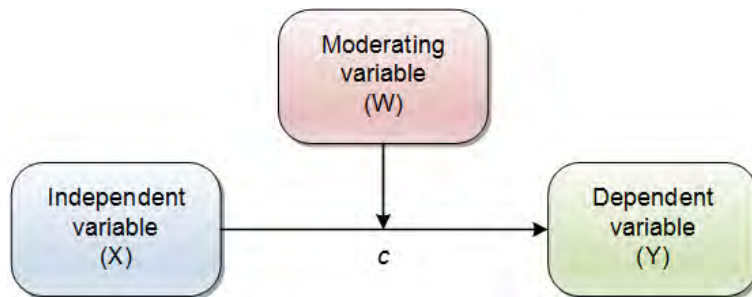


Figure 8.12. Path Diagram Illustrating a Simple Moderation Model

Figure 8.12 illustrates the moderation effect using a path diagram. A moderating effect occurs when a third variable (say, W) influences the nature (magnitude and/or direction) of the effect of an independent variable (X) on a dependent variable (Y) (Aguinis et al., 2017). The causal effect of the independent variable (X) on the dependent variable (Y) is denoted as c . This effect is dependent on the value or level of the moderating variable (W) (Wu & Zumbo, 2008). Moderation analysis is thus aimed at establishing when (i.e. under what circumstances) for whom and to what extent a causal effect between an independent (X) and dependent (Y) variable exists (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017; Holland et al., 2017).

When the moderating effect is continuous, which is the case with individualism/collectivism, which is deemed a moderating variable in the theorised psychological framework, studies typically rely on moderated multiple regression. This analytical technique involves creating a regression model that predicts the outcome based on a predictor X , a second predictor W hypothesised to be a moderator, and the product term between X and W , which carries information on the moderating effect of W on the X - Y relationship (Aguinis et al., 2017). To determine the existence and significance of a moderator effect, a three-step process is followed (Hair et al., 2014):

- (1) The original (unmoderated) equation representing the extent to which Y is predicted by X is estimated.
- (2) The moderated relationship (original equation plus moderator variable) is determined.
- (3) The change in R^2 is considered. The existence of a significant moderator effect is confirmed if this change was statistically significant.

A moderating variable is typically an innate attribute (e.g. gender or population group) or a relatively stable trait (i.e. personality or disposition) (Wu & Zumbo, 2008). In the current study, it was suggested that individualism/collectivism might be regarded as a moderating variable in the theorised psychological framework aimed at enhancing employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (see Chapter 6). As individualism/collectivism was measured as a multidimensional continuous variable (see section 8.3.11), moderation analysis was deemed an appropriate analytical technique for testing research hypothesis H7 (Aguinis et al., 2017).

Moderation analyses were conducted using the PROCESS (v 3.0) macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2018a) and SPSS version 25 (IBM Corp, 2017) (model 1). Moderation analysis is aimed at empirically quantifying and testing hypotheses about the contingent nature of the mechanisms by which independent variables exert influence on dependent variables (Hayes, 2018a). The aim was thus to establish whether the strength of the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables was conditional on the level of individualism/collectivism.

8.6.3.5 *Multiple regression analysis*

Research aim 8 of the empirical study was addressed by conducting multiple regression analysis.

Empirical research aim 8: *To empirically assess whether gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership significantly predict work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB) (this research aim relates to research hypothesis H8).*

Multiple regression analysis is a general statistical technique used to analyse the relationship between a single dependent variable and several independent variables (Hair et al., 2014). This technique is widely used to analyse the relationships between dependent and independent variables and therefore suitable for testing the predicting influence of the biographical variables (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) on the research variables of relevance in this study.

For the purpose of this analysis, the biographical variables were regarded as independent variables, and those variables that were retained following the canonical correlation analyses (section 8.6.3.1) and SEM (8.6.3.2), namely OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological

contract violation, perceived organisational justice, perceived organisational support, organisational cynicism, organisational trust and horizontal collectivism, were regarded as dependent variables. Regression analysis typically requires metric dependent and independent variables (Hair et al., 2014). In this instance, however, the biographical variables were categorical in nature. It was therefore necessary to transform these variables (in those instances where more than two categories existed) by recoding them into binary measures. This transformation is described in section 9.3.3.

Standard multiple regression was performed. Hence, all the independent variables were entered into the model simultaneously and each independent variable was subsequently evaluated in terms of its predictive power, over and above that offered by all the other independent variables (Pallant, 2016). By using this technique, it was possible to establish how much variance each of the dependent variables was explained by the biographical (independent) variables (R^2), and how much unique variance in the dependent variable each of the independent variables explained (β).

8.6.3.6 Tests for significant mean differences

The Mann-Whitney U test and Kruskal-Wallis test were used to address research aim 9 of the empirical study.

Empirical research aim 9: *To empirically assess whether individuals from various biographical groups (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) differ significantly regarding the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust), moderating (individualism/collectivism) and dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables (this research aim relates to research hypothesis H9).*

As a means of identifying the appropriate tests to use in testing significant mean differences in the data, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to determine whether the distribution of scores in the dataset was significantly different from a normal distribution (Field, 2018). In addition, homogeneity of variance was determined by means of Levene's test (Pallant, 2016). While the results of the Levene's tests suggested that homogeneity of variance existed in the data (with some exceptions), the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests revealed that the data did not meet the criteria for parametric tests in terms of normality, and nonparametric alternatives (i.e. the Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests) were thus regarded as better suited to determining the significant mean differences (Cohen et al., 2018).

Significant mean differences between the subgroups in terms of gender (male and female) and job level (management/supervisory and staff levels) were determined using the Mann-Whitney U test for two independent samples. The remaining group differences (subgroups in terms of age, population group, education, employment status, tenure and union membership) were tested by means of the Kruskal-Wallis test for three or more independent samples.

The Mann-Whitney U test for two independent samples is a nonparametric equivalent of the t-test, which is based on ranks (Cohen et al., 2018). It is used when the aim is to determine whether a statistically significant difference between two independent groups, as denoted by a categorical variable (gender and job level), exists on a continuous measure (psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism, organisational trust, attitudinal commitment and OCB-O) (Pallant, 2016).

The Kruskal-Wallis test (also referred to as the Kruskal-Wallis H test) is a nonparametric equivalent of a one-way between-groups analysis of variance (Pallant, 2016). It is used to compare scores on a continuous variable (psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism, organisational trust, attitudinal commitment and OCB-O) for three or more independent groups as denoted by a categorical variable (subgroups in terms of age, population group, education, employment status, tenure and union membership) (Cohen et al., 2018). In those instances where the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated statistically significant differences, post hoc analyses were conducted to determine the sources of the differences. These analyses entailed pairwise comparisons by means of Dunn's post hoc tests incorporating a Bonferroni correction to control for inflation of Type I error (Field, 2018).

8.6.4 Statistical and practical significance levels

The level of statistical significance is based on the probability of obtaining a particular statistical outcome by chance (Meyers et al., 2017). It thus relates to the possibility of making a Type I error (known as alpha, α) or rejecting the null hypothesis when it is actually true (Salkind, 2018). By specifying an acceptable level of statistical significance, the limits for error (i.e. the likelihood of concluding that significance exists when it really does not) is determined (Hair et al., 2014). For the purposes of this study, the statistically significant level of $p \leq .05$ was selected, which is common practice in the social sciences (Cohen et al., 2018). This provided a 95 per cent confidence level in the results of the research. Selecting a significance level of $p \leq .05$ indicates that, if the null hypothesis is rejected, there is only a 5 per cent risk of being incorrect (Salkind, 2018).

In specifying the level of statistical significance, an associated error (Type II error or beta, β) was also determined. A Type II error occurs when the null hypothesis is supported when it is in fact not true (i.e. a false negative)(Cohen et al., 2018). The power ($1 - \beta$) of a statistical inference test may be regarded as an extension of a Type II error and relates to the probability of correctly rejecting the null hypothesis when it should be rejected (Hair et al., 2014). Type II errors are decreased and power increased by increasing the sample size, using reliable measures and ensuring that the data is accurately recorded (LaPlaca et al., 2018; Salkind, 2018).

The statistical significance of a result should be distinguished from its practical significance, which is an indication of the usefulness thereof in achieving the research objectives (Hair et al., 2014) (Vogt & Johnson, 2016). Practical significance is therefore an indication of whether a result is substantial enough to warrant action (Vogt & Johnson, 2016). It is often reported in terms of practical effect size, which is an estimate of the degree to which the phenomenon being studied exists in the population (Hair et al., 2014; Meyers et al., 2017). By reporting the effect size, an assessment can be made of the magnitude and importance of the statistically significant results obtained (Tomczak & Tomczak, 2014).

The criteria applied in determining the statistical and practical significance of the research findings were described in the preceding sections. Table 8.16 provides a summary of the significance levels applied for each statistical technique used in the correlation, inferential and multivariate analyses.

Table 8.16

Criteria for Determining Statistical and Practical Significance for Correlation, Inferential and Multivariate Analyses

Statistical procedures	Correlation analysis	
	Statistical significance	Practical significance
The Pearson Product moment correlation coefficient (r) was used to measure the effect size and to determine practical significance.	$p \geq .10$ = less significant	Pearson's r :
	$p = .01 - .05$ = significant	$r \geq .10 \leq .29$ = small practical effect
	$p = .001 - .01$ = very significant	$r \geq .30 < .50$ = medium practical effect
	$p < .001$ = extremely significant	$r \geq .50$ = large practical effect
Thresholds set for rejecting the null hypotheses:		
Significance levels of $p \leq .05$ and $r \geq .10$ (small practical effect size)		

Canonical correlation analysis

Statistical procedures	Statistical significance	Practical significance
<p>Wilks' multivariate criterion lambda (λ) was used because it allows researchers to assess the practical significance ($1 - \lambda = r^2$-type metric of effect size) of the full canonical model.</p> <p>Statistical and practical significance for the overall model was established by interpreting the overall canonical correlation coefficients (R_c), their squared values (R_c^2) and the redundancy index (d).</p>	<p>$p \geq .10$ = less significant $p = .01 - .05$ = significant $p = .001 - .01$ = very significant $p < .001$ = extremely significant</p> <p>Cut-off criteria for the canonical correlations: R_c loading $\geq .30$.</p>	<p>Effect sizes for the r^2 metric ($1 - \lambda$): $> .01 < .09$ = small practical effect size $> .09$ to $< .25$ = moderate practical effect size $> .25$ = large practical effect size</p> <p>Squared canonical correlation (R_c^2) values: $\leq .12$ = small practical effect size $\geq .13 \leq .25$ = medium practical effect size $\geq .26$ = large practical effect size</p>

Thresholds set for rejecting the null hypotheses:

The standardised canonical correlation coefficients (i.e. canonical weights) and structure coefficients (canonical loadings and cross-loadings) were examined to determine the proportion of variance explained and the amount of shared variance.

Significance levels of $p \leq .05$, Wilks' lambda r^2 -type effect size of $1 - \lambda > .09$ (moderate practical effect); $R_c \geq .30$ and $R_c^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect)

Structural equation modelling

Statistical procedures	Statistical significance	Practical significance
<p>SEM uses a series of measures that depict how well a theoretical model explains the input data (i.e. the observed covariance matrix among measured variables). Model fit is determined by the correspondence between the observed covariance matrix and an estimated covariance matrix resulting from the proposed model.</p> <p>Multiple regression was used to establish how well a set of independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation, organisational cynicism and organisational trust) explains the dependent variables (attitudinal</p>	<p>The overall fit of the model was assessed by means of a range of model fit indices (CMIN/df, GFI, AGFI, NFI, TLI, CFI, RMSEA, SRMR and AIC) as outlined in Table 8.14.</p> <p>Inferences were made about direct effects (i.e. how well the endogenous variables were predicted by the model), based on the statistical significance of the standardised regression coefficients and an assessment of the direction (+ or -) of the parameter estimates.</p>	<p>The amount of variance of the endogenous variables that were explained by the configuration of the model was determined by estimating the value of the squared multiple correlations (R^2).</p> <p>Squared multiple correlation (R^2) values: $\leq .12$ = small practical effect size $\geq .13 \leq .25$ = medium practical effect size $\geq .26$ = large practical effect size</p>

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commitment and OCB-O) (R^2 values), and to determine the direction and size of the effect of each independent variable on a dependent variable.

Thresholds set for rejecting the null hypotheses:

Significance levels of $p \leq .05$, CMIN/df $\geq .05$; GFI < 3 ; AGFI < 3 ; NFI $\geq .95$; TLI $\geq .90$; CFI $\geq .95$; RMSEA $\leq .05$; SRMR $< .05$; lowest AIC; and $R^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect)

Mediation analysis

Statistical procedures	Statistical significance	Practical significance
<p>The mediation hypotheses were tested statistically by estimating and conducting an inference about the indirect effect (ab), as it quantifies the difference in Y attributable to a one unit change in X through the effect of X on M, which in turn affects Y (Hayes, 2018b).</p> <p>Bootstrapping was done with 5 000 bootstrap samples to investigate the mediation effects. Following the guidelines of Preacher et al. (2007), the bootstrapping procedure was done three times: firstly, at the respective mean values of the moderator; secondly, with the value one standard deviation above (+1 SD); and thirdly, with the value one standard deviation below (-1 SD) the mean.</p>	<p>$p \geq .10$ = less significant $p = .01 - .05$ = significant $p = .001 - .01$ = very significant $p < .001$ = extremely significant</p> <p>The bootstrapping confidence interval ($ci\%$) was used to make inferences about the product of the regression coefficients.</p> <p>The main and interaction effects were interpreted using bootstrapping bias-corrected 95% lower level (LLCI) and upper level (ULCI) confidence levels.</p>	<p>R^2 values: $\leq .12$ = small practical effect size $\geq .13 \leq .25$ = medium practical effect size $\geq .26$ = large practical effect size</p>
<p>Threshold set for rejecting the null hypotheses: Significance levels of $p \leq .05$; bootstrapping confidence interval entirely above or below zero and $R^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect)</p>		

Moderation analysis

Statistical procedures	Statistical significance	Practical significance
<p>Estimates were made of and inferences about both conditional direct effects between the independent, mediating and dependent variables.</p> <p>Significant moderation effects ($p \leq .05$) detected were probed by means of visual representations – using the mean value for the moderator (horizontal collectivism) as well as values equal to one standard deviation above and below the mean</p>	<p>$p \geq .10$ = less significant $p = .01 - .05$ = significant $p = .001 - .01$ = very significant $p < .001$ = extremely significant</p> <p>The conditional direct effect was deemed to be moderated if the interaction between the dependent and moderating variable was statistically significant ($p < .05$).</p>	<p>Practical significance of the overall regression model -</p> <p>R^2 values: $\leq .12$ = small practical effect size $\geq .13 \leq .25$ = medium practical effect size $\geq .26$ = large practical effect size</p> <p>Practical effect size of significant moderation effects - Cohen's f^2 calculated as $R^2/1-R^2$:</p>

– and the Johnson-Neyman test for probing the significance of interactions.

The regression coefficient (XY) was calculated to establish the existence of a moderation effect.

>.02 = small practical effect size
>.15 = moderate practical effect size
>.35 = large practical effect size

Threshold set for rejecting the null hypotheses:

Significance levels of $p \leq .05$; $R^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect) and Cohen's $f^2 < .02$ (small practical effect)

Multiple regression analysis

Statistical procedures	Statistical significance	Practical significance
Multiple regression was used to establish how well the biographical variables (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) as independent variables explain the dependent variables (OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism, organisational trust and horizontal collectivism) (R^2 values), and to determine the direction and size of the effect of each independent variable on a dependent variable.	$p \geq .10$ = less significant	Adjusted R^2 values:
	$p = .01 - .05$ = significant	$\leq .12$ = small practical effect size
	$p = .001 - .01$ = very significant	$\geq .13 \leq .25$ = medium practical effect size
	$p < .001$ = extremely significant	$\geq .26$ = large practical effect size

Thresholds set for rejecting the null hypotheses:

Significance levels of $p \leq .05$ and $R^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect)

Tests of significant mean differences

Statistical procedures	Statistical significance	Practical significance
The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to assess the normality of the data distribution.	$p \geq .05$ = normal	Cohen's d was used to examine the effect size of the mean differences: $d = .20$ small practical effect
	$p < .05$ = non-normal	
Significant mean differences between the subgroups were determined using the Mann-Whitney U test (for two independent samples) and the Kruskal-Wallis test (for three or more independent samples).	A significance level of $p \leq .05$ indicated that the tests of mean differences were significant and valid.	$d = .50$ medium practical effect
		$d = .80$ large practical effect

Threshold set for rejecting the null hypotheses:

Significance levels of $p \leq .05$ and $d \leq .02$ small practical effect

Sources: Cohen (1988, 1992); Cohen et al. (2018); Field (2018); Hair et al. (2014); Hayes (2018b); Hayes & Rockwood (2017); Meyers et al. (2017); Pallant (2016); Preacher et al. (2007); Tomczak & Tomczak (2014).

8.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter addressed the first six steps of the empirical research as reflected in Figure 8.1. These steps included the determination and description of the research population and sample; a description of the measuring instrument and justification for using selected scales to measure the constructs of relevance in this study; the administration and scoring of the measuring instruments; ethical considerations; capturing of data; and the formulation of the research hypotheses. The chapter also outlined the three stages of the empirical investigation, which included the descriptive, correlational and inferential statistical analyses used in processing the data with the aim of addressing the empirical research aims as stated in Chapter 1 (see section 1.4.2.2). The chapter concluded with a description of the statistical and practical significance levels that were applied in the interpretation of the data analyses.

This chapter therefore set the scene for the empirical investigation by describing the methods used to achieve the empirical research aims stated in Chapter 1 (see section 1.4.2.2 and Table 8.12). Chapter 9 further contributes to the achievement of these empirical research aims by reporting the statistical results of the study.

This chapter discusses the results of the various statistical analyses performed in order to test the hypotheses formulated for the purposes of this research study (see Table 8.12 in Chapter 8). Descriptive statistics, correlations and inferential (multivariate) statistics were applied in order to realise the research objectives. The results of the empirical research, which relate to step 7 of the empirical study (see Figure 8.1 in Chapter 8), are presented in tables and figures. The final steps of the empirical research, which entail discussing and interpreting the findings (step 8) and stating the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the study (step 9), are reported in Chapter 10.

9.1 PRELIMINARY AND DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Descriptive statistical analysis involves statistical computations aimed at describing either the characteristics of a sample or the relationship between variables in a sample (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). The characteristics of the sample for this study were addressed in Chapter 8, which included a description of the sample distribution in terms personal (gender, age, population group and level of education) and work-related (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics. The aim of this section is to use descriptive statistics to inform the correlational, inferential and multivariate statistical analyses as reported in sections 9.2 and 9.3.

This section thus reports on the psychometric suitability of the scales used to measure the various underlying constructs of the proposed psychological framework (see Table 8.11 in Chapter 8 for descriptions of the measuring instruments) and describes the sample in terms of these constructs. The following results are reported for each scale measure:

- (1) the underlying factor structure as determined by means of exploratory factor analysis (EFA)
- (2) Harman's single-factor test to assess the multidimensionality of the construct where postulated and to test for common method variance
- (3) the optimal measurement model for each construct as determined by means of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)
- (4) the validity and reliability of the measures
- (5) a description of construct data for each measure

9.1.1 The Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

Organisational citizenship behaviour was measured with Lee and Allen's (2002) Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale, which measured the two theorised dimensions of OCB, namely organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O, 8 items) and OCB directed at individuals in the organisation (OCB-I, 8 items).

9.1.1.1 Exploratory factor analysis for the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

Exploratory factor analysis using principal axis factoring was conducted to determine the number and nature of the underlying factors in the instrument. As indicated in Chapter 8, this estimation method uses estimates of communalities (i.e. a measure of shared variance) in the extraction process and is commonly used in EFA (De Winter & Dodou, 2012; Meyers et al., 2017). As OCB-I and OCB-O have been shown to be correlated, oblique rotation was used (Dalal, 2005; Weikamp & Göritz, 2016).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (.90), which was above the recommended threshold of .60 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974), and Bartlett's test of sphericity, which was significant ($p = .000$) (Bartlett, 1954), both indicated that there were adequate correlations in the data to support a factor analysis (Meyers et al., 2017). The analysis, based on the Kaiser-Guttman criterion of eigenvalues greater than one, identified three underlying factors. These three factors explained 29.99%, 8.25% and 2.68% of the variance respectively (40.92% of the total variance). The factor loadings are reported in Table 9.1.

Table 9.1

Exploratory Factor Analysis: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

Item	Factors		
	1	2	3
Q9.9 I defend the organisation when other people criticise it.	.91	-.27	
Q9.10 I demonstrate concern about the image of the organisation.	.73		
Q9.14 I express loyalty towards the organisation.	.63		
Q9.35 I take action to protect the organisation from potential problems.	.57		
Q9.33 I show pride when representing the organisation in public.	.56	.21	
Q9.20 I keep up with developments when other employees criticise them.	.38		

Item	Factors		
	1	2	3
Q9.25 I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation.	.36	.34	
Q9.32 I show genuine concern for and courtesy towards co-workers, even under the most trying of personal situations.		.81	
Q9.31 I share personal property with others to help their work.		.58	
Q9.17 I go out of my way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.		.56	
Q9.40 I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems.		.55	
Q9.18 I help others who have been absent.		.50	
Q9.16 I give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems.		.42	
Q9.3 I assist others with their duties.			.70
Q9.2 I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.			.58
Q9.4 I attend functions that are not required but that help the organisational image.			.32

Notes: n = 740. Only factor loadings $\geq .20$ are shown. Primary factor loadings are indicated in bold. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation.

The factor structure extracted from the EFA showed reasonable overlap with the theoretical OCB model adopted in Chapter 3. A clear distinction was made between OCB directed towards the organisation (Factor 1) and OCB directed towards individuals in it (Factor 2) (Williams & Anderson, 1991). However, a third factor was extracted, consisting of items Q9.2 (assisting others with duties), Q9.3 (adjusting work schedule to accommodate others) and Q9.4 (attending functions that are not required but that help the organisational image). Two of these items, namely Q9.2 and Q9.3, related to OCB-O in the theorised two-factor solution, while item Q9.4 related to OCB-I. The significance of their contribution to reflecting OCB-O and OCB-I respectively could, however, not be empirically confirmed for the current sample, and no theoretical underpinning for a third factor comprising these three items could be found in the literature. As this factor contributed only 2.68 per cent to the total variance, the researcher decided to omit items Q9.2, Q9.3 and Q9.4 from further analysis, and to retain the two-factor structure as theorised in the literature review.

In addition, the following criteria were applied for removing items from a previously validated standardised instrument, as recommended by Matsunaga (2010): Items with loadings greater than or equal to .30 on the target construct were retained as long as significant loadings on

two factors (where applicable) differed by .25. As a result, an additional item (Q9.25) was discarded from the OCB-O (Factor 1) subscale. The results of the EFA therefore suggested a two-factor structure comprising 12 items (6 OCB-O items and 6 OCB-I items). These results were subsequently validated by means of CFA.

9.1.1.2 Harman's post hoc one-factor analysis and CFA for the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

Harman's one-factor test and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted to assess the model fit data of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale and to test for common method bias. The results of Harman's one-factor test established whether the main variance in the data could be ascribed to one general factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003). A CFA was then conducted to further investigate the probability of a unidimensional model by including all the items of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale and a single latent factor (OCB) in a factor analysis (Model 1). Then CFAs were conducted to evaluate the extent to which the following additional models (as guided by the theoretical conceptualisation and EFA results) fitted the data: Model 2 represented the original two-factor (OCB-O and OCB-I) model consisting of 16 items (8 per factor). Model 3 was a modified two-factor model where two latent factors (OCB-O and OCB-I) were retained, but a number of observed variables (i.e. scale items) were removed to ensure the best model fit. To improve the fit, the model was further adjusted by allowing two pairs of errors to covariate. Standardised residuals and modification index information were relied upon to guide model modification. The results are reported in Table 9.2.

Table 9.2

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale: Measures of Global Model Fit for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	CMIN (df)	P- value	CMIN/ df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
Thresholds ^a		≥ .05	< 3	≥ .95	≥ .90	≥ .95	≥ .95	≥ .95	≤ .05	< .05	
One-factor solution^b explaining 29.29% of variance											
Model 1:											
One-factor solution (16 items)	932.71 (104)	.000	8.97	.82	.76	.74	.72	.76	.10	.08	996.71

	CMIN (df)	P- value	CMIN/ df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
Thresholds ^a		≥ .05	< 3	≥ .95	≥ .90	≥ .95	≥ .95	≥ .95	≤ .05	< .05	
Two-factor solutions											
Model 2:											
Original model (16 items)	469.35 (103)	.000	4.56	.92	.90	.87	.88	.89	.07	.06	535.34
Model 3:											
Modified model (9 items)	83.46 (24)	.000	3.48	.98	.96	.96	.96	.97	.06	.03	125.46

Notes: n = 740. CMIN = chi-square goodness of fit; df = degrees of freedom; CMIN/df = relative chi-square; GFI = goodness of fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness of fit index; NFI = normed fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardised root mean squared residual; AIC = Akaike information criterion.

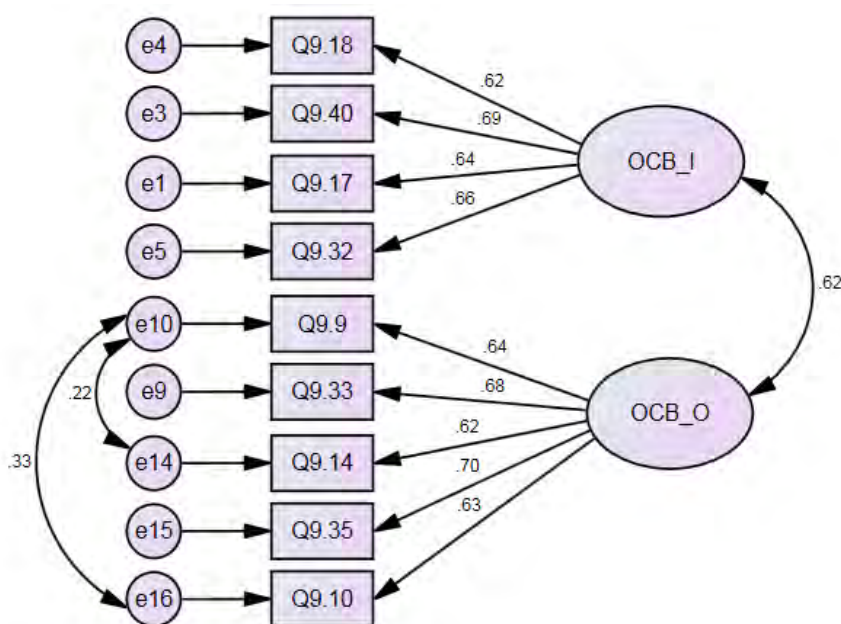
^a For details of the thresholds of fit, see Table 8.14 in Chapter 8.

^b The percentage of variance explained by the unidimensional model reflects Harman's one-factor test for the original measure.

The one-factor solution from the EFA (Harman's one-factor test) for the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale showed that a single construct accounted for only 29.29 per cent of the variance among the scale variables. When loading the two Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale items onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the data well (χ^2/df ratio = 8.97; $p = .000$; RMSEA = .10; SRMR = .08; CFI = .76). The one-factor results for the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale therefore suggested a possible multifactor model in line with what has been postulated in theory. The notion that OCB is a single construct was thus not supported, and the results suggested that common method variance was not a potential threat to the research findings. Although these results thus suggested that the main variance in the data could not be ascribed to one general factor, it related to the original scale items. Similar tests were subsequently conducted for the final OCB measurement model (see section 9.1.11) to ensure that common method variance did not pose a threat of bias.

Although the original two-factor model demonstrated a better model fit than the one-factor model, the best model fit was obtained by the modified two-factor model (Model 3) as suggested by the EFA. Model 3 also received the lowest AIC score (125.46), indicating that this model was the most parsimonious model for the given data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

The model fit the data adequately with acceptable GFI (.98), AFGI (.96) and SRMR (.03) indices. The NFI (.96), TLI (.96) and CFI (.97) indices were also indicative of a good fit, while the RMSEA value (90% CI) of .06 (.05-.07) suggested an adequate fit. The χ^2 -value was 83.46 and χ^2/df was 3.48 with p -value < .000. Although the normed chi-square (χ^2/df) did not meet the criteria to be considered a good fit (≤ 3), this statistic has been shown to be sensitive to sample size (Kline, 2016), and still met the more lenient criteria of being lesser than or equal to five (Hair et al., 2014). An examination of the standardised residuals (no values > 2.50) and modification indices did not suggest any additional changes to the model. It was thus concluded that the hypothesised model fit the sample data adequately, supporting acceptable construct validity for the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale.



Notes: OCB_I = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Individual; OCB_O = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Organisation

Figure 9.1. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour CFA Measurement Model

9.1.1.3 Validity and reliability of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

Convergent validity was established by first considering the standardised factor loadings. All factor loadings were significant (> .60), as reflected in Table 9.3. Although loadings in excess of .70 are preferred, a less conservative threshold of .50 is also deemed acceptable (Hair et al., 2014).

The next step was to calculate the average variances extracted (AVE) for each construct. The

AVE is a summary measure of convergence among a set of items representing a latent construct (Hair et al., 2014). In this instance, the AVE values for both the OCB constructs (OCB-I and OCB-O) were .43. Despite the relatively low AVE values, an assessment of the item wording suggested that the items reflected the constructs as noted in section 8.6.1.4. In addition, the item-to-total correlations (ranging from .53 to .68) and the inter-item correlation for the two OCB-I and OCB-O constructs (.43 and .46 respectively) lent support to internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha and Raykov's rho coefficients (composite reliability) were calculated for both measures in the modified model (see Figure 9.1). The overall Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale reported an internal consistency reliability of .82, while the two subscales reported Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .75 (OCB-I) and .81 (OCB-O) respectively. Composite reliability (ρ) coefficients of .75 for OCB-O and .79 for OCB-I were reported. All scales thus exceeded the .70 threshold regarded as indicative of adequate convergence. The convergent validity of the OCB-I and OCB-O scales were thereby confirmed.

To determine discriminant validity, the maximum shared variance (MSV) was calculated. The MSV was .39, which was lower than the AVE of each of the subscales, thereby lending support to the discriminant validity of the scales. Discriminant validity was furthermore established by calculating the square root of AVE for both constructs (.66 for OCB-I and .65 for OCB-O), which was higher than the inter-construct correlation (.62) in both instances. The discriminant validity of the OCB-I and OCB-O scales was thus confirmed.

9.1.1.4 Description of construct data: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

The mean scores for the two OCB constructs were 5.09 (OCB-I) and 5.07 (OCB-O) respectively, with standard deviations of 1.25 (OCB-I) and 1.35 (OCB-O). These scores suggested that respondents regularly engaged in positive discretionary behaviour in their workplaces. In terms of the frequency scale used, respondents tended to display positive discretionary behaviour towards their employing organisations and individuals in these organisations – they engaged in positive discretionary behaviour in about 70 per cent of the instances in which they had an opportunity to do so. Although lower mean scores were reported for some items, such as Q9.31 (sharing with others) and Q9.4 (attending organisational functions) behaviours, this did not reflect an absence of OCB, but rather suggested that respondents still engaged in such behaviour but less often than the highly rated items (i.e. sometimes – in about 50% of the changes they could have).

Table 9.3

Summary of Descriptive Statistics and Psychometric Properties for the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

Construct	Items	Item descriptives				Construct descriptives				ITC	IIC	α	CR	AVE	MSV	Factor loadings
		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis							
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Individual (OCB_I)	Q9.17	5.31	1.69	-.90	-.03	5.09	1.25	-.42	-.47	.54	.43	.75	.75	.43	.39	.64
	Q9.18	4.53	1.84	-.28	-1.05					.54						.62
	Q9.32	5.33	1.42	-.71	-.10					.53						.66
	Q9.40	5.18	1.64	-.78	-.19					.56						.69
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Organisation (OCB_O)	Q9.2	4.43	1.77	-.15	-1.00	5.07	1.35	-.57	-.38	.56	.46	.81	.79	.43	.39	.68
	Q9.3	5.39	1.37	-.59	-.22					.61						.63
	Q9.16	3.93	1.80	.00	-1.00					.57						.62
	Q9.31	3.78	1.96	.09	-1.20					.56						.68
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Organisation (OCB_O)	Q9.9	4.59	1.87	-.36	-.92	5.32	1.61	-.82	-.11	.57	.46	.81	.79	.43	.39	.70
	Q9.10	4.88	1.88	-.63	-.70					.57						.62
	Q9.14	5.52	1.69	-1.12	.36					.56						.68
	Q9.33	5.34	1.76	-.99	-.02					.57						.70

g
Items discarded in final measurement model

Items discarded in final measurement model

Notes: n = 740. SD = standard deviation; ITC = item-to-total correlation; IIC = inter-item correlation; α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared variance. Scores: 1 = never, 2 = rarely; 3 = occasionally; 4 = sometimes; 5 = frequently; 6 = usually; 7 = all the time. CFA measurement model fit: chi-square (df) = 83.46 (24), $p = .000$; CMIN/df = 3.48; GFI = .98; AGFI = .96; NFI = .96; TLI = .96; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .03; AIC = 125.46.

The skewness values were $-.42$ for the OCB-I subscale and $-.57$ for the OCB-O subscale, which were within the recommended normality range (between -1 and $+1$) (Hair et al., 2016). The kurtosis values were $-.47$ and $-.38$ for the OCB-I and OCB-O subscales respectively, indicating that the distribution of the scores could be considered normal as they were between -1 and $+1$, which is the suggested range for assuming normality (Hair et al., 2016).

9.1.2 The Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale

Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) was measured with an amended version of Bennett and Robinson's (2000a) 19-item Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale. Five additional items relating to industrial/collective action as a form of organisational deviance were added. As the point of departure in determining the validity of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale for this sample, the descriptive statistics for each of the items were considered. It was evident that seven of the items showed extremely low levels of variance in this sample, primarily because more than 90 per cent of respondents had replied "never" to the statements. These items included three items relating to organisational deviance or CWB-O (Q9.15, Q9.39 and Q9.12), three of the five items that were added to the CWB-O subscale to measure collective employee behaviour (Q9.13, Q9.8 and Q9.38) and one item (Q9.28) that formed part of the CWB-I subscale.

Lee and Allen (2002), in their research on the role of affect and cognitions on CWB, reported similar results using Bennett and Robinson's (2000a) Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale. These authors (Lee & Allen, 2002) recommended that items showing extremely low levels of variance should be omitted from further analysis. In line with this recommendation, seven of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale items were therefore discarded, resulting in a 17-item measurement scale comprising 11 items relating to CWB-O and 6 items reflecting CWB-I. These items were subsequently subjected to EFA.

9.1.2.1 *Exploratory factor analysis for the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale*

Using principal axis factoring with an oblique rotation, exploratory factor analysis was conducted to determine the number and nature of the underlying factors in the instrument. As CWB directed at individuals (CWB-I) and the organisation (CWB-O) have been shown to be correlated (Dalal, 2005; Weikamp & Göritz, 2016), oblique rotation was deemed appropriate.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (.90), which was above the recommended threshold of .60 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974), and Bartlett's test of sphericity, which was significant ($p = .000$) (Bartlett, 1954), both indicated that there were adequate correlations in the data to support the factor analysis (Meyers et al., 2017). Four underlying factors were extracted, based on the Kaiser-Guttman criterion of eigenvalues greater than one. These factors explained 36.28 per cent of the total variance. The first factor accounted for 26.49 per cent of variance followed by 4.76 per cent, 2.84 per cent and 2.20 per cent for the remaining three factors respectively. The factor loadings are reported in Table 9.4.

Table 9.4

Exploratory Factor Analysis: Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale

Item	Factors			
	1	2	3	4
Q9.34 I spend too much time fantasising or daydreaming instead of working.	.73			
Q9.36 I take an additional or longer break than is acceptable at my workplace.	.54			
Q9.19 I intentionally work slower than I could have worked.	.49		.22	
Q9.6 I come in late to work without permission.	.48		-.24	.26
Q9.37 I take property from work without permission.	.43	.21		
Q9.23 I make fun of someone at work.		.67		
Q9.27 I play a mean prank on someone at work.		.62		
Q9.30 I say something hurtful to someone at work.		.53		
Q9.1 I act rudely towards some people at work.		.43		
Q9.7 I curse someone at work.	.27	.41	-.21	
Q9.22 I make an ethnic, religious or racial remark at work.		.35	.30	
Q9.24 I neglect to follow my supervisor's instructions.	.26	.33		
Q9.11 I discuss confidential company information with an unauthorised person.		.24	.21	
Q9.21 I litter my work environment.		.24	.51	
Q9.29 I put little effort into my work.			.51	
Q9.5 I coerce fellow employees to take part in industrial action				.62
Q9.26 I participate in industrial action (e.g. strikes and picketing)				.47

Notes: $n = 740$. Only factor loadings $\geq .20$ are shown. Primary factor loadings are indicated in bold. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation.

The factor structure extracted from the EFA showed some overlap with the theoretical CWB

model postulated in Chapter 3. Although a distinction was made between organisationally directed CWB (CWB-O, Factor 1) and individually-directed CWB (CWB-I, Factor 2), as proposed in Robinson and Bennett's (1995, 1997) typology of employee deviance, two additional factors were extracted. Items Q9.5 and Q9.26 (extracted as Factor 4) related to industrial/collective action and were two of the additional items added to Bennett and Robinson's (2000a) Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale for the purposes of this study. The results of the EFA thus suggested that because these items reflected a separate construct, they should not be regarded as part of the CWB-O construct as anticipated. Although the factor contributed only 2.20 per cent to the total variance, the researcher decided to retain these items for further analysis, as described in section 9.1.2.2.

An additional underlying factor (Factor 3), consisting of two items (Q9.21 and Q9.29), was also extracted. These items related to CWB-O (I litter my work environment) and CWB-I (I put little effort into my work) respectively in the theorised two-factor solution. The significance of their contribution to reflecting CWB-O and CWB-I respectively could thus not be empirically confirmed for the current sample, and no theoretical underpinning for a fourth factor consisting of these two items could be found in the literature. As this factor contributed only 2.84 per cent to the total variance, it was decided that items Q9.21 and Q9.29 would be omitted from further analysis.

Furthermore, two further items (Q9.11 and Q9.24) loaded on the CWB-I factor even though they had been associated with CWB-O in the original measuring instrument. An assessment of the item wording did not suggest that they should be deemed to be associated with the CWB-I construct. Given this discrepancy, combined with low factor loadings (.24 and .33 respectively) on the OCB-I factor, it was decided to omit these two items from further analysis. In addition, the following criteria for removing items from a previously validated standardised scale was applied: Items with loadings greater than or equal to .30 on the target construct were retained as long as significant loadings on two factors (where applicable) differed by .25. As a result, one additional item (Q9.22) was discarded from the CWB-I (Factor 2) subscale as it cross-loaded on both factors 2 (.35) and 3 (.30).

The results of the EFA therefore suggested a three-factor structure consisting of 12 items (6 CWB-O items, 4 CWB-I items and 2 items relating to industrial/collective action as a specific form of CWB). This outcome as well as the theorised two-factor solution was subsequently tested by means of CFA.

9.1.2.2 *Harman's post hoc one-factor analysis and CFA for the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale*

As the point of departure, Harman's one-factor test and CFA were conducted to assess the model fit data of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale and to establish whether the main variance in the data could be ascribed to one general factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The one-factor solution from the EFA (Harman's one-factor test) for the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale showed that a single construct accounted for only 25.98 per cent of the variance among the scale variables.

The next step was to include all the items of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale (i.e. those 17 items retained following the EFA) in a confirmatory factor analysis to assess the unidimensionality of the CWB construct (Model 1). When loading all the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale variables onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well (χ^2/df ratio = 4.77; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .05; CFI = .84). These results therefore suggested that a single-factor model was less likely than a multifactor model and that common method variance did not pose a potential threat to the research findings.

Additional CFAs were subsequently conducted to evaluate the extent to which the following models fit the data: Model 2 represented Bennett and Robinson's (2000a) original two-factor model differentiating between CWB-O and CWB-I. It consisted of 15 items (9 items for CWB-O and 6 items for CWB-I). For Model 3, the two new items that related to collective or industrial action and that were retained in the EFA (i.e. Q.9.5 and Q9.26) were added to the CWB-O scale. For this model, the CWB-O scale thus consisted of 11 items and the CWB-I remained unchanged with six items. In Model 4, a modified two-factor model, two latent factors (CWB-O and CWB-I) were retained, but a number of observed variables (represented by scale items) were removed to ensure the best model fit. Standardised residuals and modification index information were relied upon to guide model modification.

Since a three-factor structure was suggested by the EFA, two additional three-factor models, reflecting a separate industrial or collective action factor, were also tested. Model 5 consisted of three latent variables with six items relating to CWB-I, nine items relating to CWB-O and an additional two items reflecting industrial or collective action as a form of organisationally directed deviance. In addition, a modified version of the three-factor model was tested, where a number of observed variables were removed and two pairs of errors were allowed to

covariate to ensure the best model fit (Model 6). The results are reported in Table 9.5.

Table 9.5

Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale: Measures of Global Model Fit for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	CMIN (df)	P- value	CMIN/ df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
Thresholds ^a		≥ .05	< 3	≥ .95	≥ .90	≥ .95	≥ .95	≥ .95	≤ .05	< .05	
One-factor solution ^b explaining 25.98% of variance											
Model 1:											
One-factor solution (17 items)	567.46 (119)	.000	4.77	.91	.88	.81	.82	.84	.07	.05	635.46
Two-factor solutions											
Model 2:											
Original model (15 items)	383.76 (89)	.000	4.31	.93	.91	.86	.87	.89	.07	.05	445.76
Model 3:											
Revised model (17 items)	527.71 (118)	.000	4.47	.92	.89	.82	.83	.86	.07	.05	597.71
Model 4:											
Modified model (10 items)	94.99 (33)	.000	2.88	.98	.96	.95	.95	.96	.05	.03	138.99
Three-factor solutions											
Model 5:											
Original model (17 items)	469.74 (116)	.000	4.05	.93	.90	.84	.85	.88	.06	.05	543.74
Model 6:											
Modified model (9 items)	53.65 (22)	.000	2.44	.98	.97	.96	.96	.98	.04	.03	99.65

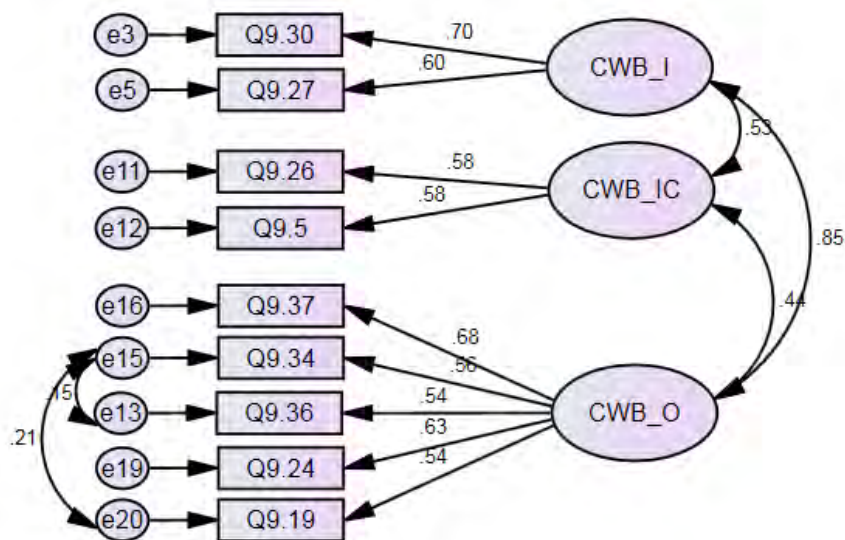
Notes: n = 740. CMIN = chi-square goodness of fit; df = degrees of freedom; CMIN/df = relative chi-square; GFI = goodness of fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness of fit index; NFI = normed fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardised root mean squared residual; AIC = Akaike information criterion.

^a For details of the thresholds of fit, see Table 8.14 in Chapter 8.

^b The percentage of variance explained by the unidimensional model reflects Harman's one-factor test for the original measure.

Both the two-factor and three-factor models that were based on the original Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale demonstrated better model fit than the one-factor model. The best model fit was obtained, however, by the modified three-factor model. In this model, three latent factors were retained. This included CWB aimed at the organisation (CWB-O, 5 items), CWB aimed at individuals in the organisation (CWB-I, 2 items) and CWB in the form of industrial/collective action (CWB-IC, 2 items), as reflected in Figure 9.2. A number of observed variables were removed to ensure the best model fit. An examination of the standardised residuals (no values > 2.50) and modification indices did not suggest any further changes to the model.

This three-factor model fit the data adequately with high GFI (.98), AGFsl (.96), NFI (.96), TLI (.96), CFI (.98) and SRMR (.03) indices. In addition, the RMSEA value of .04 (.03-.06) suggested an adequate fit at a 90 per cent confidence interval. The χ^2 -value was 53.65 and χ^2/df was 2.44 with a p -value < .000. The lowest AIC score (99.65) was also reported for Model 6. It could thus be concluded that the three-factor model fit the sample data adequately, confirming the construct validity of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale.



Notes: CWB_I = counterproductive work behaviour – individual; CWB_IC = counterproductive work behaviour – industrial/collective action; CWB_O = counterproductive work behaviour – organisation

Figure 9.2. Counterproductive Work Behaviour CFA Measurement Model

It was theorised in Chapter 3 that CWB-IC could be regarded as a form of organisationally directed CWB (CWB-O), and a high correlation between these constructs was thus anticipated. This expectation was, however, not confirmed in the CFA results, which suggested that two separate factors should be retained.

The high correlation between CWB-I and CWB-O parallels previous empirical findings (e.g. Banks et al., 2012; Bowling & Burns, 2015; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009; Yang et al., 2013). Although it is clear that the two dimensions cannot be regarded as distinct, Ones and Dilchert (2013) reasoned that distinguishing between the target of CWB is useful in terms of theory building and application because the CWB-I and CWB-O dimensions have been linked to different dispositional and situational antecedents (see Berry et al., 2007).

9.1.2.3 *Validity and reliability of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale*

In an attempt to establish the convergent validity of the three CWB subscales as reflected in Figure 9.2, the standardised factor loadings were considered. All factor loadings were significant ($> .50$) as reported in Table 9.6. As previously noted, although loadings in excess of $.70$ are preferred, a less conservative threshold of $.50$ is also deemed acceptable (Hair et al., 2014). The next step was to calculate the average variances extracted (AVE) for each construct. In this instance, the AVEs for all three CWB constructs were below the $.50$ threshold. This was a result of the low factor loadings and item-to-total correlations, because most of the items (7 out of 9) showed ITCs of less than $.50$. Although the inter-item correlations (all $> .3$) provided some indication of internal consistency, the low Cronbach's alpha and Raykov's rho coefficients (composite reliability) of the CWB-I and CWB-IC subscales raised concerns about convergent validity. However, the low values could be ascribed to the limited number of items (2) in each of these subscales (Pallant, 2016). It has been statistically shown that scales with two or three items may exhibit smaller alpha values than those with more than three items, but despite this, remain valid measures of the construct (Peterson, 1994). The Cronbach's alpha ($.74$) and composite reliability ($.73$) coefficients for the CWB-O subscale exceeded the $.70$ threshold regarded as indicative of adequate convergence. While the convergent validity of the CWB-I and CWB-IC subscales could thus not be confirmed, sufficient support was obtained to establish the convergent validity of the CWB-O subscale.

To determine discriminant validity, the maximum shared variance (MSV) and average shared variance (AVE) were calculated. The MSV was $.72$, which exceeded the AVE of each of the

subscales. The ASV of .40 also exceeded the AVE values for the CWB-O and CWB-IC subscales, raising concerns about the discriminant validity of the scales. In addition, the square root of AVE for all three constructs (.59 for CWB-O, .65 for CWB-I and .58 for CWB-IC) was smaller than the inter-construct correlation between CWB-I and CWB-O of .85. The discriminant validity of the subscales could therefore not be supported.

Following an analysis of the data in Table 9.6, it was thus established that, although a three-factor solution could be extracted, the validity and reliability of the scales as obtained from the best model fit could not be confirmed in this sample. The intention of differentiating between individually and organisationally directed CWB was to determine whether these behaviours have different antecedents and to explore their inter-relationships with OCB directed towards these targets. Furthermore, items relating to industrial or collective action were developed in order to enrich the CWB focus in an employment relations context. It was anticipated that trade union members might be inclined to resort to such behaviour in response to negative perceptions and experiences in their working environments (Monnot et al., 2011). However, as neither the convergent nor the discriminant validity of these scales could be empirically confirmed, it was decided to focus on the CWB-O dimension only. It was anticipated that determining the extent to which employees engage in CWB directed towards their employing organisations would provide valuable insights into the employer-employee relationship. Consequently, a final model, incorporating OCB-O items only, was tested by means of CFA.

The final measurement model for the CWB construct, as reflected in Figure 9.3, thus consisted of one latent variable (CWB-O). Four of the observed variables were retained to ensure the best model fit. Items were excluded on the basis of low factor loadings and an examination of the standardised residuals (no values > 2.50). This model fitted the data adequately with high GFI (1.00), AFGI (.99), NFI (.99), TLI (.99), CFI (1.00) and SRMR (.01) indices. In addition, the RMSEA value of .03 (.00-.08) suggested an adequate fit at a 90 per cent confidence interval. The χ^2 -value was 3.19 and χ^2/df was 1.59 with a statistically significant p-value ($p = .203$) and an AIC value of 19.19, which was lower than the AIC value of 99.65 reported for the three-factor model (see Model 6 in Table 9.5). It was thus concluded that this unidimensional model fit the sample data adequately, thus confirming the construct validity of the CWB-O subscale of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale.

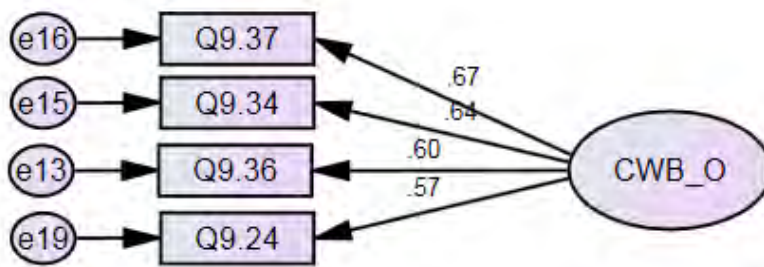
Table 9.6

Summary of Descriptive Statistics and Psychometric Properties for the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale

Construct	Items	Item descriptives				Construct descriptives				ITC	IIC	α	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	Factor loadings
		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis								
Counter-productive work behaviour – individual (CWB-I)	Q9.27	1.26	.78	4.16	19.91	1.24	.61	5.06	34.79	.42	.42	.59	.60	.43	.72	.40	.60
	Q9.30	1.22	.66	5.05	33.47					.42							.70
	Q9.1	1.64	.85	1.70	4.09					} <i>Items discarded in final measurement model</i>							
	Q9.7	1.31	.93	4.16	19.10												
	Q9.22	1.51	1.17	2.87	8.29												
	Q9.23	1.72	1.21	2.12	4.53												
	Q9.28	1.11	.58	7.24	59.76												
Counter-productive work behaviour – organisation (CWB-O)	Q9.19	1.54	1.12	2.80	8.25	1.54	.69	2.68	11.25	.49	.38	.74	.73	.35	.72	.40	.54
	Q9.24	1.47	.94	3.03	11.07					.48							.63
	Q9.34	1.75	1.03	1.92	4.34					.57							.56
	Q9.36	1.68	1.05	2.22	5.89					.48							.54
	Q9.37	1.27	.74	4.27	22.78					.54							.68
	Q9.6	1.54	1.13	2.77	8.15					} <i>Items discarded in final measurement model</i>							
	Q9.11	1.29	.88	4.21	19.82												
	Q9.12	1.17	.71	5.34	31.59												
	Q9.15	1.17	.78	5.43	31.31												
	Q9.21	1.27	.92	4.48	21.67												
Q9.29	1.57	1.41	2.82	6.99													
Q9.39	1.06	.48	8.44	74.78													

Construct	Items	Item descriptives				Construct descriptives				ITC	IIC	α	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	Factor loadings
		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis								
Counter-productive work behaviour – industrial/collective action (CWB-IC)	Q9.5	1.68	1.39	2.24	4.29	1.63	1.11	2.20	5.11	.34	.34	.50	.51	.34	.72	.40	.58
	Q9.26	1.57	1.32	2.57	6.16					.34							
	Q9.8	1.09	.62	7.71	62.24												
	Q9.13	1.07	.51	8.88	83.65												
	Q9.38	1.10	.59	6.89	50.23												
<i>Items discarded in final measurement model</i>																	

Notes: n = 740. SD = standard deviation; ITC = item-to-total correlation; IIC = inter-item correlation; α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared variance ASV = average shared variance. Scores: 1 = never, 2 = rarely; 3 = occasionally; 4 = sometimes; 5 = frequently; 6 = usually; 7 = all the time. CFA measurement model fit: chi-square (df) = 53.65 (22), $p = .000$; CMIN/df = 2.44; GFI = .98; AGFI = .97; NFI = .96; TLI = .96; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .04; SRMR = .03; AIC = 99.65.



Note: CWB_O = counterproductive work behaviour – organisational

Figure 9.3. Revised Counterproductive Work Behaviour CFA Measurement Model

The convergent validity of the OCB-O subscale was confirmed by first considering the standardised factor loadings. All factor loadings were significant ($> .50$), as reflected in Table 9.7. Then the AVE value, item-to-total correlations and inter-item correlations were considered. Despite the relatively low AVE value (.39), an assessment of the item wording suggested that the items did reflect the OCB-O construct as conceptualised in Chapter 3. Further evidence of construct validity was provided by the adequate item-to-total correlations and an inter-item correlation of .39. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .71 and the composite reliability coefficient (.72) both exceeded the .70 threshold deemed to be indicative of adequate convergence. The convergent validity of the CWB-O scale was thus confirmed.

9.1.2.4 Description of construct data: Counterproductive Work Behaviour – Organisation Subscale of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale

The CWB-O subscale measured the extent to which employees reported having intentionally engaged in behaviour that was detrimental to their employing organisations. Hence, the measurement instrument essentially reflected the frequency of self-reported socially undesirable behaviour in an organisational setting. In this instance, a mean of 1.54 showed that respondents rarely engaged in such behaviour in their workplaces. The frequency scale used describes “rarely” as engaging in such behaviour less than 10 per cent of the times that employees have the opportunity of doing so.

Table 9.7

Summary of Descriptive Statistics and Psychometric Properties for the Counterproductive Work Behaviour – Organisation (CWB-O) Subscale

Construct	Items	Item descriptives				Construct descriptives				ITC	IIC	α	CR	AVE	Factor loadings
		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis						
Counter-productive work behaviour – organisation (CWB-O)	Q9.24	1.47	.94	3.03	11.07	1.54	.69	2.68	11.21	.46	.39	.71	.72	.39	.57
	Q9.34	1.75	1.03	1.92	4.34					.52					.64
	Q9.36	1.68	1.05	2.22	5.89					.49					.60
	Q9.37	1.27	.74	4.27	22.78					.54					.67
	Q9.6	1.54	1.13	2.77	8.15					} <i>Items discarded in final measurement model</i>					
	Q9.11	1.29	.88	4.21	19.82										
	Q9.12	1.17	.71	5.34	31.59										
	Q9.15	1.17	.78	5.43	31.31										
	Q9.19	1.54	1.12	2.80	8.25										
	Q9.21	1.27	.92	4.48	21.67										
Q9.29	1.57	1.41	2.82	6.99											
Q9.39	1.06	.48	8.44	74.78											

Notes: n = 740. SD = standard deviation; ITC = item-to-total correlation; IIC = inter-item correlation; α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted. Scores: 1 = never, 2 = rarely; 3 = occasionally; 4 = sometimes; 5 = frequently; 6 = usually; 7 = all the time

CFA measurement model fit: chi-square (df) = 3.19 (2), $p = .20$; CMIN/df = 1.59; GFI = 1.00; AGFI = .99; NFI = .99; TLI = .99; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .03; SRMR = .01; AIC = 19.19.

Although self-reporting has been shown to be effective when measuring CWB, in this sample, respondents' tendency to underreport socially undesirable behaviour was reflected in the lack of variation in the data and the high skewness (2.68) and kurtosis (11.21) values.

The positive skewness value suggests that the scores are clustered to the left, indicating a low frequency of CWB, which is also reflected in the low mean scores. The positive kurtosis value furthermore indicates that the distribution is relatively peaked (i.e. too few cases in the extremes) as implied by the relatively high standard deviations. Given the nature of the scale, this distribution is to be expected, which reflects employees' self-ratings of their negative behaviour in the workplace. Individuals will in all likelihood be less willing to disclose such behaviour, resulting in an underestimation of CWB. Although there was some evidence of skewness and kurtosis in the data, it was unlikely to make a substantive difference in the analysis, given the large sample size ($n = 740$) (Pallant, 2016).

9.1.3 Organisational Commitment Survey (OCS)

Employees' perceived commitment to their employing organisation was measured with the Organisational Commitment Survey (Meyer & Allen, 1997), which operationalised the three dimensions of organisational commitment, namely affective commitment (6 items), continuance commitment (6 items) and normative commitment (6 items).

9.1.3.1 Exploratory factor analysis for the Organisational Commitment Survey

In order to assess the underlying factor structure of OCS for the current sample, an EFA using principal axis factoring was conducted. Owing to the reported correlation between the factors (Meyer & Allen, 1997), an oblique rotation (Promax) was used. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (.91) was well beyond the recommended threshold of .60 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant ($p = .000$). A factor analysis was thus deemed appropriate.

Three underlying factors, accounting for 43.40 per cent of variance, were extracted on the basis of the Kaiser-Guttman criterion of eigenvalues greater than one (see Table 9.8). These factors corresponded with Meyer and Allen's (1997) three-dimensional conceptualisation of organisational commitment (Factor 1 = NC, Factor 2 = AC, Factor 3 = CC). However, four items (Q7.10, Q17.12, Q7.15 and Q7.19) loaded on factors different from Meyer and Allen's

(1997) conceptualisation. While items Q7.10, Q7.12 and Q7.19 were conceptualised as contributing to the affective commitment dimension, they loaded on Factor 1, which was associated with the normative commitment dimension. Similarly, item Q7.15 loaded on the affective commitment dimension, instead of the theorised continuance commitment dimension. These items did not link clearly to the anticipated subscales and were subsequently identified for possible omission.

Furthermore, a number of cross-loadings were detected on Factors 1 and 2 (NC and AC), suggesting that these dimensions did not reveal clearly distinguishable constructs that could be theoretically motivated. This necessitated a second EFA, testing the feasibility of a two-factor solution. This two-factor solution accounted for 40.15 per cent of the variance, and the two factors were found to be affective and normative commitment (Factor 1 – explaining 30.00% of variance and consisting of 12 items), and continuance commitment (Factor 2 – explaining 10.15% variance and consisting of six items). Only one item (Q7.16) loaded significantly on both factors. This item was subsequently identified for possible omission.

The factor loadings for both the initial three-factor and forced two-factor solutions are shown in Table 9.8.

Table 9.8

Exploratory Factor Analysis: Organisational Commitment Survey

Item	Factors (based on eigenvalues >1)			Factors (forced 2 factors)	
	1	2	3	1	2
	Q7.14 I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	.88			.67
Q7.13 I would feel guilty if I left my organisation right now.	.87			.69	.27
Q7.1 Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation right now.	.83			.60	.23
Q7.19 My organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.61	.27		.79	
Q7.9 I owe a great deal to my organisation.	.61			.72	
Q7.12 I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in my current organisation.	.47	.27		.69	

Item		Factors (based on eigenvalues >1)			Factors (forced 2 factors)	
		1	2	3	1	2
		Q7.18	My organisation deserves my loyalty.	.46	.31	
Q7.10	I really feel as if my organisation's problems are my own.	.43	.		.46	
Q7.6	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)	.43	.31		.64	
Q7.5	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation. (R)		.77		.69	-.36
Q7.7	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organisation. (R)		.74		.63	-.38
Q7.4	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to my organisation. (R)	.20	.46		.56	-.27
Q7.15	If I had not already put so much of myself into my organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.	.25	-.42			.39
Q7.16	It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.			.57	.35	.50
Q7.20	One of the few negative consequences of leaving my organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.			.52		.49
Q7.3	I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving my organisation.			.52		.48
Q7.22	Right now, staying at my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.			.51		.43
Q7.23	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I were to decide to leave my organisation right now.			.49	.28	.47

Notes: n = 740. Only factor loadings $\geq .20$ are shown. Primary factor loadings are indicated in bold. An (R) indicates that the item was negatively stated and therefore reverse coded. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation.

The factor structure extracted by means of the second (forced two-factor) EFA (see Table 9.8) showed some similarity to Stander and Rothmann's (2008) findings. Stander and Rothmann (2008), in their study incorporating a broad range of South African employees, reported that an analysis of eigenvalues (> 1) and scree plot indicated that three factors could be extracted, explaining 53 per cent of the total variance. After the factors with cross-loadings had been eliminated, two factors were identified, namely attitudinal commitment (consisting of both

affective and normative commitment) and continuance commitment. Maharaj and Schlechter (2007) reported similar findings in their study of South African chartered accountants. Meyer et al. (1993) supported this conceptualisation of organisational commitment by referring to continuance commitment as an employee's behavioural orientation, and the combination of normative and affective commitment as an employee's attitudinal disposition. Applying Stander and Rothmann's (2008) guiding principles, the first factor in the EFA was consequently labelled attitudinal commitment and the second factor continuance commitment.

The appropriateness of the two-factor model may also be explained in terms of the high correlations between affective and normative commitment ($\geq .60$) that have been reported in various studies (Aubé et al., 2007; Johnson et al., 2009; Meyer, Srinivas, Lal, & Topolnytsky, 2007; Tsoumbris & Xenikou, 2010), raising concerns of multicollinearity. Meyer et al. (2007) found that, although AC and CC were clearly distinguishable from one another, AC and NC were not. They explained this positive correlation between AC and NC in terms of cultural differences, relying on Meyer et al.'s (2002) meta-analytic finding that the strong societal norms in collectivist cultures give rise to particularly strong AC-NC associations (the interrelationship between organisational commitment and individualism/collectivism for this sample is explored in section 9.2). Jaros (2007) reiterated this view, positing that despite these high intercorrelations, there is evidence of construct distinctiveness. Meyer et al. (2007) suggested that, for the purposes of hypothesis testing, NC should be treated as a separate scale, but that findings concerning this scale should be interpreted with caution. In contrast, Jaros (2007) suggested that, in some cultures, a two-factor model of commitment (attitudinal and continuance commitment) may be a better descriptor of employees' commitment to their employing organisations. Based on the results of the EFA, the latter proposition (Jaros, 2007) was deemed appropriate for this study. Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted in order to find empirical support for this assertion.

9.1.3.2 Harman's post hoc one-factor analysis and CFA for the Organisational Commitment Survey

Organisational commitment has been conceptualised as a three-dimensional construct comprising affective, normative and continuance commitment (see Chapter 3). As indicated above, the high intercorrelation between affective and normative commitment, however, has been widely reported (Bergman, 2006; Jaros, 2017). This intercorrelation as well as the results obtained in the EFA, necessitated a comparison of two separate models: Firstly, a three-factor model reflecting all dimensions of organisational commitment (AC, NC and CC) and, secondly,

a two-factor model in which affective and normative commitment load on the same factor, termed attitudinal commitment (Stander & Rothmann, 2008). It was important to determine whether individuals in this particular sample were able to differentiate between affective and normative commitment to their employing organisations.

The following five models were thus compared in order to obtain the best model fit for organisational commitment for the purposes of this study: Model 1 represented a single-factor solution incorporating all 18 original scale items. Model 2 reflected Meyer and Allen's (1997) conceptualisation of organisational commitment as a three-dimensional construct and thus entailed a forced three-factor solution. Model 3 represented a modified three-factor solution following the deletion of items based on low factor loadings, high standardised residuals (> 2.50) and modification indices. Model 4 tested the two-factor solution that was obtained in the EFA, incorporating affective and normative commitment as a single dimension (i.e. attitudinal commitment). This was followed by a modified version of the two-factor solution (Model 5) relying on standardised residuals and modification index information to guide model modification. The results are reported in Table 9.9.

Table 9.9

Organisational Commitment Survey: Measures of Global Model Fit for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	CMIN (df)	P- value	CMIN/ df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
Thresholds ^a		≥ .05	< 3	≥ .95	≥ .90	≥ .95	≥ .95	≥ .95	≤ .05	< .05	
One-factor solution ^b explaining 29.70% of variance											
Model 1: One-factor solution (18 items)	1427.40 (135)	.000	10.57	.75	.69	.71	.69	.73	.11	.10	1499.40
Three-factor solutions											
Model 2: Three-factor solution (18 items)	983.29 (132)	.000	7.45	.84	.80	.80	.79	.82	.09	.09	1061.29
Model 3: Modified model (8 items)	119.53 (23)	.000	5.20	.96	.93	.95	.94	.96	.08	.04	163.53

	CMIN (df)	P- value	CMIN/ df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
Two-factor solutions											
Model 4: Original model (18 items)	1102.47 (134)	.000	8.23	.82	.77	.78	.77	.80	.10	.10	1176.47
Model 5: Modified model (9 items)	64.51 (17)	.000	3.80	.98	.96	.97	.97	.98	.06	.03	102.51

Notes: n = 740. CMIN = chi-square goodness of fit; df = degrees of freedom; CMIN/df = relative chi-square; GFI = goodness of fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness of fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; NFI = normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardised root mean squared residual; AIC = Akaike information criterion.

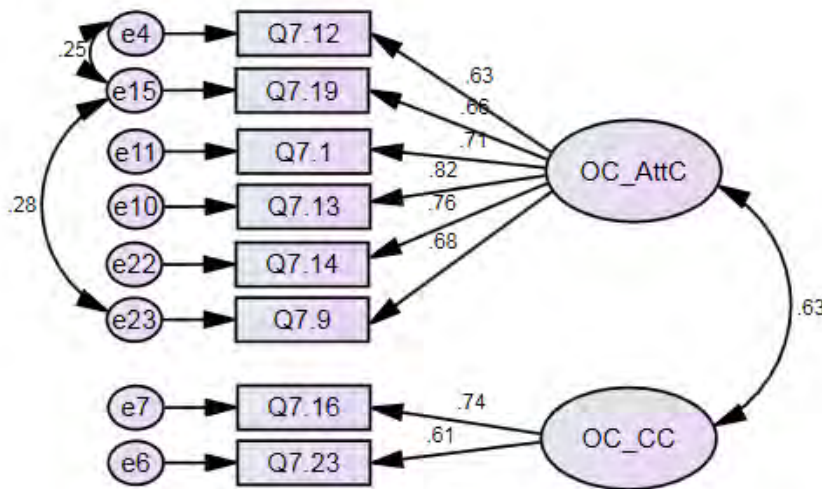
^a For details of the thresholds of fit, see Table 8.14 in Chapter 8.

^b The percentage of variance explained by the unidimensional model reflects Harman's one-factor test for the original measure.

The EFA derived one-factor solution for the OCS showed that the construct accounted for only 29.70 per cent of the variance among the scale variables, which suggested that common method variance would not pose a threat to the research findings. When loading all the organisational commitment variables onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well (χ^2/df ratio = 10.57; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .11; SRMR = .10; CFI = .73). The one-factor results for the OCS thus suggested a possible multifactor model in line with what is postulated in theory. The notion that organisational commitment may be a single construct was not supported.

The results of the CFA, as reported in Table 9.9, show that the modified two-dimensional model would be more appropriate than the one- or three-dimensional models, the former being the most inappropriate in describing the data. The measurement model fit using CFA is shown in Figure 9.4. The model fits the data adequately with GFI (.98), AGFI (.96), NFI (.97), TLI (.97) and CFI (.98) indices above the recommended thresholds. In addition, the SRMR index of .03 and RMSEA (90% CI) index of .06 (.05-.08) lent support to a good model fit. The χ^2 was 64.51 and χ^2/df 3.80 with p -value $< .001$. In terms of Hair et al.'s (2014) guidelines, evidence of a good model fit was provided by a RMSEA value of .06 ($< .07$) and CFI of .98 ($> .92$), given the sample size of 740 and number of indicator variables (9). In addition, the modified two-factor model (Model 5) reported the lowest AIC (102.51). It could thus be concluded that the

modified two-factor model (reflected in Figure 9.4) provided a better model fit for the sample data than the theorised three-factor model.



Notes: OC_AttC = attitudinal commitment; OC_CC = continuance commitment

Figure 9.4. Organisational Commitment CFA Measurement Model

The empirical analysis supported Meyer and Allen's (1997) view that organisational commitment should be regarded as a multidimensional construct. However, the data suggested a better model fit for a two-factor model with attitudinal (affective and normative commitment) and continuance commitment as the two dimensions of organisational commitment. The results of the CFA thus showed that, although the three-factor measurement model fitted the data adequately, the high correlation between the AC and NC dimensions of commitment detracted from their discriminant validity. An alternate two-factor model in which the AC and NC dimensions were combined to represent an attitudinal commitment dimension provided a better fit to and more parsimonious representation of the data. The two-dimensional conceptualisation of organisational commitment was therefore adopted in this study for further statistical analysis.

To ensure that common method variance did not pose a threat to the research findings, Harman's one-factor test and a single-factor CFA were repeated for the final measurement model (following model modifications). These results are reported in section 9.1.11.

9.1.3.3 *Validity and reliability of the Organisational Commitment Survey*

Convergent validity was established by first considering the standardised factor loadings. All factor loadings were significant ($> .60$) as reflected in Table 9.10. Although loadings in excess of $.70$ are preferred, a less conservative threshold of $.50$ is also deemed acceptable (Hair et al., 2014). The next step was to calculate the average variances extracted (AVE) for each construct. In this instance, the AVE value for the attitudinal commitment dimension exceeded the $.50$ threshold indicative of internal consistency, while the AVE value for continuance commitment was just below this threshold ($.46$). The relatively low AVE value for CC could be ascribed to the fact that only two items were retained. However, an assessment of the item wording suggested that the items were reflective of the theorised construct. The inter-item correlation of $.45$ lent support to internal consistency (Pallant, 2016).

Internal consistency for the two organisational commitment constructs was furthermore supported by Cronbach's alpha coefficients of $.87$ (attitudinal commitment) and $.62$ (continuance commitment) and Raykov rho coefficients (composite reliability) of $.86$ and $.63$ respectively. Although the ideal threshold of $.70$ was not achieved for the continuance commitment subscale, the values exceeded $.60$, and thus reflected adequate convergence, given the limited number of items (2) making up the subscale (Pallant, 2016). The convergent validity of both the attitudinal commitment and continuance commitment subscales was thus confirmed.

To determine discriminant validity, the maximum shared variance (MSV) was calculated. The MSV was $.39$, which was lower than the AVE of each of the subscales, thereby lending support to the discriminant validity of the scales. In addition, the square root of AVE for both constructs ($.71$ for attitudinal commitment and $.68$ for continuance commitment) was greater than the inter-construct correlation ($.62$) lending support to discriminant validity.

Table 9.10

Summary of Descriptive Statistics and Psychometric Properties for the Organisational Commitment Survey

Construct	Items	Item descriptives				Construct descriptives				ITC	IIC	α	CR	AVE	MSV	Factor loadings
		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis							
Attitudinal commitment (OC-AttC)	Q7.1	3.43	1.96	.38	-1.21	3.66	1.52	.11	-.89	.63	.53	.87	.86	.51	.39	.71
	Q7.9	3.91	1.88	-.05	-1.24					.68						.68
	Q7.12	3.43	2.07	.30	-1.32					.62						.63
	Q7.13	3.35	2.02	.43	-1.21					.72						.82
	Q7.14	3.67	1.93	.14	-1.30					.67						.77
	Q7.19	4.16	1.86	-.27	-1.14					.69						.66
	Q7.4	4.08	1.95	-.08	-1.34					} Items discarded in final measurement model						
	Q7.5	4.29	1.94	-.23	-1.29											
	Q7.6	3.90	1.92	.07	-1.28											
	Q7.7	4.39	1.96	-.34	-1.22											
	Q7.10	3.95	1.89	-.06	-1.23											
Q7.18	4.67	1.91	-.63	-.85												
Continuance commitment (OC-CC)	Q7.16	3.92	1.97	-.00	-1.40	3.99	1.69	-.06	-.99	.45	.45	.62	.63	.46	.39	.74
	Q7.23	4.05	1.99	-.08	-1.38					.45						.61
	Q7.3	4.00	1.85	-.05	-1.28					} Items discarded in final measurement model						
	Q7.15	3.62	1.84	.24	-1.13											
	Q7.20	4.68	1.89	-.53	-.95											
Q7.22	4.62	1.80	-.57	-.88												

Notes: n = 740. SD = standard deviation; ITC = item-to-total correlation; IIC = inter-item correlation; α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared variance. Items Q7.2, Q7.8, Q7.11, Q7.17, Q21 were omitted on the basis of Meyer and Allen's (1997) revised scales. Scores: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree; 3 = somewhat disagree; 4 = neither agree or disagree; 5 = somewhat agree; 6 = agree; 7 = strongly agree. CFA measurement model fit: chi-square (df) = 64.51 (17), $p = .000$; CMIN/df = 3.80; GFI = .98; AGFI = .96; NFI = .97; TLI = .97; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .03; AIC = 102.51.

9.1.3.4 *Description of construct data: OCS*

The mean value of 3.66 for attitudinal commitment reflects a relatively negative attitudinal disposition towards respondents' employing organisations. The results therefore suggest that respondents did not experience a strong emotional attachment towards or moral obligation to stay with their employing organisations. The mean value (3.99) for the continuance commitment subscale was slightly higher, but did not display positive commitment. It was merely indicative of indecisiveness among respondents on whether to remain with their employing organisations.

The skewness values were .11 for the attitudinal commitment subscale and -.06 for the continuance commitment subscale, which were within the recommended normality range (between -1 and +1) (Hair et al., 2016). The negative kurtosis values (-.89 and -.99 for OC-AttC and OC-CC respectively) indicated that the distribution was relatively flat (i.e. too many cases in the extremes), as implied by the relatively high standard deviations. These values could, however, be considered normal as they were between -1 and +1, which is the suggested range for assuming normality (Hair et al., 2016).

9.1.4 Shortened version of the Union Commitment Scale

Union commitment was measured using Bayazit et al.'s (2004a) modified version of Friedman and Harvey's (1986) Union Commitment Scale consisting of 20 items and representing three dimensions, namely union loyalty (12 items), responsibility to the union (4 items) and willingness to work for the union (4 items).

9.1.4.1 *Exploratory factor analysis for the Union Commitment Scale*

In order to gain an understanding of the dimensionality of the union commitment construct for the current sample, an EFA was conducted using principal axis factoring with oblique rotation (Promax). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) (.87) exceeded the recommended threshold of .60 and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant ($p = .000$). A factor analysis was thus deemed appropriate.

Four underlying factors, based on the Kaiser's eigenvalue criterion of eigenvalues greater than one, were extracted. These factors explained 49.06 per cent of the variance (Factor 1 = 31.06%; Factor 2 = 9.34%, Factor 3 = 4.76% and Factor 4 = 3.89%). The factor loadings are

reported in Table 9.11.

Table 9.11

Exploratory Factor Analysis: Union Commitment Scale

Item	Factors				
	1	2	3	4	
Q8.3	Deciding to join the trade union was a smart move.	.88			
Q8.7	I feel a sense of pride being part of the trade union.	.87			
Q8.18	The trade union adequately represents the interests of all members.	.83			
Q8.2	Based on what I know now and what I believe I can expect in future, I plan to be a member of the trade union for the rest of the time I work in this organisation.	.70			
Q8.17	The record of my trade union is a good example of what dedicated people can achieve.	.69			
Q8.19	There is a lot to be gained from joining a trade union.	.65			
Q8.10	I talk about the trade union to my friends as a great organisation to be a member of.	.48		.36	
Q8.5	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected of a member to make the trade union successful.	.38		.28	
Q8.15	It is the duty of every member "to keep his/her ears open" for information that might be helpful to the trade union.	.37			.23
Q8.20	Very little that the membership want has any real importance to the trade union. (R)		.64		
Q8.9	I have little confidence and trust in most members of my trade union. (R)		.63	-.21	
Q8.8	I feel little loyalty to the trade union. (R)		.60		
Q8.16	My values and the values of the trade union are not that similar. (R)		.59		
Q8.6	I doubt that I would do any special work to help the trade union. (R)		.56	.24	
Q8.1	As long as I am doing the kind of work I enjoy, it does not matter if I belong to a trade union. (R)		.48		
Q8.12	If asked, I would serve on a committee for the trade union.			.91	
Q8.11	If asked, I would run for an elected office in the trade union.			.82	
Q8.14	It is every member's responsibility to see to it that management "live up to" all the terms of the contract.				.75

Item	Factors			
	1	2	3	4
Q8.13				.70
Q8.4				.54

Notes: n = 251 (trade union members only). Only factor loadings $\geq .20$ are shown. Primary factor loadings are indicated in bold. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation.

Bayazit et al.'s (2004a) modified Union Commitment Scale (derived from the work of Friedman & Harvey, 1986; Gordon et al., 1980a) consists of 20 items of which six are negatively worded. Although negatively worded items are often included in measuring instruments to avoid response styles such as acquiescence, the potential advantages of such questions are often eradicated by subsequent scale-related problems (i.t.o internal consistency, factor structure and validity) (Bayazit et al., 2004a). It has been suggested that the negatively worded, reverse-coded items in the union commitment scales (Friedman & Harvey, 1986; Gordon et al., 1980a) contribute to poor model fit and should rather be discarded (Kelloway et al., 1992). In this instance, all six negatively worded items (Q8.20, Q8.9, Q8.8, Q8.16, Q8.6 and Q8.1) loaded on a single factor (Factor 2), corresponding with results obtained in previous studies (Kelloway et al., 1992). Kelloway et al. (1992) recommended that these items be discarded, resulting in a 13-item scale measuring three dimensions (union loyalty, responsibility to the union and willingness to work for the union). Further analyses (see sections 9.1.4.2 and 9.1.4.3 below) were conducted to ensure that the content validity of the subscales was not jeopardised by eliminating these items (Bayazit et al., 2004a).

The three remaining underlying factors extracted in the EFA reflected union loyalty (Factor 1), willingness to work for the union (Factor 3) and responsibility to the union (Factor 4), as conceptualised by Gordon et al. (1980a). The EFA presented a relatively low factor loading (.48) for item Q8.10 on Factor 1 (union loyalty) as well as a significant cross-loading for this item on Factor 3 (willingness to work for the union). This corresponded with the findings of previous studies (Gordon et al., 1980a; Ladd et al., 1982) and Bayazit et al.'s (2004a) recommendation to discard this item was thus accepted. Furthermore, the EFA showed that items Q8.5 and Q8.15 loaded on the union loyalty factor rather than their theorised factors (i.e. willingness to work for the union and responsibility to the union respectively). In addition, both these items reflected low factor loadings on the loyalty factor as well as cross-loadings on their theorised factors. As a result, a decision was taken to remove these items from further

analysis.

The EFA therefore suggested that a modified three oblique-factor model of union commitment would be the best fit for the data. A CFA was subsequently conducted to test the proposed three-factor structure for this construct.

9.1.4.2 Harman's post hoc one-factor analysis and CFA for the Union Commitment Scale

Union commitment was originally conceptualised and empirically validated as an orthogonal four-factor model (Gordon et al., 1980a; Ladd et al., 1982). Later research by Tetrick et al. (1989) and Thacker et al. (1989), however, showed these factors to be highly correlated, suggesting an oblique four-factor model. In addition, researchers such as Friedman and Harvey (1986), supported by Eaton et al. (1992), Kuruvilla and Sverke (1993) and Klandermans (1989), suggested a more parsimonious two-factor solution. These two factors reflected union-related attitudes and opinions (i.e. union loyalty and belief in unionism) and union-related behavioural intentions (i.e. members' responsibility towards and willingness to work for the union (Friedman & Harvey, 1986). It was also argued that the belief in unionism dimension should not be regarded as part of the union commitment construct (Fullagar, 1986; Klandermans, 1989; Morrow, 1983; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995) and that an oblique three-factor solution would be more appropriate (Kelloway et al., 1992). A comprehensive discussion on the dimensionality of union commitment was provided in Chapter 3 (see section 3.4.2).

In this study, the results of the EFA suggested an oblique three-factor solution. Harman's one-factor test and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted to determine whether a single-factor solution was feasible and to assess the model fit data of the Union Commitment Scale. The EFA derived one-factor solution for the Union Commitment Scale showed that the construct accounted for only 30.39 per cent of the variance among the scale variables, suggesting that common method variance would not pose a threat to the research findings. When loading all the variables of the Union Commitment Scale onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well. All the indices (CMIN/df = 4.61; $p = .000$; GFI = .72; AGFI = .66; NFI = .64; TLI = .66; CFI = .69; RMSEA = .12; SRMR = .10) failed to meet the recommended thresholds for good model fit, and the AIC value was the highest relative to all four models tested. The one-factor results for the Union Commitment Scale thus suggested that a unidimensional model was not appropriate for the union commitment construct.

The following multidimensional measurement models were therefore compared: The first model represented a unidimensional measure of union commitment incorporating all 20 items. Model 2 tested an oblique two-factor solution based on Friedman and Harvey's (1986) conceptualisation of union commitment. In terms of this model, union commitment consists of two dimensions – union loyalty and responsibility to work and take responsibility for the union as a single dimension rather than two separate dimensions as conceptualised by Gordon et al. (1980a). Model 3 specified three oblique factors including all 20 items, while the fourth model represented a modified oblique three-factor solution omitting all negatively worded (Q8.1, Q8.6, Q8.8, Q8.9, Q8.16 and Q8.20) and problematic (Q8.5, Q8.10 and Q8.15) items, as suggested in the EFA. Standardised residuals (> 2.50), modification index information and the results of EFA were used in model modification. The results are reported in Table 9.12.

Table 9.12

Union Commitment Scale: Measures of Global Model Fit for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	CMIN (df)	P- value	CMIN/ df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
Thresholds ^a		≥ .05	< 3	≥ .95	≥ .90	≥ .95	≥ .95	≥ .95	≤ .05	< .05	
One-factor solution ^b explaining 30.39% of variance											
Model 1:											
One-factor solution (20 items)	783.480 (170)	.000	4.61	.72	.66	.64	.66	.69	.12	.10	863.48
Two-factor solutions											
Model 2:											
Original model (20 items)	673.81 (169)	.000	3.99	.77	.71	.69	.72	.75	.11	.10	755.81
Three-factor solutions											
Model 3:											
Original model (20 items)	623.24 (167)	.000	3.73	.78	.73	.72	.74	.77	.11	.10	709.24
Model 4:											
Modified model (11 items)	81.64 (41)	.000	1.99	.94	.91	.93	.95	.96	.06	.04	131.64

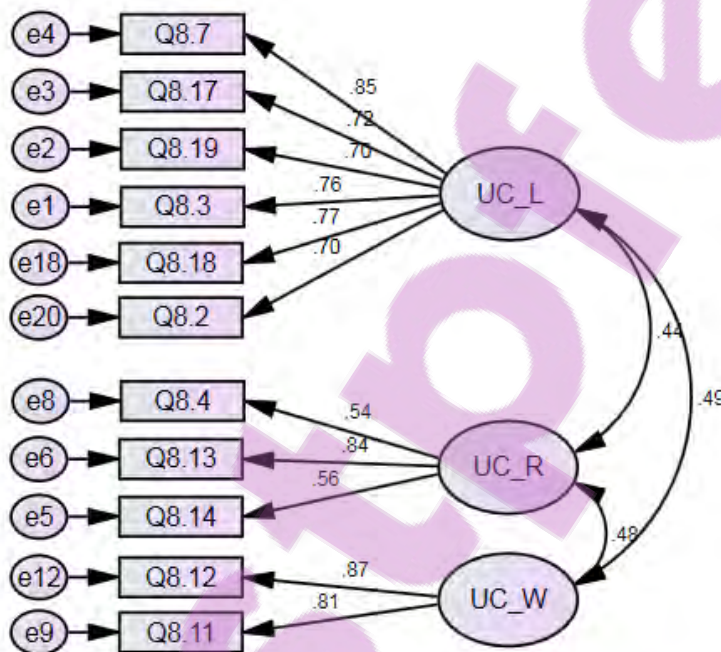
Notes: n = 251 (trade union members only). CMIN = chi-square goodness of fit; df = degrees of freedom; CMIN/df = relative chi-square; GFI = goodness of fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness of fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; NFI = normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square

error of approximation; SRMR = standardised root mean squared residual; AIC = Akaike information criterion.

^a For details of the thresholds of fit, see Table 8.14 in Chapter 8.

^b The percentage of variance explained by the unidimensional model reflects Harman's one-factor test for the original measure.

Although the two-factor model provided a better fit than the one-factor solution, neither of these models adequately accounted for the covariance among the item responses. The three-factor model showed a slight improvement but the model fit remained poor. The fit indices suggested a superior model fit for the modified three-factor solution, which corresponded with the results obtained by researchers such as Kelloway et al. (1992) and Kelloway and Barling (1993) who suggested the use of a shorter, three-factor union commitment scale. The three-factor union commitment measurement model (CMIN/df = 1.99; $p = .000$; GFI = .94; AGFI = .91; NFI = .93; TLI = .95; CFI = .96; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .04), as reflected in Figure 9.5, also reported the lowest AIC value and was therefore retained for subsequent analysis.



Notes: UC_L = union loyalty; UC_R = responsibility to the union; UC_W = willingness to work for the union

Figure 9.5. Union Commitment CFA Measurement Model

Subsequent to establishing the best model fit, Harman's one-factor test and a single-factor CFA were performed for the final measurement model to ensure that common method

variance did not pose a threat to the research findings. These results are reported in section 9.1.11.

9.1.4.3 Validity and reliability of the Union Commitment Scale

Convergent validity was established by first considering the standardised factor loadings. All factor loadings were significant ($> .50$), as reflected in Table 9.13. Although loadings in excess of $.70$ are preferred, a less conservative threshold of $.50$ is also deemed acceptable (Hair et al., 2014). The next step was to calculate the average variances extracted (AVE) for each construct. In this instance, the AVE values for two of the constructs – union loyalty and willingness to work for the union – exceeded the $.50$ threshold, while the AVE for responsibility to the union was slightly less than $.50$ ($.43$). The AVE values for union loyalty and willingness to work for the union thus suggested internal consistency, which was further supported by sufficient inter-item and item-total consistencies as well as Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (ρ) coefficients in excess of $.70$.

The lower AVE for the responsibility to the union scale could be ascribed to the lower factor loadings for two of the items (Q8.4 and Q8.14) as well as relatively low item-to-total correlations – two of the three items were below the $.50$ threshold. However, the item-to-total correlation of $.41$ exceeded $.30$, which suggested adequate internal consistency for analysis purposes. Although Cronbach's alpha ($.67$) was slightly lower than the $.70$ threshold, the composite reliability coefficient ($.69$) exceeded the more lenient cut-off of $.60$ (Hair et al., 2014), which could be regarded as being indicative of adequate convergence. The convergent validity of the three union commitment subscales (union loyalty, responsibility to the union and willingness to work for the union) was thus confirmed.

To determine discriminant validity, the maximum shared variance (MSV) and average shared variance (ASV) for all three dimensions were calculated. In all instances, both the MSV and ASV were lower than the AVE of each of the subscales, thereby lending support to the discriminant validity of the scales. Further evidence of discriminant validity was provided by calculating the square root of AVE ($.75$ for union loyalty, $.66$ for responsibility to the union, and $.84$ for willingness to work for the union), which was greater than the inter-construct correlations in all instances, lending further support to the discriminant validity of the three subscales.

Table 9.13

Summary of Descriptive Statistics and Psychometric Properties for the Union Commitment Scale

Construct	Items	Item descriptives				Construct descriptives				ITC	IIC	α	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	Factor loadings
		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis								
Union loyalty (UC-UL)	Q8.2	5.18	1.59	-1.04	.35					.65							.70
	Q8.3	5.13	1.61	-.99	.25					.71							.76
	Q8.7	4.69	1.68	-.53	-.62					.78	.56	.88	.89	.56	.24	.22	.85
	Q8.17	4.79	1.61	-.62	-.47	4.95	1.29	-.67	-.05	.66							
	Q8.18	4.95	1.67	-.80	-.35					.72							
	Q8.19	4.93	1.58	-.85	-.11					.66							
	Q8.1	4.39	1.98	-.33	-1.32												
	Q8.8	4.35	1.82	-.23	-1.21												
	Q8.9	4.19	1.79	-.13	-1.23												
	Q8.10	4.06	1.96	-.14	-1.34												
	Q8.16	4.12	1.71	-.03	-1.14												
Q8.20	4.28	1.61	-.14	-.96													
										<i>Items discarded in final measurement model</i>							
Responsibility to the union (UC-UR)	Q8.4	4.75	1.73	-.72	-.60					.45							.54
	Q8.13	5.25	1.50	-1.02	.31	5.16	1.19	-.83	.57	.55	.41	.67	.69	.43	.24	.22	.84
	Q8.14	5.49	1.34	-1.19	.95					.46							.56
	Q8.15	4.97	1.61	-.84	-.23						<i>Item discarded in final measurement model</i>						
Willingness to work for the union (UC-UW)	Q8.11	3.65	1.99	.22	-1.39					.70							.81
	Q8.12	3.94	1.97	-.06	-1.43	3.79	1.82	.03	-1.25	.70	.70	.83	.83	.70	.24	.22	.87
	Q8.5	4.39	1.69	-.45	-.85						<i>Items discarded in final measurement model</i>						
	Q8.6	4.17	1.73	-.06	-1.29												

Notes: n = 251 (trade union members only). SD = standard deviation; ITC = item-to-total correlation; IIC = inter-item correlation; α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared variance; ASV = average shared variance. Scores: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree; 3 = somewhat disagree; 4 = neither agree or disagree; 5 = somewhat agree; 6 = agree; 7 = strongly agree. CFA measurement model fit: chi-square (df) = 81.64 (41), $p = .000$; CMIN/df = 1.99; GFI = .94; AGFI = .91; NFI = .93; TLI = .95; CFI = .96; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .04; AIC = 131.64.

9.1.4.4 *Description of construct data: Union Commitment Scale*

In terms of union commitment, the highest mean values were reported for the responsibility to the union subscale (mean = 5.16; SD = 1.19) and union loyalty (mean = 4.95; SD = 1.29). Trade union members thus seemed to have a clear awareness of the benefits of union membership and a sense of pride associated with belonging to a trade union, as well as a high level a willingness to fulfil the obligations associated with union membership in order to protect the union's interests. The results suggested that union members were less willing participate in union-related activities beyond what is required of normal union membership (mean = 3.79; SD = 1.82).

The skewness and kurtosis values were mostly within the recommended normality range (between -1 and +1) (Hair et al., 2016), suggesting a normal sampling distribution. The only instance in which a value outside this range was reported, was the kurtosis values (-1.25) for willingness to work for the union. The negative kurtosis value indicates that the distribution was relatively flat (i.e. many cases in the extremes) as implied by the relatively high standard deviation.

9.1.5 **The Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures**

The Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures (Robinson & Morrison, 2000) were used to assess psychological contract violation. This instrument consisted of two subscales measuring psychological contract breach (5 items) and feelings of violation (4 items).

9.1.5.1 *Exploratory factor analysis for the Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures*

In order to assess the factor structure of the psychological contract breach and violation constructs for the current sample, an EFA was conducted using principal axis factoring. Owing to the reported correlation between the factors (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993a), an oblique rotation (Promax) was used. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (.93) was higher than the recommended threshold of .60 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant ($p = .000$). A factor analysis was thus deemed appropriate.

A single underlying factor, based on the Kaiser-Guttman criterion of eigenvalues greater than one, was extracted. This factor explained 65.74 per cent of the total variance. The factor loadings are reported in Table 9.14.

Table 9.14

Exploratory Factor Analysis: Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach Measures

Item	Factor 1
Q4.5 My employer has broken many of its promises to me even though I have upheld my side of the deal.	.87
Q4.7 I feel betrayed by my organisation.	.86
Q4.9 I feel extremely frustrated about how my organisation has treated me.	.84
Q4.3 So far my employer has done an excellent job of fulfilling its promises to me. (R)	.84
Q4.8 I feel that my organisation has violated the contract between us.	.84
Q4.6 I feel a great deal of anger towards my organisation.	.81
Q4.4 I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions.	.74
Q4.2 I feel that my employer has succeeded in fulfilling the promises made to me when I was hired.	.74
Q4.1 Almost all the promises made by my employer during recruitment have been kept so far. (R)	.73

Notes: n = 740. An (R) indicates that the item was negatively stated and therefore reverse coded.

Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring.

The high factor loadings on a single factor suggested that respondents were unable to differentiate between the two dimensions (i.e. psychological contract breach and feelings of violation). Further analysis relating to the factor structure of the psychological contract violation construct was thus deemed necessary.

9.1.5.2 *Confirmatory factor analysis for the Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures*

While psychological contract violation was conceptualised in Chapter 4 as a two-dimensional construct incorporating both cognitive (psychological contract breach) and affective (psychological contract violation) aspects, this distinction was not evident in the data. The strong correlation between psychological contract breach and violation reported in extant literature (Dulac et al., 2008; Peng, Wong et al., 2016; Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Suazo et al., 2005) and the results of the EFA (a single factor explained 69.45% of the variance)

suggested the consideration of a unidimensional conceptualisation of the construct. For the purposes of this study, CFAs were conducted comparing two models to obtain the best model fit for psychological contract violation: The first model represented a single-factor solution incorporating all nine scale items. The second model reflected Robinson and Morrison's (2000) conceptualisation of psychological contract violation as a two-dimensional construct. The results are reported in Table 9.15.

Table 9.15

Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach Measures: Measures of Global Model Fit for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	CMIN (df)	P- value	CMIN/df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
Thresholds ^a		≥ .05	< 3	≥ .95	≥ .90	≥ .95	≥ .95	≥ .95	≤ .05	< .05	
One-factor solution ^b explaining 69.45% of variance											
Model 1:											
One-factor solution (9 items)	643.44 (27)	.000	23.83	.81	.69	.89	.86	.89	.18	.06	679.44
Two-factor solution											
Model 2:											
Original model (9 items)	416.98 (26)	.000	16.04	.87	.78	.93	.91	.93	.14	.05	454.98
Alternative solution – feelings of violation dimension only											
Model 3:											
Modified model (4 items only)	14.22 (2)	.001	7.11	.99	.95	.99	.98	1.00	.09	.01	30.22

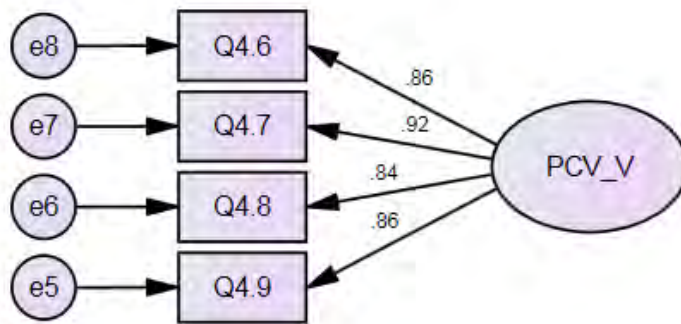
Notes: n = 740. CMIN = chi-square goodness of fit; df = degrees of freedom; CMIN/df = relative chi-square; GFI = goodness of fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness of fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; NFI = normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardised root mean squared residual; AIC = Akaike information criterion.

^a For details of the thresholds of fit, see Table 8.14 in Chapter 8.

^b The percentage of variance explained by the unidimensional model reflects Harman's one-factor test for the original measure.

Although the results of the CFA (see Table 9.15) suggested that a two-dimensional model would be more appropriate than the unidimensional model in describing the data, the fit was not regarded as optimal with a number of the indexes (GFI = .87; AFGI = .78; NFI = .93; TLI

= .91; RMSEA = .14; $\chi^2/df = 16.04$) not meeting the minimum thresholds for acceptable fit. A high correlation (.88) between the two latent constructs (psychological contract breach and violation) furthermore dictated that a two-dimensional model would not be appropriate in this instance. Although the strong correlation between psychological contract breach and violation is not unexpected, as it has been shown in various studies (see Suazo, 2011), it was deemed necessary to consider a third model, retaining only the psychological contract violation (i.e. the feelings of violation, PCV-V) subscale. The measurement model ($\chi^2/df = 7.11$; $\chi^2 = 14.22$; $p = .001$), as reflected in Figure 9.6, showed an acceptable model fit and reported the lowest AIC value. Although the RMSEA (90% CI) index of .09 (.05-.14) fell outside the ideal parameters, it still reflected a mediocre fit. The GFI (.99), AFGI (.95), NFI (.99), TLI (.98), CFI (1.00) and SRMR (.01) indices exceeded the thresholds recommended as indicators of good fit.



Notes: PCV_V = psychological contract violation (i.e. feelings of violation)

Figure 9.6. Psychological Contract Violation CFA Measurement Model

A decision was therefore made to retain the feelings of violation construct only, as reflected in the research by, inter alia, Salin and Notelaers (2017), Biswas (2016) and Erkutlu and Chafra (2013). The theoretical model (Morrison & Robinson, 1997) adopted for the purposes of this study recognises that a psychological contract violation can only occur following a perceived breach of the psychological contract. It was thus posited that high levels of psychological contract violation imply corresponding levels of psychological contract breach as violation is regarded as an emotional reaction to a perceived breach of the psychological contract. However, a low score on the psychological contract violation scale does not imply an absence of a perceived breach, but simply indicates that an employee did not have a negative affective reaction even if a breach occurred. Given the relational focus of this study, it was deemed sufficient to focus on the affective component because it was expected to be a predictor of attitudinal and behavioural reactions to a perceived psychological contract breach. As reported

in Chapter 4, employees' emotional reactions are expected to elicit more severe relational consequences than the mere observation of a psychological contract breach (Restubog et al., 2015). It has, for instance, been reported that, while perceived psychological contract breach may not lead to undesirable outcomes, employees who experience emotions of anger and resentment towards their employing organisations (i.e. psychological contract violation) following a breach are more likely to retaliate by holding negative attitudes and engaging in adverse behaviour (Suazo et al., 2005). Although perceived psychological contract violation has been found to be a mediator in the relationship between psychological contract breach and employee attitudes (Dulac et al., 2008; Raja et al., 2004) and behaviour (Suazo, 2011), it was not possible to test this hypothesis as only the psychological contract violation dimension was retained.

9.1.5.3 Validity and reliability of the Feelings of Violation subscale of the Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures

The convergent validity of the feelings of violation subscale was established by first considering the standardised factor loadings. All factor loadings were significant ($> .70$), as reflected in Table 9.16 (Hair et al., 2014). The next step was to calculate the average variances extracted (AVE), item-to-total correlations and inter-item correlation for the PCV-V construct. An AVE of .76, item-to-total correlations in excess of .70 and an inter-item correlation of .76 suggested adequate convergent validity. Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha (.92) and composite reliability (.93) coefficients suggested internal consistency. The convergent validity of the feelings of violation (PCV-V) subscale of the FVPCB measures was thus confirmed.

9.1.5.4 Description of construct data: Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures

The mean score of 3.15 on the PCV-V subscale suggests that respondents did not experience high levels of felt violation in their workplaces. However, the relatively high standard deviation (1.75) and negative kurtosis (-.81) reflected a flat distribution with a high number of cases in the extremes. Both the skewness and kurtosis values for the PCV-V subscale were within the recommended normality range (i.e. between -1 and +1) (Hair et al., 2016).

Table 9.16

Summary of Descriptive Statistics and Psychometric Properties for the Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach Measures

Construct	Items	Item descriptives				Construct descriptives				ITC	IIC	α	CR	AVE	MSV	Factor loadings
		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis							
Feelings of violation (PCV-V)	Q4.6	3.13	1.92	.56	-.97					.82						.86
	Q4.7	3.07	1.94	.62	-.90					.86						.92
	Q4.8	2.97	1.83	.73	-.62	3.15	1.75	.51	-.81	.80	.76	.92	.93	.76	n/a	.84
	Q4.9	3.41	2.03	.40	-1.20					.82						.86

Notes: n = 740. SD = standard deviation; ITC = item-to-total correlation; IIC = inter-item correlation; α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared variance. Scores: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree; 3 = somewhat disagree; 4 = neither agree or disagree; 5 = somewhat agree; 6 = agree; 7 = strongly agree. CFA measurement model fit: chi-square (df) = 14.22 (2); $p = .001$; CMIN/df = 7.11; GFI = .99; AGFI = .95; NFI = .99; TLI = .98; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .01; AIC = 30.22.

9.1.6 Justice Scale

Niehoff and Moorman's (1993a) Justice Scale was used to measure employees' perceptions of justice in their working environments. The scale consisted of 20 items measuring three dimensions, namely distributive justice (5 items), interactional justice (9 items) and procedural justice (6 items).

9.1.6.1 Exploratory factor analysis for the Justice Scale

In order to assess the factor structure of the Justice Scale for the current sample, an EFA was conducted using principal axis factoring. Owing to the reported correlation between the factors (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993a), an oblique rotation (Promax) was used. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (.98) was well beyond the recommended threshold of .60 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant ($p = .000$). A factor analysis was thus deemed appropriate.

Two underlying factors, based on the Kaiser's eigenvalue criterion of eigenvalues greater than one, were extracted. These factors explained 68.95 per cent of the total variance (Factor 1 = 63.41%; Factor 2 = 5.54%). The factor loadings are reported in Table 9.17.

Table 9.17

Exploratory Factor Analysis: Justice Scale

Item	Factors	
	1	2
Q3.9 My supervisor/manager explains very clearly any decision made about my job.	.92	
Q3.18 When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor/manager treats me with kindness and consideration.	.91	
Q3.19 When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor/manager treats me with respect and dignity.	.90	
Q3.20 When making decisions about my job, my supervisor/manager offers explanations that make sense to me.	.90	
Q3.10 My supervisor/manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	.88	
Q3.15 When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor/manager deals with me in a truthful manner.	.88	

Item		Factors	
		1	2
Q3.2	Concerning decisions made about my job, my supervisor/manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me.	.87	
Q3.17	When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor/manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me.	.86	
Q3.11	My supervisor/manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.	.84	
Q3.8	My supervisor/manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	.83	
Q3.14	To make job decisions, my supervisor/manager collects accurate and complete information.	.82	
Q3.16	When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor/manager is sensitive to my personal needs.	.73	
Q3.7	Job decisions are made by my supervisor/manager in an unbiased manner.	.65	
Q3.1	All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.	.65	
Q3.3	Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by their supervisor/manager.	.60	
Q3.4	I consider my workload to be quite fair.		.91
Q3.12	My work schedule is fair.		.82
Q3.5	I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.		.77
Q3.6	I think that my level of pay is fair.		.52
Q3.13	Overall, the rewards I receive are quite fair.	.33	.49

Notes: n = 740. Only factor loadings $\geq .20$ are shown. Primary factor loadings are indicated in bold. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation.

The two underlying factors that were extracted reflect Niehoff and Moorman's (1993a) procedural justice (incorporating both formal procedures and interactional justice, Factor 1) and distributive justice (Factor 2) dimensions. The strong loading of Niehoff and Moorman's (1993a) formal procedural and interactional justice items on a single factor suggests that respondents did not differentiate between these two forms of justice. The EFA thus highlighted the necessity for considering both the theorised three-factor solution as well as a two-factor solution, incorporating procedural and interactional justice in a single dimension, for further analysis. The EFA furthermore showed a relatively low factor loading (.49) for one item (Q3.13) on the second factor (distributive justice). This low factor loading combined with a cross-loading of .33 for the item on Factor 1, suggested that, if omitted from further analysis, it should improve discriminant validity. Although Niehoff and Moorman's (1993a) conceptualisation of

organisational justice as a multidimensional construct was thus supported, it was deemed essential to confirm the dimensionality and factor structure of the constructs by means of CFA.

9.1.6.2 *Harman's post hoc one-factor analysis and CFA for the Justice Scale*

Harman's one-factor test and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted to assess the model fit data of the Justice Scale and to establish whether the main variance in the data could be ascribed to one general factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Organisational justice has been conceptualised as a multidimensional construct consisting of distributive, procedural and interactional justice perceptions (see Chapter 4). Extant literature has shown that procedural and interactional justice should be regarded as closely aligned but distinct constructs – while formal procedural justice relates to the fairness of the decision-making procedures in organisations, interactive justice refers to quality of personal interactions during the decision-making process (Lee et al., 2000). Although these two dimensions of justice have been conceptualised as theoretically distinct, empirical analyses have shown that they are highly correlated. This observed intercorrelation necessitated a comparison of two separate models: A three-factor model reflecting all three justice dimensions (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) and a two-factor model in which formal procedural justice and interactional justice load on the same factor, termed procedural justice (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993a). It was important to determine whether individuals in this particular sample were able to differentiate between procedural and interactional justice.

The following four models were thus compared in order to obtain the best model fit for POJ for the purposes of this study: The first model represented a single-factor solution incorporating all 20 scale items. The second model reflected Niehoff and Moorman's (1993a) conceptualisation of organisational justice as a three-dimensional construct. This was followed by a third model representing a modified version of the three-factor solution. The model modifications were guided by the EFA results (Q3.13 was omitted), the factor loadings, standardised residual covariances and modification index information. The fourth model tested the two-factor solution obtained in the EFA, integrating formal procedural justice and interactive justice into a single dimension. This is followed in Model 5 by a modified version of the two-factor solution, where the one problematic item (Q3.13) identified in the EFA was omitted. The standardised residual covariances, modification index information and the results of EFA were furthermore used in model modification. To improve the fit, the model was adjusted by allowing one pair of errors to covariate. The results are reported in Table 9.18.

Table 9.18

Justice Scale: Measures of Global Model Fit for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	CMIN (df)	P- value	CMIN/ df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
Thresholds ^a		≥ .05	< 3	≥ .95	≥ .90	≥ .95	≥ .95	≥ .95	≤ .05	< .05	
One-factor solution ^b explaining 63.19% of variance											
Model 1:											
One-factor solution (20 items)	1204.39 (152)	.000	7.92	.84	.80	.92	.92	.93	.10	.05	1280.39
Three-factor solutions											
Model 2:											
Original model as theorised (20 items)	782.55 (167)	.000	4.69	.90	.87	.95	.95	.96	.07	.04	868.55
Model 3:											
Modified model (18 items)	341.62 (131)	.000	2.61	.95	.94	.98	.98	.99	.05	.02	421.62
Two-factor solutions											
Model 4:											
Original model (20 items)	824.38 (169)	.000	4.88	.89	.87	.95	.95	.96	.07	.04	906.38
Model 5:											
Modified model (16 items)	285.62 (102)	.000	2.80	.95	.94	.98	.98	.99	.05	.02	353.62

Notes: n = 740. CMIN = chi-square goodness of fit; df = degrees of freedom; CMIN/df = relative chi-square; GFI = goodness of fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness of fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; NFI = normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardised root mean squared residual; AIC = Akaike information criterion.

^a For details of the thresholds of fit, see Table 8.14 in Chapter 8.

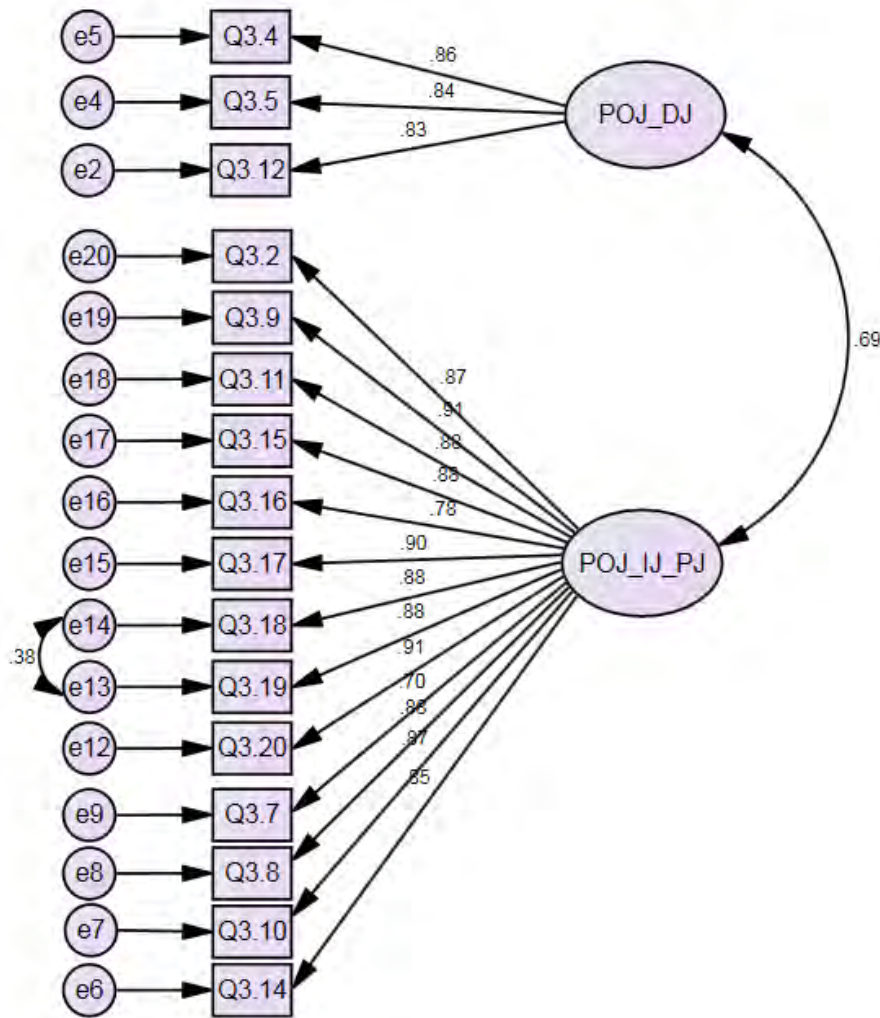
^b The percentage of variance explained by the unidimensional model reflects Harman's one-factor test for the original measure.

While Harman's one-factor test for the Justice Scale showed that the construct accounted for 63.19 per cent of the total variance, suggesting a unidimensional measurement model and

implying potential common method bias, the CFA results did not support this. The model fit when loading all the Justice Scale items onto a single construct in the CFA model (χ^2/df ratio = 7.92; $p = .000$; RMSEA = .10; SRMR = .05; CFI = .93) was not adequate. Both the two-factor and three-factor solutions demonstrated a better model fit than the one-factor model (see Table 9.18).

Although the modified three-factor model showed an adequate model fit, the exceptionally high intercorrelation (.98) between the interactional and procedural justice latent variables negatively influenced the discriminant validity of the subscales. The best model fit, as reflected in the lowest AIC value, was obtained by the modified two-factor model derived from the EFA. The results of the CFA confirmed that the modified two-dimensional model would be more appropriate than the one- or three-dimensional models, the former being the most inappropriate in describing the data. The measurement model fit using CFA is shown in Figure 9.7. The model fits the data adequately with high GFI (.95) and AGFI (.94) indices as well as a SRMR index of .02 indicating a well-fitting model. Furthermore, the NFI (.98), TLI (.98) and CFI (.99) indices exceeded the thresholds recommended as indicators of good fit, while the RMSEA (90% CI) index of .05 (.04 - .06) lent support to adequate model fit. The χ^2 -value was 285.615 and χ^2/df was 2.80 (p -value < .001). It was thus concluded that the modified two-factor model fit the sample data adequately.

Harman's one-factor test and a single-factor CFA were conducted for the final measurement model to ensure that common method variance did not pose a threat to the research findings. These results are reported in section 9.1.11.



Notes: POJ_DJ = distributive justice; POJ_PJ_IJ = procedural and interactional justice

Figure 9.7. Perceived Organisational Justice CFA Measurement Model

While each of the items loaded significantly on the intended factors, with loadings ranging from .70 to .91, the correlation between the two latent constructs remained high (.69). Although this high correlation between the justice dimensions suggests potential multicollinearity, it is below the .70 threshold that Colquitt and Shaw (2005) recommend for the integration of constructs. The high correlation between these factors was furthermore not deemed problematic in this instance because it corresponded to Niehoff and Moorman's (1993a) original findings, as well as subsequent research in which the Justice Scale was used to measure justice perceptions in different cultural settings (e.g. Cohen & Avrahami, 2006; Hassan et al., 2017; Özbek et al., 2016). The later research showed that the high correlation between the subscales is not unique to the South Africa sample. It is argued that the high correlations between these latent variables may be compensated for by the large sample size ($n = 740$) and accurate

measurement, as reflected in high Cronbach's alpha values (Cohen & Avrahami, 2006) (see Table 9.19).

9.1.6.3 *Validity and reliability of the Justice Scale*

Convergent validity was established by first considering the standardised factor loadings. All factor loadings were significant ($\geq .70$), as reflected in Table 9.19 (Hair et al., 2014). The next step was to calculate the average variances extracted (AVE) for each construct. In this instance, the AVEs for both organisational justice constructs exceeded the .50 threshold, suggesting adequate convergent validity. The inter-item correlation for the two constructs was .71 (distributive justice) and .74 (procedural and interactional justice) respectively, lending support to internal consistency. In addition, Cronbach's alpha and Raykov's rho coefficients (composite reliability) for both subscales were well beyond the .70 threshold considered indicative of adequate convergence. The overall justice scale reported an internal consistency reliability of .97, while the two subscales reported Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .88 (distributive justice) and .97 (procedural and interactional justice) respectively. The composite reliability (ρ) coefficients of .88 for distributive justice and .97 for procedural and interactional justice were reported. The convergent validity of the two justice subscales was thus confirmed.

To determine discriminant validity, the maximum shared variance (MSV) was calculated. The MSV was .47, which was lower than the AVE of each of the subscales, thereby lending support to the discriminant validity of the scales. In addition, the square root of AVE (.85 for distributive justice and .86 for procedural and interactional justice) was greater than the inter-construct correlation of .69, providing evidence of discriminant validity. The discriminant validity for the two POJ subscales was thus confirmed.

Table 9.19

Summary of Descriptive Statistics and Psychometric Properties for the Justice Scale

Construct	Items	Item descriptives				Construct descriptives				ITC	IIC	α	CR	AVE	MSV	Factor loadings			
		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis										
Distributive justice (POJ-DJ)	Q3.4	4.59	1.84	-.59	-.99	4.75	1.60	-.73	-.53	.80	.71	.88	.88	.72	.47	.86			
	Q3.5	4.81	1.74	-.82	-.50					.75						.84			
	Q3.12	4.86	1.75	-.86	-.38					.77						.83			
	Q3.6	3.79	2.03	-.05	-1.47					<i>Items discarded in final measurement model</i>									
	Q3.13	4.16	1.94	-.31	-1.28														
Procedural justice (formal procedural and interactional justice) (POJ-PJ-IJ)	Q3.2	4.52	1.86	-.54	-.99	4.52	1.60	-.53	-.83	.86	.74	.97	.97	.74	.47	.87			
	Q3.7	4.36	1.83	-.43	-1.01					.70						.70			
	Q3.8	4.66	1.80	-.65	-.78					.86						.88			
	Q3.9	4.57	1.85	-.53	-.99					.89						.91			
	Q3.10	4.04	1.89	-.16	-1.29					.86						.87			
	Q3.11	4.51	1.76	-.56	-.85					.87						.88			
	Q3.14	4.48	1.85	-.48	-1.04					.84						.85			
	Q3.15	4.66	1.86	-.62	-.90					.87						.88			
	Q3.16	4.27	1.86	-.33	-1.14					.77						.78			
	Q3.17	4.55	1.85	-.55	-.94					.89						.90			
	Q3.18	4.64	1.81	-.59	-.85					.88						.88			
	Q3.19	4.86	1.79	-.79	-.53					.87						.88			
	Q3.20	4.60	1.83	-.63	-.85					.89						.91			
Q3.1	4.01	1.96	-.16	-1.34	<i>Items discarded in final measurement model</i>														
Q3.3	4.17	1.89	-.27	-1.20															

Notes: n = 740. SD = standard deviation; ITC = item-to-total correlation; IIC = inter-item correlation; α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared variance. Scores: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree; 3 = somewhat disagree; 4 = neither agree or disagree; 5 = somewhat agree; 6 = agree; 7 = strongly agree. CFA measurement model fit: chi-square (df) = 285.62 (102), $p = .000$; CMIN/df = 2.80; GFI = .95; AGFI = .94; NFI = .98; TLI = .98; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .02; AIC = 353.62.

9.1.6.4 *Description of construct data: Justice Scale*

The mean values for the two dimensions of organisational justice as measured by the Justice Scale were 4.75 (SD = 1.60) for distributive justice and 4.52 for procedural and interactional justice (SD = 1.60). Respondents therefore seemed to believe that their work outcomes were fair (distributive justice) and that these outcomes were derived from fair procedures and attentive interactions (procedural and interactive justice).

The negative kurtosis values for both subscales indicate that the distribution was relatively flat (i.e. many cases in the extremes), as reflected in the relatively high standard deviations. The distribution for both subscales was also negatively skewed, which means that relatively few small values were reported, with most values in the upper region, indicating perceived justice in the working environment. The skewness and kurtosis values were within the recommended normality range (between -1 and +1) (Hair et al., 2016), suggesting a normal sampling distribution.

9.1.7 **Survey of Perceived Organisational Support–Shortened Version**

The Survey of Perceived Organisational Support–Shortened Version (SPOS-SV) (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Hochwarter et al., 2003b) was used to measure POS as a unidimensional construct.

9.1.7.1 *Exploratory factor analysis for the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support–Shortened Version*

In order to assess the unidimensional factor structure of the POS construct for the current sample, an EFA was conducted using principal axis factoring (no rotation). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (.92) was above the recommended threshold of .60 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974), and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant ($p = .000$), indicating that there were sufficient correlations in the data to support a factor analysis.

A single underlying factor, accounting for 55.03 per cent of the total variance, emerged from the data, based on the Kaiser-Guttman criterion of eigenvalues greater than one. The factor loadings are reported in Table 9.20.

Table 9.20

Exploratory Factor Analysis: Survey of Perceived Organisational Support–Shortened Version

Item	Factor 1
Q2.2 My organisation really cares about my well-being.	.85
Q2.3 My organisational considers my goals and values.	.85
Q2.1 My organisation cares about my opinions.	.85
Q2.4 Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem.	.83
Q2.8 My organisation is willing to help me if I need a special favour.	.72
Q2.5 My organisation would forgive an honest mistake on my part.	.72
Q2.7 My organisation shows little concern for me (R).	.60
Q2.6 If given the opportunity, my organisation would take advantage of me (R).	.37

Notes: n = 740. An (R) indicates that the item was negatively stated and therefore reverse coded.

Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Although the two reverse-coded items (Q2.6 and Q2.7) showed the lowest factor loadings, they were retained at this stage of the analysis as they exceeded the minimum loading of .30 on the target construct. The results of the EFA therefore corresponded with the single-factor theoretical conceptualisation of POS. These results were subsequently validated by means of CFA.

9.1.7.2 *Confirmatory factor analysis for the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support–Shortened Version*

A CFA involving all eight items (original model) was performed to assess the model fit data for the SPOS-SV. An examination of the modification indices and factor loadings confirmed that items Q2.6 and Q2.7 should be removed. A second model, representing the modified version of the single-factor solution (i.e. without items Q2.6 and Q2.7), was subsequently tested. To improve the fit, this model was further modified by allowing one pair of errors to covariate. The results are reported in Table 9.21.

Table 9.21

Survey of Perceived Organisational Support–Shortened Version: Measures of Global Model Fit for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

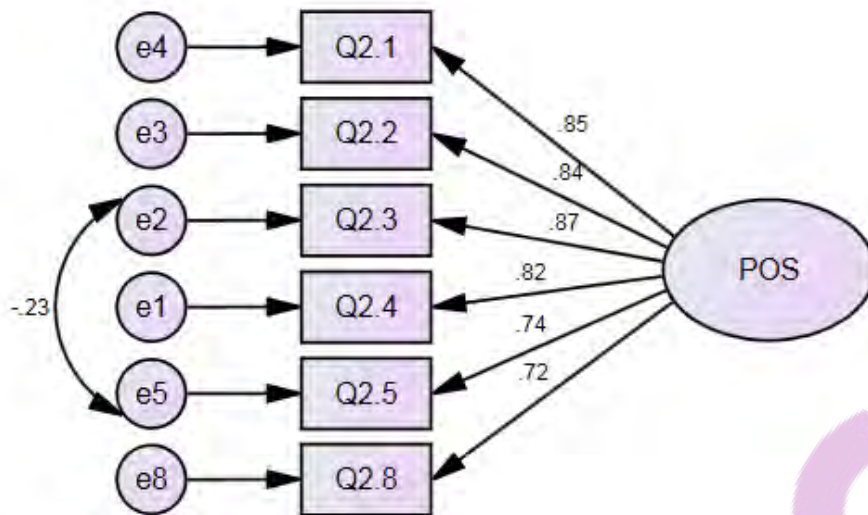
	CMIN (df)	P- value	CMIN/ df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
Thresholds ^a		≥ .05	< 3	≥ .95	≥ .90	≥ .95	≥ .95	≥ .95	≤ .05	< .05	
One-factor solutions											
Model 1:											
Original model (8 items)	105.46 (20)	.000	5.27	.97	.94	.97	.97	.98	.08	.04	137.46
Model 2:											
Modified model (6 items)	13.39 (8)	.099	1.67	.99	.98	1.00	1.00	1.00	.03	.01	39.39

Notes: n = 740. CMIN = chi-square goodness of fit; df = degrees of freedom; CMIN/df = relative chi-square; GFI = goodness of fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness of fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; NFI = normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardised root mean squared residual; AIC = Akaike information criterion.

^a For details of the thresholds of fit, see Table 8.14 in Chapter 8.

^b The percentage of variance explained by the unidimensional model reflects Harman's one-factor test for the original measure.

The measurement model fit of the modified unidimensional model using CFA is shown in Figure 9.8. The model fits the data adequately with the lowest AIC value and acceptable fit indexes: GFI (.99); AGFI (.98); NFI (1.00); TLI (1.00); CFI (1.00); RMSEA (90% CI; .03 (.00-.06) and SRMR (.01). The χ^2 -value was 13.39 and χ^2/df was 1.67 with a *p*-value of .099. It was thus concluded that the hypothesised unidimensional model fit the sample data adequately.



Note: POS = perceived organisational support

Figure 9.8. Perceived Organisational Support CFA Measurement Model

9.1.7.3 Validity and reliability of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support– Shortened Version

The convergent validity of the feelings of violation subscale was established by first considering the standardised factor loadings. All factor loadings were significant ($> .70$), as reflected in Table 9.22 (Hair et al., 2014). The next step was to calculate the average variance extracted (AVE), item-to-total correlations and inter-item correlation for the POS construct. An AVE of .66, item-to-total correlations of .69 and higher and an inter-item correlation of .65 suggested adequate convergent validity. Furthermore, the Cronbach's alpha (.92) and composite reliability (.92) coefficients suggested internal consistency. The convergent validity of the POS measurement scale was thus confirmed.

Table 9.22

Summary of Descriptive Statistics and Psychometric Properties for the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support–Shortened Version

Construct	Items	Item descriptives				Construct descriptives				ITC	IIC	α	CR	AVE	MSV	Factor loadings	
		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis								
Perceived organisational support (POS)	Q2.1	4.48	1.76	-.50	-.85	4.68	1.47	-.66	-.30	.81	.65	.92	.92	.66	n/a	.85	
	Q2.2	4.75	1.77	-.66	-.59					.81						.84	
	Q2.3	4.60	1.80	-.59	-.77					.81						.87	
	Q2.4	4.98	1.71	-.84	-.31					.79						.82	
	Q2.5	4.90	1.62	-.85	-.09					.69						.74	
	Q2.8	4.37	1.78	-.41	-.90					.70						.72	
	Q2.6	3.53	1.90	.35	-1.15					} <i>Items discarded in final measurement model</i>							
	Q2.7	4.34	1.87	-.23	-1.20												

Notes: n = 740. SD = standard deviation; ITC = item-to-total correlation; IIC = inter-item correlation; α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared variance. Scores: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree; 3 = somewhat disagree; 4 = neither agree or disagree; 5 = somewhat agree; 6 = agree; 7 = strongly agree. CFA measurement model fit: chi-square (df) = 13.39 (8), $p = .099$; CMIN/df = 1.67; GFI = .99; AGFI = .98; NFI = 1.00; TLI = 1.00; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .03; SRMR = .01; AIC = 39.39.

9.1.7.4 *Description of construct data: Survey of Perceived Organisational Support–Shortened Version*

The mean value of 4.68 measured on the SPOS-SV suggested that respondents believed that their employing organisations value their contributions and care about their well-being.

The standard deviation of 1.47 and negative kurtosis (-.30) reflect a relatively flat distribution with a high number of cases in the extremes. The distribution of the data was also negatively skewed (-.66), which means that relatively few small values were reported with most values in the upper region, indicating perceived support in the working environment. Both the skewness and kurtosis values for the POS construct were within the recommended normality range (between -1 and +1) (Hair et al., 2016).

9.1.8 **Organisational Cynicism Scale**

Organisational cynicism was measured by means of Brandes et al.'s (1999) Organisational Cynicism Scale. This scale consists of 14 items measuring three dimensions, namely affective cynicism (4 items), behavioural cynicism (5 items) and cognitive cynicism (5 items).

9.1.8.1 *Exploratory factor analysis for the Organisational Cynicism Scale*

In order to gain an understanding of the essence of the organisational cynicism construct for the current sample, an EFA was conducted using principal axis factoring with oblique rotation (Promax). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) of .96 was well beyond the recommended threshold of .60 and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant ($p = .000$). A factor analysis was thus deemed appropriate.

Two underlying factors, based on the Kaiser's eigenvalue criterion of eigenvalues greater than one, were extracted. These factors explained 61.33 per cent of the variance (Factor 1 = 57.46%; Factor 2 = 3.87%). The factor loadings are reported in Table 9.23.

Table 9.23

Exploratory Factor Analysis: Organisational Cynicism Scale

Item		Factors		Factors		
		(eigenvalues > 1)		(forced 3 factors)		
		1	2	1	2	3
Q5.11	I see little similarity between what my organisation says it will do and what it actually does.	.90		.87		
Q5.1	I believe my organisation says one thing and does another.	.88		.76		
Q5.12	My organisation expects one thing of its employees, but rewards another.	.85		.67		
Q5.14	When my organisation says it is going to do something, I wonder if it will really happen.	.85		.64		
Q5.13	My organisation's policies, goals and practices seem to have little in common.	.78		.75		
Q5.9	I often experience tension when I think about my organisation.	.76			.86	
Q5.7	I often experience anxiety when I think about my organisation.	.76			.88	
Q5.6	I often experience aggravation when I think about my organisation.	.70			.83	
Q5.8	I often experience irritation when I think about my organisation.	.68			.84	
Q5.5	I find myself mocking my organisation's slogans and initiatives.	.39	.36		.27	.31
Q5.10	I often talk to others about the ways things are done in my organisation.		.73			.73
Q5.2	I complain about how things happen in my organisation to friends outside the organisation.		.70			.63
Q5.3	I criticise my organisation's practices and policies with others.		.62			.59
Q5.4	I exchange "knowing" glances with my co-workers.		.30	.28		.35

Notes: n = 740. Only factor loadings $\geq .20$ are shown. Primary factor loadings are indicated in bold. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation.

The two factors that were extracted reflect Brandes et al.'s (1999) cognitive and affective

cynicism (Factor 1) and behavioural cynicism (Factor 2) dimensions. It could thus be deduced that respondents were unable to differentiate between cognitive and affective cynicism. Although this factor structure contradicted Brandes et al.'s (1999) findings, it did correspond to James's (2005) research in which a similar two-factor structure was found. The low factor loadings for items Q5.4 and Q5.5 as well as the cross-loading of item Q5.5 on both factors, furthermore suggested that these items should be omitted from the scales for further analysis.

To ensure the best factor structure for the Organisational Cynicism Scale, a supplementary EFA was conducted in which the number of factors to be extracted was set at three. The ensuing three-factor solution corresponded with Brandes et al.'s (1999) three-dimensional conceptualisation of organisational cynicism. Factor 1 related to cognitive cynicism, accounting for 57.74 per cent of the total variance. Factor 2 reflected affective cynicism (4.00% of variance), while Factor 3 related to behavioural cynicism (3.12% of variance). The total variance explained by this three-factor model was 64.87 per cent. However, while the eigenvalues for Factors 1 (cognitive cynicism) and 2 (affective cynicism) were above one, the eigenvalue for Factor 3 (behavioural cynicism) was .82 and did not meet the 1.00 criterion. Items Q5.4 and Q5.5 remained problematic, showing low factor loadings on their respective factors as well as substantial cross-loadings on other factors.

Therefore, although the EFA provided some support for both a two- and a three-factor model of organisational cynicism, it was essential to conduct CFA to obtain clarity on the factor structure for this construct.

9.1.8.2 Harman's post hoc one-factor analysis and CFA for the Organisational Cynicism Scale

While organisational cynicism has been conceptualised as a three-dimensional construct, consisting of cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions (Dean et al., 1998), respondents have not always been able to differentiate between the cognitive and affective dimensions (James, 2005). This was also the case in this particular study (see the results of the EFA in the previous section). These findings necessitated the comparison of a number of measurement models: The first model represented a single-factor solution incorporating all 14 items. Since Harman's one-factor test suggested a unidimensional solution for the Organisational Cynicism Scale (a single factor accounted for 57.24% of the covariance among the scale variables), attempts were made to modify the one-factor solution by relying on factor loadings, standardised residual covariances and modification index information to inform

model modification. A well-fitting one-dimensional model could, however, not be found.

Table 9.24

Organisational Cynicism Scale: Measures of Global Model Fit for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	CMIN (df)	P- value	CMIN/ df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
Thresholds ^a		≥ .05	< 3	≥ .95	≥ .90	≥ .95	≥ .95	≥ .95	≤ .05	< .05	
One-factor solution ^b explaining 57.24% of variance											
Model 1:											
One-factor model (14 items)	809.57 (77)	.000	10.51	.83	.77	.90	.89	.91	.11	.05	865.57
Two-factor solutions											
Model 2:											
Original model (14 items)	647.21 (76)	.000	8.52	.86	.80	.92	.92	.93	.10	.04	705.21
Model 3:											
Modified model (12 items)	545.04 (53)	.000	10.28	.86	.79	.93	.92	.93	.11	.04	595.04
Three-factor solutions											
Model 4:											
Original model (14 items)	247.54 (74)	.000	3.35	.96	.94	.97	.97	.98	.06	.03	309.54
Model 5:											
Modified model (12 items)	169.03 (51)	.000	3.31	.96	.94	.98	.98	.99	.06	.02	223.03
Alternative model – cognitive cynicism subscale only											
Model 6:											
One-factor model (5 items)	15.85 (5)	.007	3.17	.99	.98	.99	.99	1.00	.05	.01	35.85

Notes: n = 740. CMIN = chi-square goodness of fit; df = degrees of freedom; CMIN/df = relative chi-square; GFI = goodness of fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness of fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index;

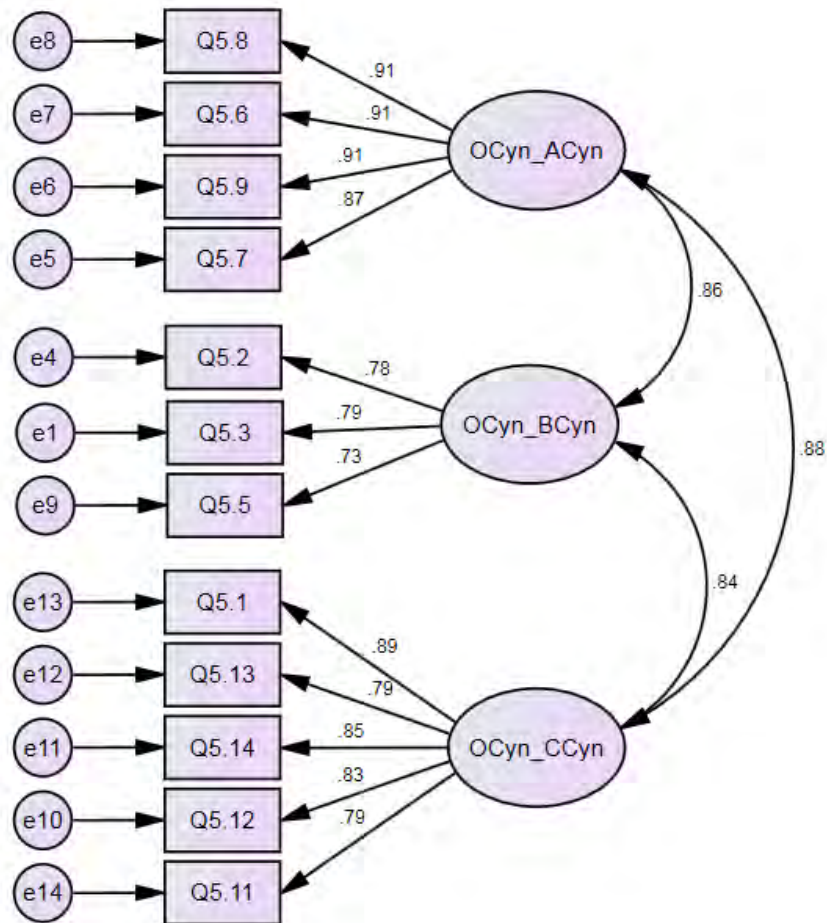
NFI = normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardised root mean squared residual; AIC = Akaike information criterion.

^a For details of the thresholds of fit, see Table 8.14 in Chapter 8.

^b The percentage of variance explained by the unidimensional model reflects Harman's one-factor test for the original measure.

The second model reported in Table 9.24 tested the two-factor solution that was obtained in the EFA, and the third model represented a modified two-factor solution omitting the two problematic items (Q5.4 and Q5.5). Further modifications of the model did not achieve an acceptable model fit. Model 4 reflects Brandes et al.'s (1999) conceptualisation of organisational cynicism as a three-dimensional construct, while Model 5 is a modified three-factor solution. Factor loadings, standardised residual covariances as well as modification index information and the results of the EFA were used in model modification. Finally, a sixth model reflecting only cognitive cynicism as a measure for organisational cynicism (see Biswas & Kapil, 2017; Pugh et al., 2003; Scott & Zweig, 2008; Sheel & Vohra, 2016) was tested.

Although Harman's one-factor test for the Organisational Cynicism Scale showed that the construct accounted for 57.24 per cent of the covariance among the scale variables, suggesting a unidimensional measurement model, this was not confirmed in the CFA results. When loading the three organisational cynicism variables onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well. Although the CFI (.91) and SRMR (.05) suggested an acceptable model fit, this was refuted by the high RMSEA index (.11) and χ^2/df ratio of 10.51. The low GFI (.83), AGFI (.77) and TLI (.89) indices also suggested that the one-factor solution for the measurement of organisational cynicism was not ideal.



Notes: OCyn_ACyn = affective cynicism; OCyn_BCyn = behavioural cynicism; OCyn_CCyn = cognitive cynicism

Figure 9.9. Organisational Cynicism CFA Measurement Model

The two-factor model provided a better fit than the one-factor solution. However, neither of these models adequately accounted for the covariance among the item responses. The two-factor model showed a slight improvement, but the model fit remained poor. The fit indices suggested a superior model fit for the modified three-factor solution as reflected in Figure 9.9. However, high intercorrelations between the organisational cynicism constructs (ranging between .84 and .88) suggested that respondents were unable to differentiate between these dimensions and that discriminant validity would pose a problem. Although the validity and reliability of the three-factor model was further investigated (see section 9.1.8.3 below), a second option, retaining only cognitive cynicism as a proxy for organisational cynicism (see Biswas & Kapil, 2017; Pugh et al., 2003; Scott & Zweig, 2008; Sheel & Vohra, 2016) was considered. This alternative model is reflected as Model 6 in Table 9.24.

9.1.8.3 *Validity and reliability of the Organisational Cynicism Scale*

In order to establish the most reliable organisational cynicism measurement option for the particular sample, the extent to which convergent validity could be established for the three-factor measurement model as depicted in Figure 9.9 was considered. Firstly, all standardised factor loadings were significant ($> .70$), as reflected in Table 9.25 (Hair et al., 2014). Secondly, the AVEs for all three constructs – affective, behavioural and cognitive cynicism – exceeded the .50 threshold, suggesting internal consistency, which was further supported by sufficient inter-item and item-total consistencies as well as Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (ρ) coefficients in excess of .70.

To determine discriminant validity, the maximum shared variance (MSV) and average shared variance (ASV) for all three dimensions were calculated. Discriminant validity could, however, only be confirmed for the affective cynicism subscale where both the MSV and ASV were lower than the AVE. In addition, the square root of AVE for this construct was greater than the inter-construct correlations, thereby lending support to the discriminant validity of the subscale. Discriminant validity could not be confirmed for the behavioural and cognitive cynicism subscales.

It was clear from the analysis of the data in Table 9.25 that, although a three-factor solution could be extracted, the discriminant validity of the scales as obtained from the best model fit could not be confirmed in this sample. In an attempt to reach maximum parsimony in the data, it was consequently decided to follow a similar approach to researchers such as Biswas and Kapil (2017), Pugh et al. (2003), Scott and Zweig (2008) and Sheel and Vohra (2016) focusing on the cognitive dimension of organisational cynicism only.

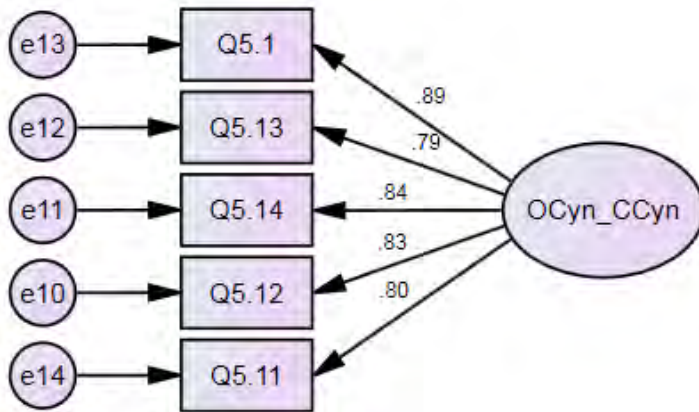
The final measurement model for organisational cynicism (see Figure 9.10) therefore consisted of one latent variable, namely cognitive cynicism. All five of the observed variables were retained. This model fit the data adequately with high GFI (.99), AFGI (.98), NFI (.99), TLI (.99) and CFI (1.00) indices, as well as an SRMR (.01) index representative of a good model fit. The RMSEA (90% CI) value of .05 (.03-.09) also suggested an adequate fit. The χ^2 -value for the model was 15.85 and χ^2/df was 3.17 with a statistically significant p -value ($p = .007$). The AIC value of 35.85, which was the lowest comparing all six models that were tested, confirmed the superiority of this model for the particular data set. It was thus concluded that this unidimensional model fit the sample data adequately, confirming the construct validity of the cognitive cynicism subscale of the Organisational Cynicism Scale.

Table 9.25

Summary of Descriptive Statistics and Psychometric Properties for the Organisational Cynicism Scale

Construct	Items	Item descriptives				Construct descriptives				ITC	IIC	α	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	Factor loadings
		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis								
Affective cynicism (OCyn-ACyn)	Q5.6	3.39	1.94	.40	-1.17					.87							.91
	Q5.7	3.51	1.98	.31	-1.26					.85							.87
	Q5.8	3.52	2.02	.34	-1.29	3.50	1.84	.32	-1.12	.87	.81	.94	.94	.81	.77	.74	.91
	Q5.9	3.59	2.02	.24	-1.34					.88							.91
Behavioural cynicism (OCyn-BCyn)	Q5.2	3.40	1.99	.38	-1.25					.68							.79
	Q5.3	3.20	1.93	.52	-1.09	3.13	1.63	.56	-.61	.70	.59	.81	.81	.60	.77	.74	.80
	Q5.5	2.79	1.83	.95	-.27					.61							.73
	Q5.4	4.22	1.80	-.37	-1.09												
	Q5.10	4.52	1.84	-.52	-.98												
} <i>Items discarded in final measurement model</i>																	
Cognitive cynicism (OCyn-CCyn)	Q5.1	3.81	2.08	.13	-1.42					.84							.89
	Q5.11	3.83	1.91	.04	-1.32					.76							.79
	Q5.12	3.95	1.99	.01	-1.35	3.85	1.73	.01	-1.11	.78	.69	.92	.92	.69	.77	.74	.83
	Q5.13	3.57	1.94	.27	-1.26					.76							.79
	Q5.14	4.11	2.07	-.13	-1.44					.80							.85

Notes: n = 740. SD = standard deviation; ITC = item-to-total correlation; IIC = inter-item correlation; α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared variance; ASV = average shared variance. Scores: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree; 3 = somewhat disagree; 4 = neither agree or disagree; 5 = somewhat agree; 6 = agree; 7 = strongly agree. CFA measurement model fit: chi-square (df) = 169.03 (51), $p = .000$; CMIN/df = 3.31; GFI = .96; AGFI = .94; NFI = .98; TLI = .98; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .02; AIC = 223.03.



Note: OCyn_CCyn = cognitive cynicism

Figure 9.10. Revised Organisational Cynicism CFA Measurement Model

The convergent validity of the cognitive cynicism subscale was confirmed by first considering the standardised factor loadings, which all were significant ($> .70$), as reflected in Table 9.26 (Hair et al., 2014). The AVE value (.69), item-to-total correlations ($> .70$) and inter-item correlation of .69 also provided evidence of construct validity. In addition, high Cronbach's alpha (.92) and composite reliability (.92) coefficients indicated adequate convergence. The convergent validity of the cognitive cynicism scale was thus confirmed for this sample.

9.1.8.4 Description of construct data: Cognitive cynicism subscale of the Organisational Cynicism Scale

The mean score of 3.85 on the cognitive cynicism subscale suggests that respondents did not harbour negative perceptions about the integrity and intentions of their employing organisations and its leaders. However, it also implies that they did not necessarily believe that their employers were fair, honest and sincere in their dealings with employees.

The relatively high standard deviation (1.73) and negative kurtosis (-1.11) reflected a flat distribution with a high number of cases in the extremes. The skewness value for the cognitive cynicism subscale was within the recommended normality range (between -1 and +1) (Hair et al., 2016). Although there was some evidence of kurtosis in the data, it was deemed unlikely to make a substantive difference in the analysis, given the large sample size ($n = 740$) (Pallant, 2016).

Table 9.26

Summary of Descriptive Statistics and Psychometric Properties for the Cognitive Cynicism Subscale (n = 740)

Construct	Items	Item descriptives				Construct descriptives				ITC	IIC	α	CR	AVE	MSV	Factor loadings
		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis							
Cognitive cynicism (OCyn-CCyn)	Q5.1	3.81	2.08	.13	-1.42					.84						.89
	Q5.11	3.83	1.91	.04	-1.32					.76						.80
	Q5.12	3.95	1.99	.01	-1.35	3.85	1.73	.01	-1.11	.78	.69	.92	.92	.69	n/a	.83
	Q5.13	3.57	1.94	.27	-1.26					.76						.79
	Q5.14	4.11	2.07	-.13	-1.44					.80						.84

Notes: n = 740. SD = standard deviation; ITC = item-to-total correlation; IIC = inter-item correlation; α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared variance. Scores: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree; 3 = somewhat disagree; 4 = neither agree or disagree; 5 = somewhat agree; 6 = agree; 7 = strongly agree. CFA measurement model fit: chi-square (df) = 15.85 (5), $p = .007$; CMIN/df = 3.17; GFI = .99; AGFI = .98; NFI = .99; TLI = .99; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .01; AIC = 35.85.

9.1.9 Trust in Management Scale

The Trust in Management Scale (Mayer & Davis, 1999; Stanley et al., 2005) was used to measure employees' trust in their employing organisations and their leaders. This is a unidimensional scale consisting of five items.

9.1.9.1 Exploratory factor analysis for the Trust in Management Scale

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted using principal axis factoring to confirm the unidimensionality of the measure for a South African sample. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (.80) was above the recommended threshold of .60 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant ($p = .000$), indicating that a factor analysis was appropriate for the data.

A single underlying factor, accounting for 52.18 per cent of the total variance, emerged from the data based on the Kaiser-Guttman criterion of eigenvalues greater than one. The factor loadings are reported in Table 9.27.

Table 9.27

Exploratory Factor Analysis: Trust in Management Scale

Item	Factor 1
Q6.4 When it comes to making decisions that affect me, I have as much or more faith in management's judgement as I would in my own.	.91
Q6.3 I trust management to make the right decisions in situations that affect me personally.	.82
Q6.5 Even if a bad decision could have very negative consequences for me, I would trust management's judgement.	.80
Q6.2 I am willing to follow management's lead even in risky situations.	.52
Q6.1 If given a choice, I would not allow management to make decisions concerning employee well-being. (R)	.44

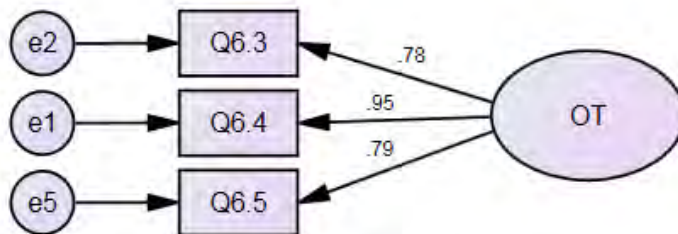
Notes: $n = 740$. An (R) indicates that the item was negatively stated and therefore reverse coded. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Although the reverse-coded item (Q6.1) showed a low factor loading, it was retained at this stage of the analysis as it exceeded the minimum loading of .30 on the target construct. The results of the EFA therefore corresponded with the single-factor theoretical conceptualisation of organisational trust (see Chapter 5). These results were subsequently validated by means

of CFA.

9.1.9.2 Confirmatory factor analysis for the Trust in Management Scale

A CFA involving all five items was performed. Although this model presented a reasonable model fit (CMIN = 41.04; $df = 5$; $p = .000$; CMIN/df = 8.21; GFI = .98; AGFI = .94; NFI = .97; TLI = .96; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .10 and SRMR = .03; AIC = 61.04), an examination of the factor loadings confirmed that items Q6.1 and Q6.2 should be removed. A second model, representing the modified version of the single-factor solution (i.e. without items Q6.1 and Q6.2), was subsequently tested. This model displayed 0 degrees of freedom as well as a chi-square statistic of .000. In addition, the GFI, NFI and CFI indices displayed values of 1.00, representing perfect convergence. The SRMR index (.00), as an absolute measure of fit, confirmed that the model fit the data perfectly and no further testing of the model was required (Arbuckle, 2011). The AIC value of 12.00 also confirmed the superiority of the modified single-factor model. It was thus concluded that the modified unidimensional model, as reflected in Figure 9.11, fit the sample data well and this measurement model was retained for further analysis.



Note: OT = organisational trust

Figure 9.11. Organisational Trust CFA Measurement Model

Table 9.28

Summary of Descriptive Statistics and Psychometric Properties for the Trust in Management Scale

Construct	Items	Item descriptives				Construct descriptives				ITC	IIC	α	CR	AVE	MSV	Factor loadings
		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis							
Organisational Trust (OT)	Q6.3	4.07	1.90	-.14	-1.27					.73						.78
	Q6.4	3.51	1.85	.23	-1.23	3.57	1.64	.16	-.98	.83	.70	.88	.88	.71	n/a	.95
	Q6.5	3.12	1.75	.53	-.81					.73						.79
	Q6.1	4.13	1.98	-.15	-1.32											
	Q6.2	4.11	1.79	-.19	-1.17											

}

Items discarded in final measurement model

Notes: n = 740. SD = standard deviation; ITC = item-to-total correlation; IIC = inter-item correlation; α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared variance. Scores: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree; 3 = somewhat disagree; 4 = neither agree or disagree; 5 = somewhat agree; 6 = agree; 7 = strongly agree. CFA measurement model fit: chi-square (df) = .00 (0); GFI = 1.00; NFI = 1.00; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .74; SRMR = .00; AIC = 12.00.

9.1.9.3 *Validity and reliability of the Trust in Management Scale*

The convergent validity of the Trust in Management Scale was established by first considering the standardised factor loadings. All factor loadings were significant ($> .70$), as reflected in Table 9.28 (Hair et al., 2014). The next step was to calculate the average variance extracted (AVE), item-to-total correlations and inter-item correlation for the organisational trust construct. An AVE of .71, item-to-total correlations in excess of .70 and an inter-item correlation of .70 suggested adequate convergent validity. Furthermore, the Cronbach's alpha (.88) and composite reliability (.88) coefficients suggested internal consistency. The convergent validity of the organisational trust measurement was thus confirmed.

9.1.9.4 *Description of construct data: Trust in Management Scale*

The mean score of 3.57 on the Trust in Management Scale suggests that respondents did not report high levels of trust in their employing organisations. The relatively high standard deviation (1.64) and negative kurtosis (-.98) reflect a flat distribution with a high number of cases in the extremes. Both the skewness and kurtosis values for the Trust in Management Scale were within the recommended normality range (between -1 and +1) (Hair et al., 2016).

9.1.10 **Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales**

Triandis and Gelfand's (1998b) Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism (HVIC) Scales were used to measure four dimensions of individualism/collectivism, namely horizontal collectivism (HC), horizontal individualism (HI), vertical collectivism (VC), vertical individualism (VI) (4 items each).

9.1.10.1 *Exploratory factor analysis for the Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales*

An EFA was conducted using principal axis factoring in an attempt to replicate Triandis and Gelfand's (1998b) factor analytic solution for a South African sample. As individualism and collectivism have been shown to be correlated, oblique rotation was used (Dalal, 2005; Weikamp & Göritz, 2016). The EFA therefore served as a preliminary assessment of factor structure generating a factor structure almost identical to the factor solutions identified by Triandis and Gelfand (1998b).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (.76), which was above the recommended threshold of .60 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974), and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954), which was significant ($p = .000$), both indicated that there were adequate correlations in the data to support a factor analysis. Four underlying factors were extracted, based on the Kaiser's eigenvalue criterion of eigenvalues greater than one. These factors explained 32.01 per cent of the variance. The percentage variation explained was 13.83 per cent, 11.16 per cent, 4.18 per cent and 2.84 per cent for the four factors, respectively. The factor loadings are reported in Table 9.29.

Table 9.29

Exploratory Factor Analysis: Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales

Item	Factors			
	1	2	3	4
Q1.13 The well-being of my co-workers is important to me.	.61			
Q1.7 If a co-worker were to receive a prize, I would feel proud.	.61			
Q1.3 I feel good when I cooperate with others.	.57			
Q1.9 It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by groups I belong to.	.48			
Q1.14 To me, pleasure is about spending time with others.	.24			
Q1.5 I rely on myself most of the time; I rarely rely on others.		.72		
Q1.6 I would rather depend on myself than on others.		.68		
Q1.11 My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me.		.34		
Q1.4 I often do "my own thing".		.34		
Q1.16 Winning is everything.			.69	
Q1.1 Competition is the law of nature.			.50	
Q1.8 It is important that I do my job better than others.			.50	
Q1.15 When another person does better than I do, I become tense and agitated.	-.34		.36	
Q1.2 Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required.				.72
Q1.12 Parents and children must stay together as much as possible.				.51
Q1.10 It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.				.49

Notes: $n = 740$. Only factor loadings $\geq .20$ are shown. Primary factor loadings are indicated in bold. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation.

The four factors that were extracted corresponded with the four dimensions of Triandis and Gelfand's (1998b) theorised model (Factor 1 = HC; Factor 2 = HI; Factor 3 = VI; Factor 4 =

VC). The analysis, however, indicated that one item (Q1.9) loaded more highly on a theoretically inappropriate factor (HC instead of VC). Similar results were obtained by Li and Aksoy (2007) in US and Turkish samples, suggesting that respondents tend to assign a different meaning to this item than to other VC items. Two additional items showed low factor loadings (Q1.14) or cross-loadings (Q1.15). A decision was thus made to discard these three items from the original subscales in an endeavour to improve discriminant validity. This resulted in a three-item HC scale (items Q1.3, Q1.7 and Q1.13), a four-item HI scale (items Q1.4, Q1.5, Q1.6 and Q1.11), a three-item VI scale (items Q1.1, Q1.8 and Q1.16) and a three-item VC scale (items Q1.2, Q1.10 and Q1.12).

Since the overall data pattern was consistent with Triandis and Gelfand's (1998b) conceptualisation of individualism/collectivism as a multidimensional construct, CFA was undertaken to confirm the dimensionality and factor structure of the constructs.

9.1.10.2 Harman's post hoc one-factor analysis and CFA for the Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales

In line with Li and Aksoy's (2007) recommendation, CFA was used to test the meaningfulness of the horizontal/vertical distinction for the current sample. The modified four-factor model, as depicted in Figure 9.12, was compared to one- and two-factor solutions to determine the best model fit for the data (see Table 9.30). The first model represented a single-factor solution incorporating all 16 scale items. The second model conceptualised individualism/collectivism as a two-dimensional construct (i.e. individualism and collectivism were seen as two separate constructs, but the horizontal/vertical distinction was not made). The third model represented Triandis and Gelfand's (1998) conceptualisation of individualism/collectivism as a four-dimensional construct. The final model was a modified version of the four-factor solution, where the three problematic items (Q1.9, Q1.14 and Q1.15) identified in the EFA were removed. One additional item (Q1.11) was discarded following an inspection of the standardised residual covariances and modification index information. The results are reported in Table 9.30.

Table 9.30

Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales: Measures of Global Model Fit for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	CMIN (df)	P- value	CMIN/ df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
Thresholds ^a		≥ .05	< 3	≥ .95	≥ .90	≥ .95	≥ .95	≥ .95	≤ .05	< .05	
One-factor solution ^b explaining 12.95% of variance											
Model 1:											
One-factor solution (16 items)	1002.07 (104)	.000	9.64	.81	.75	.43	.37	.46	.11	.11	1066.07
Two-factor solution											
Model 2:											
Original model (16 items)	613.56 (103)	.000	5.96	.90	.86	.65	.64	.69	.08	.09	679.56
Four-factor solutions											
Model 3:											
Original model (16 items)	320.32 (98)	.000	3.27	.95	.93	.82	.84	.87	.06	.06	396.32
Model 4:											
Modified model (12 items)	38.25 (21)	.012	1.82	.99	.98	.96	.97	.98	.03	.03	86.25

Notes: n = 740. CMIN = chi-square goodness of fit; df = degrees of freedom; CMIN/df = relative chi-square; GFI = goodness of fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness of fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; NFI = normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardised root mean squared residual; AIC = Akaike information criterion.

^a For details of the thresholds of fit, rsee Table 8.14 in Chapter 8.

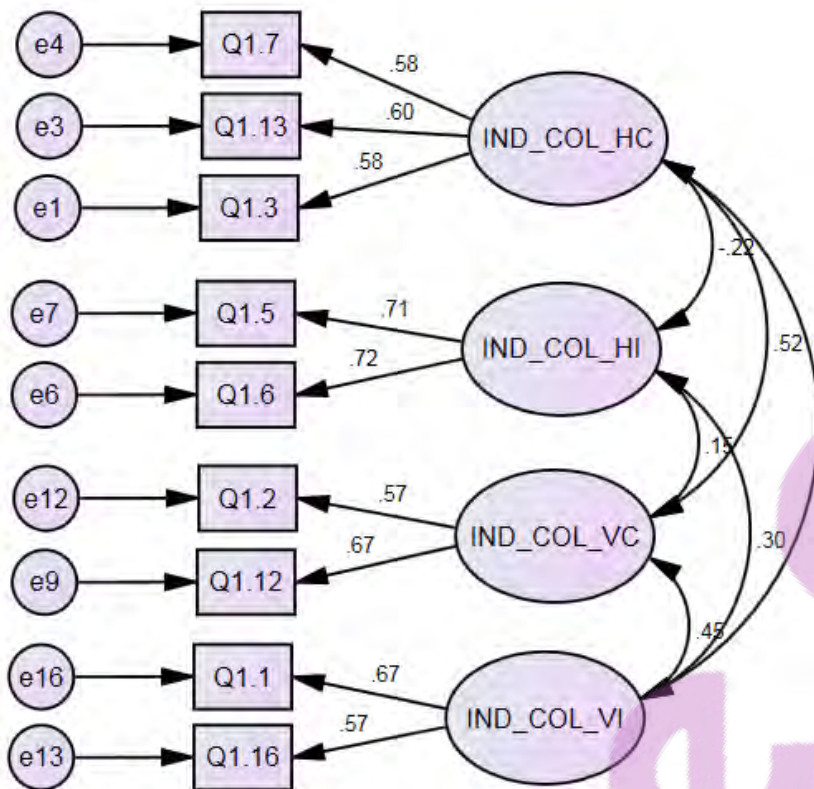
^b The percentage of variance explained by the unidimensional model reflects Harman's one-factor test for the original measure.

The EFA results (single-factor solution) for the HVIC Scales showed that the construct accounted for only 12.95 per cent of the variance among the scale variables, suggesting that common method variance would not pose a threat to the research findings. When loading all the variables of the HVIC Scales onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well, with a CFI value well below .90 (χ^2/df ratio = 9.64; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .11; SRMR = .11; CFI = .46). The one-factor results for the

HVIC Scales thus supported a multifactor model in line with the theoretical conceptualisation of individualism/collectivism (see Chapter 6). The notion that individualism/collectivism is a single construct was not supported.

The results of the CFA confirmed that the modified four-dimensional model would be more appropriate than the one- or two-dimensional models, the latter being the most inappropriate in describing the data. The measurement model fit using CFA is shown in Figure 9.12. The model fit the data adequately with high GFI (.99), AFGI (.98) indices, and an SRMR index of .03 indicating a well-fitting model. Furthermore, the NFI (.96), TLI (.97) and CFI (.98) indices exceeded the thresholds recommended as indicators of good fit, while the RMSEA (90% CI) index of .03 (.02-.05) lent support to a good model fit. The AIC value of 86.25 confirmed the superiority of the modified four-factor model in relation to the single-factor and two-factor solutions. The χ^2 -value was 38.25 and χ^2/df was 1.82 with a p -value of .012. It was thus concluded that the hypothesised four-factor model fit the sample data adequately. Each of the items loaded significantly on the intended factor, with loadings ranging from .57 to .72.

Although a two-factor model reflecting individualism and collectivism as the dimensions of the individualism/collectivism construct failed to show a good model fit, the results as depicted in Figure 9.12 revealed an apparent significant correlation between horizontal and vertical attributes with respect to individualism (.30) and collectivism (.52). These correlations correspond to previous research utilising the HVIC Scales (Gouveia et al., 2003; Györkös et al., 2013) and were further explored in the second stage of the empirical analysis (see the bivariate correlational analyses in section 9.2).



Notes: Ind_Col_HC = horizontal collectivism; Ind_Col_HI = horizontal individualism; Ind_Col_VC = vertical collectivism; Ind_Col_VI = vertical individualism

Figure 9.12. Individualism/collectivism CFA Measurement Model

The empirical analysis supported Triandis and Gelfand's (1998b) view that individualism/collectivism should be regarded as a multidimensional construct that consists of four latent variables by showing a better model fit for the modified four-factor model than for the unidimensional and two-dimensional models. These findings support similar results that were obtained in other cultural settings (e.g. Chen & Li, 2005; Gouveia et al., 2003). The multidimensional conceptualisation of individualism/collectivism was therefore empirically confirmed by using a model-testing and theory-driven approach (CFA).

Harman's one-factor test and a single-factor CFA were conducted for the final measurement model (following model modifications) to ensure that common method variance did not pose a threat to the research findings. These results are reported in section 9.1.11.

9.1.10.3 *Validity and reliability of the Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales*

Convergent validity was established by first considering the standardised factor loadings. All of the factor loadings were significant ($> .50$), as reflected in Table 9.31. Although loadings in excess of $.70$ are preferred, a less conservative threshold of $.50$ is also deemed acceptable (Hair et al., 2014). The next step was to calculate the average variances extracted (AVE) for each construct. The horizontal individualism construct showed adequate convergence with an AVE value of $.51$ and Cronbach's alpha ($.68$) and composite reliability ($.68$) values slightly below the $.70$ threshold suggesting internal consistency. The results for the remaining three constructs (HC, VC and VI) suggested a lack of internal consistency. However, it has been suggested that lower levels of internal consistency may be expected, given the breadth of the individualism/collectivism construct (Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow, & Lawler, 2000). Also, the low alpha values may be ascribed to the limited number of items (i.e. 2 or 3 for each subscale) (Pallant, 2016; Peterson, 1994). Low Cronbach's alpha values have been reported in various studies that used multidimensional individualism/collectivism scales (see Kim & Cho, 2011). Kim and Cho (2011) reiterate that, although the multidimensional operationalisation of scales may enhance generality, it often impedes the internal consistency reliability of measures.

To determine discriminant validity, the maximum shared variance (MSV) and average shared variance (ASV) for all four dimensions were calculated. In all instances, both the MSV and ASV were lower than the AVE of each of the subscales, while the square root of AVE was greater than the inter-construct correlations, thus lending support to the discriminant validity of the scales.

Table 9.31

Summary of Descriptive Statistics and Psychometric Properties for the Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales

Construct	Items	Item descriptives				Construct descriptives				ITC	IIC	α	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	Factor loadings
		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis								
Horizontal collectivism (Ind_Col_HC)	Q1.3	6.07	.96	-1.71	4.80					.40							.58
	Q1.7	6.04	.98	-1.98	6.36	6.05	.72	-1.02	2.12	.41	.34	.61	.61	.34	.27	.11	.58
	Q1.13	6.05	.95	-1.62	4.35					.44							.60
	Q1.14	4.92	1.58	-.71	-.32	} Item discarded in final measurement model											
Horizontal individualism (Ind_Col_HI)	Q1.5	5.26	1.62	-.91	-.20	5.45	1.38	-1.00	.34	.51	.51	.68	.68	.51	.27	.11	.71
	Q1.6	5.63	1.54	-1.36	1.20					.51							.72
	Q1.4	5.05	1.54	-.88	-.06	} Items discarded in final measurement model											
	Q1.11	5.96	1.32	-1.94	3.87												
Vertical collectivism (Ind_Col_VC)	Q1.2	5.83	1.32	-1.40	1.75	5.90	1.10	-1.24	1.58	.38	.38	.56	.56	.39	.27	.11	.57
	Q1.12	5.98	1.32	-1.54	1.96					.38							.67
	Q1.9	5.76	1.11	-1.40	2.88	} Items discarded in final measurement model											
	Q1.10	6.06	1.25	-1.83	3.53												
Vertical individualism (Ind_Col_VI)	Q1.1	5.18	1.52	-1.00	.30	4.78	1.41	-.47	-.42	.38	.38	.54	.56	.39	.27	.11	.67
	Q1.16	4.39	1.86	-.23	-1.15					.38							.57
	Q1.8	5.79	1.23	-1.31	1.80	} Items discarded in final measurement model											
	Q1.15	2.73	1.62	.83	-.35												

Notes: n = 740. SD = standard deviation; ITC = item-to-total correlation; IIC = inter-item correlation; α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared variance; ASV = average shared variance

Scores: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree; 3 = somewhat disagree; 4 = neither agree or disagree; 5 = somewhat agree; 6 = agree; 7 = strongly agree

CFA measurement model fit: chi-square (df) = 38.25 (21), $p = .012$; CMIN/df = 1.82; GFI = .99; AGFI = .98; NFI = .96; TLI = .97; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .03;

SRMR = .0; AIC = 86.25.

9.1.10.4 Description of construct data: Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales

The means for each of the scales show that the respondents were slightly more collectivist than individualist, and more horizontally than vertically inclined.

The skewness and kurtosis values for the two individualism scales (HI and VI) were below 1, which indicated normal and symmetrical distributions. However, the collectivism scales (HC and HI) indicated values above 1. Hence, although there was some evidence of skewness and kurtosis in the data, it was unlikely to make a substantive difference in the analysis, given the large sample size ($n = 740$) (Pallant, 2016).

9.1.11 Common method variance

Because common method variance has been shown to present a potential threat of bias in behavioural research, especially with cross-sectional (single informative) surveys (Podsakoff et al., 2012), Harman's one-factor test was again conducted for the final measurement models adopted for each of the constructs (i.e. the items that were retained following model modification). The percentage variance explained by a single factor and the CFA model fit indices (CMIN/df, RMSEA, SRMR and CFI) for a unidimensional model for each of the final measurement models are reported in Table 9.32.

Table 9.32

Summary of the Structures and Psychometric Properties of the Final CFA Measurement Models

Construct	Measuring Instrument	Dimensions	Number of items	CR	Harman's one-factor test ^a	Model fit: One-factor solution ^b
Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale	Organisational citizenship behaviour – individual (OCB-I)	4	.75	34.64%	CMIN/df = 17.43 $p = .000$ RMSEA = .15 SRMR = .09 CFI = .78
		Organisational citizenship behaviour – organisation (OCB-O)	5	.79		

Construct	Measuring Instrument	Dimensions	Number of items	CR	Harman's one-factor test ^a	Model fit: One-factor solution ^b
Counter-productive work behaviour	Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale	Counterproductive work behaviour – organisation (CWB-O)	4	.72	54.03%	CMIN/df = 1.59 $p = .203$ RMSEA = .03 SRMR = .01 CFI = 1.00
Organisational commitment	Organisational Commitment Survey	Attitudinal commitment (OC-AttC)	6	.86	50.58%	CMIN/df = 12.15 $p = .000$ RMSEA = .12 SRMR = .06 CFI = .90
		Continuance commitment (OC-CC)	2	.63		
Union commitment	Union Commitment Scale	Union loyalty (UC-L)	6	.89	42.24%	CMIN/df = 7.25 $p = .000$ RMSEA = .16 SRMR = .11 CFI = .76
		Responsibility to the union (UC-R)	3	.69		
		Willingness to work for the union (UC-W)	2	.83		
Psychological contract breach and violation	Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures	Psychological contract violation (PCV-V)	4	.93	81.70%	CMIN/df = 7.11 $p = .001$ RMSEA = .09 SRMR = .01 CFI = 1.00
Perceived organisational justice	Justice Scale	Distributive justice (POJ-DJ)	3	.88	69.25%	CMIN/df = 10.02 $p = .000$ RMSEA = .11 SRMR = .06 CFI = .93
		Procedural and interactional justice (POJ-IJ-PJ)	13	.97		
Perceived organisational support	Survey of Perceived Organisational Support–Shortened Version	Perceived organisational support (POS)	6	.92	65.41%	CMIN/df = 1.67 $p = .099$ RMSEA = .03 SRMR = .01 CFI = 1.00

Construct	Measuring Instrument	Dimensions	Number of items	CR	Harman's one-factor test ^a	Model fit: One-factor solution ^b
Organisational cynicism	Organisational Cynicism Scale	Cognitive cynicism (CCyn)	5	.92	69.00%	CMIN/df = 3.17 $p = .007$ RMSEA = .05 SRMR = .01 CFI = 1.00
Organisational trust	Trust in Management Scale	Organisational trust (OT)	3	.88	80.27%	CMIN/df = n/a $p = n/a$ RMSEA = .74 SRMR = .00 CFI = 1.00
Individualism/collectivism	Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales	Horizontal collectivism (HC)	3	.61	24.09%	CMIN/df = 18.55 $p = .000$ RMSEA = .15 SRMR = .12 CFI = .45
		Horizontal individualism (HI)	2	.68		
		Vertical collectivism (VC)	2	.56		
		Vertical individualism (VI)	2	.56		

Notes: CR = composite reliability; CMIN/df = relative chi-square; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardised root mean squared residual; CFI = comparative fit index;

^a Harman's one-factor test indicates the percentage variance explained by a single factor in the final measurement model.

^b Model fit statistics for a single-factor model consisting of all retained items in the final measurement model.

The EFA (Harman's one-factor test) and CFA (one-factor model) results, as reflected in Table 9.32, suggest that the following constructs should be regarded as unidimensional constructs in this sample: counterproductive work behaviour – organisation (CWB-O), psychological contract violation (PCV-V), perceived organisational support (POS), cognitive cynicism (CCyn) and organisational trust (OT). In all these instances, single underlying factors accounted for more than 50 per cent of total variance and the single-factor model showed adequate model fit.

It was determined that the remaining constructs should be regarded as multidimensional

constructs. The one-factor results for these constructs, as reflected in Table 9.32, are briefly described below.

- The one-factor solution for the modified Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale adopted in the final CFA measurement model showed that the construct accounted for 34.64 per cent of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the nine Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale observed variables onto a single latent factor in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well (χ^2/df ratio = 17.43; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .15; SRMR = .09; CFI = .78).
- Although the one-factor solution for the modified Organisational Commitment Survey adopted in the final CFA measurement model showed that the construct accounted for 50.58 per cent of the covariance among the scale variables, the appropriateness of a single-factor solution was not supported by the model fit statistics. When loading the eight observed variables of the final CFA derived OCB measurement model onto a single latent factor, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well (χ^2/df ratio = 12.15; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .12; SRMR = .06; CFI = .90).
- The one-factor solution for the modified Union Commitment Scale adopted in the final CFA measurement model showed that the construct accounted for 42.24 per cent of the covariance among the scale variables. In addition, when loading the nine observed variables retained in the Union Commitment Scale onto a single latent factor in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well (χ^2/df ratio = 7.25; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .16; SRMR = .11; CFI = .76) lending support for a multidimensional measurement model.
- The one-factor solution for the modified Justice Scale adopted in the final CFA measurement model showed that the construct accounted for 69.25 per cent of the covariance among the scale variables. Although the single-factor EFA results thus suggested a unidimensional solution, the CFA model fit statistics did not support this. When loading the 16 observed variables of the final CFA derived POJ measurement model onto a single latent factor, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well (χ^2/df ratio = 10.02; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .11; SRMR = .06; CFI = .93).
- For the HVIC Scales, the one-factor solution for the modified scale adopted in the final CFA measurement model showed that the construct accounted for 24.09 per cent of

the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the nine observed variables of the final CFA derived individualism/collectivism measurement model onto a single latent factor, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well (χ^2/df ratio = 18.55; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .15; SRMR = .12; CFI = .45). The CFA model fit statistics confirmed that a multifactor model was more appropriate for measuring individualism/collectivism.

In line with the guidelines of Podsakoff et al. (2003), the one-factor results for these scales suggested that common method bias did not pose a serious threat to the research findings.

9.1.12 Summary

In summary, the measuring scales used in this research were subjected to a range of analyses to ensure validity and reliability. It was determined that five of the ten constructs measured (CWB, PCV, POS, organisational cynicism and organisational trust) should be regarded as unidimensional constructs, while the remaining constructs (OCB, organisational commitment, union commitment, POJ and individualism/collectivism) were shown to be multidimensional. Decisions in terms of the dimensionality of the constructs were informed by both theoretical conceptualisation and the empirical results.

Measurements of central tendency (means) and dispersion (standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis) were calculated and reported for each construct as a means of describing typical tendencies among respondents and identifying potential deviations from a normal distribution. The descriptive statistics showed that respondents regularly engaged in OCB towards both their employing organisations and individuals in these organisations. In contrast, respondents reported low levels of CWB, indicating that they rarely engaged in behaviour that was detrimental towards their employing organisations. Although their behaviour in and towards their employing organisations therefore seemed positive, they did not report feeling a strong emotional attachment to or moral obligation towards their organisations, suggesting a general absence of AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles among respondents. The costs associated with leaving (continuance commitment) had a greater influence on respondents' decision to remain in their organisations than their attitudinal disposition towards these organisations (i.e. attitudinal commitment, which incorporates both AC and NC). It could thus be deduced that respondents were more likely to display CC-dominant commitment profiles, which implies that, although they might feel compelled to remain in their organisations, they would be less likely (in comparison with individuals' with a strong AC/NC-dominant profile) to engage in positive discretionary behaviour for the benefit of the organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Trade

union members reported high levels of loyalty and responsibility towards their unions, but were less inclined to participate in union-related activities beyond what is required of normal union membership.

Generally, respondents did not report high levels of psychological contract violation and seemed to perceive their work outcomes and the means employers use to achieve these outcomes as fair (POJ). Although the results suggested that respondents felt that their employers mostly valued their contributions and cared about their well-being (POS) and did not harbour excessive negative perceptions about the integrity and intentions of their employing organisations and its leaders (organisational cynicism), high levels of organisational trust were not reported.

Finally, the results showed that the respondents appeared to be slightly more collectivist than individualist in nature, and more horizontally than vertically inclined. Therefore, while they were likely to emphasise common goals, interdependence and amiability, they were less likely to submit easily to authority.

The findings reported in this section were taken into account in the statistical analyses and interpretation of the findings.

9.2 CORRELATION STATISTICS

In order to investigate the relationship between the independent, mediating, moderating and dependent variables in this study, the descriptive statistics had to be transformed into explanatory (correlational) statistics to determine whether the results provided adequate evidence in support of research hypothesis H1.

H1: There are significant relationships between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), organisational cynicism and trust, and individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism.

Since the data was parametric, the inter-relationships between the variables were computed using Pearson's product moment correlations. These correlations allowed the researcher to identify the direction and strength of the relationship between each of the variables. In terms of statistical significance, it was decided to set the value in terms of statistical significance at a 95 per cent confidence interval level ($p \leq .05$). A Pearson's r of .10 to .29 was indicative of

a small practical effect size, while $r \geq .30 < .50$ presented a medium practical effect and $r \geq .50$ a large practical effect (Cohen, 1988). The calculated effect sizes were interpreted in the context of extant literature (Field, 2018).

The bivariate correlations between work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) as independent variables, organisational cynicism and trust as mediating variables, individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism as a moderating variable and relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as dependent variables are reported in Table 9.33.

9.2.1 Bivariate correlations among the scale variables

As a point departure, the bivariate correlations among the scale variables in terms of the five multidimensional constructs (OCB, organisational commitment, union commitment, POJ and individualism/collectivism) were examined.

As indicated in Table 9.33, the results showed that there were significant positive bivariate correlations between the two subscale dimensions (OCB-I and OCB-O) of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale ($r = .45$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Both the OCB-I and OCB-O subscale dimensions correlated positively and significantly with the overall OCB construct ($r \geq .84 \leq .86$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$).

Similarly, significant positive bivariate correlations were reported between the two organisational commitment subscale dimensions (attitudinal commitment and continuance commitment; $r = .45$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and between these two subscale dimensions and the overall organisational commitment construct ($r \geq .83 \leq .87$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$).

In the case of union commitment, the values of the significant bivariate correlations among the three subscale dimensions of the Union Commitment Survey ranged from $r \geq .32$ to $\leq .41$ (medium practical effect; $p \leq .01$). The three subscale dimensions – union loyalty, responsibility to the union and willingness to work for the union – also had significant and positive correlations with the overall union commitment construct ($r \geq .69 \leq .85$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$).

Table 9.33

Bivariate Correlations between Independent (POS, POJ and Psychological Contract Violation), Dependent (Organisational and Union Commitment, OCB and CWB), Mediating (Organisational Cynicism and Trust) and Moderating (Individualism/collectivism) Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
1 OCB – individual	-																							
2 OCB – organisation	.45 **	-																						
3 OCB (overall scale)	.84 **	.86 **	-																					
4 CWB – organisation	-.16 **	-.23 **	-.23 **	-																				
5 Attitudinal commitment	.06	.48 **	.32 **	-.07	-																			
6 Continuance commitment	.03	.14 **	.10 **	.02	.45 **	-																		
7 Organisational commitment (overall scale)	.05	.35 **	.24 **	-.02	.83 **	.87 **	-																	
8 Union loyalty	.10	.26 **	.21 **	-.08	.20 **	.04	.13 *	-																
9 Responsibility to the union	.13 *	.11	.14 *	.03	.04	.08	.07	.32 **	-															
10 Willingness to work for the union	-.01	.11	.06	.01	.12	.15 *	.15 *	.41 **	.38 **	-														
11 Union commitment (overall scale)	.08	.20 **	.17 **	-.02	.16 *	.12	.16 *	.73 **	.69 **	.85 **	-													
12 Psychological contract violation	-.04	-.42 **	-.28 **	.15 **	-.49 **	-.08 *	-.32 **	-.16 *	.05	.04	-.03	-												

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
13 Distributive justice	.04	.30 **	.20 **	.03	.41 **	.14 **	.31 **	.17 **	-.02	-.02	.05	-.55 **	-										
14 Procedural and interactional justice	.02	.35 **	.23 **	-.05	.54 **	.12 **	.37 **	.16 *	-.06	-.00	.04	-.66 **	.64 **	-									
15 Perceived organisational justice (overall scale)	.03	.36 **	.24 **	-.02	.52 **	.14 **	.38 **	.18 **	-.04	-.01	.05	-.67 **	.91 **	.91 **	-								
16 Perceived organisational support	.05	.44 **	.30 **	-.08 *	.60 **	.12 **	.40 **	.18 **	-.01	.07	.10	-.65 **	.56 **	.76 **	.73 **	-							
17 Cognitive cynicism	-.03	-.43 **	-.28 **	.13 **	-.51 **	-.08 *	-.33 **	-.09	.09	-.02	-.01	.77 **	-.48 **	-.62 **	-.61 **	-.62 **	-						
18 Organisational trust	-.00	.31 **	.18 **	.01	.54 **	.12 **	.37 **	.08	.06	.14 *	.12 *	-.47 **	.38 **	.57 **	.53 **	.59 **	-.50 **	-					
19 Horizontal collectivism	.34 **	.30 **	.37 **	-.20 **	.20 **	.01	.11 **	.24 **	.23 **	.18 **	.27 **	-.16 **	.12 **	.18 **	.16 **	.24 **	-.20 **	.11 **	-				
20 Horizontal individualism	-.00	-.04	-.03	-.00	-.04	.06	.02	-.01	.05	-.04	-.01	.10 **	-.04	-.00	-.03	-.04	.10 **	-.09 *	-.14 **	-			
21 Vertical collectivism	.16 **	.09 *	.14 **	-.05	.05	.02	.04	.02	.08	.02	.05	.03	-.00	.03	.02	.06	.00	.01	.30 **	.10 **	-		
22 Vertical individualism	-.03	.01	-.01	.00	.07 *	.02	.05	.10	.12	.19 **	.18 **	.01	.07	.08 *	.08 *	.10 **	-.04	.06	.10 **	.18 **	.26 **	-	
23 Individualism/collectivism (overall scale)	.13 **	.10 **	.14 **	-.07	.09 *	.05	.08 *	.12	.17 **	.13 *	.18 **	.02	.04	.10 **	.08 *	.12 **	-.02	.02	.36 **	.59 **	.65 **	.72 **	-

Notes: n = 740 except for variables 8, 9, 10 and 11 where n = 251 (i.e. trade union members only); * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; significant correlations are indicated in bold; $r \geq .10 \leq .29$ = small practical effect; $r \geq .30 < .50$ = medium practical effect; $r \geq .50$ = large practical effect

For the perceived organisational justice construct, significant positive bivariate correlations were reported between the two subscale dimensions (distributive justice and procedural and interactional justice; $r = .64$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Significant positive bivariate correlations were also shown between these two subscale dimensions and the overall organisational commitment construct ($r = .91$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$).

In the case of the individualism/collectivism scale construct, the values of the significant bivariate correlations among the four subscale dimensions of the HVIC Scales ranged from $r \geq .10$ to $\leq .30$ (small to medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The four subscale dimensions also had significant and positive correlations with the overall individualism/collectivism scale construct ($r \geq .36$ to $\leq .72$; medium to large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$).

Overall, the results of the bivariate correlation analyses of the multidimensional constructs indicated significant correlations among the scale and subscale variables on the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale, Organisational Commitment Survey, Union Commitment Scale, Justice Scale and the HVIC Scales, with values ranging from small to large practical effect size.

9.2.2 Bivariate correlations between the ten scale variables

This section reports on the results of the bivariate correlation analyses between the overall scales and subscales of all ten scale variables reflecting the constructs (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB, POS, POJ, psychological contract violation, organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism) of relevance in this study.

9.2.2.1 *Bivariate correlations between organisational commitment and union commitment as independent variables and OCB and CWB as dependent variables*

This section reports on the bivariate relationships between the scales and subscales measuring organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB.

Significant negative bivariate relationships were observed between all the OCB scale and subscale variables and CWB-O. The results indicated that the overall OCB scale negatively and significantly correlated with CWB-O ($r = -.23$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$), while the

OCB-I ($r = -.16$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and OCB-O ($r = -.23$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) subscale variables showed similar negative relationships with CWB-O.

Organisational commitment as an overall construct showed significant positive correlations with the overall OCB construct ($r = .24$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$), as well as OCB directed towards the organisation ($r = .35$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Significant positive correlations were furthermore found between attitudinal commitment and both the overall OCB scale ($r = .32$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and OCB-O subscale variables ($r = .48$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Finally, continuance commitment was shown to positively and significantly correlate with both the overall OCB construct ($r = .10$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and OCB-O ($r = .14$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). No significant relationships were found between organisational commitment and OCB-I or CWB.

In terms of union commitment, significant positive correlations were reported between union commitment as an overall construct and the overall OCB ($r = .17$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and organisational commitment constructs ($r = .16$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$). Significant positive correlations were also found between union commitment as an overall construct and OCB-O ($r = .20$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and attitudinal commitment ($r = .16$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$) respectively. In addition, significant positive correlations were reported between union loyalty and the overall OCB ($r = .21$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and organisational commitment constructs ($r = .13$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$) as well as the OCB-O ($r = .26$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and attitudinal commitment ($r = .20$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) subscale constructs. Responsibility to the union showed significant positive correlations with the overall OCB construct ($r = .14$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$) as well as the OCB-I subscale construct ($r = .13$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$), while willingness to work for the union significantly and positively correlated with continuance commitment and the overall organisational commitment construct ($r = .15$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$).

Overall, the results thus showed significant positive correlations between organisational commitment and OCB as an overall construct (small practical effect size) as well as OCB directed at the organisation (medium practical effect size). No statistically significant relationships were found between organisational commitment and OCB directed towards individuals in the organisation or CWB. Significant positive correlations were also reported between union commitment as an overall construct and OCB, OCB-O, attitudinal commitment and organisational commitment as an overall construct (small practical size effect). Union commitment as an overall construct did not correlate significantly with OCB-I, CWB-O or

continuance commitment.

Significant negative correlations with a small practical effect size were observed between the two dependent variables (OCB and CWB) relating to relational behaviour in the workplace, (negative relationship), as well as the two dependent variables relating to relational attitudes in the workplace (i.e. a positive relationship between the overall organisational and union commitment variables). The r -values were well below the threshold value ($r > .80$) that would suggest multicollinearity concerns (Field, 2018).

9.2.2.2 *Bivariate correlations between POS, POJ and psychological contract violation as independent variables and organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB as dependent variables*

This section reports on the bivariate relationships between the scales and subscales measuring POS, POJ and psychological contract violation, as well as the significant correlations between these independent variables and the dependent variables (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) of relevance in this study.

Both POS and POJ were shown to negatively and significantly correlate with psychological contract violation ($r \geq -.67$ to $\leq -.65$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$), while a significant positive correlation was shown to exist between POS and POJ ($r = .73$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). POS also showed significant positive correlations ($p \leq .01$) of $r = .56$ with distributive justice and $r = .76$ with procedural and interactional justice as subscales of the organisational justice construct. Significant negative correlations existed between psychological contract violation and the distributive justice subscale ($r = -.55$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$), as well as psychological contract violation and the procedural and interactional justice subscale construct ($r = -.66$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$).

As indicated in Table 9.33, the results furthermore showed that there were negative significant relationships between psychological contract violation and the overall OCB and organisational commitment scale variables ($r \geq -.32$ to $\leq -.28$; small to medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Significant negative relationships were also reported between psychological contract violation and OCB-O ($r = -.42$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$), attitudinal commitment ($r = -.49$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and union loyalty ($r = -.16$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$) as subscale constructs. Although a significant negative relationship between psychological contract violation and continuance commitment was reported ($r = -.08$; $p \leq .05$),

the effect size of this correlation was negligible. A significant and positive correlation was reported between psychological contract violation and CWB-O ($r = .15$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$).

No significant correlations were reported between psychological contract violation and the union commitment overall scale variable, or between psychological contract violation and the OCB-I, responsibility to the union and willingness to work for the union subscale variables.

For the overall perceived organisational justice scale variable, significant positive correlations existed between POJ and the OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, continuance commitment and union loyalty ($r \geq .14$ to $\leq .52$; small to large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) subscale variables, as well as the overall OCB ($r = .24$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and organisational commitment ($r = .38$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) scale variables. Similar results were obtained for the two organisational justice subscale variables, which reported correlations ranging from $r \geq .12$ to $\leq .54$ (small to large practical effect size; $p \leq .05$) with the OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, continuance commitment and union loyalty subscale variables as well as the overall OCB and organisational commitment scale variables.

No significant correlations were reported between POJ (overall and subscale variables) and OCB-I, CWB-O or union commitment (overall construct, responsibility to the union and willingness to work for the union).

Finally, POS was shown to be significantly and positively correlated to OCB and organisational commitment ($r \geq .30$ to $\leq .40$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) as overall scale constructs, as well as OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, continuance commitment and union loyalty ($r \geq .12$ to $\leq .60$; small to large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) subscale constructs. Although a significant negative correlation between POS and CWB-O was reported ($r = -.08$, $p \leq .01$), the practical effect size was negligible. No significant correlations were reported between POS and OCB-I or union commitment (overall construct, responsibility to the union and willingness to work for the union).

Overall, the results showed negative and significant bivariate correlations between both POS and POJ and psychological contract violation and a significant positive correlation between POS and POJ. The distributive justice and the procedural and interactional justice subscale constructs showed significant negative bivariate correlations with psychological contract violation and significant positive bivariate correlations with POS.

In terms of the relationships between psychological contract violation and the attitudinal (organisational and union commitment) and behavioural (OCB and CWB) dependent variables, significant negative relationships were shown to exist between psychological contract violation and OCB (overall scale and OCB-O), organisational commitment (overall scale and subscales), as well as union loyalty. A significant and positive correlation was reported between psychological contract violation and CWB-O.

For POJ (overall scale and subscale variables), significant positive correlations were reported with OCB (overall scale and OCB-O), organisational commitment (overall scale and subscale variables) and union loyalty.

POS was shown to be significantly and positively correlated with OCB (overall construct and OCB-O), organisational commitment (overall scale and subscale constructs) and union loyalty. A significant negative correlation between POS and CWB-O was also reported, but the practical effect size was negligible. The r -values were well below the threshold value ($r > .80$) that would suggest multicollinearity concerns (Field, 2018).

9.2.2.3 Bivariate correlations between POS, POJ and psychological contract violation as independent variables and organisational cynicism and trust as dependent variables

The results for the cognitive cynicism scale construct showed a significant positive correlation between cognitive cynicism and psychological contract violation ($r = .77$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$), while significant negative relationships were reported between cognitive cynicism and both POJ ($r = -.61$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and POS ($r = -.62$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Significant negative correlations ranging between $r \geq -.62$ to $\leq -.48$ (medium to large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) were also reported between organisational cynicism and the organisational justice (i.e. distributive justice and procedural and interactional justice) subscale variables.

In terms of organisational trust, significant positive correlations were shown to exist between organisational trust and POJ (overall and subscale variables) and POS ($r \geq .38$ to $\leq .59$; medium to large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$), while a significant negative correlation between organisational trust and psychological contract violation ($r = -.47$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) was reported.

Organisational cynicism and trust were shown to be significantly and negatively correlated ($r = -.50$ (large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The r -values were well below the threshold value ($r > .80$) that would suggest multicollinearity concerns (Field, 2018).

9.2.2.4 *Bivariate correlations between organisational cynicism and trust as independent variables and employees' relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as dependent variables*

Significant negative correlations were shown to exist between organisational cynicism and OCB ($r = -.28$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and organisational commitment ($r = -.33$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) as overall scale variables. Organisational cynicism also correlated significantly and negatively with OCB-O ($r = -.43$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and attitudinal commitment ($r = -.51$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and positively with CWB-O ($r = .13$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Although a significant negative correlation between cognitive cynicism and continuance commitment was found ($r = -.08$; $p \leq .05$), the practical effect size was negligible. No significant relationships were found to exist between cognitive cynicism and OCB-I or union commitment (overall scale and subscales).

Organisational trust was shown to be significantly and positively related to OCB ($r = .18$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and organisational commitment ($r = .37$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) as overall scale constructs, as well as OCB-O, attitudinal commitment and continuance commitment ($r \geq .12$ to $\leq .54$; small to large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) as subscale variables. Organisational trust also showed significant positive correlations, albeit with a small practical effect size, with union commitment ($r = .12$; $p \leq .05$) as an overall scale construct and willingness to work for the union ($r = .14$; $p \leq .05$) as a subscale variable. No significant relationships existed between organisational trust and OCB-I, CWB-O, union loyalty or responsibility to the union. The r -values were well below the threshold value ($r > .80$) that would suggest multicollinearity concerns (Field, 2018).

9.2.2.5 *Bivariate correlations between individualism/collectivism as an independent variable and employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ, psychological contract violation), their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as dependent variables*

In terms of the overall individualism/collectivism construct, Table 9.33 indicates that significant positive correlations existed between individualism/collectivism as an overall construct and OCB ($r = .14$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and union commitment ($r = .18$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) as overall scale constructs. Although significant positive correlations were shown to exist between individualism/collectivism as an overall scale construct and organisational commitment and POJ as overall scale constructs, as well as attitudinal commitment as a subscale variable, the effect size was negligible ($r \geq .08$ to $\leq .09$; $p \leq .05$). Significant and positive relationships with a small effect size were also reported between individualism/collectivism and OCB-I, OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, responsibility to the union, willingness to work for the union, procedural and interactional justice and POS ($r \geq .09$ to $\leq .17$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$).

Horizontal collectivism, as a subscale variable, had significant positive correlations with OCB as an overall construct ($r = .37$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) as well as OCB-I ($r = .34$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and OCB-O ($r = .30$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) as subscale variables. In addition significant positive correlations, ranging from $r \geq .11$ to $\leq .27$ (small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$), were reported between horizontal collectivism and attitudinal commitment, organisational commitment (overall scale), union loyalty, responsibility to the union, willingness to work for the union, union commitment (overall scale), distributive justice, procedural and interactional justice, organisational justice (overall scale), POS and organisational trust. Significant negative correlations between horizontal collectivism and CWB-O, psychological contract violation and cognitive cynicism ($r \geq -.16$ to $\leq -.20$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) were also shown to exist.

Fewer significant correlations were evident between the other individualism/collectivism subscale variables and the independent, mediating and dependent variables of relevance in this study. Significant positive bivariate correlations were reported between horizontal individualism and psychological contract violation ($r = .10$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) as well as cognitive cynicism ($r = .10$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$), while a significant and

negative relationship was evident between horizontal individualism and organisational trust ($r = -.09$; $p \leq .01$) with a negligible practical effect size. Significant positive bivariate correlations were also found to exist between vertical collectivism and OCB (overall scale and subscale constructs) with r ranging between .09 and .16 ($p \leq .05$), suggesting a negligible to small practical effect size. Vertical individualism was shown to be significantly and positively correlated to willingness to work for the union ($r = .19$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$), overall union commitment ($r = .19$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and POS ($r = .10$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Although significant bivariate relationships were reported between vertical individualism and attitudinal commitment ($r = .07$; $p \leq .05$), procedural and interactional justice ($r = .08$; $p \leq .05$) and organisational justice as an overall scale construct ($r = .08$; $p \leq .05$), the practical effect size of these correlations was negligible.

Overall, the results in terms of the individualism/collectivism construct and its subscale constructs suggested the existence of a number of significant bivariate correlations between individualism/collectivism and the independent, mediating and dependent variables of relevance in this study. The only instances in which no significant correlations were evident, were between individualism/collectivism (overall scale and subscale constructs) and continuance commitment. The r -values were well below the threshold value ($r > .80$) that would suggest multicollinearity concerns (Field, 2018).

9.2.2.6 *Preliminary analysis 1: Towards constructing a psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour*

Overall, the results of the correlation analyses indicated significant bivariate correlations between the independent, mediating, moderating and dependent variables (scales and subscales) of relevance in this study. The direction and magnitude of the significant (i.e. those that were statistically significant and had small to large practical effect sizes) bivariate correlations between the independent, mediating, moderating and dependent scale variables allowed for an initial assessment of the extent to which the data supported the integrated theorised psychological framework proposed in Chapter 7 (see Figure 7.1).

The results provided support for the premise that POS, POJ and psychological contract violation may be regarded as antecedents of OCB (notably OCB-O) and organisational commitment (mainly attitudinal commitment) as significant bivariate correlations in the expected directions were reported. POS and POJ were significantly and positively related to OCB-O and attitudinal commitment, while psychological contract violation was significantly

and negatively related to these outcome variables. Although, some significant correlations between these antecedent variables and CWB and union commitment as outcome variables were reported, these relationships were weak, which implied that alternative antecedents to CWB and union commitment might exist that had not been tested as part of the proposed framework.

Significant bivariate relationships were also shown to exist between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) variables. Organisational cynicism was significantly and positively related to psychological contract violation and significantly and negatively related to POS and POJ. In contrast, organisational trust was significantly and positively related to POS and POJ and significantly and negatively related to psychological contract violation.

Finally, the results confirmed the expected relationships between OCB (mainly OCB-O) and organisational commitment (specifically attitudinal commitment) and the two mediating variables. OCB-O and attitudinal commitment were significantly and negatively correlated with organisational cynicism, while a significant positive relationship between these outcome variables and organisational trust were shown to exist. The results suggested that organisational cynicism and trust were not strong predictors of CWB and union commitment.

Although all the theorised relationships between the variables were not empirically confirmed, the reported correlations provided evidence of associations, which warranted further investigation. The results thus provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H1.

H1: There are significant relationships between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), organisational cynicism and trust, and individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism.

9.3 INFERENCE AND MULTIVARIATE STATISTICS

Inferential and multivariate statistics were used to draw conclusions from the population and were reported and interpreted in the following six steps, as reflected in Figure 8.10 in Chapter

8:

- (1) Canonical correlation analysis
- (2) Structural equation modelling
- (3) Mediation analysis

- (4) Moderation analysis
- (5) Multiple regression analysis
- (6) Tests for significant mean differences and post hoc tests to ascertain the source of differences

9.3.1 Canonical correlation analysis

Canonical correlation analysis (CCA) was used to test research hypotheses H2, H3 and H4:

H2: There is a significant relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, and individualism/collectivism, as a composite set of independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

H3: There is a significant relationship between horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

H4: There is a significant relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), as a composite set of independent variables, and organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

Canonical correlation analyses were conducted to assess the overall relationships between three sets of latent independent and latent dependent variables, as outlined in empirical research aims 2, 3 and 4 (see Table 8.12 in Chapter 8). The relationships between the following three sets of latent dependent and independent variables were assessed:

- Set 1 consisted of work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent independent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables (research hypothesis H2).

- Set 2 included horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of latent independent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables (research hypothesis H3).
- Set 3 incorporated work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), as a composite set of independent variables, and organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent dependent variables (research hypothesis H4).

Canonical correlation analysis was deemed an appropriate analytical technique as it involves an investigation of relationships between two composite sets of multiple variables and limits the probability of committing Type I errors (i.e. the possibility of rejecting a true null hypothesis) (Salkind, 2018; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). The CANCELL procedure in IBM SPSS version 25 (IBM Corp, 2017) was used to conduct the analyses.

In an effort to counteract the probability of a Type I error, the significance value to interpret the results was set at the 95 per cent confidence interval level ($Fp \leq .05$). Wilks' lambda chi-square test, Pillai's trace, Hotelling's trace and Roy's greatest characteristic root were used to test for the significance of the overall canonical correlation between the independent and dependent latent variables of a canonical function (Meyers et al., 2017). Moreover, Wilks' Lambda r^2 type effect size (yielded by $1 - \lambda$) was utilised to determine the practical significance of the findings (Cohen, 1992). Although the CCA provides various multivariate test criteria for assessing significance, the Wilk's multivariate criterion lambda (λ) was used because it allows researchers to assess the practical significance ($1 - \lambda = r^2$ -type metric of effect size) of the full canonical model (Sherry & Henson, 2005).

The cut-off criteria for the canonical correlations are generally accepted and set at R_c loading $\geq .30$. The squared canonical correlation (R_c^2) values of $\leq .12$ (small practical effect), $\geq .13 \leq .25$ (medium practical effect) and $\geq .26$ (large practical effect) (Cohen, 1992) were taken into consideration in the interpretation of the strength and practical significance of the results.

9.3.1.1 Canonical correlation analysis: Testing research hypothesis H2

The first CCA was aimed at clarifying the overall relationship between two canonical variates – the variate for the composite set of independent variables represented by work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, and individualism/collectivism (horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism) and the composite set of dependent variables that include relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB). These variable sets are depicted in Figure 9.13.

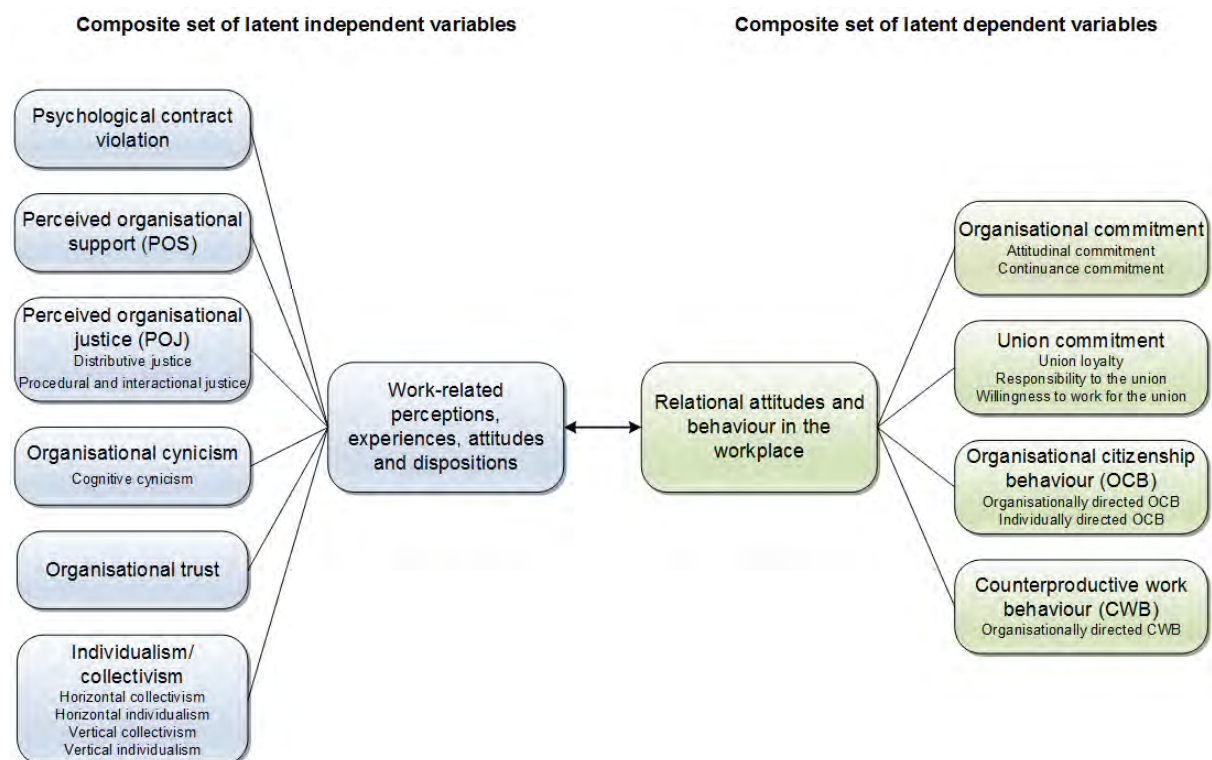


Figure 9.13. Canonical Correlation Analysis: Work-related Perceptions, Experiences, Attitudes and Dispositions as a Composite Set of Independent Variables and Relational Attitudes and Behaviour as a Composite Set of Dependent Variables

The results of the CCA are reported in Tables 9.34 and 9.35.

Table 9.34

Canonical Correlation Analysis: Overall Model Fit Statistics Relating to Work-related Perceptions and Work Experiences (POS, POJ and Psychological Contract Violation), Organisational Cynicism and Trust, Individualism/collectivism, Relational Attitudes (Organisational Commitment and Union Commitment) and Relational Behaviour (OCB and CWB)

Measures of overall model fit for canonical correlation analysis					
Canonical function	Overall canonical correlation (R_c)	Overall squared canonical correlation (R_c^2)	Eigenvalue	F statistics	Probability (p)
1	.70	.49	.98	4.09	.000***
2	.48	.23	.31	2.29	.000***
3	.38	.14	.17	1.60	.006**
4	.27	.07	.08	1.12	.295
5	.20	.04	.04	.86	.652
6	.17	.03	.03	.74	.749
7	.11	.01	.01	.46	.885
8	.06	.00	.00	.30	.827

Multivariate tests of significance			
Statistics	Value	Approximate F statistic	Probability (p)
Wilks' lambda (λ)	.28	4.09	.000***
Pillai's trace	1.03	3.54	.000***
Hotelling-Lawley's trace	1.61	4.66	.000***
Roy's greatest root ^a	.49		

Notes: $n = 740$. *** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$

$R_c^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect size); $R_c^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$ (moderate practical effect size); $R_c^2 \geq .26$ (large practical effect size).

^a Because Roy's greatest root represents only one canonical function rather than the set, it is not evaluated for statistical significance.

Eight canonical functions for the model, as reflected in Table 9.34, were derived from the CCA. Wilk's lambda and corresponding F -tests were used to evaluate the null hypothesis that canonical correlation coefficients for all functions are zero. For this model, three of the eight canonical functions were significant ($p < .01$). The full canonical model was statistically significant across the eight functions, with a Wilk's lambda (λ) of .28, $F(80, 1486.35) = 4.09$, $p < .001$. The results of the other multivariate significance tests (Pillai's trace, Hotelling-Lawley

trace and Roy's greatest root) also indicated that the canonical functions, taken collectively, were statistically significant ($p \leq .001$). These results suggest the existence of a significant relationship between the two variable sets (Sherry & Henson, 2005). The magnitude of the relationship, as reflected in the r^2 metric of effect size (yielded by $1 - \lambda: 1 - .28$), was .72 (large practical effect; $Fp < .001$), which indicates that the full model explained a substantial proportion (about 72%) of the variance shared between the two sets of variables.

The canonical correlation of the first function was .70, and this function contributed 49 per cent ($Rc^2 = .49$; large practical effect) of the explained variance relative to the eight functions. The second canonical function ($Rc = .48$) explained only a further 23 per cent of the variance shared between the two canonical variate sets, and the third function ($Rc = .38$) a mere 14 per cent. The first function was deemed practically sufficient for interpreting the links between the two sets of variables. Although the second and third functions were statistically significant, they did not have any practical significance as they did not explain a large proportion of the dependent variables' variance. Hence, only the results of the first canonical function were considered for testing research hypothesis H2.

From the results presented in Table 8.34, it could be deduced that the independent canonical construct variate (the composite set of work-related perceptions and work experiences – POS, POJ and psychological contract violation – organisational cynicism and trust, and personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism) contributed significantly ($Rc^2 = .49$; large practical effect) to explaining the variance in relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB).

Standardised canonical correlation coefficients and canonical loadings, as reflected in Table 9.35, were used to evaluate the relative importance of variables in the model.

Table 9.35

*Results of the Standardised Canonical Correlation Analysis for the First Canonical Function
(First Variable Set)*

Variates/variables	Standardised canonical correlation coefficient (canonical weight)	Structure coefficient (canonical loading, R_c)	Canonical cross- loadings (R_c)	Squared multiple correlation (R_c^2)
Work-related perceptions and work experiences, organisational cynicism and trust and personal disposition (composite set of latent independent variables)				
Psychological contract violation	-.12	.66	.47	.22
Distributive justice	.00	-.54	-.38	.15
Procedural and interactional justice	-.10	-.76	-.54	.29
Perceived organisational support	-.37	-.85	-.59	.35
Organisational cynicism	.40	.80	.57	.32
Organisational trust	-.38	-.81	-.57	.33
Horizontal collectivism	-.04	-.28	-.20	.04
Horizontal individualism	.12	.28	.20	.04
Vertical collectivism	-.01	-.10	-.07	.00
Vertical individualism	-.04	-.18	-.13	.02
Shared variance ^a (R_c) = .49; variance explained ^b (R_c) = .35; redundancy index ^c (R_I) = .17				
Relational attitudes and behaviour (composite set of latent dependent variables)				
Organisational citizenship behaviour – Individual	.11	.02	.02	.00
Organisational citizenship behaviour – Organisation	-.23	-.54	-.38	.14
Counterproductive work behaviour – Organisation	-.05	.00	.00	.00
Attitudinal commitment	-1.03	-.88	-.62	.38
Continuance commitment	.48	-.08	-.06	.00
Union loyalty	.06	-.20	-.14	.02
Responsibility to the union	.05	.01	.01	.00
Willingness to work for the union	-.11	-.15	-.11	.01
Shared variance ^a (R_c) = .49; Variance explained ^b (R_c) = .14; Redundancy index ^c (R_I) = .07				
Overall model fit measure (function 1):				
F(p) = 4.09 ($p < .001$)				
df = 80; 1486.35				

Variates/variables	Standardised canonical correlation coefficient (canonical weight)	Structure coefficient (canonical loading, R_c)	Canonical cross- loadings (R_c)	Squared multiple correlation (R_c^2)
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Wilks' lambda (λ) = .28

r^2 type effect size: $1 - \lambda = .72$ (large practical effect)

Notes: $n = 740$. R_c -values $\geq .30$ are indicated in bold. $R_c^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect size); $R_c^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$ (moderate practical effect size); $R_c^2 \geq .26$ (large practical effect size).

^a The amount of shared variance in the variable set (dependent or independent) included in the (dependent or independent) canonical variate.

^b The proportion of variance in the (dependent or independent) canonical variate that can be explained by the other canonical variate.

^c The amount of variance in the original variables of one set of variables in a canonical function that is explained by the canonical variate of the other set of variables in that canonical function.

As mentioned above, the cut-off criteria for factorial loadings ($R_c \geq .30$) were used to determine the significance of the canonical structure correlations (Hair et al., 2014). For the purpose of this study, only the singular canonical structure correlations (loadings) and the squared canonical structure correlations (loadings) were considered in the interpretation of the importance and practical significance of the derivation of the two canonical variate constructs. This was attributed to the variability of the canonical weights and multicollinearity apprehensions (Hair et al., 2014).

(a) *Canonical loadings*

For the composite set of latent independent variables, the canonical loadings (structure coefficients) reflected in Table 3.35 indicate that perceived organisational support ($R_c = -.85$) contributed most to the explanation of the variance in the work-related perceptions and work experiences, organisational cynicism and trust and personal disposition canonical variate variables. This was followed by organisational trust ($R_c = -.81$), organisational cynicism ($R_c = .80$), procedural and interactional justice ($R_c = -.76$), psychological contract violation ($R_c = .66$) and distributive justice ($R_c = -.54$). Similar directions (indicated by the negative values) were reported for perceived organisational support, organisational trust, procedural and interactional justice and distributive justice, indicating that these variables were positively related. Psychological contract violation and organisational cynicism were inversely related to these variables, as indicated by the opposing signs.

In terms of the dependent variable set (i.e. the relational attitudes and behaviour variables), the canonical loadings reflected in Table 9.35 show that attitudinal commitment ($R_c = -.88$) and organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O; $R_c = -.54$) contributed most to the explanation of the variance in this canonical variate. Similar directions (indicated by the negative values) were reported for attitudinal commitment and OCB-O, indicating that these variables were positively related.

(b) Canonical cross-loadings

The canonical cross-loadings (R_c -values) for the independent canonical construct variate variables (the composite set of variables associated with work-related perceptions and work experiences, organisational cynicism and trust and personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism) are reported in Table 9.35. Using the cut-off criterion of $R_c \geq .30$, the results show that perceived organisational support ($R_c = -.59$; $R_c^2 = .35$; large practical effect), organisational trust ($R_c = -.57$; $R_c^2 = .33$; large practical effect), organisational cynicism ($R_c = .57$; $R_c^2 = .32$; large practical effect), procedural and interactional justice ($R_c = -.54$; $R_c^2 = .29$; large practical effect), psychological contract violation ($R_c = .47$; $R_c^2 = .22$; moderate practical effect) and distributive justice ($R_c = -.38$; $R_c^2 = .15$; moderate practical effect) contributed the most in explaining the variance in the relational attitudes and behaviour variables, and specifically OCB-O and attitudinal commitment.

An analysis of the canonical cross-loadings (R_c -values) for the dependent canonical construct variate variables (the composite set of variables associated with the relational attitudes and behaviour) showed that attitudinal commitment ($R_c = -.62$; $R_c^2 = .38$; large practical effect) and OCB-O ($R_c = -.38$; $R_c^2 = .14$; moderate practical effect) significantly explained the variance in work-related perceptions, experiences, attitudes and disposition variate construct, and specifically, perceived organisational support, organisational cynicism and trust, perceived organisational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) and psychological contract violation.

The redundancy index ($RI = .07$; small practical effect) for the dependent canonical variate indicates that only 7 per cent of variance in relational attitudes and behaviour (dependent canonical variate), notably attitudinal commitment and OCB-O, could be explained by the independent canonical variate (the composite set of variables associated with work-related perceptions and work experiences, organisational cynicism and trust and personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism). The independent canonical variate variables that played a principal role in explaining the variance were perceived organisational support,

organisational cynicism and trust, perceived organisational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) and psychological contract violation.

The results obtained from the CCA of the first set of latent independent (work-related perceptions and work experiences, organisational cynicism and trust, and personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism) and latent dependent variables (relational attitudes and behaviour) suggested the existence of a significant relationship of large practical effect (overall model) between these two sets of canonical variate construct variables. A sensitivity analysis for the independent variable set, which entailed performing multiple CCAs, each time removing a different independent variable (Hair et al., 2014), confirmed the stability and consistency of the CCA results. The core conclusions derived from the above results are discussed in section 9.3.1.4.

9.3.1.2 *Canonical correlation analysis: Testing research hypothesis H3*

In the previous section, individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition did not feature as a strong predictor of relational attitudes and behaviour. However, it has been suggested that CCA results may vary substantially if one or more variables are removed from either variate (Hair et al., 2014). For this reason, it was deemed necessary to further investigate the relationship between individualism/collectivism, as a composite set of latent independent variables (including horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism) and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite of dependent variables. The aim was to determine whether there was a significant relationship between these dependent and independent variables in the absence of the work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) variables that formed part of the independent variable set in the first CCA.

A second CCA was thus performed to examine the overall relationship between individualism/collectivism (represented by horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of latent independent variables) and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables. These variable sets are depicted in Figure 9.14.

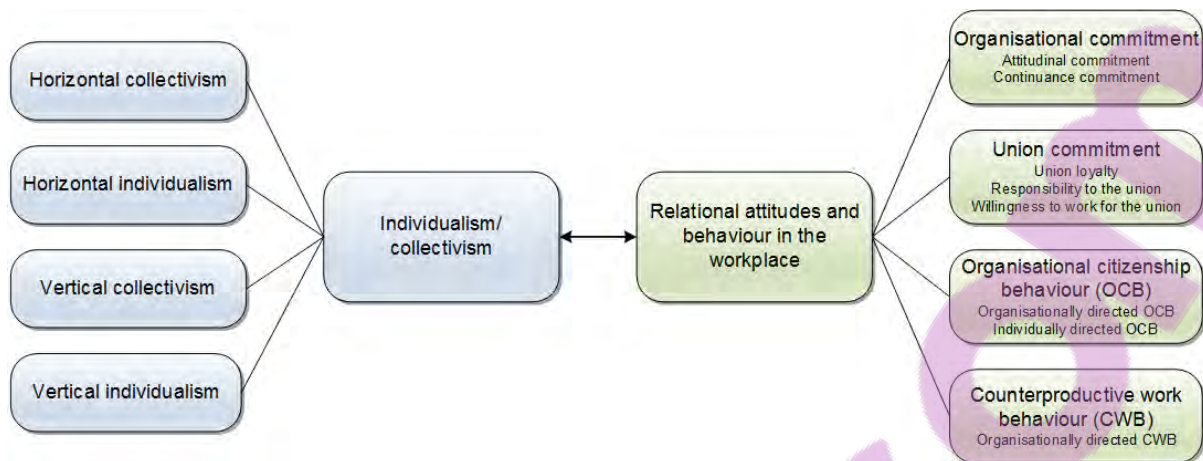


Figure 9.14. Canonical Correlation Analysis: Dimensions of Individualism/collectivism as a Composite Set of Independent Variables and Relational Attitudes and Behaviour as a Composite Set of Dependent Variables

The results of the CCA are reported in Tables 9.36 and 9.37.

Table 9.36

Canonical Correlation Analysis: Overall Model Fit Statistics Relating to Individualism/collectivism, Relational Attitudes (Organisational Commitment and Union Commitment) and Relational Behaviour (OCB and CWB)

Measures of overall model fit for canonical correlation analysis					
Canonical function	Overall canonical correlation (R_c)	Overall squared canonical correlation (R_c^2)	Eigenvalue	F statistics	Probability (p)
1	.47	.22	.29	3.33	.000***
2	.30	.09	.10	1.96	.006**
3	.19	.03	.04	1.42	.153
4	.18	.03	.03	1.67	.142
Multivariate tests of significance					
Statistics	Value	Approximate F statistic	Probability (p)		
Wilks' lambda (λ)	.66	3.33	.000***		
Pillai's trace	.38	3.22	.000***		
Hotelling-Lawley's trace	.46	3.42	.000***		
Roy's greatest root ^a	.22				

Notes: $n = 740$. *** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$

$R_c^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect size); $R_c^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$ (moderate practical effect size); $R_c^2 \geq .26$ (large

practical effect size).

^a Because Roy's greatest root represents only one canonical function rather than the set, it was not evaluated for statistical significance.

As indicated in Table 9.36, four canonical functions for the model were derived from the CCA. For this model, two of the four canonical functions were significant ($p < .01$). The full canonical model was statistically significant across the four functions, with a Wilk's lambda (λ) of .66, $F(32, 882.98) = 3.33, p < .001$. The results of the other multivariate significance tests (Pillai's trace, Hotelling-Lawley's trace and Roy's greatest root) also indicated that the canonical functions, taken collectively, were statistically significant ($p \leq .001$). These results suggest the existence of a significant relationship between the two variable sets (Sherry & Henson, 2005). The magnitude of the relationship, as reflected in the r^2 metric of effect size (yielded by $1 - \lambda$: $1 - .66$), was .34 (moderate practical effect; $Fp < .001$), which indicates that the full model explained approximately 34 per cent of the variance shared between the two sets of variables.

Canonical correlations of .47 and .30 were reported for the first two canonical functions. The first canonical function therefore contributed 22 per cent ($Rc^2 = .22$; moderate practical effect) of the explained variance relative to the four functions, while the second canonical function explained a further 9 per cent ($Rc^2 = .09$; small practical effect) only. As a result, the first canonical function was deemed practically sufficient for interpreting the links between the two sets of variables. Since, the second function was statistically significant but not practically significant, only the results of the first canonical function were considered for testing research hypothesis H3.

From the results presented in Table 9.36, it may be deduced that the independent canonical construct variate (the composite set of variables reflecting individualism/collectivism – horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism) contributed significantly ($Rc^2 = .22$; moderate practical effect) to explaining the variance in relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB).

Standardised canonical correlation coefficients and canonical loadings, as reflected in Table 9.37, were subsequently relied upon to evaluate the relative importance of variables in the model.

Table 9.37

Results of the Standardised Canonical Correlation Analysis for the First Canonical Function
(Second Variable Set)

Variates/variables	Standardised canonical correlation coefficient (canonical weight)	Structure coefficient (canonical loading, R_c)	Canonical cross- loadings (R_c)	Squared multiple correlation (R_c^2)
Individualism/collectivism (composite set of latent independent variables)				
Horizontal collectivism	-1.00	-.99	-.47	.22
Horizontal individualism	.06	.10	.05	.00
Vertical collectivism	-.04	-.33	-.16	.02
Vertical individualism	.12	-.11	-.05	.00
Shared variance ^a (R_c) = .22; variance explained ^b (R_c) = .28; redundancy index ^c (R_l) = .06				
Relational attitudes and behaviour (composite set of latent dependent variables)				
Organisational citizenship behaviour – Individual	-.61	-.71	-.34	.11
Organisational citizenship behaviour – Organisation	-.10	-.70	-.33	.11
Counterproductive work behaviour – Organisation	.31	.36	.17	.03
Attitudinal commitment	-.39	-.42	-.20	.04
Continuance commitment	.15	-.14	-.06	.00
Union loyalty	-.17	-.49	-.23	.05
Responsibility to the union	-.26	-.45	-.21	.05
Willingness to work for the union	-.14	-.34	-.16	.03
Shared variance ^a (R_c) = .22; Variance explained ^b (R_c) = .23; Redundancy index ^c (R_l) = .05				

Overall model fit measure (function 1):

$F(p) = 3.33$ ($p < .001$)

$df = 32; 882.98$

Wilks' lambda (λ) = .66

r^2 type effect size: $1 - \lambda = .34$ (moderate practical effect)

Notes: $n = 740$. R_c -values $\geq .30$ are indicated in bold. $R_c^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect size); $R_c^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$ (moderate practical effect size); $R_c^2 \geq .26$ (large practical effect size).

^a The amount of shared variance in the variable set (dependent or independent) included in the (dependent or independent) canonical variate.

^b The proportion of variance in the (dependent or independent) canonical variate that can be explained by the other canonical variate.

^c The amount of variance in the original variables of one set of variables in a canonical function that is explained by the canonical variate of the other set of variables in that canonical function.

(a) *Canonical loadings*

The canonical loadings (structure coefficients) for the composite set of latent independent variables (see Table 9.37) indicate that horizontal collectivism ($R_c = -.99$) contributed most to the explanation of the variance in the individualism/collectivism canonical variate variables. The only other significant ($R_c \geq .30$) contribution was made by vertical collectivism ($R_c = -.33$). The negative signs for both horizontal and vertical collectivism suggest that these variables were positively related.

In terms of the dependent variable set (i.e. the relational attitudes and behaviour variables), the canonical loadings reflected in Table 9.37 showing all the variables, except for continuance commitment ($R_c = -.14$), contributed significantly to the explanation of the variance in this canonical variate. The largest contribution was made by OCB directed towards individuals (OCB-I; $R_c = -.71$) and the organisation (OCB-O; $R_c = -.70$), followed by union loyalty ($R_c = -.49$), responsibility to the union ($R_c = -.45$), attitudinal commitment ($R_c = -.42$), CWB directed at the organisation (CWB-O; $R_c = .36$) and willingness to work for the union ($R_c = -.34$). The results suggested positive relationships between OCB-I, OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, union loyalty, responsibility to the union and willingness to work for the union. An inverse relationship between these variables and CWB-O was shown.

(b) *Canonical cross-loadings*

The canonical cross-loadings (R_c -values) for the independent canonical construct variate variables (the composite set of variables associated with individualism/collectivism) are reported in Table 9.37. Using the cut-off criterion of $R_c \geq .30$, the results show that horizontal collectivism ($R_c = -.47$; $R_c^2 = .22$; moderate practical effect) contributed most in explaining the variance in the relational attitudes and behaviour variables, and specifically OCB-I and OCB-O.

An analysis of the canonical cross-loadings (R_c -values) for the dependent canonical construct variate variables (the composite set of variables associated with the relational attitudes and behaviour) indicated that OCB-I ($R_c = -.34$; $R_c^2 = .11$; small practical effect) and OCB-O ($R_c = -.33$; $R_c^2 = .11$; small practical effect) significantly explained the variance in the individualism/collectivism construct and specifically horizontal collectivism.

The redundancy index ($R^2 = .05$; small practical effect) for the dependent canonical variate indicates that only 5 per cent of variance in the dependent canonical variate (i.e. relational attitudes and behaviour, and specifically OCB-I and OCB-O), could be explained by the independent canonical variate (the composite set of variables associated with individualism/collectivism) – notably, horizontal collectivism.

The results obtained from the CCA of the second set of latent independent (personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism) and latent dependent (relational attitudes and behaviour) variables suggested the existence of a significant relationship of moderate practical effect (overall model) between these two sets of canonical variate construct variables. A sensitivity analysis for the independent variable set confirmed the stability and consistency of the CCA results. The core conclusions derived from the above results are discussed in section 9.3.1.4.

9.3.1.3 Canonical correlation analysis: Testing research hypothesis H4

The final CCA was aimed at clarifying the overall relationship between the following two canonical variates: work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as a composite set of independent variables and organisationally directed attitudes (organisational cynicism and trust) and personal disposition (individualism/collectivism) as a composite set of dependent variables. These variable sets are depicted in Figure 9.15.

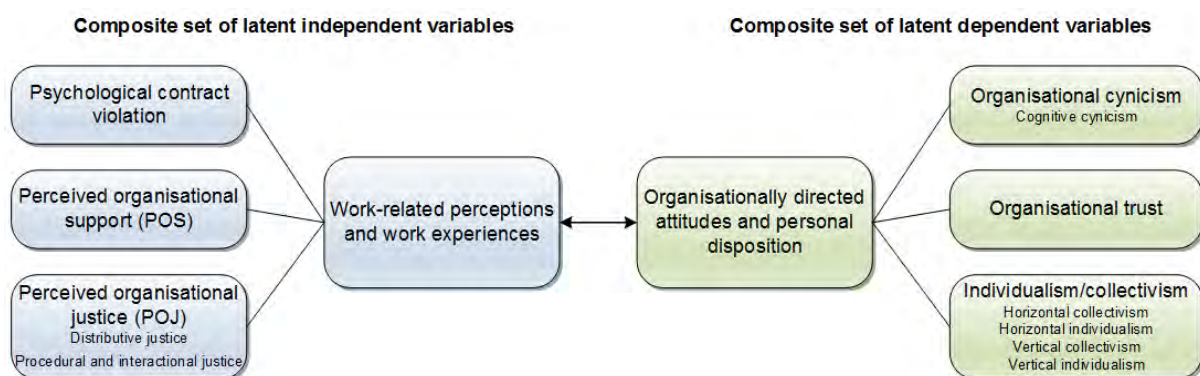


Figure 9.15. Canonical Correlation Analysis: Work-related Perceptions and Work Experiences as a Composite Set of Independent Variables and Organisationally Directed Attitudes and Personal Disposition as a Composite Set of Dependent Variables

The results of the CCA are reported in Tables 9.38 and 9.39.

Table 9.38

Canonical Correlation Analysis: Overall Model Fit Statistics Relating to Work-related Perceptions and Work Experiences (POS, POJ and Psychological Contract Violation), Organisational Cynicism and Trust and Individualism/collectivism

Measures of overall model fit for canonical correlation analysis					
Canonical function	Overall canonical correlation (R_c)	Overall squared canonical correlation (R_c^2)	Eigenvalue	F statistics	Probability (p)
1	.81	.66	1.93	45.70	.000***
2	.38	.15	.17	8.73	.000***
3	.10	.01	.01	1.24	.270
4	.05	.00	.00	.63	.593

Multivariate tests of significance			
Statistics	Value	Approximate F statistic	Probability (p)
Wilks' lambda (λ)	.29	45.70	.000***
Pillai's trace	.82	31.51	.000***
Hotelling-Lawley's trace	2.12	64.30	.000***
Roy's greatest root ^a	.66		

Notes: $n = 740$. *** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$

$R_c^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect size); $R_c^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$ (moderate practical effect size); $R_c^2 \geq .26$ (large practical effect size).

^a Because Roy's greatest root represents only one canonical function rather than the set, it was not evaluated for statistical significance.

Four canonical functions for the model, as reflected in Table 9.38, were derived from the CCA. Wilk's lambda and corresponding F -tests were used to evaluate the null hypothesis that canonical correlation coefficients for all functions were zero. For this model, two of the four canonical functions were significant ($p < .001$). The full canonical model was statistically significant across the two functions ($p < .001$), with a Wilks' lambda (λ) of .29, $F(24, 2547.88) = 45.70$, $p < .001$. The results of the other multivariate significance tests (Pillai's trace, Hotelling-Lawley's trace and Roy's greatest root) also indicated that the canonical functions, taken collectively, were statistically significant ($p \leq 0.001$). These results suggested a significant relationship between the two variable sets (Sherry & Henson, 2005). The r^2 metric of effect size (yielded by $1 - \lambda$: $1 - .29$) was .71 (large practical effect; $Fp < .001$), which indicates that the full model explained a substantial proportion (about 71%) of the variance

shared between the two sets of variables.

The canonical correlation of the first function was .81, and this function contributed 66 per cent ($Rc^2 = .66$) of the explained variance relative to the four functions. The second canonical function ($Rc = .38$) explained a mere 15 per cent of the variance shared between the two canonical variate sets. The first function was deemed practically sufficient for interpreting the links between the two sets of variables. Although the second function was statistically significant, this function did not have any practical significance, as it did not explain a large proportion of the dependent variables' variance. Hence, only the results of the first canonical function were considered for testing research hypothesis H4.

From the results presented in Table 9.38, one can deduce that the independent canonical construct variate (the composite set of work-related perceptions and work experiences – POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) contributed significantly ($Rc^2 = .66$; large practical effect) to explaining the variance in organisationally directed attitudes (organisational cynicism and trust) and personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism.

Standardised canonical correlation coefficients and canonical loadings, as reflected in Table 9.39, were used to evaluate the relative importance of variables in the model.

Table 9.39

Results of the Standardised Canonical Correlation Analysis for the First Canonical Function (Third Variable Set)

Variates/variables	Standardised canonical correlation coefficient (canonical weight)	Structure coefficient (canonical loading, Rc)	Canonical cross-loadings (Rc)	Squared multiple correlation (Rc^2)
Work-related perceptions and work experiences (composite set of latent independent variables)				
Psychological contract violation	-.63	-.95	-.77	.59
Distributive justice	-.01	.63	.51	.26
Procedural and interactional justice	.21	.84	.68	.46
Perceived organisational support	.28	.84	.68	.47
Shared variance ^a (Rc) = .66; variance explained ^b (Rc) = .67; redundancy index ^c (RI) = .44				

Variates/variables	Standardised canonical correlation coefficient (canonical weight)	Structure coefficient (canonical loading, R_c)	Canonical cross- loadings (R_c)	Squared multiple correlation (R_c^2)
Organisationally directed attitudes and personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (composite set of latent dependent variables)				
Organisational cynicism	-.80	-.96	-.78	.61
Organisational trust	.30	.71	.58	.33
Horizontal collectivism	.07	.25	.20	.04
Horizontal individualism	.03	-.09	-.07	.01
Vertical collectivism	-.01	.01	.01	.00
Vertical individualism	.00	.05	.04	.00
Shared variance ^a (R_c) = .66; variance explained ^b (R_c) = .25; redundancy index ^c (R_I) = .17				

Overall model fit measure (function 1):

$F(p) = 45.70$ ($p < .001$)

$df = 24; 2547.88$

Wilk's lambda (λ) = .29

r^2 type effect size: $1 - \lambda = .71$ (large practical effect)

Notes: $n = 740$. R_c -values $\geq .30$ are indicated in bold. $R_c^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect size); $R_c^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$ (moderate practical effect size); $R_c^2 \geq .26$ (large practical effect size).

^a The amount of shared variance in the variable set (dependent or independent) included in the (dependent or independent) canonical variate.

^b The proportion of variance in the (dependent or independent) canonical variate that can be explained by the other canonical variate.

^c The amount of shared variance that can be explained by each canonical function.

(a) Canonical loadings

The canonical loadings (structure coefficients) for the composite set of independent variables reflecting work-related perceptions and work experiences show that the variables contributed to explaining the variance in the work-related perceptions and work experiences canonical variate variables in the following order: psychological contract violation ($R_c = -.95$), procedural and interactional justice ($R_c = .84$), perceived organisational support ($R_c = .84$) and distributive justice ($R_c = .63$). Similar directions (as indicated by the positive values) were reported for distributive justice, procedural and interactional justice and perceived organisational support, suggesting that these variables were positively related. Psychological contract violation was

inversely related to these variables.

In terms of the dependent variable set (i.e. the organisationally directed attitudes and personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism variables), the results in Table 9.39 show that organisational cynicism ($Rc = -.96$) and organisational trust ($Rc = .71$) contributed most to explaining the variance in this canonical variate. The results showed an inverse relationship between organisational cynicism and trust.

(b) Canonical cross-loadings

The canonical cross-loadings (Rc -values) for the independent canonical construct variate variables (the composite set of variables associated with work-related perceptions and work experiences) are reported in Table 9.37. Using the cut-off criterion of $Rc \geq .30$, the results indicate that psychological contract violation ($Rc = -.77$; $Rc^2 = .59$; large practical effect), perceived organisational support ($Rc = .68$; $Rc^2 = .47$; large practical effect), procedural and interactional justice ($Rc = .68$; $Rc^2 = .46$; large practical effect) and distributive justice ($Rc = .51$; $Rc^2 = .26$; large practical effect) all contributed substantially in explaining the variance in the organisationally directed attitudes and personal disposition variables, and specifically organisational cynicism and trust.

An analysis of the canonical cross-loadings (Rc -values) for the dependent canonical construct variate variables (the composite set of variables associated with organisationally directed attitudes and personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism) showed that organisational cynicism ($Rc = -.78$; $Rc^2 = .61$; large practical effect) and organisational trust ($Rc = .58$; $Rc^2 = .33$; large practical effect) significantly explained the variance in work-related perceptions and work experiences variate construct (psychological contract violation, distributive justice, procedural and interactive justice and POS).

The redundancy index ($Rl = .17$; moderate practical effect) for the dependent canonical variate indicates that 17 per cent of variance in the dependent canonical variate (organisationally directed attitudes and personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism) – specifically organisational cynicism and trust – could be explained by the independent canonical variate (the composite set of variables associated with work-related perceptions and work experiences). All four independent canonical variate variables (psychological contract violation, distributive justice, procedural and interactive justice and POS) played a significant role in explaining the variance.

The results obtained from the CCA of the third set of latent independent (work-related perceptions and work experiences) and latent dependent variables (organisational cynicism and trust, and personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism) suggest the existence of a significant relationship of a large practical effect between these two sets of canonical variate construct variables. A sensitivity analysis for the independent variable set confirmed the stability and consistency of the CCA results. The core conclusions derived from the above results are discussed in the next section.

9.3.1.4 Preliminary analysis 2: Towards constructing a psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour

In the previous sections, the results of three canonical correlation analyses conducted to assess the overall statistical relationship between three sets of latent dependent and independent variables (research hypotheses H2, H3 and H3) were reported. This section contains a summary of the core conclusions emanating from these results.

(a) Core conclusions drawn in testing research hypothesis H2

The aim of the first analysis was to assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions (POS and POJ), experiences (psychological contract violation), attitudes (organisational cynicism and trust) and dispositions (individualism/collectivism) as a composite set of independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables. The purpose of the analysis was to test research hypothesis H2 (see Table 8.12).

The following core conclusions were drawn from the results:

Although canonical correlation does not imply causality, the results suggested that the lower respondents' perceptions of organisational support and justice (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) and organisational trust, and the higher their perceptions of psychological contract violation and cynicism towards their employing organisations, the greater the likelihood would be of low attitudinal commitment and OCB-O. These results therefore support the conceptualisation of POS, POJ and psychological contract violation as antecedents of attitudinal and behavioural outcomes in the workplace (see Chapter 4) and, more specifically, attitudinal commitment and organisationally directed OCB.

The results furthermore lent support to the proposition Chapter 4 that the influence of each of these constructs should not be viewed in isolation. The results indicated that the combined effect of the extent to which the employer is perceived as fulfilling its obligations in terms of the psychological contract (i.e. low levels perceived psychological contract violation), applying fair principles in the allocation of resources and dealings with employees (high POJ) and demonstrating valuation for the contributions and care for the well-being of employees (high POS) ultimately determines the extent to which employees commit to their employing organisations (increased attitudinal commitment) and engage in voluntary behaviour that benefits these organisations (higher OCB-O).

Moreover, the results revealed that employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace were not only influenced by their work-related perceptions and work experiences, but also by their attitudinal reactions to these perceptions and experiences. Organisational cynicism and trust were shown to contribute significantly in explaining the variance in attitudinal commitment and OCB-O. This implies that employees with positive perceptions of the quality of employment relations in their organisations (i.e. high POS and POJ and low psychological contract violation), accompanied by high levels of trust in their employing organisations and low levels of organisational cynicism, are more likely to display higher levels of commitment towards their organisations and to engage in discretionary behaviour that benefits these organisations.

It could furthermore be deduced from the CCA results that neither employees' desire to remain in their organisations (i.e. continuance commitment) nor their commitment towards trade unions were significantly influenced by their work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and experiences (psychological contract violation) or their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations. In terms of behavioural consequences, these antecedents (POS, POJ, psychological contract violation, organisational cynicism and organisational trust) were linked to organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O) only. The results suggested that employees' work-related perceptions, experiences, attitudes and dispositions were not strong predictors of OCB directed at individuals in the organisation (OCB-I) or behaviour intended to harm the organisation (CWB-O).

Finally, the results suggested that individualism/collectivism (as measured in terms of the horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism variables) did not significantly contribute in explaining employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (notably attitudinal commitment and OCB-O). This implies that individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism was not a significant predictor of

relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. The proposition is explored in section 9.3.3 that employees' cultural dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism should not be regarded as an antecedent of relational attitudes and behaviour, but rather as a moderator when attempting to better understand the relationships between relational attitudes and behaviour and their predictors.

The results of the CCA used to test research hypothesis H2 thus indicated that work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) as well as organisational cynicism and trust significantly predicted two of the theorised relational attitudes and behaviour variables, namely attitudinal commitment and organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O). The directions of the relationships supported the theorised relationships between these variables. Cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism was shown not to be a strong predictor of relational attitudes and behaviour. The results thus provided partial support for research hypothesis H2.

H2: There is a significant relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, and individualism/collectivism, as a composite set of independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

(b) Core conclusions drawn in testing research hypothesis H3

The aim of the second CCA was to assess the overall statistical relationship between personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (i.e. horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism) as a composite set of independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables. The purpose of this analysis was to test research hypothesis H3 (see Table 8.12).

The following core conclusions were drawn from the results:

The canonical cross-loadings suggested that higher levels of horizontal collectivism may be associated with an increase in both individually (OCB-I) and organisationally (OCB-O) directed organisational citizenship behaviour. This implies that an increased emphasis on common goals, interdependency, empathy, sociability and cooperation, which are characteristics of horizontal collectivism (Triandis, 1995, 2006; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011), are likely to result in

higher levels of OCB directed towards the both the organisation (OCB-O) and individuals in it (OCB-I).

The other three cultural dispositions or dimensions of individualism/collectivism (i.e. vertical collectivism, vertical individualism and horizontal individualism) were found not to be significant predictors of relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB). Therefore, higher levels of interdependency and conformity (vertical collectivism) and a stronger emphasis on achievement and competition (vertical individualism) or self-reliance (horizontal individualism) do not significantly influence employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

Finally, in terms of the composite set of dependent variables, the results suggested that counterproductive work behaviour towards the organisation (CWB-O), organisational commitment (both attitudinal and continuance commitment) and union commitment (union loyalty, responsibility to the union and willingness to work for the union) were not meaningfully related to personal disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism. Individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism, as measured in terms of its four dimensions (horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism) was therefore shown not to be a significant predictor of these attitudinal and behavioural outcomes.

Hence, the results of the CCA used to test research hypothesis H3 indicated that horizontal collectivism significantly and positively predicts only organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB-O and OCB-I), providing partial support for the research hypothesis.

H3: There is a significant relationship between horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

(c) Core conclusions drawn in testing research hypothesis H4

The purpose of the final CCA was to assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as a composite set of independent variables and organisationally directed attitudes (organisational cynicism and trust), and personal disposition individualism/collectivism) as a composite set of dependent variables. The purpose of this analysis was to test research hypothesis H4 (see Table 8.12).

The following core conclusions were drawn from the results:

The results of the CCA implied that the higher the sense of organisational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) and support and the lower the perceptions of psychological contract violation, the greater the likelihood would be of organisational trust being high and organisational cynicism low. Therefore, when employees perceive that their employers are meeting their obligations in terms of the psychological contract (low psychological contract violation) and that the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 500), while viewing the outcomes (e.g. pay, rewards, promotions and the outcome of dispute resolutions) they receive from their employing organisations (distributive justice), the procedures used to determine these outcomes (procedural justice) and the way they are treated in terms of the distribution of resources (interactional justice) (Colquitt et al., 2005) as fair; they will be more likely to trust their employing organisations and less inclined to be cynical towards them. Employees will therefore be more willing to make themselves vulnerable by engaging in risk-taking behaviour (e.g. OCB) (Mayer et al., 1995) and less likely to harbour negative beliefs about their employing organisations and their leaders (Dean et al., 1998; Sheel & Vohra, 2016).

No significant relationships were evident between the composite set of work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism). This finding supports the conceptualisation of individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition (similar to personality or moral identity) or inherent individual characteristic rather than an outcome of employees' work-related perceptions and work-experiences (Triandis, 2004).

The results of the CCA used to test research hypothesis H4 therefore suggested that work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) significantly and positively predict organisational trust. In contrast, it was shown that work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) are significantly and negatively related to organisational cynicism. In addition, psychological contract violation was shown to significantly relate to organisational cynicism (positive relationship) and trust (negative relationship). The results thus provided partial support for research hypothesis H4.

H4: There is a significant relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), as a composite set of independent variables, and organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

The above conclusions were used to further inform the development of the psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in employment relations.

9.3.2 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

The significant relationships between the core independent and dependent variables that emerged from the canonical correlation analyses informed the development of four structural models. These models were analysed by means of SEM analyses to determine the best model fit. The SEM framework was used as a point of departure and covariance structural analyses were conducted. This step of the statistical analysis directly addresses research hypothesis H5:

H5: The theoretical hypothesised framework has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model.

9.3.2.1 *Structural model for the psychological framework aimed at enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour*

The CCA results suggested a model consisting of organisational cynicism (cognitive cynicism), organisational trust, organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O) and attitudinal commitment as endogenous variables, and perceived organisational support, distributive justice, procedural and interactional justice and psychological contract violation as interrelated exogenous variables. The IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 25 (IBM Corp, 2017), and AMOS Version 25 (Arbuckle, 2017) were used to test this structural model (*Model 1*).

As reported in Table 9.40, the SEM results for the initial model (*Model 1*) indicated a marginal fit to the data. Although the chi-square test (17.61) was statistically significant ($p < .001$), the GFI (.99), NFI (1.00), CFI (1.00) and SRMR (.01) indices were well within the required parameters, suggesting good model fit. However, the low AGFI (.79) and TLI (.86) indices and a RMSEA index of .15 suggested that a better model fit might be possible following certain relational amendments.

Table 9.40

Model Fit Statistics: Competing Structural Models

	CMIN (df)	P- value	CMIN/ df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
Thresholds ^a		≥ .05	< 3	≥ .95	≥ .90	≥ .95	≥ .95	≥ .95	≤ .05	< .05	
Model 1 (initial)	17.61 (1)	.000	17.61	.99	.79	1.00	.86	1.00	.15	.01	87.61
Model 2 (alternative)	28.18 (6)	.000	4.70	.99	.94	.99	.97	.99	.07	.02	88.18
Model 3 (alternative)	13.27 (1)	.000	13.27	.99	.89	.99	.92	.99	.13	.02	41.27
Model 4 (alternative)	240.42 (15)	.000	16.03	.93	.82	.93	.87	.93	.14	.04	282.42

Notes: n = 740. CMIN = chi-square goodness of fit; df = degrees of freedom; CMIN/df = relative chi-square; GFI = goodness of fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness of fit index; NFI = normed fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardised root mean squared residual; AIC = Akaike information criterion.

^a For details of the thresholds of fit, see Table 8.14 in Chapter 8.

Based on the results of the CCAs and the theorised relationships between the constructs (as reported in Chapters 3 to 7), the following three alternative models were subsequently tested:

- In *Model 2*, perceived organisational justice (POJ) was included as a latent variable, with distributive justice (POJ-DJ) and procedural and interactional justice (POJ-PJ-IJ) as observed variables. Organisational cynicism (cognitive cynicism), organisational trust, organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O) and attitudinal commitment were included as endogenous variables, while perceived organisational support, perceived organisational justice and psychological contract violation were regarded as interrelated exogenous variables. This model showed an improvement in terms of model fit with increased AGFI (.94) and TLI (.97) indices and a lower RMSEA index (.07) despite the AIC value of 88.18 being slightly higher than the value reported for Model 1 (87.61).
- While the CCA results suggested that all the theorised independent variables, namely perceived organisational support, perceived organisational justice (both distributive justice and procedural and interactional justice) and psychological contract violation

contributed significantly to explaining the variance in the relational attitudes and behaviour, it was anticipated that a more parsimonious model could be obtained by incorporating these independent variables into a single composite variable. This proposition was supported by reported relationships between these variables in Chapter 4. In this chapter, it was theorised that these work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) are interconnected indicators of the quality of the social exchange relationship between employers and employees, which collectively influence employees' attitudes towards and behaviour in their employing organisations. Hence, in an attempt to enhance parsimony in the psychological framework, the researcher decided to test a third model.

In *Model 3*, a composite variable, namely employment relations quality (ERQ), was generated by adding the average values for perceived organisational support, distributive justice, procedural and interactional justice and psychological contract violation (reversed due to its negative relationship to the other three constructs) and calculating a mean score representing ERQ. A one-factor EFA solution (Harman's one-factor test) for the ERQ scale showed that a single construct accounted for 64.42 per cent of the variance among the scale variables, lending support to a single-factor solution.

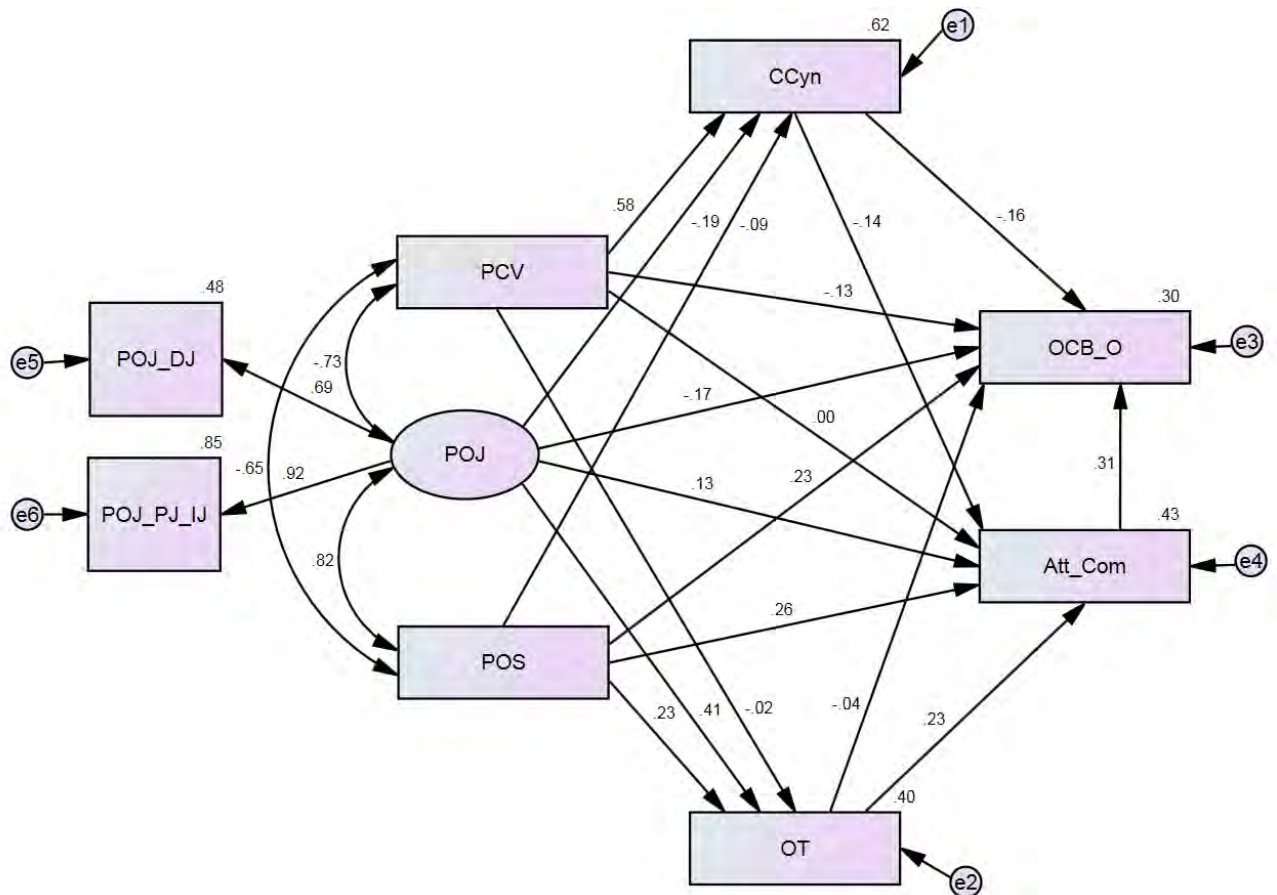
In addition, when loading perceived organisational support (POS), distributive justice (POJ-DJ), procedural and interactional justice (POJ-PJ-IJ) and psychological contract violation (reversed) onto a single construct in a CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor fit the data well (χ^2/df ratio = 5.78; $p = .003$; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .01; CFI = .99). The one-factor results for the employment relations quality construct thus supported a single observed variable in line with what is postulated in theory. The notion that ERQ is a single composite variable reflecting employees' perceptions of and experiences in the workplace was thus supported.

Convergent validity of the ERQ scale variable was established by first considering the standardised factor loadings. All factor loadings were significant, ranging from .70 to .90 (Hair et al., 2014). Next, the average variance extracted (AVE) was considered. In this instance, the AVE value for the ERQ construct was .64, which exceeded the .50 threshold suggested by Hair et al. (2014). Finally, the Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = .87$) and composite reliability ($\rho = .88$) coefficients both exceeded the .70 threshold regarded as indicative of adequate convergence (Hair et al., 2014), thus lending support to the convergent validity of the ERQ scale variable.

For Model 3, organisational cynicism (cognitive cynicism), organisational trust, organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O) and attitudinal commitment were subsequently included as endogenous variables, and ERQ was regarded as a single observed exogenous variable. While the GFI (.99), NFI (.99), CFI (.99) and SRMR (.02) indices for this model were similar to those obtained for Model 2, the AGFI (.89) and TLI (.92) indices were marginally lower. In addition, the RMSEA index of .13, which was above the .10 threshold recommended for acceptable model fit (Hair et al., 2014), implied that Model 3 was not the most suitable model for the data, irrespective of the AIC value being the lowest of the four models tested.

- *Model 4* also reflected organisational cynicism (cognitive cynicism), organisational trust, organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O) and attitudinal commitment as endogenous variables, and ERQ as an exogenous variable. However, in this instance, ERQ was regarded as a latent variable with perceived organisational support, distributive justice, procedural and interactional justice and psychological contract violation (reversed) as observed variables. The model fit statistics (GFI = .93; AFGI = .82; NFI = .93; TLI = .87; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .14; SRMR = .04; AIC = 282.42) for this model showed an inferior fit to the data in comparison with the other three models tested, and this model was therefore not deemed the best fit structural model for the data.

Only one degree of freedom was reported for both Model 1 and Model 3, suggesting that these models were almost saturated and that their contribution to theory would therefore be limited. The model fit statistics reported above suggest that the best model fit was obtained for Model 2. Although the lowest AIC value was reported for Model 3, the decision was made to retain Model 2 as the structural model with the best fit in developing a framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour because of the better fit indices. A graphical representation of this structural model is provided in Figure 9.16. The parameters shown are the path coefficients (standardised regression weights) that represent the relationships between the hypothesised antecedent variables and the outcome variables.



Notes: n = 740; standardised coefficients; POJ_DJ = perceived organisational justice – distributive justice; POJ_PJ_IJ = perceived organisational justice – procedural and interactional justice; POJ = perceived organisational justice; PCV = psychological contract violation; POS = perceived organisational support; CCyn = organisational cynicism (cognitive cynicism); OT = organisational trust; OCB_O = organisational citizenship behaviour – organisation; Att_Com = attitudinal commitment

Figure 9.16. Best Fit Structural Model

9.3.2.2 Best fit structural model for the psychological framework aimed at enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour

The SEM results for the best fit model (Model 2) revealed that approximately 43 per cent of variance in attitudinal commitment ($R^2 = .43$; large practical effect size) could be explained by the configuration of the model with psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism and organisational trust as independent variables. In turn, the squared multiple correlation for OCB-O suggested that 30 per cent ($R^2 = .30$; large practical effect size) of its variance could be explained by the configuration of the model with psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism, organisational trust and attitudinal commitment as independent variables. Furthermore, 62 per cent ($R^2 = .62$; large practical effect size) of

the variance in organisational cynicism and 40 per cent ($R^2 = .40$; large practical effect size) of the variance in organisational trust could be explained by psychological contract violation, POJ and POS as independent variables.

In order to assess the predictive influence of the independent variables, the unstandardised and standardised regression coefficients (reported in Table 9.41) were interpreted. The unstandardised regression coefficient (B) represents the amount of change in the dependent variable per single unit change in the predictor variable, while the standardised regression weight (β) reflects the amount of change in the dependent variable that may be attributed to a change equal to a single standard deviation in the predictor variable (Meyers et al., 2017). The standardised estimates were used to evaluate the relative contributions of each predictor variable to each outcome variable in the model.

Table 9.41

Unstandardised and Standardised Regression Weights for the Estimated Structural Equation Model

Observed endogenous variables	Observed exogenous variables	Unstandardised estimate (B)	Standard error ($SE B$)	Critical ratio (CR)	Standardised estimate (β)
Organisational cynicism	Psychological contract violation	.57	.04	16.15***	.58
OCB – Organisation	Psychological contract violation	-.10	.04	-2.42*	-.13
Organisational trust	Psychological contract violation	-.02	.04	-.46	-.02
Attitudinal commitment	Psychological contract violation	-.00	.04	-.08	-.00
Organisational trust	Perceived organisational justice	.46	.09	5.08***	.41
Organisational cynicism	Perceived organisational justice	-.22	.07	-3.23**	-.19
OCB – Organisation	Perceived organisational justice	-.15	.08	-2.00*	-.17

Observed endogenous variables	Observed exogenous variables	Unstandardised estimate (B)	Standard error (SE B)	Critical ratio (CR)	Standardised estimate (β)
Attitudinal commitment	Perceived organisational justice	.14	.08	1.75	.13
Attitudinal commitment	Perceived organisational support	.27	.06	4.71***	.26
OCB – Organisation	Perceived organisational support	.21	.06	3.64***	.23
Organisational trust	Perceived organisational support	.26	.07	3.80***	.23
Organisational cynicism	Perceived organisational support	-.10	.05	-1.86	-.09
OCB – Organisation	Organisational cynicism	-.12	.04	-3.09**	-.16
Attitudinal commitment	Organisational cynicism	-.12	.04	-3.1**	-.14
Attitudinal commitment	Organisational trust	.21	.03	6.28***	.23
OCB – Organisation	Organisational trust	-.03	.03	-.85	-.04
OCB – Organisation	Attitudinal commitment	.28	.04	7.54***	.31

Notes: n = 740; OCB = organisational citizenship behaviour; * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$.

The significant relationships between the independent (POS, POJ, psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) and dependent (attitudinal commitment and OCB-O) variables that emerged from the SEM analysis, as reported in Table 9.41, are illustrated in Figure 9.17 and discussed in the sections that follow.

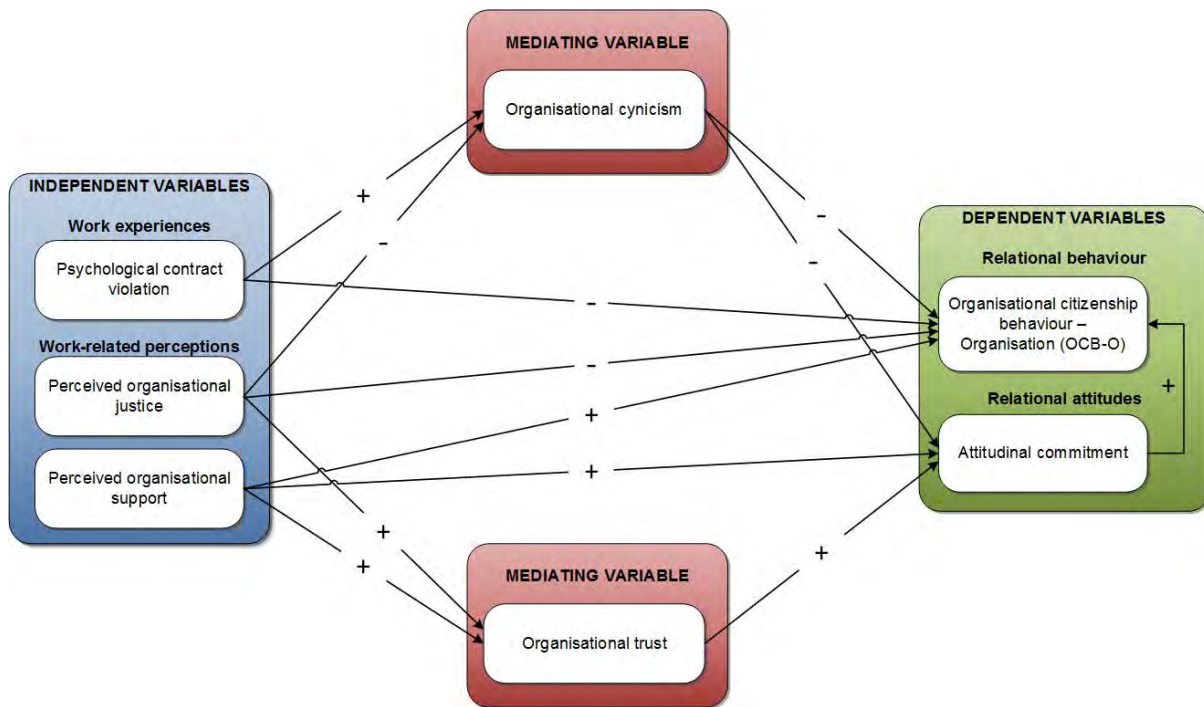


Figure 9.17. The Predicting Influence of Work-related Perceptions and Experiences (POS, POJ and Psychological Contract Violation) on the Mediating (Organisational Cynicism and Trust) and Dependent (Attitudinal Commitment and OCB-O) Variables

(a) *The predicting influence of psychological contract violation on the independent and mediating variables*

The results revealed a significant negative relationship between psychological contract violation and OCB-O ($\beta = -.13; p < .05$), which suggested that employees will be less inclined to engage in OCB-O as their perceptions of psychological contract violation increase. The results furthermore indicated that psychological contract violation was not a significant predictor of attitudinal commitment.

In terms of the predicting influence of psychological contract violation, POS and POJ on the mediating variables, a significant positive relationship between psychological contract violation and organisational cynicism ($\beta = .58; p < .001$) was shown to exist. This indicates that an increase in perceived psychological contract violation will result in greater cynicism towards the organisation and its leaders. The results indicated that psychological contract violation was not a significant predictor of organisational trust.

(b) The predicting influence of perceived organisational justice on the independent and mediating variables

In terms of perceived organisational justice, a significant positive relationship was reported with organisational trust ($\beta = .41$; $p < .001$). This suggests that an increase in perceived organisational justice will result in greater organisational trust. In contrast, a significant negative relationship was reported between perceived organisational justice and organisational cynicism ($\beta = -.19$; $p < .01$) suggesting that an increase in perceived organisational justice will be associated with a decline in organisational cynicism.

Contrary to what was expected, a significant negative relationship was found to exist between perceived organisational justice and OCB-O ($\beta = -.17$; $p < .05$), suggesting that, as perceptions of organisational justice increase, the likelihood of engaging in discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation (OCB-O) will decrease.

The results indicated that perceived organisational justice was not a significant predictor of attitudinal commitment.

(c) The predicting influence of perceived organisational support on the independent and mediating variables

The results revealed significant positive relationships between perceived organisational support and attitudinal commitment ($\beta = .26$; $p < .001$), OCB directed towards the organisation (OCB-O; $\beta = .23$; $p < .001$) and organisational trust ($\beta = .23$; $p < .001$). An increase in perceived organisational support will thus be associated with enhanced trust in the employing organisation, as well as greater attitudinal commitment and an increased willingness to engage in OCB-O.

The results indicated that perceived organisational support was not a significant predictor of organisational cynicism.

(d) The predicting influence of organisational cynicism on the independent variables

The results revealed significant negative relationships between organisational cynicism and attitudinal commitment ($\beta = -.14$; $p < .01$), as well as OCB-O ($\beta = -.16$; $p < .01$). This suggests

that the levels of both attitudinal commitment and OCB-O will decrease when employees become more cynical towards their employing organisations.

(e) *The predicting influence of organisational trust on the independent variables*

The results revealed a significant positive relationship between organisational trust and attitudinal commitment ($\beta = .23$; $p < .001$), suggesting that attitudinal commitment will escalate with higher levels of organisational trust.

Contrary to what was expected, no significant relationship was reported between organisational trust and OCB-O, which implied that organisational trust was not a significant predictor of organisationally directed OCB.

(f) *The relationship between the dependent variables*

The positive relationship between attitudinal commitment and OCB-O ($\beta = .31$; $p < .001$) implied that employees' willingness to engage in discretionary behaviour that is beneficial to their employing organisations will increase as their attitudinal commitment to these organisations grows.

9.3.2.3 *Preliminary analysis 3: Towards constructing a psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour*

The SEM results confirmed the predicting influence of psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism, organisational trust on organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O) and attitudinal commitment. In addition, attitudinal commitment was shown to be a predictor of OCB-O. The results implied that employees' attitudinal commitment and their perceptions of organisational support were the strongest predictors of organisationally directed OCB. Other significant predictors included perceived organisational justice, organisational cynicism and psychological contract violation. The results furthermore suggested that employees' trust in their employing organisations does not serve as a significant predictor of their willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour towards these organisations.

In terms of attitudinal commitment, perceived organisational support, organisational trust and organisational cynicism were identified as the strongest predictors. The results implied that employees' perceptions of organisational justice and psychological contract violation do not

influence their attitudinal commitment towards their employing organisations.

Finally, in terms of the mediating variables, it was revealed that organisational cynicism was influenced mainly by employees' perceptions of organisational justice and psychological contract violation, while organisational trust was predicted mainly by perceptions of organisational support and justice.

The results of the SEM analysis were valuable in establishing the variables that were the strongest predictors of relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O). The main predictors of the mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust) were also identified. These results are summarised in Table 9.42.

Table 9.42

Relational Elements of the Empirically Manifested Psychological Framework for Enhancing Relational Attitudes and Behaviour

Predicting variables ^a	Positive predictive influence	Negative predictive influence
Main predictors of relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment)		
Perceived organisational support	Employees who believe (1) that their employing organisations value their contributions and care about their well-being (high POS); and (2) that their	Employees who feel that their employing organisations lack integrity and perceive that organisational practices are based on self-interest
Organisational trust	employing organisations and managers will act in good faith and uphold their obligations towards them	and a lack fairness, honesty and sincerity (high organisational cynicism) are less likely to identify with their
Organisational cynicism	(high organisational trust), are more likely to identify with their organisations' goals and values and to exert effort on their behalf.	organisations' goals and values and to exert effort on their behalf.
Main predictors of relational behaviour (OCB-O)		
Attitudinal commitment	Employees who (1) form an emotional attachment to and moral obligation towards their organisations (high attitudinal commitment); and (2)	Employees who (1) believe that their employers are generally fair in their dealings with employees (high POJ)
Perceived organisational support	believe that their employing organisations value their contributions and care about their well-being (high POS) are more likely to engage in	but (2) perceive that their organisation failed to meet one or more of its obligations in terms of the psychological contract may react by (3) questioning the organisation's

Predicting variables ^a	Positive predictive influence	Negative predictive influence
Perceived organisational justice	constructive discretionary behaviour in support of the organisation.	integrity, intent, honesty and sincerity (high organisational cynicism); and will be less likely to engage in constructive discretionary behaviour in support of the organisation.
Organisational cynicism		
Psychological contract violation		

Main predictors of organisational cynicism

Psychological contract violation	Employees who perceive that their organisations have failed to meet one or more of their obligations in terms of the psychological contract and react emotionally to such perceptions (high psychological contract violation) are more likely to feel that their employing organisations lack integrity and to perceive that organisational practices are based on self-interest and a lack fairness, honesty and sincerity.	Employees who believe that they have been treated fairly by their employers (high POJ) are less likely to feel that their employing organisations lack integrity and to perceive that organisational practices are based on self-interest and a lack fairness, honesty and sincerity.
Perceived organisational justice		

Main predictors of organisational trust

Perceived organisational justice	Employees who believe that their employing organisations (1) value their contributions and care about their well-being (high POS); and (2) treat them fairly (high POJ) are more likely to also believe that their employing organisations and managers will act in good faith and uphold their obligations towards them.	
Perceived organisational support		

^a Predicting (independent) variables are listed in order of the strength of their relationships with the relevant outcome variable.

Table 9.42 shows that all the theorised independent (psychological contract violation, POJ and POS) and mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) variables play a predicting role in

the proposed psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

The SEM analysis thus enabled the researcher to identify the core variables playing a significant role in the proposed psychological framework for enhancing employee attitudes and behaviour and to identify the significant relationships between these variables (as depicted in Figure 9.17). Hence, the results provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H5.

H5: The theoretical hypothesised framework has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model.

These results are further discussed and interpreted in Chapter 10 (see section 10.1.5). In the following section, the dynamics between these variables are further explored by assessing the mediating role of organisational cynicism and trust.

9.3.3 Mediation analysis

The CCA and SEM results revealed that organisational cynicism and trust are not only significant outcomes of work-related perceptions and work experiences (psychological contract violation, POJ and POS), but also strong predictors of relational attitudes and behaviour (notably OCB-O and attitudinal commitment), suggesting a possible mediating effect (Baron & Kenny, 1986) as theorised in Chapter 5 (see Figure 5.9). The next step in the statistical analysis therefore entailed determining the extent to which organisational cynicism and trust act as mediators in the relationships between the independent (psychological contract violation, POJ and POS) and dependent variables of relevance in this study. In terms of dependent variables, the analyses focused on attitudinal commitment and organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O), as these variables were shown to contribute most to the explanation of the variance in relational attitudes and behaviour (see section 9.3.1.1).

Note that the predictive influence of the independent (psychological contract violation, POJ and POS) and mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) variables on relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) had already been established in the previous section (SEM analysis). Although the relationships between the variables were also determined and reported on as part of the mediation analysis, it is acknowledged that the SEM analysis provided a more comprehensive and accurate reflection of these relationships as all the relevant variables were tested in a single model. In this section, the aim is thus not to

revise the relationships that have already been established, but to determine whether there were interactive relationships between the independent and dependent variables through organisational cynicism and trust. Hence, research hypothesis H6 was tested by means of mediation analysis:

H6: Individuals' sense of organisational cynicism and trust significantly mediates the relationship between their work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB).

Because the CCA results (see section 9.3.1) suggested that union commitment, OCB directed towards individuals in the organisation (OCB-I) and counterproductive work behaviour did not contribute significantly to the explanation of the variance in relational attitudes and behaviour, these variables were omitted from the model tested in the previous section and subsequently excluded from further analysis in terms of mediation and moderation effects. Hypothesis H6 could therefore only be partially tested in terms of the remaining outcome variables, namely attitudinal commitment and OCB-O.

Mediation entails that the effect of an antecedent or independent variable on an outcome (dependent variable) is transmitted, either partially or completely, by a mediator variable (Aguinis et al., 2017). In this study, organisational cynicism and trust were identified as potential mediating variables (see Chapter 5). The results of the SEM (see Figure 9.17) suggested that organisational cynicism potentially mediated the relationships between two of the theorised independent variables, namely psychological contract violation and POJ and the dependent variables (attitudinal commitment and OCB-O). In addition, the SEM results implied that the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and their attitudinal commitment to their employing organisations were mediated by organisational trust. However, as attitudinal commitment emerged as the main predictor of organisationally directed OCB, it was resolved that a more parsimonious framework could be obtained by focusing on the indirect relationships between individuals' work experiences (psychological contract violation) and work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and their attitudinal commitment as mediated by organisational cynicism and trust. The potential mediating effects that were subsequently tested are reflected in Figure 9.18.

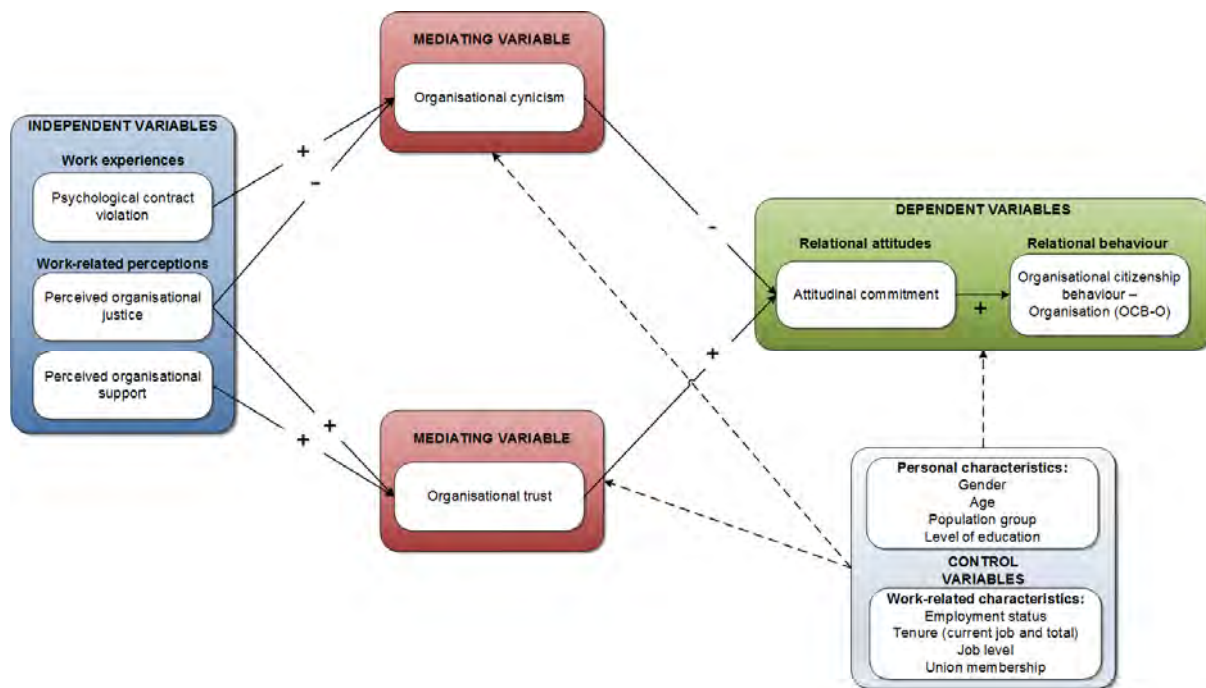


Figure 9.18. Mediation Analysis: Organisational Cynicism and Trust as Mediators in the Relationship between Work-related Perceptions and Work Experiences (POS, POJ and Psychological Contract Violation) and Attitudinal Commitment

While the SEM results indicated that there were significant direct relationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work-experiences (psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) in the workplace, it was posited that a greater understanding of the antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour may be obtained by investigating the indirect effects of individuals' work-related perceptions and work-experiences through organisational cynicism and trust. The following theorised mediation effects, as reflected in Figure 9.18, were examined, keeping the control variables (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) constant:

- First, the extent to which organisational cynicism mediates the relationship between psychological contract violation and attitudinal commitment as a relational outcome was determined.
- Second, the extent to which organisational trust mediates the relationships between POS and attitudinal commitment as a relational outcome was tested.
- Finally, the extent to which both organisational cynicism and trust mediate the

relationship between POJ and relational attitudes in the form of attitudinal commitment was assessed.

The control variables relate to those personal and work-related characteristics that are not included in the analysis but for which differences have been reported (Hair et al., 2014). Hence, these variables are additional observable and measurable variables that may potentially influence the dependent variables (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). They need to be kept constant to avoid them influencing the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variables (Saunders et al., 2016). In the mediation analyses, confounding and epiphenomenal associations based on personal (gender, age, population group and level of education) and work-related (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics were ruled out by including these variables as predictor variables in the mediation models (Hayes, 2018a).

The first two mediating effects that were tested related to single mediators – hence the reliance on simple mediation analysis. However, the third mediation effect that was examined included both organisational cynicism and trust as potential mediators in the relationship between POJ and attitudinal commitment. Therefore, to assess the mediating effect of the two proposed mediators simultaneously, allowing for a more complex assessment of the processes through which the independent variable (POJ) affect the dependent variable (attitudinal commitment), parallel mediation analysis was used (Kane & Ashbaugh, 2017). Parallel mediation analysis allowed for the testing of both organisational commitment and organisational trust as proposed mediators, while accounting for the shared variance between them (Hayes, 2018a; Kane & Ashbaugh, 2017). Parallel mediation analysis also ensured a more accurate reflection of the conceptualised theoretical model (see Chapter 7) and allowed for a comparison of the size of indirect effects through organisational cynicism and trust (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017).

The mediation analyses were conducted by means of the PROCESS (v 3.0) macro (model 4) for IBM SPSS (Hayes, 2018a) and IBM SPSS version 25 (IBM Corp, 2017). Inferences about mediation were based on the indirect effect of X on Y (*ab*) (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). Ordinary least squares regression-based analysis was conducted to estimate the effects in the mediation models (Hayes et al., 2017). Rejection of the null hypothesis that the indirect effect (*ab*) is zero (or a bootstrap interval estimate that does not include zero) was regarded as sufficient, supporting evidence of a mediation effect of X on Y through M (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). No distinction was made between complete and partial mediation, as recommended by Hayes (2018a). The main and interaction effects were interpreted using the bootstrapping bias-corrected 95 per cent lower level (LLCI) and upper level (ULCI) confidence

levels, excluding zero (Hayes, 2009; Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). The indirect effect was interpreted in terms of the signs (+ or -) of the indirect effect (ab) and its constituent components (paths a and b) (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017).

In terms of the control variables (or covariates), regression analysis typically requires metric variables but provides for the use of binary categorical variables (Hair et al., 2014). Consequently, the biographical variables were transformed for all regression-based analyses (mediation, moderation and multiple regression) by recoding them as follows:

Gender:	0 = Female; 1 = Male (original categories)
Age:	0 = 18–35 years; 1 = 36–65 years
Population group:	0 = Black African; 1 = Other (i.e. Coloured, Indian/Asian and white)
Level of education:	0 = NQF 5 and lower; 1 = NQF 6 and higher
Employment status:	0 = Permanent; 1 = Contract
Tenure (current):	0 = Less than 5 years; 1 = 5 years and more
Tenure (all):	0 = Less than 10 years; 1 = 10 years and more
Job level:	0 = Staff level; 1 = Management/supervisor level (original categories)
Trade union membership:	0 = Nonmembers; 1 = Members

For all models, the correlation matrices, tolerance parameters, variance inflation factors (VIFs), condition indices and eigenvalues were used to assess multicollinearity and singularity. No anomalies were detected in the tests.

It should be noted that, although mediation empirically assessed the effects of variables, owing to the cross-sectional design of the study, no true cause-effect relations could be established. The purpose of the mediation analysis was essentially to explore the magnitude and direction of the potential mediational function of the variables.

9.3.3.1 *The mediating role of organisational cynicism in the relationship between psychological contract violation and attitudinal commitment*

The results of the first mediation analysis aimed at investigating the indirect relationship between psychological contract violation and attitudinal commitment through organisational cynicism are reported in Table 9.43 and illustrated in Figure 9.19.

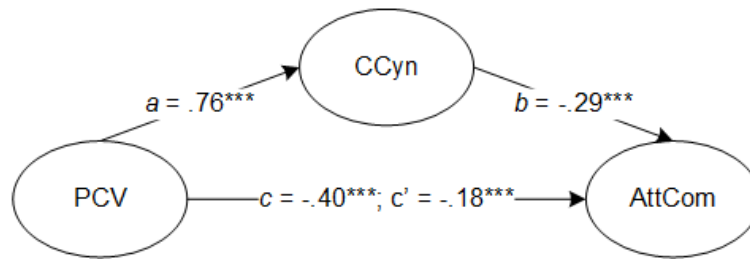
Table 9.43

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors and Model Summary Information for the Mediation Model Depicting the Relationship between Psychological Contract Violation (Independent Variable) and Attitudinal Commitment (Dependent Variable) through Organisational Cynicism as Mediator

Antecedents	Outcomes													
	M: Organisational cynicism							Y: Attitudinal commitment						
	Path	β	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI	Path	β	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Direct effect														
X: Psychological contract violation				-				c	-.40	.03	-14.08	.000	-.45	-.34
D1: Gender				-				<i>g</i>₁	.26	.10	2.58	.010	.06	.47
D2: Age				-				<i>g</i> ₂	-.02	.12	-.16	.871	-.25	.21
D3: Population				-				<i>g</i>₃	.54	.11	5.01	.000	.33	.75
D4: Education				-				<i>g</i>₄	-.22	.10	-2.13	.034	-.43	-.02
D5: Employment status				-				<i>g</i> ₅	.09	.16	.57	.569	-.22	.40
D6: Tenure (current)				-				<i>g</i>₆	.28	.11	2.47	.014	.06	.50
D7: Tenure (all)				-				<i>g</i> ₇	-.22	.12	-1.75	.080	-.46	.03
D8: Job level				-				<i>g</i> ₈	.14	.10	1.33	.186	-.07	.34
D9: Trade union membership				-				<i>g</i> ₉	.10	.11	.88	.380	-.12	.32
Constant				-				<i>g</i> _Y	4.63	.16	29.39	.000	4.32	4.93
<i>R</i> ²				-				<i>R</i> ² = .28						
<i>F</i> _p				-				<i>F</i> (10, 713) = 27.36; <i>p</i> < .001						

Antecedents	Outcomes													
	M: Organisational cynicism							Y: Attitudinal commitment						
	Path	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	Path	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Indirect effect														
X: Psychological contract violation	a	.76	.02	31.65	.000	.71	.81	c'	-.18	.04	-4.14	.000	-.26	-.09
M: Organisational cynicism	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	b	-.29	.04	-6.84	.000	-.38	-.21
D ₁ : Gender	<i>f</i> ₁	.02	.09	.19	.851	-.15	.19	h ₁	.27	.10	2.71	.007	.07	.46
D ₂ : Age	<i>f</i> ₂	-.19	.10	-1.85	.065	-.38	.01	<i>h</i> ₂	-.07	.12	-.64	.523	-.30	.15
D ₃ : Population	<i>f</i> ₃	-.00	.09	-.02	.986	-.18	.18	h ₃	.54	.10	5.17	.000	.33	.74
D ₄ : Education	<i>f</i> ₄	-.06	.09	-.65	.518	-.23	.12	h ₄	-.24	.10	-2.36	.019	-.44	-.04
D ₅ : Employment status	<i>f</i> ₅	-.01	.13	-.09	.925	-.27	.25	<i>h</i> ₅	.09	.15	.56	.573	-.21	.38
D ₆ : Tenure (current)	<i>f</i> ₆	-.08	.09	-.79	.428	-.26	.11	h ₆	.25	.11	2.34	.019	.04	.47
D ₇ : Tenure (all)	<i>f</i> ₇	-.10	.10	-.98	.328	-.31	.10	h ₇	-.25	.12	-2.06	.040	-.48	-.01
D ₈ : Job level	<i>f</i> ₈	-.07	.09	-.77	.444	-.24	.11	<i>h</i> ₈	.12	.10	1.17	.242	-.08	.32
D ₉ : Trade union membership	f ₉	.20	.10	2.12	.035	.01	.39	<i>h</i> ₉	.16	.11	1.44	.149	-.06	.38
Constant	<i>i</i> _{M1}	1.64	.13	12.29	.000	1.38	1.90	<i>i</i> _Y	5.11	.17	30.41	.000	4.78	5.44
<i>R</i> ²	<i>R</i> ² = .60							<i>R</i> ² = .32						
<i>F</i> _p	<i>F</i> (10, 713) = 107.72; <i>p</i> < .001							<i>F</i> (11, 712) = 30.72; <i>p</i> < .001						
Indirect effect	<i>ab</i> = -.22; 95% bootstrap confidence interval = -.29 to -.15													

Notes: *n* = 724. *R*²: ≤ .12 = small practical effect; ≥ .13 ≤ .25 = medium practical effect; ≥ .26 = large practical effect; *X* = independent variable; *Y* = dependent variable; *M* = mediating variable; *D* = control variable (covariate); *a* is the effect of psychological contract violation (PCV) on organisational cynicism (CCyn); *b* is the effect of organisational cynicism on attitudinal commitment (AttCom); *c'* is the direct effect of PCV on AttCom when the mediating (CCyn) and control (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) variables are held constant; *c* is the total effect of PCV on AttCom statistically controlling for gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership; *ab* is the indirect effect of PCV on AttCom through CCyn if the control variables (*D*₁ to *D*₉) are held constant.



Notes. $n = 724$; * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$; All presented coefficients are unstandardised; a is the effect of psychological contract violation (PCV) on organisational cynicism (CCyn); b is the effect of organisational cynicism on attitudinal commitment (AttCom); c' is the direct effect of PCV on AttCom; c is the total effect of PCV on AttCom.

Figure 9.19. Mediation Model Depicting the Relationship between Psychological Contract Violation and Attitudinal Commitment through Organisational Cynicism as Mediator

The results of the mediation analysis, controlling for gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership, not only showed that psychological contract violation is a significant predictor of attitudinal commitment ($c = -.40$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: $-.45$ to $-.34$), but also indicated that psychological contract violation is indirectly related to attitudinal commitment through its relationship with organisational cynicism.

First, the results estimated that 60 per cent of the variance in organisational cynicism is explained by variation in psychological contract violation ($R^2 = .60$; $F(10, 713) = 107.72$; $p < .001$; large practical effect). Higher levels of psychological contract violation were associated with higher levels of organisational cynicism ($a = .76$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: $.71$ to $.81$) and higher organisational cynicism was subsequently related to lower attitudinal commitment ($b = -.29$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: $-.38$ to $-.21$). A 95 per cent bias-corrected confidence interval based on 5 000 bootstrap samples indicated that the indirect effect through organisational cynicism ($ab = -.22$), holding gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership constant, was entirely below zero ($-.29$ to $-.15$), providing evidence of a mediating effect.

Moreover, higher levels of psychological contract violation were associated with a decline in attitudinal commitment even when taking into account the indirect effect of psychological contract violation on attitudinal commitment through organisational cynicism ($c' = -.18$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: $-.26$ to $-.09$), while statistically controlling for gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and

union membership. The results showed that approximately 32 per cent of variance in attitudinal commitment was accounted for by variation in both psychological contract violation and organisational cynicism ($R^2 = .32$; $F(11, 712) = 30.72$; $p < .001$; large practical effect).

The results suggested that gender, population group, level of education, tenure and union membership were significant predictors of psychological contract violation, organisational cynicism and attitudinal commitment. Differences in the relationships between psychological contract violation, organisational cynicism and attitudinal commitment might thus exist between groups, based on the following personal and work-related characteristics:

- The total effect of psychological contract violation on attitudinal commitment varied for different groups in terms of gender ($g_1 = .26$; $p < .01$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .06 to .47); population group ($g_3 = .54$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .33 to .75); level of education ($g_4 = -.22$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.43 to -.02); and tenure with the current employer ($g_6 = .28$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .06 to .50).
- The indirect effect of psychological contract violation on attitudinal commitment through organisational cynicism varied because of trade union membership ($f_9 = .20$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .01 to .39).
- The direct effect of psychological contract violation on attitudinal commitment, when taking into account the indirect effect of psychological contract violation on attitudinal commitment through organisational cynicism, varied for different groups in terms of gender ($h_1 = .27$; $p < .01$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .07 to .46); population group ($h_3 = .54$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .33 to .74); level of education ($h_4 = -.24$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.44 to -.04); tenure with the current employer ($h_6 = .25$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .04 to .47) and total tenure ($h_7 = -.25$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.48 to -.01).

9.3.3.2 *The mediating role of organisational trust in the relationship between perceived organisational support and attitudinal commitment*

The second mediation analysis related to the indirect relationship between perceived organisational support and attitudinal commitment through organisational trust. The results of this analysis are reported in Table 9.44 and illustrated in Figure 9.20.

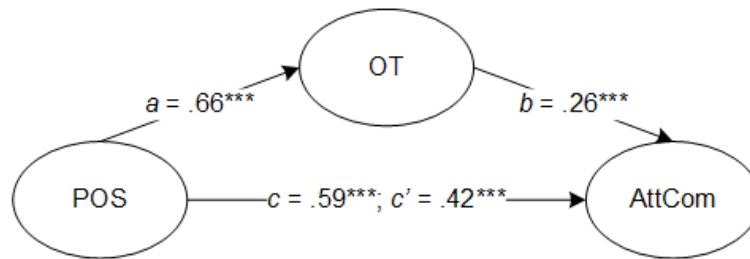
Table 9.44

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors and Model Summary Information for the Mediation Model Depicting the Relationship between Perceived Organisational Support (Independent Variable) and Attitudinal Commitment (Dependent Variable) through Organisational Trust as Mediator

Antecedents	Outcomes													
	M: Organisational trust							Y: Attitudinal commitment						
	Path	β	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI	Path	β	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Direct effect														
X: Perceived organisational support				-				c	.59	.03	18.83	.000	.53	.65
D ₁ : Gender				-				<i>g</i> ₁	.18	.09	1.94	.053	-.00	.37
D ₂ : Age				-				<i>g</i> ₂	-.04	.11	-.32	.748	-.25	.18
D ₃ : Population				-				<i>g</i>₃	.49	.10	4.92	.000	.29	.68
D ₄ : Education				-				<i>g</i>₄	-.20	.10	-2.08	.038	-.39	-.01
D ₅ : Employment status				-				<i>g</i> ₅	-.12	.14	-.85	.396	-.41	.16
D ₆ : Tenure (current)				-				<i>g</i> ₆	.16	.10	1.59	.112	-.04	.37
D ₇ : Tenure (all)				-				<i>g</i> ₇	-.14	.11	-1.25	.213	-.37	.08
D ₈ : Job level				-				<i>g</i> ₈	.07	.10	.69	.492	-.12	.26
D ₉ : Trade union membership				-				<i>g</i> ₉	.18	.11	1.69	.091	-.03	.38
Constant				-				<i>g</i> _Y	.69	.19	3.61	.000	.31	1.06
<i>R</i> ²				-				<i>R</i> ² = .38						
<i>F</i> _p				-				<i>F</i> (10, 713) = 44.28; <i>p</i> < .001						

Antecedents	Outcomes													
	M: Organisational trust							Y: Attitudinal commitment						
	Path	β	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI	Path	β	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Indirect effect														
X: Perceived organisational support	a	.66	.03	19.06	.000	.59	.73	c'	.42	.04	11.37	.000	.35	.49
M: Organisational trust	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	b	.26	.03	7.93	.000	.19	.32
D ₁ : Gender	<i>f</i> ₁	.19	.10	1.82	.069	-.01	.40	<i>h</i> ₁	.13	.09	1.48	.140	-.04	.32
D ₂ : Age	<i>f</i> ₂	-.04	.12	-.34	.736	-.28	.20	<i>h</i> ₂	-.02	.11	-.24	.814	-.23	.18
D ₃ : Population	<i>f</i> ₃	.04	.11	.35	.724	-.18	.25	<i>h</i>₃	.48	.10	5.02	.000	.29	.67
D ₄ : Education	<i>f</i> ₄	-.19	.11	-1.81	.071	-.40	.02	<i>h</i> ₄	-.15	.09	-1.63	.104	-.33	.03
D ₅ : Employment status	<i>f</i> ₅	-.06	.16	-.36	.721	-.37	.26	<i>h</i> ₅	-.11	.14	-.78	.436	-.38	.16
D ₆ : Tenure (current)	<i>f</i> ₆	-.12	.11	-1.07	.286	-.35	.10	<i>h</i>₆	.20	.10	1.98	.049	.00	.39
D ₇ : Tenure (all)	<i>f</i> ₇	.09	.13	.70	.487	-.16	.34	<i>h</i> ₇	-.16	.11	-1.50	.133	-.38	.05
D ₈ : Job level	<i>f</i> ₈	-.13	.11	-1.20	.232	-.34	.08	<i>h</i> ₈	.10	.09	1.07	.284	-.08	.28
D ₉ : Trade union membership	<i>f</i> ₉	.05	.12	.46	.645	-.17	.28	<i>h</i> ₉	.16	.10	1.63	.104	-.03	.36
Constant	<i>i</i> _{M1}	.58	.21	2.74	.006	.16	.99	<i>i</i> _Y	.54	.18	2.93	.004	.18	.90
<i>R</i> ²	<i>R</i> ² = .36							<i>R</i> ² = .43						
<i>F</i> _{<i>p</i>}	<i>F</i> (10, 713) = 39.76; <i>p</i> < .001							<i>F</i> (11, 712) = 49.47; <i>p</i> < .001						
Indirect effect	<i>ab</i> = .17; 95% bootstrap confidence interval = .12 to .22													

Notes: *n* = 724. *R*²: ≤ .12 = small practical effect; ≥ .13 ≤ .25 = medium practical effect; ≥ .26 = large practical effect; X = independent variable; Y = dependent variable; M = mediating variable; D = control variable (covariate); *a* is the effect of perceived organisational support (POS) on organisational trust (OT); *b* is the effect of organisational trust on attitudinal commitment (AttCom); *c'* is the direct effect of POS on AttCom when the mediating (OT) and control (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) variables are held constant; *c* is the total effect of POS on AttCom statistically controlling for gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership; *ab* is the indirect effect of POS on AttCom through OT if the control variables (D₁ to D₉) are held constant.



Notes. $n = 724$; * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$; All presented coefficients are unstandardised; a is the effect of perceived organisational support (POS) on organisational trust (OT); b is the effect of organisational trust on attitudinal commitment (AttCom); c' is the direct effect of POS on AttCom; c is the total effect of POS on AttCom.

Figure 9.20. Mediation Model Depicting the Relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and Attitudinal Commitment through Organisational Trust as Mediator

The results of the mediation analysis, controlling for gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership, not only showed that perceived organisational support is a significant predictor of attitudinal commitment ($c = .59$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .53 to .65), but also indicated that perceived organisational support is indirectly related to attitudinal commitment through its relationship with organisational trust.

First, the results suggested that 36 per cent of the variance in organisational trust was explained by variation in perceived organisational support ($R^2 = .36$; $F(10, 713) = 39.76$; $p < .001$; large practical effect). Higher levels of perceived organisational support were significantly associated with higher levels of organisational trust ($a = .66$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .59 to .73) and higher organisational trust was subsequently related to higher attitudinal commitment ($b = .26$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .19 to .32). A 95 per cent bias-corrected confidence interval based on 5 000 bootstrap samples indicated that the indirect effect through organisational trust ($ab = .17$), holding gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership constant, was entirely above zero (.12 to .22), providing evidence of a mediating effect.

Moreover, higher levels of perceived organisational support were associated with an increase in attitudinal commitment, even when taking into account the indirect effect of perceived organisational support on attitudinal commitment through organisational trust ($c' = .42$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .35 to .49), while statistically controlling for

gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership. The results showed that approximately 43 per cent of variance in attitudinal commitment was accounted for by variation in both POS and organisational trust ($R^2 = .43$; $F(11, 712) = 49.47$; $p < .001$; large practical effect).

The results suggested that differences in the relationships between perceived organisational support, organisational trust and attitudinal commitment might exist between groups, based on the following personal and work-related characteristics:

- The total effect of perceived organisational support on attitudinal commitment varied for different groups in terms of population group ($g_3 = .49$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .29 to .68) and level of education ($g_4 = -.20$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.39 to -.01).
- The direct effect of perceived organisational support on attitudinal commitment, when taking into account the indirect effect of perceived organisational support on attitudinal commitment through organisational trust, varied for different groups in terms of population group ($h_3 = .48$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .29 to .67) and tenure with the current employer ($h_6 = .20$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .00 to .39).

9.3.3.3 *The mediating role of organisational cynicism and trust in the relationship between perceived organisational justice and attitudinal commitment*

Finally, a parallel mediation analysis was conducted with the aim of testing the indirect relationship between perceived organisational justice and attitudinal commitment through organisational cynicism and trust. The results are reported in Table 9.45 and illustrated in Figure 9.21.

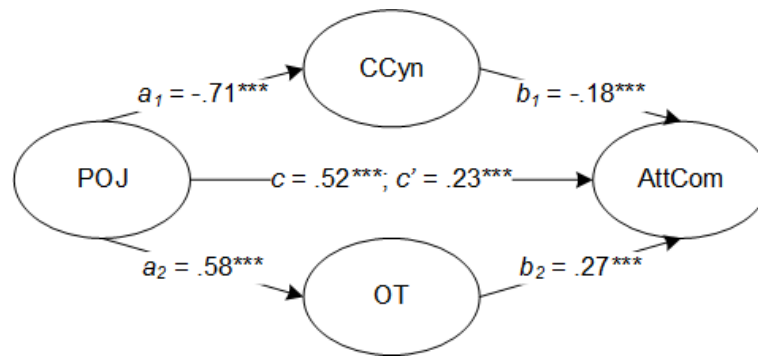
Table 9.45

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Mediation Models Depicting the Relationships between Perceived Organisational Justice (Independent Variable) and Attitudinal Commitment (Dependent Variable) through Organisational Cynicism and Trust as Mediators

Antecedents	Outcomes																					
	M ₁ : Organisational cynicism							M ₂ : Organisational trust							Y: Attitudinal commitment							
	Path	β	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI	Path	β	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI	Path	β	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI	
Total effect model																						
X: Perceived organisational justice				-											c	.52	.03	15.84	.000	.46	.58	
D ₁ : Gender				-											<i>j</i> ₁	.19	.10	1.95	.051	-.00	.39	
D ₂ : Age				-											<i>j</i> ₂	.01	.12	.08	.940	-.22	.24	
D ₃ : Population				-											<i>j</i> ₃	.50	.10	4.79	.000	.30	.71	
D ₄ : Education				-											<i>j</i> ₄	-.30	.10	-2.95	.003	-.49	-.10	
D ₅ : Employment status				-											<i>j</i> ₅	-.14	.15	-.90	.369	-.43	.16	
D ₆ : Tenure (current)				-											<i>j</i> ₆	.28	.11	2.62	.009	.07	.50	
D ₇ : Tenure (all)				-											<i>j</i> ₇	-.24	.12	-2.01	.044	-.48	-.01	
D ₈ : Job level				-											<i>j</i> ₈	.21	.10	2.04	.042	.01	.40	
D ₉ : Trade union membership				-											<i>j</i> ₉	.07	.11	.64	.523	-.15	.29	
Constant				-											<i>i</i> _Y	1.05	.20	5.30	.000	.66	1.44	
Model information																						
<i>R</i> ²				-																		<i>R</i> ² = .32
<i>F</i> _{<i>p</i>}				-																		<i>F</i> (10, 713) = 33.08; <i>p</i> < .001

Antecedents	Outcomes																				
	M1: Organisational cynicism							M2: Organisational trust							Y: Attitudinal commitment						
	Path	β	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI	Path	β	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI	Path	β	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Mediation models																					
X: Perceived organisational justice	<i>a</i> ₁	-.71	.04	-20.01	.000	-.78	-.64	<i>a</i> ₂	.58	.04	16.09	.000	.51	.66	<i>c'</i>	.23	.04	5.89	.000	.16	.31
M1: Organisational cynicism	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₁	-.18	.03	-5.47	.000	-.25	-.12
M2: Organisational trust	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₂	.27	.03	8.38	.000	.21	.33
D1: Gender	<i>f</i> ₁	.11	.11	1.05	.296	-.10	.32	<i>g</i> ₁	.20	.11	1.84	.066	-.01	.42	<i>h</i> ₁	.16	.09	1.74	.082	-.02	.34
D2: Age	<i>f</i> ₂	-.20	.13	-1.59	.112	-.44	.05	<i>g</i> ₂	.01	.13	.07	.946	-.24	.26	<i>h</i> ₂	-.03	.11	-.28	.781	-.24	.18
D3: Population	<i>f</i> ₃	.01	.11	.12	.902	-.21	.24	<i>g</i> ₃	.05	.12	.45	.651	-.17	.28	<i>h</i> ₃	.49	.10	5.10	.000	.30	.68
D4: Education	<i>f</i> ₄	.14	.11	1.28	.201	-.07	.35	<i>g</i> ₄	-.30	.11	-2.70	.007	-.52	-.08	<i>h</i> ₄	-.19	.09	-2.05	.041	-.37	-.01
D5: Employment status	<i>f</i> ₅	.38	.16	2.31	.021	.06	.70	<i>g</i> ₅	-.07	.17	-.43	.665	-.40	.26	<i>h</i> ₅	-.05	.14	-.34	.731	-.32	.23
D6: Tenure (current)	<i>f</i> ₆	-.03	.12	-.26	.791	-.26	.20	<i>g</i> ₆	.01	.12	.11	.910	-.22	.25	<i>h</i> ₆	.28	.10	2.76	.006	.08	.47
D7: Tenure (all)	<i>f</i> ₇	-.09	.13	-.71	.479	-.35	.16	<i>g</i> ₇	-.02	.13	-.18	.855	-.29	.24	<i>h</i> ₇	-.25	.11	-2.29	.023	-.47	-.04
D8: Job level	<i>f</i> ₈	-.27	.11	-2.50	.013	-.49	-.06	<i>g</i> ₈	.03	.11	.25	.803	-.19	.25	<i>h</i> ₈	.15	.09	1.60	.109	-.03	.33
D9: Trade union membership	<i>f</i> ₉	.25	.12	2.13	.033	.02	.49	<i>g</i> ₉	-.07	.12	-.55	.585	-.31	.17	<i>h</i> ₉	.13	.10	1.33	.185	-.06	.33
Constant	<i>i</i> _{M1}	7.15	.21	33.37	.000	6.73	7.57	<i>i</i> _{M2}	.98	.22	4.46	.000	.55	1.41	<i>i</i> _Y	2.08	.31	6.78	.000	1.48	2.69
Model information																					
<i>R</i> ²	<i>R</i> ² = .39							<i>R</i> ² = .29							<i>R</i> ² = .43						
<i>F</i> _{<i>p</i>}	<i>F</i> (10, 713) = 44.97; <i>p</i> < .001							<i>F</i> (10, 713) = 28.99; <i>p</i> < .001							<i>F</i> (12, 711) = 44.11; <i>p</i> < .001						
Indirect effects	<i>a</i> ₁ <i>b</i> ₁ = .13 95% bootstrap confidence interval = .08 to .18							<i>a</i> ₂ <i>b</i> ₂ = .16 95% bootstrap confidence interval = .11 to .21							Total indirect effect = .29 95% bootstrap confidence interval = .23 to .35						

Notes: *n* = 724. *R*²: ≤ .12 = small practical effect; ≥ .13 ≤ .25 = medium practical effect; ≥ .26 = large practical effect; X = independent variable; Y = dependent variable; M = mediating variable; D = control variable (covariate); *a*₁ is the effect of perceived organisational justice (POJ) on organisational cynicism (CCyn); *b*₁ is the effect of organisational cynicism on attitudinal commitment (AttCom); *a*₂ is the effect of perceived organisational justice (POJ) on organisational trust (OT); *b*₂ is the effect of organisational trust on attitudinal commitment (AttCom); *c'* is the direct effect of POJ on AttCom when the mediating (CCyn and OT) and control (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) variables are held constant; *c* is the total effect of POJ on AttCom statistically controlling for gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership; *a*₁*b*₁ is the indirect effect of POJ on AttCom through CCyn if OT and the control variables (D₁ to D₉) are held constant; *a*₂*b*₂ is the indirect effect of POJ on AttCom through OT if CCyn and the control variables (D₁ to D₉) are held constant; The total indirect effect is the indirect effect of POJ on AttCom through both CCyn and OT if the control variables (D₁ to D₉) are held constant.



Notes. $n = 724$; * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$; All presented coefficients are unstandardised; a_1 is the effect of perceived organisational justice (POJ) on organisational cynicism (CCyn); b_1 is the effect of organisational cynicism on attitudinal commitment (AttCom); a_2 is the effect of perceived organisational justice (POJ) on organisational trust (OT); b_2 is the effect of organisational trust on attitudinal commitment (AttCom); c' is the direct effect of POJ on AttCom; c is the total effect of POJ on AttCom.

Figure 9.21. Parallel Mediation Model Depicting the Relationship between Perceived Organisational Justice and Attitudinal Commitment through Organisational Cynicism and Trust as Mediators

The results of a parallel mediation analysis, controlling for gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership, not only showed that perceived organisational justice was a significant predictor of attitudinal commitment ($c = .52$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .46 to .58) but also indicated that perceived organisational justice was indirectly related to attitudinal commitment through its relationship with organisational cynicism and trust.

First, the results suggested that 39 per cent of the variance in organisational cynicism could be explained by variation in perceived organisational justice ($R^2 = .39$; $F(10, 713) = 44.97$; $p < .001$; large practical effect). Higher levels of perceived organisational justice were significantly associated with lower levels of organisational cynicism ($a_1 = -.71$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.78 to -.64) and higher organisational cynicism was subsequently related to lower attitudinal commitment ($b_1 = -.18$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.25 to -.12). A 95 per cent bias-corrected confidence interval based on 5 000 bootstrap samples indicated that the indirect effect through organisational cynicism ($a_1b_1 = .13$), holding organisational trust, gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership constant, was entirely above zero (.08 to .18), suggesting the existence of a mediating effect.

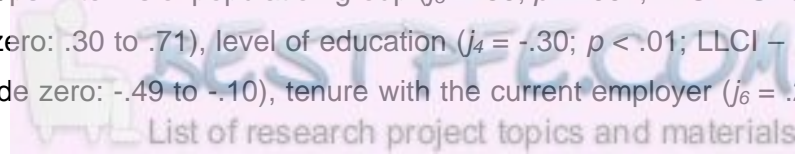
In addition, the results indicated that 29 per cent of the variance in organisational trust could be accounted for by variation in perceived organisational justice ($R^2 = .29$; $F(10, 713) = 28.99$; $p < .001$; large practical effect). Higher levels of perceived organisational justice were significantly associated with higher levels of organisational trust ($a_2 = .58$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .51 to .66), and higher organisational trust was subsequently related to higher attitudinal commitment ($b_2 = .27$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .21 to .33). A 95 per cent bias-corrected confidence interval based on 5 000 bootstrap samples indicated that the indirect effect through organisational trust ($a_2b_2 = .16$), holding organisational cynicism, gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership constant, was entirely above zero (.11 to .21), signifying the existence of a mediating effect.

Moreover, higher levels perceived organisational justice were associated with an increase in attitudinal commitment even when taking into account the indirect effect of perceived organisational justice on attitudinal commitment through both organisational cynicism and trust ($c' = .23$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .16 to .31), while statistically controlling for gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership. The results showed that approximately 43 per cent of variance in attitudinal commitment was accounted for by variation in POJ and both organisational cynicism and trust ($R^2 = .43$; $F(12, 711) = 44.11$; $p < .001$; large practical effect).

A pairwise comparison of the indirect effects of organisational cynicism and trust on the relationship between perceived organisational justice and attitudinal commitment confirmed that there was no statistical difference between the two indirect effects (Hayes, 2018a). A total indirect effect of .29 with a 95 per cent bootstrap confidence interval between .23 and .35 indicated that the total indirect effect of perceived organisational justice on attitudinal commitment through organisational cynicism and trust simultaneously was statistically significant. This supported the suggestion in Chapter 5 that organisational cynicism and trust jointly mediate the effect of perceived organisational justice on attitudinal commitment.

The results suggested that differences in the relationships between perceived organisational justice, organisational cynicism, organisational trust and attitudinal commitment might exist between groups, based on the following personal and work-related characteristics:

- The total effect of perceived organisational justice on attitudinal commitment varied for different groups in terms of population group ($j_3 = .50$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .30 to .71), level of education ($j_4 = -.30$; $p < .01$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.49 to -.10), tenure with the current employer ($j_6 = .28$; $p < .01$;



LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .07 to .50), total tenure ($j_7 = -.24$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.48 to -.01) and job level ($j_8 = .21$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .01 to .40).

- The indirect effect of perceived organisational justice on attitudinal commitment through organisational cynicism varied because of employment status ($f_5 = .38$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .06 to .70), job level ($f_8 = -.27$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.49 to -.06) and trade union membership ($f_9 = .25$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .02 to .49).
- The indirect effect of perceived organisational justice on attitudinal commitment through organisational trust varied because of level of education ($g_4 = -.30$; $p < .01$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.52 to -.08).
- The direct effect of perceived organisational justice on attitudinal commitment, when taking into account the indirect effect of perceived organisational justice on attitudinal commitment through both organisational cynicism and trust, varied for different groups in terms of population group ($h_3 = .49$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .30 to .68), level of education ($h_4 = -.19$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.37 to -.01), tenure with the current employer ($h_6 = .28$; $p < .01$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .08 to .47) and total tenure ($h_7 = -.25$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.47 to -.04).

9.3.3.4 *Preliminary analysis 4: Towards constructing a psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour*

In the previous sections, the results of three mediation analyses were reported. These analyses were conducted to assess the indirect effect of organisational cynicism and trust on the relationships between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) variables and attitudinal commitment as dependent variable providing empirical support for research hypothesis H6. As previously explained, the mediating role of organisational cynicism and trust in the relationships between the independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and OCB-O were not tested because of the strong predictive value of attitudinal commitment on OCB-O that emerged from the SEM results. Table 9.46 contains a summary of the core conclusions emanating from these results.

Table 9.46

The Mediating Role of Organisational Cynicism and Trust in the Relationship between Work-related Perceptions (POS and POJ) and Work Experiences (Psychological Contract Violation) and Relational Attitudes (Attitudinal Commitment)

Predicting variables	Mediating variables	Outcome variables
Psychological contract violation	Organisational cynicism	Attitudinal commitment
(1) An employee who reacts emotionally to a perception that the organisation has failed to meet one or more of its obligations in terms of the psychological contract ismore likely to feel that his or her employing organisation lacks integrity and to perceive that organisational practices are based on self-interest and a lack of fairness, honesty and sincerity and, in turn, less likely to identify with the goals and values of the organisation and to exert effort on behalf of the organisation.
Perceived organisational support	Organisational trust	Attitudinal commitment
(2) An employee who believes that his or her employing organisation values his or her contributions and cares about his or her well-being is more likely to believe that his or her employing organisation and its management will act in good faith and uphold its obligations towards him or her and, in turn, more likely to identify with the goals and values of the organisation and to exert effort on behalf of the organisation.
Perceived organisational justice	Organisational cynicism and trust	Attitudinal commitment
(3) An employee who believes that he or she is treated fairly by his or her employer isless likely to feel that his or her employing organisation lacks integrity and to perceive that organisational practices are based on self-interest and a lack of fairness, honesty and sincerity ... and ... more likely to believe that his or her employing organisation and its management will act in good faith and uphold its obligations towards him or her and, in turn, more likely to identify with the goals and values of the organisation and to exert effort on behalf of the organisation.

In essence, the results confirmed that both organisational cynicism and trust fulfil mediating roles in the proposed psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour. Organisational cynicism was shown to intervene in the relationships between work-related perceptions and work experiences (specifically POJ and psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment). Therefore, employees who feel that their employers do not meet their obligations in terms of the psychological contract and treat

them unfairly are more likely to become cynical towards their employing organisations. In turn, they will be less inclined to identify with the organisation's values and to exert effort on its behalf.

Organisational trust was revealed as a mediator in the relationships between work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment). It could therefore be deduced that employees who feel that their employers value their contributions to the organisation, and treat them fairly, with due regard for their well-being, are more likely to trust their employing organisations and managers. In turn, they will be more inclined to identify with the organisation's values and to exert effort on its behalf.

The results provided supporting evidence for hypothesis H6.

H6: Individuals' sense of organisational cynicism and trust significantly mediates the relationship between their work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB).

These results are interpreted and the consequences thereof discussed in Chapter 10 (section 10.1.6).

9.3.4 Moderation analysis

A moderator may be described as any variable (qualitative or quantitative) that influences the strength and/or direction of the relationship between an independent and dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In Chapter 6 it was theorised that individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition may serve as a moderating variable in the proposed psychological framework aimed at enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour.

The next step in the statistical analysis process was thus to determine whether the significant relationships between the independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) and dependent variables (attitudinal commitment and OCB-O) that were reported in section 9.3.3 were moderated by (i.e. were conditional upon) individuals' personal dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism, as depicted in Figure 9.22.

The CCA results (see section 9.3.1.2) showed that horizontal collectivism contributed most to

the explanation of the variance in the individualism/collectivism canonical variate variables. Horizontal collectivism was thus regarded as the core construct in terms of the theorised moderating variable (i.e. individualism/collectivism). Hence, moderation analysis with horizontal collectivism as moderating variable was used to test research hypothesis H7.

H7: The effects of individuals' (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) on organisational cynicism and trust; (2) organisational cynicism and trust on relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and (3) relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) on behaviour (OCB and CWB) are conditional upon individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism.

As the analysis focused on the core constructs identified in the prior analyses, continuance commitment as a dimension of organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB directed at individuals (OCB-I) and counterproductive work behaviour were excluded.

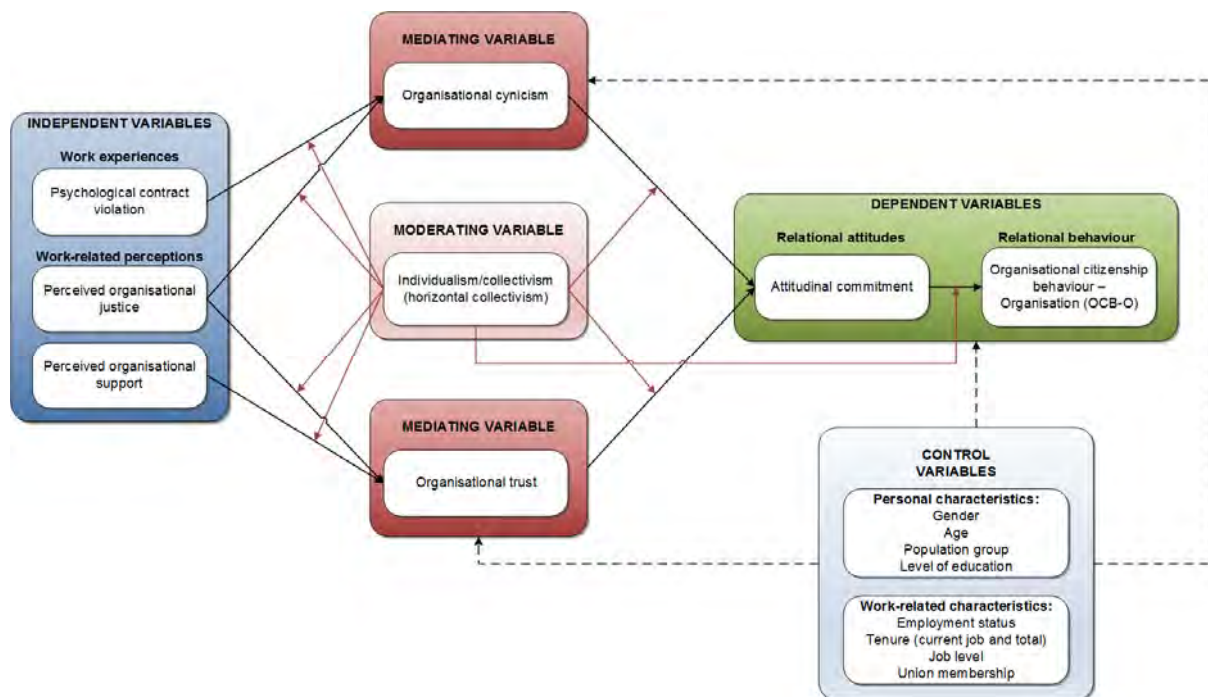


Figure 9.22. Moderation of the Relationships between Work-related Perceptions and Work Experiences (POS, POJ and Psychological Contract Violation), Organisational Cynicism and Trust, and Relational Attitudes (Attitudinal Commitment) and Behaviour (OCB-O) by Individualism/collectivism

Regression-based moderation analyses, using the PROCESS (v 3.0) macro (model 1) for IBM SPSS (Hayes, 2018a) and IBM SPSS version 25 (IBM Corp, 2017) were conducted to

examine the following interaction effects:

- (1) the interaction effects between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their disposition in terms of horizontal collectivism in predicting organisational cynicism and organisational trust
- (2) the interaction effects between individuals' trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their disposition in terms of horizontal collectivism in predicting attitudinal commitment
- (3) the interaction effects between individuals' attitudinal commitment and their disposition in terms of horizontal collectivism in predicting OCB-O

These variables were the dominant variables that emerged from the CCA results and the best fit model in the SEM analysis.

The direct pathways from the independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) to organisational cynicism and trust, as well as the indirect (mediating) effect of organisational cynicism and trust on the link between these independent variables and attitudinal commitment as outcome variable, were assessed in the previous section (mediation analysis). The aim of this section was to determine whether the significant pathways that were detected, were conditional upon the level of horizontal collectivism. Personal (gender, age, population group and level of education) and work-related (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics were included as control variables.

The following hypothesised moderation models, emanating from the indirect relationships confirmed in the previous section (see Table 9.46), were tested:

- **Model 1** tested whether the effect of psychological contract violation on organisational cynicism was conditional upon the level of horizontal collectivism.
- **Model 2** tested whether the effect of perceived organisational justice on organisational cynicism was conditional upon the level of horizontal collectivism.
- **Model 3** tested whether the effect of perceived organisational justice on organisational trust was conditional upon the level of horizontal collectivism.
- **Model 4** tested whether the effect of perceived organisational support on organisational trust was conditional upon the level of horizontal collectivism.

- **Model 5** tested whether the effect of organisational cynicism on attitudinal commitment was conditional upon the level of horizontal collectivism.
- **Model 6** tested whether the effect of organisational trust on attitudinal commitment was conditional upon the level of horizontal collectivism.
- **Model 7** tested whether the effect of attitudinal commitment on OCB-O was conditional upon the level of horizontal collectivism.

A three-step process was followed in analysing each of the models (Hair et al., 2014). First, the original (unmoderated) equation representing the extent to which Y is predicted by X was estimated. This was followed by the determination of the moderated relationship (original equation plus moderator variable). Finally, the change in R^2 was considered. The existence of a significant moderator effect would be confirmed if this change was statistically significant. The regression coefficient (XW) was used for this purpose (Hayes, 2018a). A statistically significant ($p \leq .05$) regression was regarded as indicative of a moderation effect. Finally, the moderation effects identified in the analyses were probed by means of a simple slope analysis and the Johnson-Neyman technique.

9.3.4.1 *Conditional effect of psychological contract violation on organisational cynicism*

In **Model 1** ($R^2 = .61$; $F(12, 711) = 91.50$; $p < .001$; large practical effect), the aim was to determine whether the direction and strength of the effect of psychological contract violation on organisational cynicism would depend (conditional direct effect) on the level of horizontal collectivism. The estimates of the respective conditional direct effects of psychological contract violation and horizontal collectivism upon organisational cynicism were disregarded as the 0-values for psychological contract violation (dependent variable) and horizontal collectivism (moderating variable) were substantively meaningless given that the scale values for these variables ranged from 1 to 7 (Hayes, 2018a).

The regression coefficient, which indicated the extent to which the effect of psychological contract violation on organisational cynicism varies if horizontal collectivism changes by one unit (Hayes, 2018a) was statistically insignificant ($t(711) = 1.08$; $p = .281$; 95% CI = $-.03$ to $.09$). Horizontal collectivism could thus not be regarded as a moderator influencing the relationship between psychological contract violation and organisational cynicism.

In terms of personal and work-related characteristics, trade union membership ($b = .20$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .01 to .39) was shown to be a significant predictor of organisational cynicism.

9.3.4.2 *Conditional effect of perceived organisational justice on organisational cynicism*

Model 2 ($R^2 = .63$; $F(12, 711) = 38.64$; $p < .001$; large practical effect) examined whether the direction and magnitude of the effect of POJ on organisational cynicism would depend (conditional direct effect) on the level of horizontal collectivism. The estimates of the respective conditional direct effects of POJ and horizontal collectivism on organisational cynicism were disregarded as the 0-values for POJ (dependent variable) and horizontal collectivism (moderating variable) were substantively meaningless given that the scale values for these variables ranged from 1 to 7 (Hayes, 2018a).

The regression coefficient, which indicated the extent to which the effect of POJ on organisational cynicism varies if horizontal collectivism changes by one unit (Hayes, 2018a) was statistically insignificant ($t(711) = -.54$; $p = .593$; 95% CI = -.12 to .07). Horizontal collectivism could thus not be regarded as a moderator influencing the relationship between POJ and organisational cynicism.

In terms of personal and work-related characteristics, employment status ($b = .38$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .06 to .70), job level ($b = -.23$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.45 to -.02) and trade union membership ($b = .25$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .02 to .49) were shown to be significant predictors of organisational cynicism.

9.3.4.3 *Conditional effect of perceived organisational justice on organisational trust*

In **Model 3** ($R^2 = .29$; $F(12, 711) = 24.43$; $p < .001$; large practical effect), the aim was to determine whether the direction and strength of the effect of POJ on organisational trust would depend (conditional direct effect) upon the level of horizontal collectivism. The estimates of the respective conditional direct effects of POJ and horizontal collectivism on organisational trust were disregarded as the 0-values for POJ (dependent variable) and horizontal

collectivism (moderating variable) were substantively meaningless given that the scale values for these variables ranged from 1 to 7 (Hayes, 2018a).

The regression coefficient, which indicated the extent to which the effect of POJ on organisational trust varies if horizontal collectivism changes by one unit (Hayes, 2018a) was statistically insignificant ($t(711) = 1.59$; $p = .112$; 95% CI = -.02 to .17). Horizontal collectivism could thus not be regarded as a moderator influencing the relationship between POJ and organisational trust.

No significant relationships between personal and work-related characteristics and organisational trust emerged from the analysis.

9.3.4.4 *Conditional effect of perceived organisational support on organisational trust*

Model 4 ($R^2 = .36$; $F(12, 711) = 33.53$; $p < .001$; large practical effect) examined whether the direction and magnitude of the effect of POS on organisational trust would depend (conditional direct effect) upon the level of horizontal collectivism. The estimates of the respective conditional direct effects of POS and horizontal collectivism on organisational trust were disregarded as the 0-values for POS (dependent variable) and horizontal collectivism (moderating variable) were substantively meaningless given that the scale values for these variables ranged from 1 to 7 (Hayes, 2018a).

The regression coefficient, which indicated the extent to which the effect of POS on organisational trust varies if horizontal collectivism changes by one unit (Hayes, 2018a) was statistically insignificant ($t(711) = 1.53$; $p = .126$; 95% CI = -.02 to .15). Horizontal collectivism could thus not be regarded as a moderator influencing the relationship between POS and organisational trust.

No significant relationships between personal and work-related characteristics and organisational trust emerged from the analysis.

9.3.4.5 Conditional effect of organisational cynicism on attitudinal commitment

In **Model 5** ($R^2 = .32$; $F(12, 711) = 28.23$; $p < .001$; large practical effect), the aim was to determine whether the direction and strength of the effect of organisational cynicism on attitudinal commitment would depend (conditional direct effect) upon the level of horizontal collectivism. The estimates of the respective conditional direct effects of organisational cynicism and horizontal collectivism on attitudinal commitment were disregarded as the 0-values for organisational cynicism (dependent variable) and horizontal collectivism (moderating variable) were substantively meaningless given that the scale values for these variables ranged from 1 to 7 (Hayes, 2018a).

The regression coefficient, which indicated the extent to which the effect of organisational cynicism on attitudinal commitment varies if horizontal collectivism changes by one unit (Hayes, 2018a) was statistically significant ($t(711) = -2.25$; $p < .05$; 95% CI = $-.16$ to $-.01$; $f^2 = .48$, large practical effect size). Hence, horizontal collectivism could be regarded as a moderator influencing the relationship between organisational cynicism and attitudinal commitment.

The results of a simple slopes analysis used to probe the moderating effect between organisational cynicism and horizontal collectivism in predicting attitudinal commitment are presented in Table 9.47. The mean value for horizontal collectivism and the values equal to one standard deviation above and below the mean were used to probe the moderating effect detected. The direct effect of organisational cynicism on attitudinal commitment was shown to be statistically significant at all three levels of horizontal collectivism. As illustrated in Figure 9.23, however, the influence of organisational cynicism on attitudinal commitment increased at higher levels of horizontal collectivism.

Table 9.47

Conditional Direct Effect of Organisational Cynicism on Attitudinal Commitment at Values of Horizontal Collectivism (Moderator)

Horizontal collectivism (W) values	X: Organisational cynicism Y: Attitudinal commitment						
	Value	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Lower horizontal collectivism (-1 SD)	5.33	-.34	.04	-8.43	.000	-.42	-.26
Moderate horizontal collectivism (mean)	6.05	-.40	.03	-14.28	.000	-.46	-.35
High horizontal collectivism (+1 SD)	6.77	-.46	.04	-12.62	.000	-.54	-.39

Note: n = 724.

The negative conditional direct effects of organisational cynicism on attitudinal commitment at different values of horizontal collectivism (see Table 9.47) suggested that increased organisational cynicism would result in a decrease in attitudinal commitment among those with similar dispositions in terms of horizontal collectivism.

The Johnson-Neyman test for probing the significance of interactions (Hayes, 2018) suggested that, at levels of 3.55 (on a scale from 1 to 7) and more in terms of horizontal collectivism, the relationship between organisational cynicism and attitudinal commitment was significant ($b = -.20$; $p = .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: $-.39$ to $.00$). Therefore, as the levels of horizontal collectivism increase beyond 3.55, organisational cynicism will have a stronger negative effect on attitudinal commitment with the highest level of horizontal collectivism (7.00) associated with a $-.48$ ($p < .001$) unit decrease in attitudinal commitment.

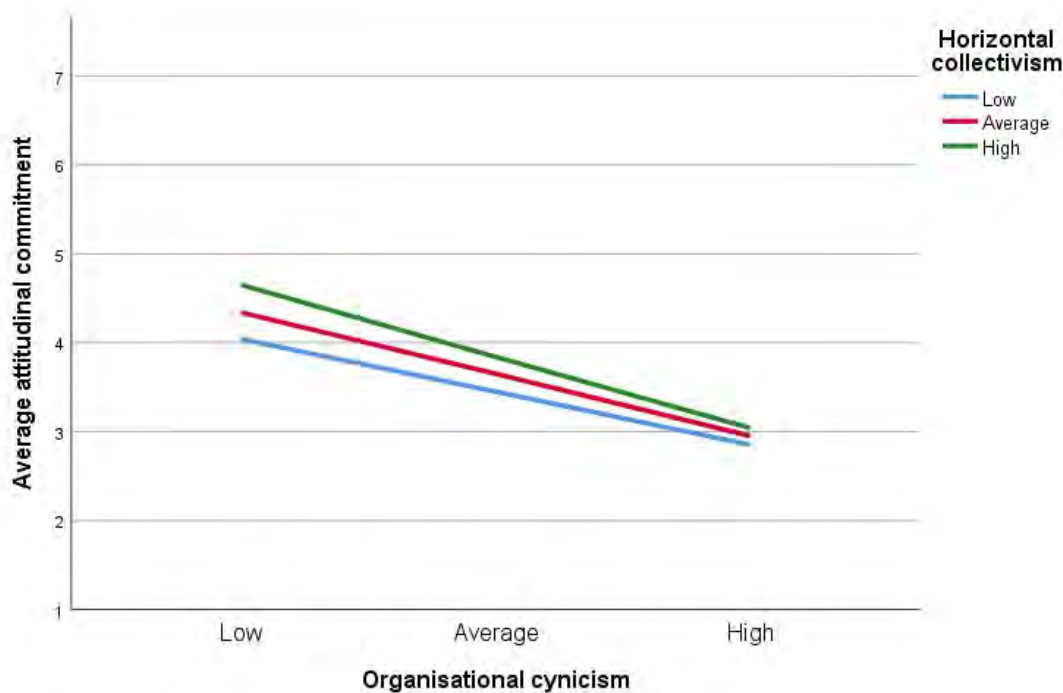
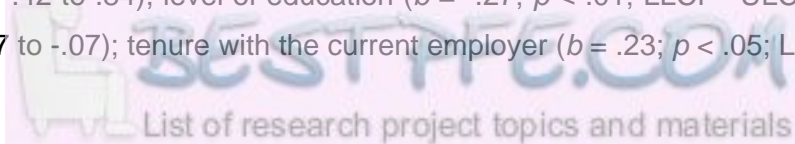


Figure 9.23. Visual Representation of the Direct Conditional Effects of Organisational Cynicism on Attitudinal Commitment among Those with Lower ($b = 5.33$), Average ($b = 6.05$) and Higher ($b = 6.77$) Values of Horizontal Collectivism

In terms of personal and work-related characteristics, gender ($b = .26$; $p < .01$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: $.07$ to $.46$), population group ($b = .63$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: $.42$ to $.84$), level of education ($b = -.27$; $p < .01$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: $-.47$ to $-.07$); tenure with the current employer ($b = .23$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI



range did not include zero: .02 to .44) and total tenure ($b = -.27$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.51 to -.04) were shown to be significant predictors of attitudinal commitment.

9.3.4.6 *Conditional effect of organisational trust on attitudinal commitment*

Model 6 ($R^2 = .35$; $F(12, 711) = 32.22$; $p < .001$; large practical effect) examined whether the direction and magnitude of the effect of organisational trust on attitudinal commitment would depend (conditional direct effect) on the level of horizontal collectivism. The estimates of the respective conditional direct effects of organisational trust and horizontal collectivism on attitudinal commitment were disregarded as the 0-values for organisational trust (dependent variable) and horizontal collectivism (moderating variable) were substantively meaningless given that the scale values for these variables ranged from 1 to 7 (Hayes, 2018a).

The regression coefficient, which indicated the extent to which the effect of organisational trust on attitudinal commitment varies if horizontal collectivism changes by one unit (Hayes, 2018a) was statistically insignificant ($t(711) = .54$; $p = .592$; 95% CI = -.05 to .09). Horizontal collectivism could thus not be regarded as a moderator influencing the relationship between organisational trust and attitudinal commitment.

In terms of personal and work-related characteristics, population group ($b = .60$; $p < .001$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .40 to .81), tenure with the current employer ($b = .23$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .02 to .44) and job level ($b = .20$; $p < .05$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: .00 to .39) were shown to be significant predictors of attitudinal commitment.

9.3.4.7 *Conditional effect of attitudinal commitment on organisationally directed organisational citizenship behaviour*

Finally, **Model 7** ($R^2 = .28$; $F(12, 711) = 22.76$; $p < .001$; large practical effect) set out to determine whether the direction and magnitude of the effect of attitudinal commitment on OCB-O would depend (conditional direct effect) on the level of horizontal collectivism. The estimates of the respective conditional direct effects of attitudinal commitment and horizontal collectivism on OCB-O were disregarded as the 0-values for attitudinal commitment (dependent variable) and horizontal collectivism (moderating variable) were substantively meaningless given that the scale values for these variables ranged from 1 to 7 (Hayes, 2018a).

The regression coefficient, which indicated the extent to which the effect of attitudinal commitment on OCB-O varies if horizontal collectivism changes by one unit (Hayes, 2018a) was statistically insignificant ($t(711) = -.91$; $p = .364$; 95% CI = $-.11$ to $.04$). Horizontal collectivism could thus not be regarded as a moderator influencing the relationship between attitudinal commitment and OCB-O.

In terms of personal and work-related characteristics, job level ($b = .24$; $p < .01$; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: $.06$ to $.43$) was shown to be a significant predictor of OCB-O.

9.3.4.8 Preliminary analysis 5: Towards constructing a psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour

The previous sections reported the results emanating from seven moderation analyses conducted to determine whether the significant direct predictive relationships between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) and dependent variables (attitudinal commitment and OCB-O) were moderated by horizontal collectivism (research hypothesis H7). The results in terms of the conditional direct and indirect effects are summarised in Table 9.48.

Table 9.48

Conditional Direct Effects

Model	Predicting variable	Outcome variable	Conditional direct effect
1	Psychological contract violation	Organisational cynicism	Not significant
2	Perceived organisational justice	Organisational cynicism	Not significant
3	Perceived organisational justice	Organisational trust	Not significant
4	Perceived organisational support	Organisational trust	Not significant
5	Organisational cynicism	Attitudinal commitment	The influence of organisational cynicism on attitudinal commitment increases at higher levels of horizontal collectivism
6	Organisational trust	Attitudinal commitment	Not significant
7	Attitudinal commitment	Organisational citizenship behaviour – Organisation	Not significant

The results therefore showed that only one of the conditional direct effects (Model 5) that were tested, were statistically significant, suggesting that the influence of organisational cynicism on attitudinal commitment increased at higher levels of horizontal collectivism. Therefore, employees who deem common goals, interdependency, empathy, sociability and cooperation as imperative in their relations with others (i.e. those with a strong horizontal collectivist disposition) will display a stronger attitudinal reaction (lower attitudinal commitment) if they believe that their employing organisations lack integrity or if they perceive organisational practices as being self-serving, unfair, dishonest or insincere.

The results provided supportive evidence in terms of research hypothesis H7.

H7: The effects of individuals' (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) on organisational cynicism and trust; (2) organisational cynicism and trust on relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and (3) relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) on behaviour (OCB and CWB) are conditional upon individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism.

The results suggested that, although horizontal collectivism moderated only one of the direct effects tested, it should not be disregarded as a moderator in the psychological framework. Further research in terms of the moderating effect of individualism/collectivism is recommended.

The results of the moderated mediation analyses are analysed and interpreted in terms of extant theory in Chapter 10 (see section 10.1.7).

9.3.5 Multiple regression analysis: Biographical variables

Multiple regression analyses were conducted to ascertain whether gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure (current employer and all employers), job level and union membership significantly predict work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB). This step of the statistical analysis addressed research hypothesis H8:

H8: Gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership significantly predict work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB).

Because the analysis focused on the core constructs identified in the canonical correlation analyses and SEM analysis, continuance commitment, as a dimension of organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB directed at individuals and counterproductive work behaviour were excluded.

The results of the multiple regression analyses, as reported in Table 9.49, show that all the regression models were significant ($Fp \leq .05$) and represented a small practical effect ($R^2 \leq .06$) (Cohen, 1992). The significant effects that emerged from the multiple regression models are discussed below.

9.3.5.1 *Biographical variables as predictors of organisationally directed organisational citizenship behaviour*

The regression of the biographical variables (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) upon the OCB-O variable produced a statistically significant model ($F(9, 714) = 3.60; p \leq .001$), accounting for 3 per cent ($R^2 = .03$; small practical effect size) of the variance. Only one of the biographical variables, namely job level ($\beta = .17; t = 4.24; p \leq .001$), made a statistically significant unique contribution to predicting OCB-O. The positive beta value suggested the existence of higher levels of OCB-O among managerial employees than employees at lower levels in the organisation.

9.3.5.2 *Biographical variables as predictors of attitudinal commitment*

The regression of the biographical variables (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) upon the attitudinal commitment variable produced a statistically significant model ($F(9, 714) = 6.37; p \leq .001$), accounting for 6 per cent ($R^2 = .06$; small practical effect size) of the variance. The biographical variable that made the strongest significant unique contribution to predicting attitudinal commitment was population group ($\beta = .19; t = 4.93; p \leq .001$), followed by level of education ($\beta = -.12; t = -3.35; p \leq .01$), job level ($\beta = .12; t = 3.01; p \leq .01$) and gender ($\beta = .08; t = 2.23; p \leq .05$). The positive beta values for population group, job level and gender suggested that

lower levels of attitudinal commitment exist among black African female employees employed at staff level. The negative beta value for level of education indicated that employees with lower levels of education display higher levels of attitudinal commitment.

9.3.5.3 *Biographical variables as predictors of psychological contract violation*

The regression of the biographical variables (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) upon the psychological contract violation variable produced a statistically significant model ($F(9, 714) = 4.03$; $p \leq .001$), accounting for 4 per cent ($R^2 = .04$; small practical effect size) of the variance. Two of the biographical variables, namely job level ($\beta = -.15$; $t = -3.79$; $p \leq .001$) and level of education ($\beta = .12$; $t = 3.16$; $p \leq .01$), made statistically significant unique contributions to predicting psychological contract violation. The negative beta value for job level suggested that employees at staff level report higher levels of perceived psychological contract violation, while the positive beta value for level of education implied the existence of higher levels of psychological contract violation among better-qualified employees.

9.3.5.4 *Biographical variables as predictors of perceived organisational justice*

The regression of the biographical variables (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) upon the perceived organisational justice variable produced a statistically significant model ($F(9, 714) = 2.42$; $p \leq .01$), accounting for 2 per cent ($R^2 = .02$; small practical effect size) of the variance. Only one of the biographical variables, namely job level ($\beta = .10$; $t = 2.53$; $p \leq .05$), made a statistically significant unique contribution to predicting POJ. The positive beta value suggested that higher levels of POJ exist among managerial employees than employees at lower levels in the organisation.

Table 9.49

Multiple Regression of Biographical Variables (Gender, Age, Population Group, Level of Education, Employment Status, Tenure, Job Level and Union Membership)

Biographical variables	OCB - Organisation		Attitudinal commitment		Psychological contract violation		Perceived organisational justice		Perceived organisational support		Organisational cynicism		Organisational trust		Horizontal collectivism	
	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t
Gender	.02	.62	.08	2.23*	.00	.04	.05	1.32	.04	1.11	.01	.15	.09	2.30*	.03	.71
Age	.05	1.03	-.01	-.11	.02	.52	-.04	-.85	-.00	-.09	-.05	-1.01	-.01	-.30	.04	.83
Population group	.04	1.10	.19	4.93***	-.04	-1.02	.07	1.61	.06	1.45	-.03	-.85	.05	1.25	-.16	-4.12***
Level of education	-.06	-1.48	-.12	-3.35*	.12	3.16**	-.06	-1.67	-.11	-2.88**	.08	2.01*	-.12	-3.26***	-.06	-1.54
Employment status	-.04	-1.10	-.01	-.21	.07	1.82	.03	.86	.02	.63	.05	1.25	.01	.17	.00	.04
Tenure (current employer)	.00	.10	.05	1.25	.08	1.90	-.08	-1.80	.00	.06	.04	.97	-.04	-.88	.00	.05
Tenure (all employers)	.00	.07	-.05	-1.13	-.04	-.83	.05	.99	-.01	-.29	-.05	-1.16	.02	.37	.03	.54
Job level	.17	4.24***	.12	3.01**	-.15	-3.79***	.10	2.53*	.17	4.25***	-.14	-3.47***	.06	1.49	.14	3.68***
Union membership	-.03	-.80	.02	.46	.02	.42	.01	.12	-.07	-1.66	.07	1.76	-.02	-.43	-.01	-.12
Model information																
F_p	F(9, 714) = 3.60***		F(9, 714) = 6.37***		F(9, 714) = 4.03***		F(9, 714) = 2.42**		F(9, 714) = 4.38***		F(9, 714) = 3.68***		F(9, 714) = 2.68**		F(9, 714) = 4.34***	
Adjusted R^2	$R^2 = .03$		$R^2 = .06$		$R^2 = .04$		$R^2 = .02$		$R^2 = .04$		$R^2 = .03$		$R^2 = .02$		$R^2 = .04$	

Notes: $n = 740$. $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$; Adjusted $R^2 \leq .12$ = small practical effect; $\geq .13 \leq .25$ = medium practical effect; $\geq .26$ = large practical effect

9.3.5.5 *Biographical variables as predictors of perceived organisational support*

The regression of the biographical variables (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) upon the perceived organisational support variable produced a statistically significant model ($F(9, 714) = 4.38; p \leq .001$), accounting for 4 per cent ($R^2 = .04$; small practical effect size) of the variance. Two of the biographical variables, namely job level ($\beta = .17; t = 4.25; p \leq .001$) and level of education ($\beta = -.11; t = -2.88; p \leq .01$), made statistically significant unique contributions to predicting POS. The positive beta value for job level suggested that employees at managerial level report higher levels of POS, while the negative beta value for level of level of education implied that higher levels of POS exist among employees with lower qualifications.

9.3.5.6 *Biographical variables as predictors of organisational cynicism*

The regression of the biographical variables (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) upon the organisational cynicism variable produced a statistically significant model ($F(9, 714) = 3.68; p \leq .001$), accounting for 3 per cent ($R^2 = .03$; small practical effect size) of the variance. Two of the biographical variables, namely job level ($\beta = -.14; t = -3.47; p \leq .001$) and level of education ($\beta = .08; t = 2.01; p \leq .05$), made statistically significant unique contributions to predicting organisational cynicism. The negative beta value for job level suggested that employees at staff level report higher levels of organisational cynicism, while the positive beta value for level of level of education implied the existence of higher levels of organisational cynicism among better-qualified employees.

9.3.5.7 *Biographical variables as predictors of organisational trust*

The regression of the biographical variables (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) upon the organisational trust variable produced a statistically significant model ($F(9, 714) = 2.68; p \leq .01$), accounting for 2 per cent ($R^2 = .02$; small practical effect size) of the variance. Two of the biographical variables, namely level of education ($\beta = -.12; t = -3.26; p \leq .001$) and gender ($\beta = .09; t = 2.30; p \leq .05$), made statistically significant unique contributions to predicting organisational trust. The negative beta value for level of education suggested that employees with lower qualifications report higher levels of organisational trust, while the positive beta value for gender implied that higher levels of organisational trust exist among males.

9.3.5.8 *Biographical variables as predictors of horizontal collectivism*

The regression of the biographical variables (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) upon the horizontal collectivism variable produced a statistically significant model ($F(9, 714) = 4.34; p \leq .001$), accounting for 4 per cent ($R^2 = .04$; small practical effect size) of the variance. Two of the biographical variables, namely population group ($\beta = -.16; t = -4.12; p \leq .001$) and job level ($\beta = .14; t = 3.68; p \leq .001$), made statistically significant unique contributions to predicting horizontal collectivism. The negative beta value for population group suggested that black Africans report higher levels of horizontal collectivism, while the positive beta value for job level showed that higher levels of horizontal collectivism exist among employees at staff level.

Overall, the biographical variables age, employment status, tenure and union membership were not shown to make unique significant contributions to predicting any of the research variables.

9.3.5.9 *Preliminary analysis 6: Towards constructing a psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour*

Table 9.50 provides a summary of the results of the multiple regression analyses, indicating that participants' biographical variables (gender, population group, level of education and job level) significantly predicted work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB-O).

Table 9.50

Summary of the Predictive Influence of the Biographical Variables on the Research Constructs

Biographical variable	Predicted research variable	Significance
Gender	Attitudinal commitment	Small
	Organisational trust	Small
Population group	Attitudinal commitment	Strong
	Horizontal collectivism	Strong
Level of education	Attitudinal commitment	Moderate
	Psychological contract violation	Moderate
	Perceived organisational support	Moderate
	Organisational cynicism	Small
	Organisational trust	Strong

Biographical variable	Predicted research variable	Significance
Job level	OCB – Organisation	Strong
	Attitudinal commitment	Moderate
	Psychological contract violation	Strong
	Perceived organisational justice	Small
	Perceived organisational support	Strong
	Organisational cynicism	Strong
	Horizontal collectivism	Strong

These results provided evidence in support of research hypothesis H8.

H8: Gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership significantly predict work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB).

The results of the multiple regression analysis are analysed and interpreted in terms of extant theory in Chapter 10 (see section 10.1.8).

9.3.6 Tests for significant mean differences and post hoc tests to ascertain source of differences

Research hypothesis H9 was tested by conducting tests for significant mean differences and post hoc tests to ascertain the source of differences.

H9: Individuals from different biographical groups (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) differ statistically significantly regarding POS, POJ and psychological contract violation (independent variables), organisational cynicism and trust (mediating variables), individualism/collectivism (moderating variable) and organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB (dependent variables).

Significant mean differences between the independent subgroups as denoted by personal (gender, age, population group and level of education) and work-related (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics in terms of their work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and experiences (perceived organisational support), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, their personal dispositions in terms of horizontal collectivism and their attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) in the workplace, were determined using the Mann-Whitney U test (for two

independent samples) and the Kruskal-Wallis test (for three or more independent samples). Only the core variables that were retained following the canonical correlations analyses (section 9.3.1) and SEM (section 9.3.2) were included in the analyses.

In those instances where the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated statistically significant differences, Dunn's post hoc tests were conducted to compare the groups in order to determine the origin of the differences. These tests incorporated a Bonferroni correction to control for inflation of Type I error (Field, 2018).

9.3.6.1 Differences in mean scores for gender groups

Table 9.51 reports the results of the Mann-Whitney U test used to determine whether significant differences exist between males and females in terms of their work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and experiences (perceived organisational support), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, their personal dispositions in terms of horizontal collectivism and their attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) in the workplace.

Table 9.51
Mann-Whitney U Test for Gender Groups

Scale variables	Groups	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Mann-Whitney U	z	p	Cohen's d ^c
OCB – Organisation ^a	Female	450	5.01	1.38	362.34	61 578.00	-1.30	.195	.10
	Male	290	5.15	1.32	383.16				
Attitudinal commitment ^b	Female	450	3.56	1.51	357.67	59 477.00	-2.04	.042*	.15
	Male	290	3.81	1.52	390.41				
Psychological contract violation ^b	Female	450	3.17	1.78	370.85	65 092.50	-.06	.956	.00
	Male	290	3.12	1.69	369.96				
Perceived organisational justice ^b	Female	450	4.58	1.51	364.76	62 668.50	-.91	.363	.07
	Male	290	4.73	1.35	379.40				
Perceived organisational support ^b	Female	450	4.61	1.51	361.48	61 190.00	-1.43	.152	.11
	Male	290	4.79	1.39	384.50				
Organisational cynicism ^b	Female	450	3.87	1.77	372.77	64 230.00	-.36	.719	.03
	Male	290	3.82	1.66	366.98				
Organisational trust ^b	Female	450	3.45	1.63	356.17	58 803.00	-2.28	.023*	.17
	Male	290	3.75	1.65	392.73				
Horizontal collectivism ^b	Female	450	6.01	.72	355.13	58 331.50	-2.47	.013*	.18
	Male	290	6.12	.72	394.36				

Notes: $n = 740$. *** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$; $d = .20$ small practical effect; $d = .50$ medium practical effect; $d = .80$ large practical effect; OCB = organisational citizenship behaviour

^a 7-point Likert type frequency scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (all the time)

^b 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

^c Cohen's d was calculated using the effect size calculator for nonparametric tests.

(https://www.psychometrica.de/effect_size.html#nonparametric)

The results of the Mann-Whitney U test, as indicated in Table 9.51, showed that males ($M = 3.81$; $SD = 1.52$; mean rank = 390.41) scored higher in terms of attitudinal commitment than females ($M = 3.56$; $SD = 1.51$; mean rank = 357.67). The Mann-Whitney U-value was found to be statistically significant ($U = 59\,477.00$; $z = -2.04$; $p < .05$) with a small practical effect ($d = .15$).

Statistically significant differences in terms of organisational trust ($U = 58\,803.00$; $z = -2.28$; $p < .05$; $d = .17$, small practical effect) were also shown, with males ($M = 3.75$; $SD = 1.65$; mean rank = 392.73) displaying higher levels of organisational trust than females ($M = 3.45$; $SD = 1.63$; mean rank = 356.17).

In addition, the results indicated that males ($M = 6.12$; $SD = .72$; mean rank = 394.36) displayed higher levels of horizontal collectivism than females ($M = 6.01$; $SD = .72$; mean rank = 355.13). The Mann-Whitney U-value was statistically significant ($U = 58\,331.50$; $z = -2.47$; $p < .05$) with a small practical effect ($d = .18$).

There were no statistically significant differences between males in females in terms of OCB-O, psychological contract violation, perceived organisational justice, perceived organisational support and organisational cynicism.

9.3.6.2 Differences in mean scores for age groups

Table 9.52 reports the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test used to determine whether significant differences exist between different age groups in terms of their work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and experiences (perceived organisational support), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, their personal dispositions in terms of horizontal collectivism and their attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) in the workplace.

Table 9.52

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Age Groups

Scale variables	Groups ^c	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	p	Cohen's <i>d</i> ^d
OCB – Organisation ^a	18 – 25	74	4.71	1.55	325.01	4.74	3	.192	.10
	26 – 35	323	5.04	1.36	367.65				
	36 – 45	263	5.15	1.31	380.57				
	46 – 65	80	5.23	1.23	390.98				
Attitudinal commitment ^b	18 – 25	74	3.67	1.57	374.09	.30	3	.960	.12
	26 – 35	323	3.67	1.55	373.12				
	36 – 45	263	3.67	1.50	369.74				
	46 – 65	80	3.57	1.42	359.09				
Psychological contract violation ^b	18 – 25	74	3.00	1.84	346.20	3.98	3	.264	.07
	26 – 35	323	3.15	1.72	371.88				
	36 – 45	263	3.09	1.72	363.67				
	46 – 65	80	3.47	1.82	409.86				
Perceived organisational justice ^b	18 – 25	74	4.84	1.32	395.76	1.22	3	.749	.10
	26 – 35	323	4.64	1.43	369.61				
	36 – 45	263	4.60	1.51	366.77				
	46 – 65	80	4.58	1.44	363.01				
Perceived organisational support ^b	18 – 25	74	4.87	1.53	406.14	2.34	3	.506	.06
	26 – 35	323	4.66	1.47	365.63				
	36 – 45	263	4.68	1.42	368.60				
	46 – 65	80	4.60	1.53	363.44				
Organisational cynicism ^b	18 – 25	74	3.84	1.81	368.88	3.09	3	.379	.02
	26 – 35	323	3.97	1.69	385.57				
	36 – 45	263	3.73	1.76	355.57				
	46 – 65	80	3.79	1.70	360.23				
Organisational trust ^b	18 – 25	74	3.92	1.61	417.59	6.22	3	.101	.13
	26 – 35	323	3.52	1.67	365.76				
	36 – 45	263	3.61	1.65	374.25				
	46 – 65	80	3.26	1.48	333.76				
Horizontal collectivism ^b	18 – 25	74	5.90	.73	315.98	8.68	3	.034*	.18
	26 – 35	323	6.02	.73	362.54				
	36 – 45	263	6.11	.71	385.77				
	46 – 65	80	6.14	.71	402.88				

Notes: n = 740. *** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$; $d = .20$ small practical effect; $d = .50$ medium practical effect; $d = .80$ large practical effect; OCB = organisational citizenship behaviour

^a 7-point Likert type frequency scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (all the time)

^b 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

^c Age group in years

^d Cohen's *d* was calculated using the effect size calculator for nonparametric tests (https://www.psychometrica.de/effect_size.html#nonparametric)

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test suggested the existence of a statistically significant difference for at least one pair of age groups in terms of horizontal collectivism ($H = 8.68$; $p < .05$; $d = .18$, small practical effect). Dunn's pairwise test was conducted for the six pairs of groups emanating from the data. Although there was some evidence of differences between two pairs of age groups, namely (1) 18 to 25 year olds compared to 36 to 45 year olds ($p < .05$) and (2) 18 to 25 year olds compared to 46 to 65 year olds ($p < .05$), the statistical significance of these differences did not hold following a Bonferroni correction. The adjusted significance levels of $p = .071$ and $p = .063$ respectively, suggested that no statistically significant differences existed between these pairs of age groups in terms of horizontal collectivism.

It should also be noted that no statistically significant differences were shown to exist between age groups in terms of OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism or organisational trust.

9.3.6.3 Differences in mean scores for population groups

Table 9.53 reports the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test aimed at determining whether there were any significant differences between different population groups in terms of their work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and experiences (perceived organisational support), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, their personal dispositions in terms of horizontal collectivism and their attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O).

Table 9.53

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Population Groups

Scale variables	Groups	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	p	Cohen's <i>d</i> ^c
OCB – Organisation ^a	Black African	445	5.00	1.39	355.81	3.89	3	.274	.07
	Coloured	66	5.14	1.27	373.98				
	Indian/Asian	41	4.97	1.38	352.85				
	White	179	5.24	1.28	391.90				

Scale variables	Groups	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	p	Cohen's d ^c
Attitudinal commitment ^b	Black African	445	3.43	1.55	332.72	31.10	3	.000***	.40
	Coloured	66	3.81	1.40	389.96				
	Indian/Asian	41	3.84	1.47	391.40				
	White	179	4.13	1.37	433.97				
Psychological contract violation ^b	Black African	445	3.28	1.72	383.23	9.64	3	.022*	.19
	Coloured	66	3.13	1.79	362.22				
	Indian/Asian	41	3.20	2.00	361.73				
	White	179	2.84	1.73	325.53				
Perceived organisational justice ^b	Black African	445	4.54	1.50	353.96	5.34	3	.149	.11
	Coloured	66	4.59	1.49	361.30				
	Indian/Asian	41	4.67	1.40	369.09				
	White	179	4.87	1.30	396.96				
Perceived organisational support ^b	Black African	445	4.59	1.43	348.15	12.74	3	.005**	.23
	Coloured	66	4.56	1.49	347.42				
	Indian/Asian	41	4.77	1.58	387.43				
	White	179	4.96	1.45	412.31				
Organisational cynicism ^b	Black African	445	3.97	1.67	380.21	7.48	3	.058	.16
	Coloured	66	3.90	1.77	369.73				
	Indian/Asian	41	3.86	2.00	366.29				
	White	179	3.55	1.78	329.24				
Organisational trust ^b	Black African	445	3.48	1.67	354.73	11.10	3	.011*	.21
	Coloured	66	3.26	1.59	328.03				
	Indian/Asian	41	3.53	1.73	359.28				
	White	179	3.90	1.55	409.54				
Horizontal collectivism ^b	Black African	445	6.14	.73	394.64	25.88	3	.000***	.36
	Coloured	66	5.94	.58	316.88				
	Indian/Asian	41	6.07	.84	383.61				
	White	179	5.88	.68	308.87				

Notes: n = 731. *** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$; $d = .20$ small practical effect; $d = .50$ medium practical effect; $d = .80$ large practical effect; OCB = organisational citizenship behaviour

^a 7-point Likert type frequency scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (all the time)

^b 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

^c Cohen's d was calculated using the effect size calculator for nonparametric tests.

(https://www.psychometrica.de/effect_size.html#nonparametric)

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test reported in Table 9.53 suggested the existence of statistically significant differences for at least one pair of population groups in terms attitudinal

commitment ($H = 31.10$; $p < .001$; $d = .40$, small practical effect), psychological contract violation ($H = 9.64$; $p < .05$; $d = .19$, small practical effect), perceived organisational support, ($H = 12.74$; $p < .01$; $d = .23$, small practical effect), organisational trust ($H = 11.10$; $p < .05$; $d = .21$, small practical effect) and horizontal collectivism ($H = 25.88$; $p < .001$; $d = .36$, small practical effect).

To determine the source of the group differences, Dunn's pairwise test with a Bonferroni correction was conducted in terms of each of the scale variables for the six pairs of groups emanating from the data. The following significant differences were identified from the post hoc analyses:

- In terms of attitudinal commitment, statistically significant differences ($p < .001$) were identified between whites ($M = 4.13$; $SD = 1.37$; mean rank = 433.97) and black Africans ($M = 3.43$; $SD = 1.55$; mean rank = 332.72). These results suggest that white employees display significantly higher levels of attitudinal commitment towards their employing organisations than black African employees do.
- Black African and white employees also differed significantly in terms of their experiences of psychological contract violation ($p < .05$), with black Africans ($M = 3.28$; $SD = 1.72$; mean rank = 383.23) reporting higher levels of psychological contract violation than their white counterparts ($M = 2.84$; $SD = 1.73$; mean rank = 325.53).
- The group differences in terms of perceived organisational support could also be ascribed to significant differences ($p < .01$) between black African ($M = 4.59$; $SD = 1.43$; mean rank = 348.15) and white ($M = 4.96$; $SD = 1.45$; mean rank = 412.31) employees, with the latter reporting higher levels of perceived organisational support.
- In terms of organisational trust, statistically significant differences were identified between (1) coloureds ($M = 3.26$; $SD = 1.59$; mean rank = 328.03) and whites ($M = 3.90$; $SD = 1.55$; mean rank = 409.54; $p < .05$), as well as (2) black Africans ($M = 3.48$; $SD = 1.67$; mean rank = 354.73) and whites ($M = 3.90$; $SD = 1.55$; mean rank = 409.54; $p < .05$). These results show that white employees displayed the highest levels of organisational trust, followed by black African and coloured employees.
- Finally, statistically significant differences were identified between (1) black African ($M = 6.14$; $SD = .73$; mean rank = 394.64) and white ($M = 5.88$; $SD = .68$; mean rank = 308.87; $p < .001$) employees, as well as (2) black African ($M = 6.14$; $SD = .73$; mean rank = 394.64) and coloured ($M = 5.94$; $SD = .58$; mean rank = 316.88; $p < .05$) employees in terms of horizontal collectivism. Black Africans showed the highest level of horizontal collectivism, followed by coloured and then white employees.

No statistically significant differences were evident between population groups in terms of OCB-O, perceived organisational justice and organisational cynicism.

9.3.6.4 Differences in mean scores for groups in terms of level of education

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and experiences (perceived organisational support), cynicism towards and trust in employing organisations, personal dispositions in terms of horizontal collectivism and attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O), between different groups in terms highest levels of education.

Table 9.54

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Groups in terms of Level of Education

Scale variables	Groups ^c	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	p	Cohen's d ^d
OCB – Organisation ^a	NQF levels 4 and lower	182	5.15	1.39	382.79	4.96	3	.175	.10
	NQF levels 5 & 6	278	5.09	1.28	364.85				
	NQF level 7	187	5.10	1.42	374.88				
	NQF levels 8 & 9	86	4.83	1.30	323.41				
Attitudinal commitment ^b	NQF levels 4 and lower	182	3.99	1.53	411.77	11.59	3	.009**	.22
	NQF levels 5 & 6	278	3.62	1.45	359.95				
	NQF level 7	187	3.51	1.56	345.07				
	NQF levels 8 & 9	86	3.49	1.52	342.72				
Psychological contract violation ^b	NQF levels 4 and lower	182	2.94	1.72	341.76	5.70	3	.127	.12
	NQF levels 5 & 6	278	3.26	1.67	384.53				
	NQF level 7	187	3.09	1.82	356.63				
	NQF levels 8 & 9	86	3.30	1.81	386.33				
Perceived organisational justice ^b	NQF level 4 and lower	182	4.73	1.48	384.69	3.68	3	.298	.06
	NQF levels 5 & 6	278	4.65	1.41	365.05				
	NQF level 7	187	4.64	1.47	368.86				
	NQF levels 8 & 9	86	4.42	1.46	331.83				

Scale variables	Groups ^c	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	p	Cohen's d ^d
Perceived organisational support ^b	NQF levels 4 and lower	182	4.84	1.48	395.64	7.61	3	.055	.16
	NQF levels 5 & 6	278	4.71	1.46	369.97				
	NQF level 7	187	4.59	1.49	354.55				
	NQF levels 8 & 9	86	4.44	1.39	323.86				
Organisational cynicism ^b	NQF levels 4 and lower	182	3.76	1.72	356.92	6.06	3	.109	.13
	NQF levels 5 & 6	278	3.99	1.71	383.88				
	NQF level 7	187	3.64	1.80	340.97				
	NQF levels 8 & 9	86	4.04	1.64	390.35				
Organisational trust ^b	NQF levels 4 and lower	182	3.88	1.62	408.55	12.68	3	.005**	.23
	NQF levels 5 & 6	278	3.57	1.63	366.87				
	NQF level 7	187	3.44	1.70	348.07				
	NQF levels 8 & 9	86	3.23	1.53	320.65				
Horizontal collectivism ^b	NQF levels 4 and lower	182	6.05	.65	360.18	3.89	3	.274	.07
	NQF levels 5 & 6	278	6.09	.72	378.14				
	NQF level 7	187	6.05	.79	374.05				
	NQF levels 8 & 9	86	5.95	.74	330.10				

Notes: n = 733. *** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$; $d = .20$ small practical effect; $d = .50$ medium practical effect; $d = .80$ large practical effect; OCB = organisational citizenship behaviour

^a 7-point Likert type frequency scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (all the time)

^b 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

^c NQF 4 = Matric/National Senior Certificate; NQF 5 = Higher Certificate; NQF 6 = Diploma or Advanced Certificate; NQF 7 = Bachelor's Degree or Advanced Diploma; NQF 8 = Bachelor's Honours Degree, Postgraduate Diploma or professional qualification; NQF 9 = Master's degree

^d Cohen's d was calculated using the effect size calculator for nonparametric tests.

(https://www.psychometrica.de/effect_size.html#nonparametric)

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, as reflected in Table 9.54, suggested a statistically significant difference for at least one pair of groups in terms of highest level of education for attitudinal commitment ($H = 11.59$; $p < .01$; $d = .22$, small practical effect) and organisational trust ($H = 12.68$; $p < .01$; $d = .23$, small practical effect). Dunn's pairwise test was conducted for the six pairs of groups emanating from the data to determine the cause of the group differences in terms of attitudinal commitment and organisational trust.

The results suggested that individuals with Bachelor's Degrees or Advanced Diplomas (NQF level 7) ($M = 3.51$; $SD = 1.56$; mean rank = 345.07) differed significantly from those with a Matric or National Senior Certificate (NQF 4) or lower ($M = 3.99$; $SD = 1.53$; mean rank = 411.77) in terms of their attitudinal commitment to their employing organisations ($p < .05$). Individuals with higher levels of education (NQF level 7) thus reported lower levels of attitudinal commitment than those with lower levels of education (NQF 4 and lower).

In terms of organisational trust, statistically significant differences were found to exist between (1) individuals with postgraduate qualifications (NQF levels 8 and 9; $M = 3.23$; $SD = 1.53$; mean rank = 320.65) and those with a Matric or National Senior Certificate (NQF 4) or lower ($M = 3.88$; $SD = 1.62$; mean rank = 408.55; $p < .01$), and (2) individuals with Bachelor's Degrees or Advanced Diplomas (NQF level 7; $M = 3.44$; $SD = 1.70$; mean rank = 348.07) and those with a Matric or National Senior Certificate (NQF 4) or lower ($M = 3.88$; $SD = 1.62$; mean rank = 408.55; $p < .05$). Individuals with lower levels of education (NQF level 4 and lower) reported higher levels of organisational trust than those with higher qualifications (NQF levels 7, 8 and 9).

No statistically significant differences were evident between different groups in terms highest levels of education relating to OCB-O, psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism or horizontal collectivism.

9.3.6.5 Differences in mean scores for groups in terms of employment status

Table 9.55 reports the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test aimed at determining whether there were significant differences between permanent and contract (full-time and part-time) employees in terms of their work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and experiences (perceived organisational support), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, their personal dispositions in terms of horizontal collectivism and their attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O).

Table 9.55

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Groups in terms of Employment Status

Scale variables	Groups	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	p	Cohen's d^c
OCB – Organisation ^a	Permanent	648	5.10	1.35	375.71	3.79	2	.150	.10
	Contract (full-time)	68	4.79	1.35	322.83				
	Contract (part-time)	24	4.99	1.50	364.88				

Scale variables	Groups	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	p	Cohen's d ^c
Attitudinal commitment ^b	Permanent	648	3.69	1.51	374.89	2.26	2	.324	.04
	Contract (full-time)	68	3.43	1.57	336.40				
	Contract (part-time)	24	3.53	1.64	348.67				
Psychological contract violation ^b	Permanent	648	3.10	1.75	364.44	4.56	2	.102	.12
	Contract (full-time)	68	3.51	1.61	420.90				
	Contract (part-time)	24	3.31	1.85	391.31				
Perceived organisational justice ^b	Permanent	648	4.62	1.47	368.64	3.15	2	.207	.08
	Contract (full-time)	68	4.64	1.24	361.63				
	Contract (part-time)	24	5.10	1.50	445.83				
Perceived organisational support ^b	Permanent	648	4.67	1.48	369.63	2.77	2	.250	.07
	Contract (full-time)	68	4.61	1.41	354.93				
	Contract (part-time)	24	5.15	1.25	438.00				
Organisational cynicism ^b	Permanent	648	3.82	1.76	365.84	2.49	2	.288	.05
	Contract (full-time)	68	4.11	1.48	404.02				
	Contract (part-time)	24	4.08	1.65	401.44				
Organisational trust ^b	Permanent	648	3.56	1.63	370.05	1.47	2	.481	.05
	Contract (full-time)	68	3.48	1.69	357.81				
	Contract (part-time)	24	3.96	1.87	418.63				
Horizontal collectivism ^b	Permanent	648	6.05	.72	369.11	3.38	2	.184	.09
	Contract (full-time)	68	5.99	.79	357.10				
	Contract (part-time)	24	6.28	.67	446.00				

Notes: n = 740. *** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$; $d = .20$ small practical effect; $d = .50$ medium practical effect; $d = .80$ large practical effect; OCB = organisational citizenship behaviour

^a 7-point Likert type frequency scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (all the time)

^b 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

^c Cohen's d was calculated using the effect size calculator for nonparametric tests.

(https://www.psychometrica.de/effect_size.html#nonparametric)

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test reported in Table 9.55 indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between groups in terms of employment status relating to OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, perceived organisational justice, perceived organisational support, organisational cynicism, organisational trust or horizontal collectivism.

9.3.6.6 Differences in mean scores for groups in terms of tenure

Kruskal-Wallis tests were performed to determine whether significant differences existed between groups of employees based on their tenure with their current employers and their

total tenure (all employers) in terms of their work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and experiences (perceived organisational support), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, their personal dispositions in terms of horizontal collectivism and their attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O). The results of these tests are reported in Tables 9.56 and 9.57.

Table 9.56

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Groups in terms of Tenure with the Current Employer

Scale variables	Groups	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	p	Cohen's d ^c
OCB – Organisation ^a	Less than a year	50	4.92	1.39	348.12	4.91	5	.427	.02
	1 – 2 years	115	5.22	1.27	390.88				
	> 2 – 5 years	186	4.93	1.44	352.33				
	> 5 – 10 years	212	5.15	1.33	385.26				
	> 10 – 15 years	104	5.14	1.31	377.26				
	> 15 years	73	4.93	1.38	347.53				
Attitudinal commitment ^b	Less than a year	50	3.94	1.88	405.45	8.85	5	.115	.15
	1 – 2 years	115	3.79	1.53	391.10				
	> 2 – 5 years	186	3.41	1.49	335.58				
	> 5 – 10 years	212	3.66	1.45	370.04				
	> 10 – 15 years	104	3.68	1.46	373.13				
	> 15 years	73	3.88	1.53	400.69				
Psychological contract violation ^b	Less than a year	50	2.83	1.66	330.49	4.13	5	.531	.07
	1 – 2 years	115	3.05	1.75	358.54				
	> 2 – 5 years	186	3.12	1.77	365.41				
	> 5 – 10 years	212	3.30	1.76	389.65				
	> 10 – 15 years	104	3.10	1.69	366.36				
	> 15 years	73	3.22	1.78	379.98				
Perceived organisational justice ^b	Less than a year	50	5.25	1.39	467.43	18.02	5	.003**	.27
	1 – 2 years	115	4.81	1.33	393.02				
	> 2 – 5 years	186	4.57	1.40	356.69				
	> 5 – 10 years	212	4.40	1.52	338.80				
	> 10 – 15 years	104	4.78	1.38	391.38				
	> 15 years	73	4.57	1.54	366.12				

Scale variables	Groups	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	p	Cohen's d ^c
Perceived organisational support ^b	Less than a year	50	5.14	1.46	445.87	7.90	5	.162	.13
	1 – 2 years	115	4.72	1.44	371.67				
	> 2 – 5 years	186	4.60	1.54	363.38				
	> 5 – 10 years	212	4.58	1.45	353.78				
	> 10 – 15 years	104	4.80	1.27	378.94				
	> 15 years	73	4.64	1.59	371.71				
Organisational cynicism ^b	Less than a year	50	3.56	1.82	335.81	7.15	5	.210	.11
	1 – 2 years	115	3.88	1.72	375.00				
	> 2 – 5 years	186	3.89	1.73	374.67				
	> 5 – 10 years	212	4.03	1.75	392.41				
	> 10 – 15 years	104	3.54	1.65	331.49				
	> 15 years	73	3.85	1.71	368.49				
Organisational trust ^b	Less than a year	50	4.14	1.69	438.21	8.69	5	.122	.14
	1 – 2 years	115	3.68	1.75	383.73				
	> 2 – 5 years	186	3.48	1.59	361.61				
	> 5 – 10 years	212	3.41	1.64	350.74				
	> 10 – 15 years	104	3.71	1.55	388.88				
	> 15 years	73	3.46	1.65	357.12				
Horizontal collectivism ^b	Less than a year	50	6.14	.71	396.84	5.34	5	.376	.04
	1 – 2 years	115	5.95	.81	348.66				
	> 2 – 5 years	186	6.03	.63	352.57				
	> 5 – 10 years	212	6.06	.74	378.59				
	> 10 – 15 years	104	6.12	.60	375.65				
	> 15 years	73	6.11	.88	401.73				

Notes: n = 740. *** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$; $d = .20$ small practical effect; $d = .50$ medium practical effect; $d = .80$ large practical effect; OCB = organisational citizenship behaviour

^a 7-point Likert type frequency scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (all the time)

^b 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

^c Cohen's d was calculated using the effect size calculator for nonparametric tests.

(https://www.psychometrica.de/effect_size.html#nonparametric)

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, as reflected in Table 9.56, suggested only one statistically significant difference for at least one pair of groups in terms of tenure with the current employer, which related to perceived organisational justice ($H = 18.02$; $p < .01$; $d = .27$, small practical effect). Dunn's pairwise test was conducted for the 15 pairs of groups emanating from the data to determine the cause of the group differences in terms of perceived organisational justice.

The results suggested employees who had been with their current employers for less than a year ($M = 5.25$; $SD = 1.39$; mean rank = 467.43) differed significantly from those who had been with the employer for two to five years ($M = 4.57$; $SD = 1.40$; mean rank = 356.69), as well as those who had been with the employer for five to ten years ($M = 4.40$; $SD = 1.52$; mean rank = 338.80). New employees (i.e. those who had been with the employer for less than a year) therefore reported higher levels of perceived organisational justice than those who had been in the organisation for a longer period (2 to 10 years).

No statistically significant differences were evident between different groups in terms of tenure with the current employer relating to OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, POS, organisational cynicism, organisational trust or horizontal collectivism.

Table 9.57

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Groups in terms of Total Tenure (All Employers)

Scale variables	Groups	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	p	Cohen's d^c
OCB – Organisation ^a	Less than a year	8	4.93	1.79	374.63	10.93	5	.053	.18
	1 – 2 years	49	5.42	1.25	425.51				
	> 2 – 5 years	85	4.65	1.58	317.66				
	> 5 – 10 years	189	4.98	1.30	354.84				
	> 10 – 15 years	192	5.12	1.31	376.37				
	> 15 years	217	5.18	1.32	387.08				
Attitudinal commitment ^b	Less than a year	8	3.48	2.03	347.00	9.77	5	.082	.16
	1 – 2 years	49	4.08	1.53	433.66				
	> 2 – 5 years	85	3.31	1.46	322.84				
	> 5 – 10 years	189	3.69	1.54	373.85				
	> 10 – 15 years	192	3.59	1.55	359.96				
	> 15 years	217	3.75	1.46	382.17				
Psychological contract violation ^b	Less than a year	8	2.94	1.26	366.69	.97	5	.965	.15
	1 – 2 years	49	3.15	1.77	371.70				
	> 2 – 5 years	85	3.28	1.87	381.54				
	> 5 – 10 years	189	3.21	1.71	379.44				
	> 10 – 15 years	192	3.09	1.70	365.87				
	> 15 years	217	3.10	1.79	362.35				

Scale variables	Groups	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	p	Cohen's d ^c
Perceived organisational justice ^b	Less than a year	8	5.14	1.78	469.19	9.89	5	.078	.16
	1 – 2 years	49	5.05	1.43	439.16				
	> 2 – 5 years	85	4.55	1.41	353.66				
	> 5 – 10 years	189	4.50	1.47	349.32				
	> 10 – 15 years	192	4.60	1.41	364.53				
	> 15 years	217	4.71	1.46	381.68				
Perceived organisational support ^b	Less than a year	8	4.88	1.65	413.88	6.19	5	.288	.08
	1 – 2 years	49	5.08	1.40	429.34				
	> 2 – 5 years	85	4.59	1.58	368.20				
	> 5 – 10 years	189	4.58	1.44	349.14				
	> 10 – 15 years	192	4.69	1.37	368.08				
	> 15 years	217	4.69	1.52	377.26				
Organisational cynicism ^b	Less than a year	8	4.25	1.77	419.88	9.83	5	.080	.16
	1 – 2 years	49	3.87	1.61	373.40				
	> 2 – 5 years	85	4.00	1.58	390.19				
	> 5 – 10 years	189	4.07	1.70	398.11				
	> 10 – 15 years	192	3.85	1.73	370.27				
	> 15 years	217	3.58	1.82	336.47				
Organisational trust ^b	Less than a year	8	4.29	1.83	459.44	11.11	5	.049*	.18
	1 – 2 years	49	4.25	1.80	456.86				
	> 2 – 5 years	85	3.40	1.51	352.14				
	> 5 – 10 years	189	3.44	1.63	354.66				
	> 10 – 15 years	192	3.56	1.60	369.67				
	> 15 years	217	3.57	1.67	369.44				
Horizontal collectivism ^b	Less than a year	8	6.29	.58	435.00	5.67	5	.339	.06
	1 – 2 years	49	6.12	.79	401.19				
	> 2 – 5 years	85	5.94	.76	335.16				
	> 5 – 10 years	189	6.01	.71	358.25				
	> 10 – 15 years	192	6.07	.71	372.95				
	> 15 years	217	6.10	.72	383.53				

Notes: n = 740. *** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$; $d = .20$ small practical effect; $d = .50$ medium practical effect; $d = .80$ large practical effect; OCB = organisational citizenship behaviour

^a 7-point Likert type frequency scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (all the time)

^b 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

^c Cohen's d was calculated using the effect size calculator for nonparametric tests.

(https://www.psychometrica.de/effect_size.html#nonparametric)

The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine whether there were any differences in groups

relating to total tenure (i.e. all employers) for OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism, organisational trust and horizontal collectivism. The results, as reported in Table 9.57, showed a statistically significant difference for at least one pair of groups in terms of organisational trust ($H = 11.11$; $p < .05$; $d = .18$, small practical effect). Dunn's pairwise test was conducted for the 15 pairs of groups emanating from the data to determine the cause of the group differences in terms of organisational trust.

The results indicated that employees who had employed for between one and two years ($M = 4.25$; $SD = 1.80$; mean rank = 456.86) differed significantly from those that had been employed for five to ten years ($M = 3.44$; $SD = 1.63$; mean rank = 354.66). Newer entrants into the labour market (i.e. those who had been employed for between 1 and 2 years) thus reported higher levels of organisational trust than those who had been employed for a longer period (5 to 10 years).

No statistically significant differences were evident between different groups in terms of total tenure relating to OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism or horizontal collectivism.

9.3.6.7 Differences in mean scores for groups in terms of job level

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine whether there were significant differences between managerial employees (managers and supervisors) and employees at staff level in terms of their work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and experiences (perceived organisational support), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, their personal dispositions in terms of horizontal collectivism and their attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) in the workplace. The results are reported in Table 9.58.

Table 9.58

Mann-Whitney U Test for Groups in terms of Job Level

Scale variables	Groups	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Mann-Whitney U	z	p	Cohen's d^c
OCB – Organisation ^a	Staff	402	4.84	1.39	335.40	53 828.50	-4.88	.000***	.36
	Management	338	5.33	1.26	412.24				
Attitudinal commitment ^b	Staff	402	3.50	1.51	348.25	58 992.00	-3.09	.002**	.23
	Management	338	3.85	1.52	396.97				

Scale variables	Groups	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Mann-Whitney U	z	p	Cohen's d ^c
Psychological contract violation ^b	Staff	402	3.37	1.75	399.14	56 423.50	-3.99	.000***	.30
	Management	338	2.88	1.71	336.43				
Perceived organisational justice ^b	Staff	402	4.51	1.46	352.86	60 847.50	-2.45	.014*	.18
	Management	338	4.79	1.42	391.48				
Perceived organisational support ^b	Staff	402	4.46	1.53	340.37	55 826.50	-4.19	.000***	.31
	Management	338	4.94	1.34	406.33				
Organisational cynicism ^b	Staff	402	4.10	1.70	400.82	55 748.00	-4.21	.000***	.31
	Management	338	3.56	1.72	334.43				
Organisational trust ^b	Staff	402	3.48	1.65	359.40	63 477.50	-1.54	.123	.11
	Management	338	3.67	1.63	383.70				
Horizontal collectivism ^b	Staff	402	5.96	.76	342.95	56 864.00	-3.88	.000***	.28
	Management	338	6.17	.66	403.26				

Notes: n = 740. *** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$; $d = .50$ small practical effect; $d = .50$ medium practical effect; $d = .80$ large practical effect; OCB = organisational citizenship behaviour

^a 7-point Likert type frequency scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (all the time)

^b 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

^c Cohen's d was calculated using the effect size calculator for nonparametric tests.

(https://www.psychometrica.de/effect_size.html#nonparametric)

The results of the Mann-Whitney U tests reported in Table 9.58 reflect statistically significant differences between managerial employees (managers and supervisors) and employees at staff level in terms of all the scale variables except organisational trust. The following differences were evident in the data:

- Managerial employees ($M = 5.33$; $SD = 1.26$; mean rank = 412.24) displayed higher levels of OCB-O than employees at staff level ($M = 4.84$; $SD = 1.39$; mean rank = 335.40). The Mann-Whitney U-value was statistically significant ($U = 53\ 828.50$; $z = -4.88$; $p < .001$) with a small practical effect ($d = .36$).
- Statistically significant differences in terms of attitudinal commitment ($U = 58\ 992.00$; $z = -3.09$; $p < .01$; $d = .23$, small practical effect) suggested that managerial employees ($M = 3.85$; $SD = 1.52$; mean rank = 396.97) displayed higher levels of attitudinal commitment than lower-level employees ($M = 3.50$; $SD = 1.51$; mean rank = 348.25).
- Employees at staff level ($M = 3.37$; $SD = 1.75$; mean rank = 399.14) experienced higher levels of psychological contract violation than managerial employees ($M = 2.88$; $SD = 1.71$; mean rank = 336.43). The Mann-Whitney U-value was statistically significant (U

= 56 423.50; $z = -3.99$; $p < .001$) with a small practical effect ($d = .30$).

- Managerial employees ($M = 4.79$; $SD = 1.42$; mean rank = 391.48) perceived higher levels of organisational justice than employees at staff level ($M = 4.51$; $SD = 1.46$; mean rank = 352.86). The Mann-Whitney U-value was statistically significant ($U = 60 847.50$; $z = -2.45$; $p < .05$) with a small practical effect ($d = .18$).
- Similarly, managerial employees ($M = 4.94$; $SD = 1.34$; mean rank = 406.33) perceived higher levels of organisational support than lower-level employees ($M = 4.46$; $SD = 1.53$; mean rank = 340.37). The Mann-Whitney U-value was statistically significant ($U = 55 826.50$; $z = -4.19$; $p < .001$) with a small practical effect ($d = .31$).
- In terms of organisational cynicism, statistically significant differences ($U = 55 748.00$; $z = -4.21$; $p < .001$; $d = .31$, small practical effect) suggested that employees at staff level ($M = 4.10$; $SD = 1.70$; mean rank = 400.82) displayed higher levels of cynicism towards their employing organisations than managerial employees ($M = 3.56$; $SD = 1.72$; mean rank = 334.43).
- Finally, statistically significant differences in terms of horizontal collectivism ($U = 56 864.00$; $z = -3.88$; $p < .001$; $d = .28$, small practical effect) implied that managerial employees ($M = 6.17$; $SD = .66$; mean rank = 403.26) displayed higher levels of horizontal collectivism than employees at staff level ($M = 5.96$; $SD = .76$; mean rank = 342.95).

No statistically significant differences were evident between different groups in terms of job level relating to organisational trust.

9.3.6.8 *Differences in mean scores for groups in terms of union membership*

Table 9.59 reports the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test that was used to determine whether there were significant differences between trade union members and nonmembers in terms of their work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and experiences (perceived organisational support), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, their personal dispositions in terms of horizontal collectivism and their attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O). A distinction was made between employees who were union members but had cancelled their union membership and those who had never been union members.

Table 9.59

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Groups in terms of Trade Union Membership

Scale variables	Groups	n	Mean	SD	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	p	Cohen's d ^c
OCB – Organisation ^a	Nonmembers (never)	407	5.11	1.34	376.95	.85	2	.653	.03
	Union members	251	4.99	1.42	361.52				
Attitudinal commitment ^b	Nonmembers (never)	407	3.70	1.49	376.65	1.05	2	.592	.02
	Nonmembers (cancelled)	82	3.69	1.51	374.13				
	Union members	251	3.59	1.57	359.33				
Psychological contract violation ^b	Nonmembers (never)	407	3.06	1.73	358.64	3.26	2	.196	.11
	Nonmembers (cancelled)	82	3.15	1.77	371.15				
	Union members	251	3.29	1.76	389.51				
Perceived organisational justice ^b	Nonmembers (never)	407	4.70	1.40	377.88	1.42	2	.492	.05
	Nonmembers (cancelled)	82	4.65	1.49	373.44				
	Union members	251	4.53	1.51	357.57				
Perceived organisational support ^b	Nonmembers (never)	407	4.83	1.45	392.40	11.22	2	.004**	.24
	Nonmembers (cancelled)	82	4.63	1.58	370.46				
	Union members	251	4.46	1.43	335.00				
Organisational cynicism ^b	Nonmembers (never)	407	3.75	1.71	358.61	5.39	2	.068	.16
	Nonmembers (cancelled)	82	3.72	1.75	352.14				
	Union members	251	4.06	1.74	395.78				
Organisational trust ^b	Nonmembers (never)	407	3.63	1.62	379.64	2.32	2	.314	.09
	Nonmembers (cancelled)	82	3.62	1.78	375.91				
	Union members	251	3.44	1.63	353.91				
Horizontal collectivism ^b	Nonmembers (never)	407	6.02	.70	357.95	3.52	2	.172	.12
	Nonmembers (cancelled)	82	6.13	.78	397.24				
	Union members	251	6.08	.73	382.11				

Notes: n = 740. *** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$; $d = .20$ small practical effect; $d = .50$ medium practical effect; $d = .80$ large practical effect; OCB = organisational citizenship behaviour

^a 7-point Likert type frequency scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (all the time)

^b 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

^c Cohen's d was calculated using the effect size calculator for nonparametric tests.

(https://www.psychometrica.de/effect_size.html#nonparametric)

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test reported in Table 9.59 suggested that statistically significant differences existed for at least one pair of groups in terms of union membership relating to perceived organisational support ($H = 11.22$; $p < .01$; $d = .24$, small practical effect).

To determine the source of the group differences, Dunn's pairwise test with a Bonferroni correction was conducted in terms of each of the scale variables for the three pairs of groups emanating from the data. Only one significant difference was identified from the post hoc analysis. In terms of perceived organisational support, a statistically significant difference was evident between trade union members ($M = 4.46$; $SD = 1.43$; mean rank = 335.00) and nonmembers who had never belonged to a trade union ($M = 4.83$; $SD = 1.45$; mean rank = 392.40). In terms of these results, it may be deduced that trade union members perceived lower levels of organisational support than nonmembers.

9.3.6.9 Preliminary analysis 6: Towards constructing a psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour

In the previous sections, tests for significant mean differences indicated that research participants with different personal (gender, age, population group and level of education) and work-related (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics showed statistically significant differences in terms of their work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and experiences (perceived organisational support), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, their personal dispositions in terms of horizontal collectivism and their attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) in the workplace. The significant differences that were observed are summarised in Table 9.60.

Table 9.60

Significant Differences between Groups and the Sources of these Differences

Variable	Source of difference	Significant differences between pairs of groups	
		Highest mean ranking	Lowest mean ranking
OCB – Organisation	Job level	Managers and supervisors	Employees at staff level
Attitudinal commitment	Gender	Male	Female
	Population groups	White	Black African
	Level of education	Matric or National Senior Certificate (NQF 4) or lower	Bachelor's Degree or Advanced Diploma (NQF level 7)
	Job level	Managers and supervisors	Employees at staff level
Psychological contract violation	Population groups	Black African	White
	Job level	Employees at staff level	Managers and supervisors
Perceived organisational justice	Tenure (current employer)	Employees with tenure of less than a year with current employer	Employees with tenure of between two and five years followed by those with tenure, between two and ten years with the current employer
	Job level	Managers and supervisors	Employees at staff level

Variable	Source of difference	Significant differences between pairs of groups	
		Highest mean ranking	Lowest mean ranking
Perceived organisational support	Population groups	White	Black African
	Job level	Managers and supervisors	Employees at staff level
	Trade union membership	Nonmembers who had never joined a union	Union members
Organisational cynicism	Job level	Managers and supervisors	Employees at staff level
Organisational trust	Gender	Male	Female
	Population groups	Whites	Black Africans and coloureds
	Level of education	Matric or National Senior Certificate (NQF 4) and lower	Bachelor's Degree or Advanced Diploma (NQF level 7), followed by Postgraduate qualification (NQF levels 8 and 9)
	Tenure (all employers)	Employees who had been employed (all employers) between one and two years	Employees who had been employed (all employers) between five and ten years
Horizontal collectivism	Gender	Male	Female
	Population groups	Black African	Coloureds and whites
	Job level	Managers and supervisors	Employees at staff level

No statistically significant differences were observed between different age groups or groups in terms of employment status (i.e. permanent and contract workers) relating to OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, perceived organisational justice, perceived organisational support, organisational cynicism, organisational trust and horizontal collectivism.

The results of the test for significant mean differences provided supporting evidence for hypothesis H9.

H9: Individuals from different biographical groups (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) differ statistically significantly regarding POS, POJ and psychological contract violation (independent variables), organisational cynicism and trust (mediating variables), individualism/collectivism (moderating variable) and organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB (dependent variables).

The results of the tests for significant mean differences are analysed and interpreted in terms of extant theory in Chapter 10 (see section 10.1.9).

9.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided the findings of the descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics to examine the nature of the empirical relationships between the psychological wellbeing-related attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention. The findings of the literature review and the empirical research were interpreted and provided support for the research hypotheses.

The following empirical research aims were achieved:

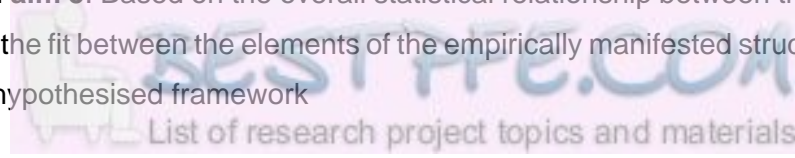
Empirical research aim 1: To assess the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical interrelationships between the independent variables (work-related perceptions and work experiences), dependent variables (relational attitudes and behaviour), mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust) and moderating variable (individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism) in a sample of respondents employed in the South African organisational context

Empirical research aim 2: To assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of independent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables

Empirical research aim 3: To assess the overall statistical relationship between horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of independent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables

Empirical research aim 4: To assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as a composite set of independent variables and organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent dependent variables

Empirical research aim 5: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the construct variables, to assess the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretical hypothesised framework



Empirical research aim 6: To determine whether (1) organisational cynicism and (2) organisational trust significantly mediate the relationship between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB)

Empirical research aim 7: To determine whether the influence of individuals' (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) on their sense of organisational cynicism and trust; (2) trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations on their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and (3) relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) upon their behaviour (OCB and CWB), is conditional upon their disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (moderating variable)

Empirical research aim 8: To empirically assess whether gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership significantly predict work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB)

Empirical research aim 9: To empirically assess whether individuals from various biographical groups (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) differ significantly regarding the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust), moderating (individualism/collectivism) and dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables

Chapter 10 addresses empirical research aim 10, namely to formulate recommendations for industrial and organisational psychologists and employment relations professionals in terms of employment relations practices, and to make suggestions for future research in the field, based on the interpretation of the research results and their integration with extant theory.

CHAPTER 10: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter commences with an integration and discussion of the results of the study. The empirical results reported in the previous chapter are integrated with the results obtained from the preceding literature review and interpreted in order to assess the extent to which the results supported the stated research hypotheses. The chapter furthermore addresses empirical research aim 10, namely to formulate recommendations for employment relations practices and future research. The limitations of the literature review and the empirical results of the study are discussed and recommendations formulated in terms of the practical application of the findings. In conclusion, suggestions are made for possible future research.

10.1 INTEGRATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This section commences with a description of the sample profile. First, a summary of the biographical profile of the sample is provided in terms of respondents' personal (gender, age, population group and education level) and work-related (employment status, tenure, job level, and union membership) characteristics. This is followed by a description of the sample in terms of the mean scores reported for the ten measuring instruments. Finally, the results of the statistical analyses conducted to address each of the empirical research aims are integrated and discussed. The section concludes with a synthesis of the main findings and an outline of the decisions concerning each of the research hypotheses.

10.1.1 Profile of respondents in terms of personal and work-related characteristics

The biographical profile of the sample was outlined in section 8.2 in Chapter 8 (see Table 8.10 for a summary). In terms of personal characteristics, the respondents in the sample were predominantly black females between the ages of 26 and 45, who had obtained at least a Grade 12 (NQF level 4) qualification.

In terms of the labour force statistics at the time of data collection (Statistics South Africa, 2016), which was deemed indicative of the distribution of the population from which the sample was drawn, males were somewhat underrepresented in the sample. There was also a slight underrepresentation of black Africans and an overrepresentation of whites in the sample in comparison with the national distribution. Furthermore, as a result of the sampling frame

(employed business management students), employees in the older age category (46 to 65 years of age) were underrepresented, while more highly qualified employees were overrepresented. Irrespective of these slight deviations from the national distribution of the labour force in terms of personal characteristics, the sample was deemed representative of the broader dynamics of the South African workforce in terms of gender, age, population group and levels of education.

With regard to work-related characteristics, most of the respondents were employed in terms of long-term (permanent) contracts of employment, which corresponded with the norm in the South African labour market at the time of data collection (Statistics South Africa, 2016). Respondents worked mostly at an operational (staff) level, had been employed with their current employers for a period of two to ten years and had five to 15 years of work experience. This reflected a slight underrepresentation of new (those who had been employed for less than a year) and longer-tenured (those who had been with their employers for 15 years and more) employees. Although most of the respondents were not trade union members, the distribution in terms of union membership corresponded closely to the national statistics, which indicate that approximately a third of South African employees belong to a trade union (Statistics South Africa, 2016).

Hence, while there were slight deviations from the national distribution of the labour force in terms of the work-related characteristics of the sample, limiting the generalisability of the results to the wider South African population, these deviations were anticipated because of the chosen sample frame. These deviations were taken into consideration in the interpretation of the results.

10.1.2 Profile of respondents in terms of mean scores on the measurement scales

The following section includes an interpretation and discussion of the mean scores reported for each of the ten measurement scales used to measure the constructs (OCB, CWB, organisational commitment, union commitment, psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism) of relevance in this study. A summary of the measurement instruments was provided in Table 8.11.

10.1.2.1 Profile of respondents in terms of relational attitudes and behaviour

Respondents were required to indicate how often they engaged in particular behaviour in the workplace. This included both positive (OCB, Lee & Allen, 2002) and negative (CWB, Bennett & Robinson, 2000a) discretionary behaviour directed towards their employing organisations or individuals in them. In terms of OCB (see Table 9.3), the mean scores for both organisationally directed (OCB-O) and individually directed (OCB-I) OCB revealed that respondents frequently engaged in these forms of discretionary behaviour in the workplace. Behaviour intended to benefit the organisation (OCB-O) included, for instance, expressing loyalty towards the organisation and showing pride when representing the organisation in public. Individually directed OCB (OCB-I) included behaviour such as showing genuine concern for and courtesy towards co-workers and going out of their way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group. Frequent engagement, in terms of the measuring scale used, implied that employees engaged in both forms of OCB in about 70 per cent of the chances they could have.

In contrast, respondents indicated (see Tables 9.6 and 9.7) that they never or rarely (in less than 10% of the chances when they could have) engaged in behaviour that was detrimental to their employing organisations (CWB-O) or individuals in them (CWB-I). Organisationally directed CWB included actions such as intentionally wasting working time or taking excessive breaks, while individually directed CWB referred to playing pranks on or saying hurtful things to people at work (Lee & Allen, 2002). It is acknowledged that these results may have been influenced by the chosen method of data collection (self-reporting) and the social undesirability of negative employee behaviour in the workplace (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). However, various studies (e.g. Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Berry et al., 2012; Bowling et al., 2011; Carpenter et al., 2017; Dalal, 2005; Fox et al., 2012; Lee & Allen, 2002; Liu & Ding, 2012; Peng, Chen et al., 2016) have shown that self-reporting is the most effective way of measuring negative workplace behaviour, provided that respondent anonymity is guaranteed. It is, however, accepted that the results may differ if other sources of behavioural information such as peer or supervisor ratings are relied upon (Fox et al., 2012; Lee & Allen, 2002). The results relating to CWB directed towards individuals in the organisation (CWB-I) were interpreted with caution as the validity and reliability of the CWB-I subscale could not be confirmed for the data.

Respondents' relational attitudes were assessed by measuring their commitment to two potentially competing entities, namely their employing organisations and trade unions. Respondents were unable to differentiate between affective and normative commitment in terms of Meyer and Allen's (1997) three-factor model of organisational commitment. Hence,

the approach suggested by Jaros (2007), combining affective and normative commitment into a single dimension termed “attitudinal commitment”, was adopted. This amalgamation of affective and normative commitment reflected an AC/NC-dominant commitment profile, which indicates the extent to which employees experience a moral commitment towards their employing organisations or a desire to do the right thing (Meyer & Morin, 2016). Organisational commitment was therefore measured and interpreted in terms of two dimensions, namely attitudinal commitment, which reflected respondents’ emotional attachment to and felt responsibility towards their employing organisations, and continuance commitment, which related to the costs associated with leaving these organisations (Jaros, 2007; Meyer et al., 2007).

The results in Table 9.10 indicated that respondents reported slightly higher levels of continuance commitment than attitudinal commitment. Hence, the overall sample reflected a CC-dominant commitment profile suggesting a sense of entrapment (Meyer & Morin, 2016). Respondents thus felt that they had no alternative but to remain in their organisations because of a lack of other employment opportunities and the costs associated with leaving (Kam et al., 2016; Vandenberghe & Panaccio, 2015). Individuals were therefore more likely to stay in their organisations because they needed to and not because of an emotional attachment to the organisations (i.e. wanting to stay) or a moral responsibility to do so (Meyer & Allen, 1997). However, in both instances (continuance and attitudinal commitment), respondents did not regard themselves as being particularly committed to their employing organisations.

In contrast to the relatively low levels of organisational commitment, trade union members reported high levels of commitment to their unions (see Table 9.13). Trade union members indicated that they were loyal to their trade unions and felt a responsibility to participate in union activities, but that they were not necessarily willing to work for these unions. Trade union members thus displayed a clear awareness of the benefits of union membership and a sense of pride associated with belonging to a trade union while being willing to fulfil the obligations associated with union membership in order to protect the interests of the union (Gordon et al., 1980a). They were, however, less willing to participate in union-related activities beyond what was required in terms of normal union membership such as serving on a committee for the union or availing themselves to serve as trade union officials (Gordon et al., 1980a).

The discrepancy between organisational and union commitment suggested that these two groups of employees (union members and nonmembers) might differ in terms of their commitment to their employing organisations. This notion was assessed by testing for

significant mean differences between the groups. These results are discussed in section 10.1.9.6.

10.1.2.2 Profile of participants in terms of work-related perceptions and work experiences

Respondents' work-related perceptions and work experiences were measured in terms of their reported negative emotional reactions to perceived psychological contract violations and their perceptions of justice (POJ) and support (POS) in their workplaces.

The results in Table 9.16 indicate that, while respondents did not experience high levels of psychological contract violation, feelings of violation were not completely absent. These results suggested two possible interpretations. Respondents either perceived their employers as generally fulfilling their obligations in terms of the psychological contract (i.e. there was no psychological contract breach), which eliminated the need for a negative emotional reaction, or they simply did not have a negative affective reaction, irrespective of perceived breaches of the psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Extant literature shows that high organisational commitment usually signals favourable psychological contracts, while low commitment is usually a sign of compromised or dissolved psychological contracts (Solinger et al., 2016). Given the relatively low level of organisational commitment reported, one could therefore argue that, while employees were not entirely satisfied with the extent to which their psychological contracts with their employing organisations were fulfilled, they did not necessarily reveal their dissatisfaction by means of a negative emotional response.

Respondents' perceptions of organisational justice were measured and interpreted in terms of two dimensions, namely distributive justice and procedural justice, the latter incorporating both formal procedural and interactional justice, as reflected in Niehoff and Moorman's (1993a) conceptualisation of organisational justice. The results reported in Table 9.19 suggest that respondents' tended to have moderately positive perceptions of organisational justice in their workplaces. Although they believed that their work outcomes (e.g. pay level, work schedule, work load and job responsibilities) were reasonable and that their needs were considered and just procedures were followed when decisions about these outcomes were made, they were not completely satisfied.

Similar results were reported for perceived organisational support (see Table 9.22). Respondents' perceptions concerning the degree to which their employing organisations value

their contributions and show concern for their well-being (Hochwarter et al., 2003a) were fairly positive. Respondents' indicated that they generally received assistance from their employers when required, and were typically not held responsible for honest mistakes. They also tended to perceive their employing organisations as caring and considerate.

From the above it might be deduced that the respondents in this study typically regarded as relatively positive their conditions of employment and, more specifically, the quality of the social exchange relationships between employees and their employing organisations, as depicted by their perceptions of psychological contract violation, organisational justice and organisational support (Methot et al., 2017; Organ, 1990a).

10.1.2.3 Profile of participants in terms of organisational cynicism and trust

The mean scores in terms of organisational cynicism, or the extent to which employees harbour cynical attitudes towards their employing organisations (Brandes et al., 1999), and organisational trust, conceptualised as trust in top management (Stanley et al., 2005), were reported in Tables 9.25 and 9.28 respectively.

First, it was shown that respondents did not harbour predominantly negative beliefs about the integrity and intentions of their employing organisations and its leaders (cognitive cynicism) and did not experience negative affect towards these organisations (affective cynicism). As a result they were unlikely to engage in disparaging and critical behaviour towards the organisations (behavioural cynicism) (Brandes et al., 1999).

In terms of trust in management, conceptualised as employees' willingness to make themselves vulnerable to the potential negative consequences resulting from the decisions or actions of their managers (Stanley et al., 2005), the results indicated a slight negativity, especially in terms of trusting management to make the right decisions in terms of matters that directly affect them.

The results therefore indicated that, although the respondents in this study were not highly cynical towards their employing organisations, there was not a total absence of cynicism and they were not completely trusting of their organisations and managers.

10.1.2.4 *Profile of participants in terms of individualism/collectivism*

For the purposes of this study, individualism/collectivism was viewed as a personal disposition (i.e. an inherent individual characteristic), with individualism referring to an individual's tendency to value personal goals, independence, self-enhancement and competition and collectivism emphasising in-group goals, interdependence, group enhancement and cooperation (Györkös et al., 2013; Marcus & Le, 2013; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a). The individualism/collectivism construct was furthermore defined in terms of its horizontal and vertical dimensions or the extent to which equality (horizontal) or authority and hierarchy (vertical) are deemed important (Sarkar & Charlwood, 2014). The individualism/collectivism construct thus consisted of a set of contrasting dispositions (i.e. vertical collectivism, horizontal collectivism, vertical individualism and vertical individualism) that were adopted in varying degrees by individuals (Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis, 1993; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a). The profile of the respondents in terms of these dispositions, as reflected in Table 9.31, confirms that these categories are not mutually exclusive – it is possible for individuals to be high or low on both individualism and collectivism (Triandis, 2001; Triandis & Suh, 2002).

For the current sample, the highest mean score was reported for horizontal collectivism, suggesting that respondents viewed themselves as a part of and closely associated with a collective (the in-group) and regarded all members of the collective as similar to one another (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a). Respondents therefore tended to value equality and emphasise common goals, interdependency, empathy, sociability and cooperation (Li et al., 2006; Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011; Triandis & Singelis, 1998).

The second highest mean score was reported for vertical collectivism. This suggests that, while respondents still viewed themselves as a part of a collective (the in-group), they also accepted that differences and inequalities exist within this collective (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a). Respondents tended to value interdependency, conformity and traditional values and encourage in-group cohesion, duty, respect for in-group norms, and the directives of authorities (Triandis, 1995, 2006; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011).

Lower mean scores were reported for the individualism dimensions (horizontal individualism and vertical individualism), suggesting that fewer respondents placed a high value on autonomy or accepted differences and inequality (Singelis et al., 1995). In contrast to the typical Western corporate culture, which emphasises competition and achievement (Triandis, 2006), elements such as distinction and status were regarded as less important (Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a, 2011).

From the above, it may thus be deduced that, although both individualistic and collectivistic dispositions were exhibited in the sample, the dominant disposition was collective in nature, thus emphasising interdependence, group cohesion and cooperation. Respondents tended to view themselves as part of a collective and valued equality above autonomy and personal gain. However, the results relating to the individualism/collectivism construct were interpreted with caution because of the low internal consistency reliabilities of the four subscales.

10.1.2.5 Main findings

The results of the descriptive statistical analyses (mean scores of the scale measures) showed that, while respondents did not experience a high level of commitment to their employing organisations, they were likely to engage in OCB directed towards these organisations (OCB-O) as well as individuals in them. They were less likely to engage in intentional actions aimed at disadvantaging their employing organisations (CWB-O) or individuals in them (CWB-I). Employees who were trade union members reported high levels of union commitment and, more specifically, loyalty to and responsibility towards their unions.

Respondents typically regarded the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employing organisations, as depicted in relatively low levels of psychological contract violation and high levels of perceived organisational justice and support, as positive. This was also reflected in the relatively low level of organisational cynicism, suggesting that respondents tended to have confidence in the integrity and intentions of their employing organisations and their leaders. As a result, they were less likely to experience negative affect towards their organisations and unlikely to engage in disparaging and critical behaviour towards these organisations. However, respondents displayed some distrust towards management and did not have complete confidence in their ability to make unbiased decisions on matters that affect employees.

Finally, the dominant disposition held by respondents was collective in nature (notably horizontal collectivism), which indicated that they valued interdependence, group cohesion, cooperation and equality.

10.1.2.6 Counterintuitive findings

Extant literature has shown that organisational commitment relates not only to employees' focal behaviour (i.e. turnover and tenure), but also to their performance in the workplace –

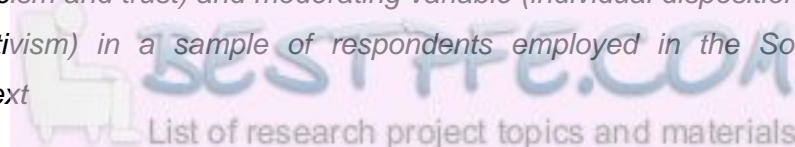
including both formal task responsibilities and discretionary behaviour (Choi et al., 2015; Sehunoe et al., 2015; Simons & Buitendach, 2013). Organisational commitment has been shown to be a significant positive predictor of OCB (Cetin et al., 2015; Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016), and significant negative relationships between organisational commitment and CWB have been reported (Demir, 2011; Wang, 2015). Hence, it was anticipated that there would be low levels of OCB and higher levels of CWB because of the relatively low levels of organisational commitment among respondents. However, this was not reflected in the data. It was subsequently posited that this finding might be indicative of the complex relationship between the variables, providing support for the development of an integrated framework that may provide a richer understanding of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. It was postulated that employees' willingness to engage in discretionary behaviour in the workplace is not determined by a single factor such as their commitment to their employing organisations only, but by a complex interaction of antecedents. These antecedents include the quality of the relationship they perceive to have with their employing organisations – as determined by their perceptions of organisational support and justice, as well as their experiences of psychological contract violations in the workplace – and their beliefs about and perceptions of the intent and trustworthiness of their organisations.

The results indicated that the respondents held a predominantly collectivistic disposition. This deviates from the notion of South Africa as a individualistic society (Hofstede & Hofstede, n.d.). It may reflect, however, not only the distribution of the sample (the majority were black African employees) but also the changing composition of the South African workplace, because collectivism is thought to prevail among black South Africans as a result of their African heritage (Eaton & Louw, 2000).

In the sections that follow, the empirical results that were reported in Chapter 9 are discussed and integrated with the relevant theory from the literature review (Chapters 2 to 7). The discussion is structured in terms of the empirical research aims.

10.1.3 Discussion and interpretation of correlation analysis results

Empirical research aim 1: *To assess the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical interrelationships between the independent variables (work-related perceptions and work experiences), dependent variables (relational attitudes and behaviour), mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust) and moderating variable (individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism) in a sample of respondents employed in the South African organisational context*



Bivariate correlation analyses were conducted to address empirical research aim 1. The significant bivariate correlations between the independent, mediating, moderating and dependent variables (scales and subscales) of relevance in this study, were reflected in Table 9.33 and reported in section 9.2.2. The main findings contributing to the construction of an integrated and empirically tested psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour are highlighted in the sections below. These results are briefly discussed and interpreted in terms of the relevant literature.

10.1.3.1 Significant bivariate relationships between the dependent variables

A number of significant bivariate correlations between the dependent variables (OCB, CWB, organisational commitment and union commitment) in the theorised directions were reported. This included a significant negative correlation between the two behavioural dependent variables (OCB and CWB). Similar results were reported by Yin (2018), Griep and Vantilborgh (2018b) and Mai et al. (2016), suggesting that employees who engage in OCB are less likely to engage CWB, and vice versa. However, the correlations are not so high that they might suggest that OCB and CWB constitute two extremes on a single continuum (Sackett et al., 2006). Furthermore, there were stronger relationships between the dimensions of OCB and CWB when the targets of behaviour (the organisation or individuals in it) were similar. The results thus provided support for the conceptualisation of OCB and CWB as independent multidimensional constructs and for the adoption of a target-specific approach when studying these constructs (Dalal, 2005; Sackett et al., 2006).

In terms of the attitudinal outcomes, a significant positive relationship between organisational commitment and union commitment was reported. More specifically, attitudinal commitment was significantly and positively related to union loyalty, while continuance commitment was associated with a willingness to work for the union, lending support to a multidimensional approach to measuring dual commitment (Cohen, 2005). These results implied that commitment to an organisation and trade union was not mutually exclusive and that there was dual commitment to these two potentially conflicting entities among trade union members in the sample (Fortin-Bergeron, Doucet, & Hennebert, 2018). Although positive correlations between these two targets of commitment have been reported widely in extant research (Fortin-Bergeron et al., 2018; Robinson et al., 2012), it has been posited that dual commitment is only possible in a cooperative employment relations climate (Redman & Snape, 2016). While the employment relations climate was not explicitly measured in this study, the results in terms of employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) suggested that respondents in this study regarded the quality

of their social exchange relationships with their employing organisations as relatively positive (see section 10.1.2.2). Social exchange theory provides a valid theoretical foundation for the existence of dual commitment, suggesting that trade union members who have a positive view of their employment relationship will credit both the employer and the trade union for the perceived high quality of the relationship and will, in exchange, be loyal to both entities (Redman & Snape, 2016).

The results further revealed that both organisational commitment and union commitment were positively associated with OCB (notably OCB-O). This finding reaffirms previous results (Anggraeni, Dwiatmadja, & Yuniawan, 2017; Chan et al., 2006; Marinova, Cao, & Park, 2018; Obedgiu, Bagire, & Mafabi, 2017; Redman & Snape, 2016), which indicated that employees' emotional bond with their organisations and their felt obligation to remain in their organisations (attitudinal commitment) serve as a psychological mechanism that encourages employees to reciprocate by engaging in positive discretionary workplace behaviour. In unionised organisations, trade union members who were committed to their unions, also displayed higher levels of OCB (Chan et al., 2006; Redman & Snape, 2016). Redman and Snape (2016) posited that this may be indicative of the prosocial nature of union members (also reflected in a collectivist disposition) and could be regarded as a manifestation of dual commitment. Behaviour intended to benefit the organisation was thus not regarded by union members as an expression of diminished loyalty to the union.

10.1.3.2 Significant bivariate relationships between the independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation)

The three independent variables (POJ, POS and psychological contract violation) were also significantly correlated in the expected directions. Similar to the results reported by researchers such as Biswas and Kapil (2017) and Kurtessis et al. (2017), perceived organisational justice and support were shown to be positively related, suggesting that employees who perceive their employing organisations as fair and considerate regard this as an indication of their employers' favourable orientation towards them. In addition, the emotions associated with psychological contract violation were associated with reduced POS and POJ. Extant research has shown that a perceived violation of the psychological contract may be regarded as both an antecedent and consequence of employees' perceptions of support and justice in their employing organisations (Alcover et al., 2017b; Coyle-Shapiro, 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

The reported relationships provided impetus for the notion of the existence of an interrelationship between these variables that determines employees' perceptions of the quality of their social exchange relationship with their employing organisations, as postulated by researchers such as Alcover et al. (2017b) and Epitropaki (2013). The results thus supported the notion that investigating the interrelationship between these independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) provided a holistic view of the quality of the social exchange relationship between employees and their employing organisations. It was furthermore posited that an awareness of the quality of the employment relationship would allow for a richer understanding of employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. The bivariate correlations between the independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and relational outcomes (OCB, CWB, organisational commitment and union commitment) were thus investigated to determine whether the data supported this view.

10.1.3.3 Significant bivariate relationships between the independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and the behavioural outcomes (OCB and CWB)

The results revealed significant bivariate correlations between all three independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and organisationally directed OCB. These results were anticipated in terms of the multifoci perspective on social exchange, which holds that employees develop distinct orientations towards specific entities in the workplace (e.g. the overall organisation or individuals, such as co-workers or direct supervisors, in the organisation) (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Lavelle et al., 2007). These orientations towards particular entities determine employees' felt obligations towards them, which is then reciprocated by targeted (i.e. organisationally directed) behaviour (Lemmon & Wayne, 2015; Rupp et al., 2014). Significant relationships between the independent variables and organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O) reinforced the view of the organisation as a single anthropomorphic entity (Cropanzano, Byrne, et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Lavelle et al., 2007; Morrison & Robinson, 1997) being the main focus of employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) (Kurtessis et al., 2017). It was anticipated that significant, albeit weaker, relationships would exist between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and OCB directed at individuals in the organisation (OCB-I) (Chung, 2017; Ravichandran, Gilmore, & Strohbehn, 2007). However, no significant relationships between these variables were reported, lending support to Williams and

Anderson's (1991) proposition that the antecedents of employee behaviour may differ, depending on its target. The results therefore suggested the existence of alternative antecedents to individually directed OCB (OCB-I). Such antecedents might include interpersonal exchange variables such as leader-member exchange, supervisor support or empathy (Colquitt et al., 2014; Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller, & Johnson, 2009; Pohl, Dal Santo, & Battistelli, 2015).

Perceived organisational support and psychological contract violation were significantly associated with CWB in opposite directions. The results revealed that POS was associated with lower CWB, which mirrored the results reported in extant research (e.g. Abas et al., 2015; Chung, 2017; Harris & Kacmar, 2018; Kurtessis et al., 2017). In addition, high psychological contract violation was associated with an increase in CWB, similar to the results reported by Griep and Vantilborgh (2018b). However, the practical significance of these associations was small. Kurtessis et al. (2017) posited that this may allude to the fact that employees are less inclined to engage in negative behaviour because of the organisation's considerable power to reprimand undesirable behaviour. Negative work-related perceptions or work experiences are therefore more likely to be reciprocated by a reluctance to engage in OCB than a tendency to engage in CWB, which may have negative consequences for individuals (e.g. discipline and dismissal). It also implies the existence of alternative antecedents to CWB that were not tested as part of the proposed psychological framework.

10.1.3.4 Significant bivariate relationships between the independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and the attitudinal outcomes (organisational and union commitment)

The results furthermore revealed significant bivariate relationships between organisational commitment and the three independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation). Although the positive relationships between organisational commitment and both POS (e.g. Ahmed et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2016) and POJ (e.g. Jiang et al., 2017; Lee & Wei, 2017), as well as its negative relationship with psychological contract violation (e.g. Quratulain et al., 2016; Schmidt, 2016) have been reported widely in extant literature, the emphasis tends to be on the affective dimension of organisational commitment only. In this study, significant relationships were shown to exist between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and their work experiences (psychological contract violation) and both attitudinal and continuance commitment.

While significant relationships were reported for both attitudinal and continuance commitment, the relationships with attitudinal commitment (i.e. affective and normative commitment) were stronger. Shore et al. (2006) suggested that this may be explained in terms of the nature of the exchange relationship. While attitudinal commitment reflects the emotional bond that employees hold with their employing organisations, and is grounded in social exchange, continuance commitment relates largely to economic exchange.

These results provided support for the positioning of POS, POJ and psychological contract violation as antecedents of organisational commitment, and more specifically attitudinal commitment, as significant bivariate correlations in the expected directions were reported.

In terms of union commitment, significant bivariate correlations were only reported between union loyalty (as a dimension of union commitment) and the theorised antecedent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation). Employees' perceptions of organisational support and justice were shown to be positively related to union loyalty, while a significant negative relationship was reported between union loyalty and psychological contract violation. While it has been shown that high-quality social exchange relationships might reduce the need for unionisation (Turnley et al., 2004), these results implied that trade union members who experience positive exchange relationships with their employing organisations, might attribute the quality of these relationships to the actions of both the employer and the union (Sinclair et al., 1995). Extant literature has suggested that such perceived dual instrumentality may manifest in positive employment relations climates (Chan et al., 2004). In such environments, trade union members tend to be satisfied with their social exchanges with both the organisation and the union (Lee, 2004). Hence, union members who regard their employers as supportive and fair and as meeting their obligations in terms of the psychological contract, not only manifest higher levels of attitudinal commitment towards their employing organisations, but also display higher levels of union loyalty. Although the independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) may therefore be regarded as potential antecedents of union loyalty, the low correlations between the variables suggest that other constructs might exist that play a more prominent role in predicting union loyalty. These constructs typically reflect union leadership, support and instrumentality and relate to the benefits provided by the union and their success in collective bargaining (Akoto, 2014; Hammer et al., 2009; Sinclair et al., 1995).

The results suggested that the other dimensions of union commitment (responsibility to the union and willingness to work for the union) were not adequately explained in the theorised framework.

10.1.3.5 Significant bivariate relationships between the mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust)

The results indicated a significant negative correlation between organisational cynicism and trust. This corresponds with similar findings in the literature (Biswas & Kapil, 2017; Kannan-Narasimhan & Lawrence, 2012; Pugh et al., 2003), suggesting that organisational cynicism and trust are related but independent constructs that are conversely correlated with work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Chiaburu et al., 2013).

10.1.3.6 Significant bivariate relationships between the independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and the mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust)

Significant bivariate correlations were shown to exist between the independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and the mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust) of relevance in this study. The results revealed that organisational cynicism was positively related to psychological contract violation and negatively related to both POS and POJ. In contrast, organisational trust was negatively associated with psychological contract violation and positively related to POS and POJ. The results supported findings by researchers such as Biswas and Kapil (2017), Collins (2017) and Chiaburu et al. (2013), who postulated that positive social exchange interactions and equity perceptions alleviated negative attitudes such as organisational cynicism and enhanced positive ones such as trust in the organisation and its managers (Biswas & Kapil, 2017).

The reported associations between these variables reflected the theorised relationships between them and lent support to the conceptualisation of organisational cynicism and trust as outcomes of employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation). To explore the theorised mediating role of these variables, it was also necessary to consider their relationships with the relational outcomes (OCB, CWB, organisational commitment and union commitment) of relevance in this study.

10.1.3.7 Significant bivariate relationships between the mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust) and the behavioural outcomes (OCB and CWB)

The results indicated significant bivariate correlations between the mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust) and organisationally directed OCB. It was shown that organisational cynicism was negatively associated with employees' propensity to engage in behaviour that contributes to organisational effectiveness, while organisational trust was positively related to such behaviour. These relationships are rooted in social exchange, which suggests that employees who perceive their employing organisations and managers as self-serving and exploitive become disillusioned and will, as a result, be less likely to engage in OCB aimed at benefiting the organisation (Avey et al., 2008; Evans et al., 2010). Such employees are likely to have little trust in their organisations and are therefore more likely to act in ways that will protect their own interests rather than those of the organisation (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2013). In contrast, employees who experience their relationships with their employing organisations as positive, are more likely to believe in the benevolent intent and honesty of their employers and, as a result, they will be more likely to trust their organisations and to expect that their extra effort on behalf of the organisations will be rewarded (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2013). Their belief that their employer will not take advantage of their vulnerabilities results in a greater tendency to reciprocate their positive perceptions and experiences with a greater willingness to engage in discretionary behaviour that will benefit the organisation (OCB-O) (Kurtessis et al., 2017).

The results also showed that organisational cynicism was positively associated with CWB directed at the organisation. This finding is in line with the principles of social exchange theory, which suggest that employees who question the integrity and intentions of their employing organisations will be more likely to react to their disappointment by engaging in intentional behaviour aimed at harming the organisation (Wilkerson et al., 2008). Although it was anticipated, drawing from results obtained in previous studies (Demir, 2011; Jensen & Raver, 2012), that a negative relationship would exist between organisational trust and CWB, the data did not confirm this relationship. The results therefore implied that organisational cynicism was a stronger predictor of CWB than organisational trust, and that there might be other variables that influence the relationship between organisational trust and negative behaviour.

10.1.3.8 Significant bivariate relationships between the mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust) and the attitudinal outcomes (organisational and union commitment)

The results indicated a significant negative relationship between organisational cynicism and organisational commitment and a significant positive relationship between organisational commitment and organisational trust. These findings mirrored those reported in extant literature (Bosman, Buitendach, et al., 2005; Chiaburu et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2009; Wang, Mather, & Seifert, 2018), suggesting that employees who regard their employers as self-serving and malevolent are unlikely to identify with their goals and values or to express loyalty towards them. In contrast, employees who trust their employers not to take advantage of their vulnerability in the employment relationship are more likely to form an emotional attachment with their organisations and to align their actions with the organisation's goals (Eğriboyun, 2015).

While it has been posited in extant literature that perceptions of and attitudes toward both the union and the employer may predict union participation and commitment (Hammer et al., 2009), the results of the correlation analysis indicated that organisational cynicism was not significantly related to union commitment in this sample. According to Snape and Redman (2012), this may be attributed to the fairly positive employment relations climate, which is reflected in relatively low level of organisational cynicism reported by respondents (see section 10.1.2.3). This finding implied that there are alternative antecedents to union commitment that do not relate to employees' cognitive assessment of the integrity and intent of their employers. Drawing on social exchange theory, it was posited that union commitment is mainly determined by the extent to which individuals believe that their exchange with the union will be beneficial (Snape et al., 2000). The focal antecedents of union commitment may thus include trade union members' assessment of union instrumentality and support, their participation in union activities and their general belief in trade unionism (Redman & Snape, 2016; Robinson et al., 2012; Zacharewicz et al., 2016).

A significant but weak positive relationship between organisational trust and union commitment was reported. This finding contradicted the hypothesised relationship between these variables and is further analysed in section 10.1.3.11 below.

Finally, while it has been suggested that a perceived imbalance in the exchange relationship, as reflected in cynicism towards and a lack of trust in the employing organisation, may

persuade pro-union employees to join a trade union (Buttigieg et al., 2007), trade union membership does not automatically imply union commitment, which entails an emotional attachment to the union and a willingness to exert effort on its behalf (Gordon et al., 1980a). For the purposes of the proposed psychological framework, it was thus deemed more meaningful to explore the differences in organisational cynicism and trust among union member and nonmembers than to focus on members' commitment to the union, especially since it emerged that union commitment and organisational commitment are not mutually exclusive. These differences are reported on, interpreted and discussed in section 10.1.9.6.

10.1.3.9 Significant bivariate relationships between individualism/collectivism as an independent variable and employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as dependent variables

Finally, the results in terms of individualism/collectivism as a four-dimensional construct (including horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism) revealed a number of significant associations between individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition and the independent, mediating and dependent variables of relevance in this study. However, the statistical and practical significance of these relationships was limited, which supported the conceptualisation of individualism/collectivism as a moderating variable in the theorised psychological framework, rather than an antecedent of employee perceptions, attitudes and behaviour. According to Barron and Kenny (1986), the moderating variable should preferably be uncorrelated to the predictor and outcome variables to ensure a clearer interpretation of its conditional effect in the relationships between these variables. However, Hayes and Rockwood (2017) emphasised that, although it is easier to interpret the conditional effect of a moderating variable in the relationship between an independent and dependent variable if the moderator is uncorrelated with these variables, this should not be regarded as an absolute statistical requirement for moderation analysis. Further analyses were thus conducted to assess the moderating influence of individualism/collectivism. The results of these analyses are reported, discussed and interpreted in section 10.1.7.

10.1.3.10 Main findings: Synthesis

Overall, the results of the bivariate correlation analysis provided empirical support for most of the theorised relationships between the independent, mediating, moderating and dependent variables of relevance in this study. Significant relationships were shown to exist between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations and their relational attitudes (mainly organisational commitment) and behaviour (predominantly OCB) in the workplace. Organisational cynicism was also associated with these outcome variables in the expected directions. Organisational trust was positively correlated with OCB, organisational commitment and union commitment (notably willingness to work for the union).

Although there was evidence of some significant correlations between individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition and the independent (POS and POJ) and dependent (OCB, organisational commitment and union commitment) variables, the magnitude and significance of these relationships were small, reaffirming that individualism/collectivism should not be regarded as an antecedent variable in the psychological framework, but that it might fulfil a moderating role, as theorised in Chapter 6.

From the results it could be further deduced that there are alternative, more prominent, predictors of CWB and union commitment that were not analysed in the current framework. The results showed, however, that commitment to a union will not inevitably result in a decline in organisational commitment, and that dual commitment to these two entities is possible. Moreover, the results suggested that employees who are dissatisfied with the quality of their relationships with their employing organisations, will not necessarily retaliate by engaging in CWB, but will more likely respond with an unwillingness to engage in OCB.

An analysis of the bivariate correlations between the variables allowed for an initial assessment of the extent to which the data supported the integrated theorised psychological framework proposed in Chapter 7 (see Figure 7.1). Although all the theorised relationships between the variables were not empirically confirmed, the reported correlations provided evidence of associations, which warranted further investigation. The results thus provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H1 (see Table 10.1).



10.1.3.11 *Counterintuitive findings*

In some instances, the data did not support the theorised relationships. For instance, a significant positive correlation was evident between the attitudinal dependent variables (i.e. organisational and union commitment), while it was expected that these variables would be negatively correlated. The data suggested that trade union members' commitment to their unions would not have an adverse effect on their commitment towards their employing organisations. High levels of union commitment were significantly associated with high levels of organisational commitment, which revealed that commitment to both these entities may indeed be possible, as advocated in extant literature (Fortin-Bergeron et al., 2018; Redman & Snape, 2016). According to Redman and Snape (2016), dual commitment is indicative of the prosocial nature of union members which was also reflected the collectivist dispositional nature of the sample (see section 10.1.2.4). These results highlighted the need for further research in terms of the existence and antecedents of dual commitment to the organisation and trade union in a South African organisational context.

Differing from the insignificant or negative relationships between continuance commitment and OCB often reported in extant research (e.g. Cetin et al., 2015; Meyer et al., 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995), the results indicated a positive relationship between these variables. An explanation of this discrepancy may be found in terms of the assertion that continuance commitment relates not only to one's current work environment, but also to external employment conditions (Rupp et al., 2014). Therefore, the relationship between continuance commitment and OCB reflects not only employees' inability to leave the organisation because of established investments (side-bets) in the organisation (Becker, 1960), but also a lack of alternative opportunities in the labour market. In addition, it has been posited that the relationship between continuance commitment and OCB tends to be stronger in collectivist cultures than individualist cultures (Cetin et al., 2015; Felfe et al., 2008). It is thus plausible that, in the South African labour market, which is characterised by high levels of unemployment and uncertainty, employees will feel unable to leave their current employment and, in an attempt to ensure higher levels of long-term job security, will be more inclined to engage in OCB. The collectivist disposition of many South African employees (see section 10.1.2.4) means that they value relationships and are naturally inclined to engage in supportive and cooperative behaviour (Triandis, 1995). This may explain why they are more likely to remain in the organisation and engage in discretionary behaviour that will benefit the organisation, if they regard such behaviour as contributing to the "greater good". Continuance commitment is typically related to economic exchange rather than social exchange and thus not commonly regarded as a predictor of employee behaviour in the workplace (Shore et al.,

2006). This may explain why the relationship between continuance commitment and OCB was weaker than the attitudinal commitment-OCB relationship, which is based on social exchange and the norm of reciprocity.

Contrary to expectations, the results of the bivariate correlation analysis also revealed a significant positive relationship between union commitment and OCB (mainly OCB-O), suggesting that high levels of commitment to a trade union will be associated with an increased likelihood of engaging in discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation. These results are counterintuitive as it has been argued, drawing on target similarity theory (Lavelle et al., 2007), that reciprocal behaviour is directed at specific social exchange partners (e.g. the organisation and the union) (Chan et al., 2006). Thus, when behaviour is regarded as target specific, union commitment is more likely to be linked to loyalty towards the union and engagement in union activities (i.e. pro-union behaviour) (Redman & Snape, 2016) than OCB. However, Redman and Snape (2016) also reported unexpected positive associations between union commitment and OCB (both OCB-O and OCB-I), suggesting that, as postulated by Flavin and Shufeldt's (2016), there may be particular conditions in which trade unionism, by virtue of its advancement of democracy in the workplace, also contributes to organisational citizenship.

Counterintuitive findings were also reported in terms of the relationship between POJ and CWB. Extant research, relying mainly on Adams' (1965) equity theory and fairness heuristic theory (Lind, 2001; Van den Bos & Van Prooijen, 2001), suggests that employees who are faced with injustice in their workplaces, may express their discontent by engaging in CWB (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Cohen & Diamant, 2017). However, contrary to expectations, no significant relationship was discernible between employees' perceptions of organisational justice (POJ) and CWB. It was posited that this result might be due to respondents' inability to differentiate between the procedural and interactional dimensions of organisational justice. Extant literature has shown that organisationally directed CWB is predicted by perceptions of procedural justice, whereas interactional justice perceptions are more likely to influence CWB directed towards individuals (Lavelle et al., 2018). The absence of a significant relationship between both forms of organisational justice (i.e. distributive justice and procedural and interactional justice) and CWB may furthermore be attributed to the strong effects of the other antecedents (POS and psychological contract violation) that may have suppressed the effect of POJ.

While the relationships between the independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and attitudinal commitment were similar to those reported in extant

literature, the relationships between continuance commitment and the antecedent variables differed. The relationship between POS and continuance commitment has often been found to be insignificant or negative (Aubé et al., 2007; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore et al., 2006; Uçar & Ötken, 2010). However, in this study, the relationship between these variables was shown to be positive. Similarly, significant positive, albeit weak, relationships were perceptible between continuance commitment and both dimensions of organisational justice, even though negative relationships have been reported in the literature (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). In addition, a significant negative, albeit weak, relationship was reported between psychological contract violation and continuance commitment, while a positive relationship has been reported in extant literature (Cassar & Briner, 2011). These discrepancies may be explained in terms of the limited employment opportunities and low skills levels in the South African labour market and the extensive investments (rewards, benefits and personal sacrifices) made by those in employment (Aubé et al., 2007; Cassar & Briner, 2011). Because of these external factors, employees tend to ascribe high economic value to remaining in the organisation, irrespective of their perceptions of and experiences in their organisations. The costs associated with leaving remain high, regardless of employees' experiences in the organisation (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). This is reflected in a higher mean score for continuance commitment than attitudinal commitment in the data, suggesting that employees remain with their current organisations because they are compelled to and not because they have an emotional attachment to the organisation or feel a moral obligation to stay. According to Cassar and Briner (2011), employees who experience poor-quality social exchange relationships with their employers might become more egoistic and think primarily about themselves and the costs of their loss and/or hold on more tightly to what they have.

It is further posited that the relationship between the independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and continuance commitment is influenced by employees' disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism. This prospect is supported by Daly et al. (2015) and Demir (2011), who also reported positive relationships between continuance commitment and justice perceptions in South Korean and Turkish samples respectively. Although these authors failed to provide any justification for their findings, both South Korea and Turkey are regarded as highly collectivist societies (Daly et al., 2015; Hofstede & Hofstede, n.d.).

Finally, it has been shown in extant literature that unionised employees display lower levels of organisational trust than nonunionised employees (Chang et al., 2017). When the employment relationship is viewed in terms of social exchange, shared values, trust, and mutual commitment are emphasised (Deery et al., 2014). Hence a lack of trust in management is

regarded as a key determinant of unionisation (Bashir & Nasir, 2013). It was therefore expected that lower levels of organisational trust would be associated with higher levels of union commitment. However, a significant positive relationship was apparent between organisational trust and union commitment. However, this relationship was mainly related to trade union members' willingness to work for their unions and not their loyalty to the union, suggesting an emphasis on economic rather than social exchange (Snape & Redman, 2004). The results thus implied that the extent to which trade union members trust their managers would not necessarily result in a greater loyalty towards their unions, but might encourage a greater willingness to engage in activities for the union that is not required in terms of normal membership. Trade union members may see greater involvement in union activities as a way of obtaining information and becoming involved in decision making that would not have been possible in an employer-employee relationship characterised by distrust (Murray, Lévesque, & Le Capitaine, 2014).

10.1.4 Discussion and interpretation of the canonical correlation analysis results

Three canonical correlation analyses were conducted to address empirical research aims 2, 3 and 4. This section outlines the significant results and provides a discussion and interpretation thereof in terms of the relevant literature.

10.1.4.1 Canonical correlation analysis results: Research aim 2

Empirical research aim 2: *To assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of independent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables*

The magnitude and directions of the bivariate correlations discussed in the previous section provided an initial indication of the prominence of the respective independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) and moderating (individualism/collectivism) variables in predicting relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. The results of the first canonical correlation analysis, as reported in Table 9.35, indicated that perceived organisational support, perceived organisational justice (procedural, interactional and distributive justice), psychological contract violation,

organisational cynicism and organisational trust contributed significantly in explaining the variance in the relational attitudes and behaviour variables, and specifically OCB-O and attitudinal commitment. These two relational outcomes (attitudinal commitment and OCB-O) were identified as the key indicators of employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Extant research has shown that higher levels of attitudinal commitment and OCB prevail under conditions of positive social exchange (Chan et al., 2015). The results thus supported a social exchange perspective on understanding employment relations, as suggested by Dundon and Rollinson (2011).

Drawing on the principles of social exchange (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), it has been shown in extant literature that perceived psychological contract violation may affect employees' beliefs (e.g. the employer is seen as insincere and uncaring) and ultimately cause changes in their attitudes towards their employing organisations and behaviour in the workplace (Bal et al., 2008; Bashir & Nasir, 2013; Cassar & Briner, 2011; Kulkarni et al., 2010; Ng & Feldman, 2012; Raja et al., 2004; Rodwell & Ellershaw, 2015; Zhao et al., 2007). It was thus anticipated that employees who perceive that they have made certain contributions to the organisation that have not been reciprocated by the employer, might adapt the level of their discretionary effort on the organisation's behalf (Arshad, 2016; López Bohle et al., 2017) or even engage in CWB as a means of retaliation (Griep & Vantilborgh, 2018a). Employees who perceive that their psychological contracts with their employing organisations have been violated were also expected to be less likely to identify and remain with these organisations (Quratulain et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2007). Hence, it was anticipated that a perceived breach of the psychological contract would negatively influence an individual's emotional bond (AC) and moral obligation (NC) towards the organisation, which, in turn, would have a detrimental effect on his or her willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour in the workplace (Akoto, 2014). In unionised organisations, psychological contract violations were expected to enhance individuals' interest in and loyalty to trade unions (Bashir & Nasir, 2013; Turnley et al., 2004).

In the context of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), it has also been shown that employees who perceive that they are treated fairly and equitably by their employing organisations will respond with a positive attitude, in the form of increased commitment towards the organisation (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2010; Lavelle et al., 2007; Lehmann-Willenbrock et al., 2013; Sharma & Dhar, 2016) and by engaging in discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation and its people (Colquitt et al., 2013). Although studies on the relationship between justice perceptions and organisational commitment tend to focus mainly on the affective dimension of organisational commitment, there have been reports of all three dimensions of

organisational commitment (AC, NC and CC) being positively associated with POJ (Demir, 2011). While it was anticipated that attitudinal commitment would have a stronger relationship with justice perceptions, owing to its emphasis on social exchange (as opposed to the economic exchange focus of continuance commitment) (Shore et al., 2006), it was expected that employees' perceptions of organisational justice would still be positively related to both attitudinal and continuance commitment. Employees' perceptions of organisational justice have been shown to contribute to the development of commitment profiles (Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013). It was anticipated that high levels of POJ would be positively related to AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles (Kam et al., 2016).

Drawing on research by Blader (2007) and Buttigieg et al. (2007), it was also anticipated that trade union members' negative perceptions of organisational justice would increase their support of and commitment towards a trade union. In terms of discretionary behaviour, social exchange theory provided theoretical validation for the expectation that positive relationships would exist between perceptions of organisational justice and both OCB-O and OCB-I (Rupp et al., 2014), while negative relationships would be observed between POJ and both organisationally directed and individually directed CWB (Reynolds et al., 2015). However, the strength of these relationships was expected to differ, with justice perceptions being stronger predictors of organisationally directed behaviour (OCB-O and CWB-O) than individually directed behaviour (OCB-I and CWB-I) (Colquitt et al., 2013).

By viewing employees' perceptions of organisational support from a social exchange perspective (Blau, 1964), it was also anticipated that positive relationships would exist between POS and organisational commitment (notably attitudinal commitment), as well as POS and OCB. It was argued that, when organisations demonstrate a sense of commitment to their employees' well-being (i.e. high POS), employees are likely to reciprocate by demonstrating higher levels of organisational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993). Positive perceptions of organisational support have been shown to contribute significantly to the development both AC-dominant and AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles, which are deemed desirable in terms of organisational outcomes (Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013). POS thus induces employee commitment to the organisation's goals and values and a willingness to engage in discretionary behaviour that benefits the organisation or individuals in it (OCB) (Chênevert et al., 2015). In contrast, employees who perceive a lack of support from their employing organisations, would be more likely to depend on trade unions for support (high union commitment) (Thacker, 2015), to refrain from engaging in OCB (Eisenberger et al., 1990) and even to retaliate by engaging in CWB (Abas et al., 2015; Bordia et al., 2008).

The results of the canonical correlation analysis reaffirmed the above findings, indicating that higher levels of perceived organisational support and justice (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) and lower levels of psychological contract violation increased the likelihood of high attitudinal commitment and OCB-O. The emphasis on organisationally directed behaviour can be explained in terms of Lavelle et al.'s (2007) target similarity approach to social exchange, which states that the relationships between constructs are stronger when the constructs refer to the same target. The emphasis on attitudinal commitment, rather than continuance commitment, as an indicator of relational attitudes in the proposed framework, was also not unexpected as the attitudinal dimension of organisational commitment has been shown to be related to social exchange, whereas continuance commitment relates mainly to economic exchange (Shore et al., 2006). The results corroborated Wasti's (2005) finding that high levels of CC do not contribute significantly to employees' willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation. It furthermore lent empirical support to the proposition that AC and NC have a synergistic effect on individual behaviour in the workplace (Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013), which might be experienced as a moral imperative to engage in behaviour that would contribute to organisational goal achievement (Gellatly et al., 2006). Moreover, the results supported Wasti's (2005) assertion that positive work-related perceptions and work experiences might foster the development of desirable commitment profiles – in this instance, an AC/NC-dominant commitment profile – that might affect employees' relationship with their employing organisations and subsequently their behaviour in the workplace (Kabins et al., 2016; Meyer & Morin, 2016). The results have contributed to extant research (Kam et al., 2016; Somers, 2009, 2010; Stanley et al., 2013) relating to the positive association between an AC/NC-dominant profile and desirable work outcomes.

Although it was anticipated that employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) would influence their likelihood of engaging in both positive (OCB) and negative (CWB) discretionary behaviour in the workplace, the stronger emphasis on organisationally directed behaviour in terms of relational outcomes was not unexpected, given the undesirability and potential negative consequences of engaging in deviant behaviour in the workplace (Kurtessis et al., 2017). It may thus be anticipated that there are other antecedents, at both individual and organisational level and both inside and outside the organisation, which may influence employees' propensity to engage in CWB.

In addition, the results revealed that employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace were not only influenced by their work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and

work experiences (psychological contract violation), but also by their attitudinal reactions to these perceptions and experiences. Both organisational cynicism and organisational trust were shown to affect attitudinal commitment and OCB-O, but in opposite directions. Hence, the results suggest that employees who have positive perceptions of the quality of employment relations in their organisations, as reflected in high levels of POS and POJ and low levels of psychological contract violation, accompanied by high levels of trust in their employing organisations and low levels of organisational cynicism, are more likely to be emotionally attached to their employing organisations, to identify with their organisations' goals and values and feel a moral responsibility towards them. Such employees would also be more likely to engage in discretionary behaviour intended to benefit these organisations. These results are corroborated by the propositions in earlier research (e.g. Chiaburu et al., 2013; Hatfield, Turner, & Spiller, 2013; Jiang et al., 2017; Singh & Srivastava, 2016) that organisational cynicism and trust should be regarded as antecedents to organisational commitment and OCB. It provided further empirical support for Kam et al.'s (2016) finding that employees who perceive their organisations and its managers as trustworthy would be more likely to have desirable (i.e. fully committed, AC/NC-dominant or AC-dominant) commitment profiles. In addition, the results support Scott and Zweig's (2016) view that individuals who harbour cynical feelings about their employing organisations are less likely to form an emotional bond with them, to identify with their goals and values or to believe that they have a moral obligation to remain employed in the organisation.

10.1.4.2 Canonical correlation analysis results: Research aim 3

Empirical research aim 3: *To assess the overall statistical relationship between horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of independent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables*

While individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition was not evident as a key predictor of relational attitudes and behaviour in the initial canonical correlation analysis, the results of the bivariate correlation analysis (see section 10.1.3.9) suggested that it might have some predictive influence in the absence of the stronger antecedents (POS, POJ, psychological contract violation, organisational cynicism and organisational trust). In order to explore this possibility, a second canonical correlation analysis was performed, with the four dimensions of individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent independent variables. The results reported in Table 9.37 indicated that higher levels of horizontal collectivism may be associated

with an increase in both individually (OCB-I) and organisationally (OCB-O) directed organisational citizenship behaviour. This implies that increased emphasis on common goals, interdependency, empathy, sociability and cooperation, which are characteristics of horizontal collectivism (Triandis, 1995, 2006; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011), are likely to result in higher levels of OCB directed towards both the organisation (OCB-O) and individuals in it (OCB-I).

The results therefore suggest that employees' disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism, and more specifically the horizontal collectivism dimension of individualism/collectivism, may have some predictive influence on relational behaviour in the workplace. However, Hassan et al. (2017), in their research on OCB as targeted reciprocal behaviour, found empirical evidence for the moderating effect of individualism/collectivism on employees' behavioural responses to perceived injustice. They (Hassan et al., 2017) posited that employees with a collectivist disposition are more likely to engage in OCB irrespective of their perceptions of the quality of their relationships with their employing organisations. Similar results were reported by Van Knippenberg et al. (2015), who found that individual differences in terms of individualism/collectivism did not only affect the extent to which employment relationships are based on social exchange, but also moderated the relationship between POS and OCB. Drawing on these findings, it was deemed necessary to not only consider the predictive influence of individualism/collectivism on relational attitudes and behaviour, but also to investigate the potential moderating effect of this variable in the proposed psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (see section 10.1.7).

10.1.4.3 *Canonical correlation analysis results: Research aim 4*

Empirical research aim 4: *To assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as a composite set of independent variables and organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent dependent variables*

The results of the CCA, as reported in Table 9.39, indicated that the higher the sense of organisational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) and support, and the lower the perceptions of psychological contract violation, the greater the likelihood that organisational trust would be high and organisational cynicism low. Therefore, when employees perceive a high-quality exchange relationship with their employing organisations, marked by consideration of their socioemotional needs, care for their well-being, appreciation of their contributions to the organisation and fairness in resource distribution and interactions,

they are more likely to trust their employing organisations and less inclined to be cynical towards them. These results supported the propositions in extant literature (e.g. Adeel, Khan, Zafar, & Rizvi, 2018; Biswas & Kapil, 2017; Chiaburu et al., 2013; Griep & Vantilborgh, 2018a; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014) that employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) influence their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their leaders.

10.1.4.4 *Main findings: Synthesis*

The results of the canonical correlation analyses were useful in identifying the strongest predictors of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, indicating that work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), as well as organisational cynicism and trust, significantly predict attitudinal commitment and organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O). It was thus shown that employees' perceptions of organisational support and justice, as well as their trust in their employing organisations, would significantly and positively predict their emotional attachment to and moral obligation towards their employing organisations (attitudinal commitment), as well as their willingness to engage in discretionary behaviour intended to benefit the organisation (OCB-O). In addition, experiencing psychological contract violation and questioning the integrity and intentions of the organisation and its leaders (organisational cynicism) were shown to significantly and negatively predict attitudinal commitment and OCB-O. Hence, the results provided empirical support for Kabins et al.'s (2016) proposition that positive work-related perceptions and work experiences contribute to the development of value-based commitment profiles (in this instance a AC/NC-dominant commitment profile), and that such profiles are, in turn, positively related to desirable work outcomes such as organisationally directed OCB.

Moreover, it was evident from the results that work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) significantly and positively predicted organisational trust. In contrast, it was shown that work related perceptions (POS and POJ) were significantly and negatively related to organisational cynicism. In addition, psychological contract violation was shown to significantly relate to organisational cynicism (positive relationship) and trust (negative relationship). Therefore, if organisations wish to enhance trust and avoid cynicism in the organisation, they need to show employees that they care about their well-being, treat them fairly and fulfil their obligations in terms of the psychological contract.

The results indicated that organisational cynicism and trust were not only outcomes of work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation),

but also antecedents of relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O). This provided support for the theorised mediating effect of organisational cynicism and trust in the relationship between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and dependent (attitudinal commitment and OCB-O) variables of relevance in this study.

The results also indicated that individualism/collectivism (as measured in terms of the horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism variables) did not significantly contribute to explaining employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (notably attitudinal commitment and OCB-O). This implied that individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism should not be regarded as a significant predictor of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. However, after testing the predictive influence of the four dimensions of individualism/collectivism as a composite set of independent variables without the confounding effect of work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), it was evident that horizontal collectivism significantly and positively predicted organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB-O and OCB-I). Hence, it could be deduced that, although horizontal collectivism was not a strong predictor of relational attitudes and behaviour, it did have some predictive influence on employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace. Horizontal collectivism was thus retained in the proposed framework as an indication of employees' personal dispositions.

Since no significant relationships were evident between the composite set of work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism), individualism/collectivism could not be regarded as a dependent variable in the psychological framework. Furthermore, the CCA results indicated that vertical collectivism, vertical individualism and horizontal individualism were not significant predictors of relational attitudes (organisational and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB). Therefore, higher levels of interdependency and conformity (vertical collectivism) and a stronger emphasis on achievement and competition (vertical individualism) or self-reliance (horizontal individualism) did not significantly influence employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. This finding supports the conceptualisation of individualism/collectivism as a personal disposition that may moderate the strength and/or direction of the relationships between the employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences and their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, rather than an outcome of employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences or an antecedent of relational attitudes and behaviour.

Overall, the results indicated that employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) were strong predictors of their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, as well as their attitudes towards (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour in (OCB-O) these organisations. In addition, organisational cynicism and trust were found to be strong predictors of attitudinal commitment and OCB-O. Although horizontal collectivism was shown to have some predictive influence on employees' positive discretionary behaviour (OCB), individualism/collectivism was not identified as a strong predictor of employee attitudes and behaviour. The results provided supportive evidence for research hypotheses H2, H3 and H4 (see Table 10.1).

10.1.4.5 Counterintuitive findings

The results indicated that neither employees' desire to remain in their organisations (i.e. continuance commitment) nor their commitment to trade unions was significantly influenced by their work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and experiences (psychological contract violation) or their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations. In terms of behavioural consequences, these antecedents (POS, POJ, psychological contract violation, organisational cynicism and organisational trust) were linked to organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O) only. The emphasis on organisationally directed behaviour can be explained in terms of Lavelle et al.'s (2007) target similarity approach to social exchange, which posits that the relationships between constructs are stronger when the constructs refer to the same target. Given the focus of this study on employees' reactions to the perceived quality of their exchange relationships with their employing organisation as a single anthropomorphic entity (Cropanzano, Byrne, et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Lavelle et al., 2007; Morrison & Robinson, 1997), it was anticipated that the hypothesised independent variables (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) would be stronger predictors of organisationally directed behaviour (OCB-O and CWB-O) than individually directed behaviour (OCB-I and CWB-I).

However, because individuals (e.g. supervisors, managers or employment relations practitioners) often serve as the face of the organisation to employees (sharing the organisation's characteristics and identity) (Colquitt et al., 2013; Lilly, 2015), and the employment relationship includes both an individual and collective dimension (Nel et al., 2016), it was anticipated that employees' interactions with these individuals and their subsequent perspectives on the quality of their employment relationships, might also result in actions directed towards individuals in the organisation (e.g. supervisors or co-workers). The results nonetheless suggested that employees' work-related perceptions, experiences, attitudes and dispositions were not strong predictors of individually directed OCB (OCB-I),

implying that there were more significant antecedents of OCB-I that had not been tested as part of the theorised psychological framework.

The data further indicated that employees' work-related perceptions, experiences, attitudes and dispositions were not key antecedents to behaviour intended to harm the organisation (CWB-O). This may be ascribed to the social undesirability of CWB and the formal procedures that organisations rely on to deal with poor performance and misconduct in the workplace (Jordaan & Ulrich, 2016; Kurtessis et al., 2017). This finding may also be related to the mainly collectivist disposition held in the sample (see section 10.1.2.4). Collectivists place greater value on maintaining harmonious relationships with others and achieving group goals (Feys et al., 2013). Owing to the fact that they also have a high regard for authority, the expression of behaviour that may be detrimental to their organisations and its leaders is deemed unacceptable (Khan et al., 2013). The results imply that there were alternative antecedents to CWB that were not tested as part of the proposed psychological framework.

10.1.5 Discussion and interpretation of the results of the structural equation modelling

***Empirical research aim 5:** Based on the overall statistical relationship between the construct variables, to assess the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretical hypothesised framework*

The construct variables that were shown to explain most of the variance in work-related perceptions, experiences, attitudes and dispositions (i.e. POS, POJ, psychological contract violation, organisational cynicism and organisational trust), as well relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (i.e. attitudinal commitment and OCB-O), were retained for the structural model. Four goodness-of-fit models were tested (see Table 9.40). The results were reported in Figure 9.16 and Table 9.41. These results are discussed and interpreted in terms of extant literature in this section.

10.1.5.1 Significant predictors of organisationally directed organisational citizenship behaviour

The SEM results showed that perceived organisational support, perceived organisational justice and psychological contract violation were all significant predictors of organisationally directed OCB. Among these three antecedents of OCB-O, perceived organisational support

was the strongest predictor, indicating that an increase in POS would result in an increase in OCB-O as theorised. The results were thus consistent with the view that POS evokes discretionary employee behaviour that is specifically intended to benefit employees' employing organisations (Kurtessis et al., 2017). The relationship between psychological contract violation and OCB-O was also in the theorised direction, indicating that higher levels of psychological contract violation are likely to result in lower levels of OCB-O. Therefore, employees who perceive that they have made certain contributions to the organisation that have not been reciprocated by the employer, may retaliate by reducing their discretionary efforts and performance (Arshad, 2016; López Bohle et al., 2017; Lv & Xu, 2018; Zhao et al., 2007). However, contrary to expectations (Anggraeni et al., 2017), POJ was negatively associated with OCB-O, suggesting that employees who perceive their employing organisations as fair in their dealings with employees are less likely to engage in positive discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation. This finding is further discussed in section 10.1.5.5 below.

The SEM results (see Figure 9.16 and Table 9.41) furthermore revealed that organisational cynicism was a significant predictor of OCB-O in the expected direction. Higher levels of organisational cynicism were associated with lower levels of OCB-O. This finding reinforced the findings in extant research, which indicated that it is unlikely that cynical employees who believe that their employing organisations would exploit them to serve their own goals and interests, would engage in discretionary behaviour that would benefit the organisation (Evans et al., 2010; Nafei, 2014). While it was expected that employees' trust in their employing organisations and managers would be reciprocated by a greater willingness to engage in organisationally directed OCB (Singh & Srivastava, 2016; Verburg et al., 2018), this was not evident in the data. This finding is further discussed in section 10.1.5.5 below.

The strongest predictor of OCB-O, however, was attitudinal commitment. Emotionally committed employees, who have a strong sense of responsibility towards the organisation, would thus be more willing to walk the extra mile in order to contribute to its well-being and goal achievement (Farzaneh, Farashah, & Kazemi, 2014). This finding corroborated the significant positive relationship between AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles and desired workplace behaviour that have been reported in extant organisational commitment literature (e.g. Gellatly et al., 2006; Kam et al., 2016; Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013; Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Wasti, 2005). Hence, although employees who feel a strong emotional bond with their employing organisations are more likely to engage in positive discretionary behaviour in the workplace, this likelihood will increase if it is accompanied by a moral obligation towards the organisation. The link between attitudinal commitment and OCB-O

could be explained in terms of Eagly and Chaiken's (1993) composite model of attitude-behaviour relations, which posits that behaviour is influenced by a combination of habit, attitudes and three types of behavioural outcomes (utilitarian, normative and self-identity) (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Drawing on this model, it is inferred that employees' behaviour in the workplace (in this instance OCB-O) reflects their attitudes towards the organisation. Positive attitudes such as attitudinal commitment to the organisation (reflected in an AC/NC-dominant commitment profile) may thus be linked to a greater willingness to engage in positive behaviour and a tendency to refrain from negative behaviour (Philippaers, De Cuyper, & Forrier, 2017). The results furthermore implied that attitudinal commitment might play a mediating role in the relationship between the theorised antecedents of relational behaviour (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and OCB-O. Although some research relating to the mediating role of organisational commitment in the relationship between employees' perceptions (POS and POJ) and experiences (psychological contract violation) and OCB (Guh et al., 2013; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Rupp et al., 2014) has been published, further research – especially in a South African employment relations context – might be beneficial when attempting to gain a richer understanding of the predictive influence of organisational commitment on workplace behaviour.

10.1.5.2 Significant predictors of attitudinal commitment

In terms of attitudinal commitment, POS was shown to be as a significant positive predictor. The positive association between POS and organisational commitment (mainly affective commitment) has been reported extensively in extant literature (Meyer et al., 2002; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In terms of social exchange and based on the norms of reciprocity, it has been shown that POS increases employees' emotional attachment to their employing organisations as well as their felt obligation towards these organisations (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Hence, employees who perceive that their employing organisations value their contributions and care about their well-being are more likely to experience an emotional bond to the organisation, to identify with the organisation's goals and values, and to feel a moral obligation to remain with it (Vardaman et al., 2016). It could thus be inferred that employees who regard their employing organisations as supportive would be more likely to develop AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles that are deemed desirable in terms of behavioural outcomes (Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013).

While a significant positive relationship between POJ and organisational commitment has been reported in the literature (Jiang et al., 2017), these results were not replicated in the current study. The results also did not show a significant relationship between psychological

contract violation and attitudinal commitment. This finding differed from the findings in previous research, which suggested that employees who perceive a violation of their psychological contracts would be less likely to form an emotional bond with their employing organisations (Cassar & Briner, 2011; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Zhao et al., 2007). These counterintuitive findings are further discussed in section 10.1.5.5.

The results further indicated that higher levels of organisational cynicism would result in lower levels of attitudinal commitment, while higher levels of organisational trust would enhance attitudinal commitment. These results were consistent with prior research by Chiaburu et al. (2013), who explained that employees who trust their employing organisations to act in their best interests are more likely to establish an emotional bond with these organisations. However, employees who believe that their employers have malevolent intent and are only concerned about their own interests and the success of the organisation (i.e. cynical employees) are unlikely to develop an emotional attachment to their employing organisations. Moreover, the results corroborated Kam et al.'s (2016) finding that employees who regard their managers as trustworthy are more likely to develop desirable commitment profiles. It may also be inferred that employees who question the integrity and intent of their employing organisations (i.e. cynical employees), would be less likely to develop AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles because they would be unlikely to identify with the goals and values of the organisation and, because of their negative perceptions of the organisation's intent, would not feel a moral obligation towards the organisation (Scott & Zweig, 2016).

10.1.5.3 Significant predictors of organisational cynicism and trust

The SEM results also revealed the strongest predictors of organisational cynicism and trust. It was indicated that psychological contract violation was the strongest predictor of organisational cynicism. This result corresponded with the findings reported by Pugh et al. (2003), Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, and Walker (2007) and Bashir and Nasir (2013), which indicated that the development of organisational cynicism may be attributed, inter alia, to perceptions of psychological contract violation. Higher levels of psychological contract violation were thus shown to be associated with increased organisational cynicism. A significant negative relationship was also reported between POJ and organisational cynicism. This finding reinforces Chiaburu et al.'s (2013) findings in their research on the antecedents and consequences of organisational cynicism. Hence, it was postulated that employees who regard their employing organisations as fair would be less likely to question their integrity and intentions, reflecting an absence or low level of organisational cynicism.

It was evident that employees' perceptions of organisational support did not significantly predict their cynicism towards their employing organisations and their leaders. This result contradicted reports by Kasalak and Bilgin Akso (2014), which indicated that POS was a significant predictor of organisational cynicism. This finding is further discussed in section 10.1.5.5.

The strongest predictors of organisational trust were shown to be POJ followed by POS. These results corroborated widely published theoretical and empirical work in the areas of organisational justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, 2001; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) and support (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Shore & Shore, 1995). Drawing on social exchange theory, it has been shown that an organisation's fair treatment of its employees signifies benevolent intent. In turn, employees are assured that the organisation will not take advantage of their vulnerabilities and feel obliged to reciprocate by developing trusting attitudes towards their employers (Agarwal, 2014; Kurtessis et al., 2017). The results thus suggested that employees who perceive their employing organisations as fair and supportive, would be more likely to trust them. Contrary to expectations, psychological contract violation was not regarded as a significant predictor of organisational trust. This counterintuitive finding is further discussed in section 10.1.5.5.

10.1.5.4 Main findings: Synthesis

The SEM results confirmed the predictive influence of psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism and organisational trust in the psychological framework.

The results indicated that employees' attitudinal commitment to their employing organisations and their perceptions of organisational support were the strongest predictors of organisationally directed OCB. In terms of attitudinal commitment, perceived organisational support, organisational trust and organisational cynicism were identified as the strongest predictors. Hence, employees who perceive that their employers appreciate their contributions to the organisation and care about their well-being are likely to reciprocate by forming an emotional attachment to and moral obligation towards their employing organisations. However, the bond they form with their organisations will also be influenced by their perceptions of the trustworthiness, intent and integrity of these organisations and their managers. If benevolence, competence and integrity are evident in managerial actions, employees' will be more likely to develop attitudinal commitment towards their employing organisations. In contrast, employees who question the integrity of their managers and feel that organisational practices are based on self-interest and lack fairness, honesty and

sincerity, will be less inclined to develop an affective attachment of or moral obligation towards their employing organisations. These findings underscore the significance of sincerity in organisational support initiatives by showing that, although compassion and appreciation displayed by managers are likely to be reciprocated by positive attitudes towards the organisation (i.e. enhanced attitudinal commitment), this positive outcome may be negated if such initiatives are viewed as insincere and self-serving.

The results also indicated that employees' perceptions of organisational justice and psychological contract violation did not influence their attitudinal commitment towards their employing organisations (see section 10.1.5.5 for the possible reasons for these findings). However, both these variables (POS and psychological contract violation) were identified as significant predictors of organisational cynicism. It might thus be deduced that, although employees' perceptions of organisational justice and psychological contract violation do not directly influence their emotional attachment to and moral obligation towards their employing organisations, their predictive influence was through organisational cynicism. Hence, negative work-related perceptions (perceived injustice) and work experiences (disappointment when employers fail to meet their obligations in the employment relationship) have a negative effect on employees' beliefs about the intent and integrity of their employing organisations, which, in turn, results in a decline in attitudinal commitment. These findings extend social exchange theory by showing that employees' reciprocal reactions to organisational events are not always attitudinal or behavioural in nature. Instead, negative perceptions and experiences in the workplace might be reciprocated by negative cognitive reactions (organisational cynicism) which, in turn, influence employees' relational attitudes towards and behaviour in their employing organisations.

Organisational trust was shown to be predicted mainly by perceptions of organisational support and justice. This finding affirms the appropriateness of applying the principles of social exchange in employment relations by showing that employees who perceive their employing organisations as fair and supportive are more likely to believe that their intentions are honourable. The risk that they experience because of their innate power disadvantage in the employment relationship is thus diminished, which gives rise to increased organisational trust and a greater willingness to make themselves vulnerable to the organisation by forming an emotional bond with and a moral responsibility towards it.

In summary, the results revealed that employees' attitudinal commitment to the organisation was the strongest predictor of relational behaviour (OCB-O). Hence, employees with an AC/NC-dominant commitment profile would be more likely to engage in discretionary

behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation. Organisations should thus find ways of encouraging the development of such profiles. It was inferred that the development of desired (AC/NC-dominant) commitment profiles could be facilitated by showing concern for the well-being of employees and an appreciation for their commitment to the organisation. However, supportive organisational actions will only be reciprocated by positive attitudes towards the organisation if they are regarded as sincere. This prerequisite was underscored in the findings, which showed that organisational cynicism and organisational trust, which reflect employees' beliefs about the benevolence and integrity of organisational actions, were significant predictors of attitudinal commitment. Furthermore, these beliefs were shaped, not only by employees' perceptions of organisational support, but also by the perceived fairness of organisational practices and the extent to which employers are perceived as fulfilling (or failing to fulfil) their promissory obligations in terms of the psychological contract. Employees who experience a moral commitment towards their employing organisations and a desire to do the right thing (an AC/NC-dominant profile) are more likely to engage in discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting these organisations. Hence, when attempting to find ways to encourage positive discretionary behaviour in the workplace, the focus should first be on employees' relational attitudes and, more specifically, on developing high levels of affective and normative commitment towards the organisation. This interpretation gave rise to a simplified framework illustrating the relationships between the independent, mediating and dependent variables, as depicted in Figure 9.18.

The result of the SEM analysis thus paved the way for an integrated framework illustrating the main relationships between the variables. It was inferred that employees' attitudinal commitment to their employing organisations was the strongest predictor of organisationally directed OCB. It was therefore necessary to establish the main predictors of attitudinal commitment in order to determine whether there was a sequential relationship between the variables. Although employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) were also shown to predict their discretionary behaviour in the workplace (OCB-O), these antecedent variables were strong predictors of organisational cynicism and trust that were conceptualised as mediating variables in the psychological framework. At the same time, organisational cynicism and trust were shown to have a strong predictive influence on attitudinal commitment. Hence, it was deemed probable that the predictive influence of employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) on attitudinal commitment was indirect, through organisational cynicism and trust, and that employees' attitudinal commitment to the organisation, in turn, influenced their willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour (OCB-O).

While the model thus showed an adequate fit to the data, some of the proposed paths were nonsignificant. The results of the SEM analysis therefore provided partial support for research hypothesis H5 (see Table 10.1). The unforeseen findings that were highlighted in this discussion are examined in the next section.

10.1.5.5 *Counterintuitive findings*

While positive relationships between perceived organisational justice and OCB are commonly reported in extant literature, the SEM results in this study revealed that POJ had a negative predictive influence on OCB-O in this sample. The results thus indicated that higher levels of POJ would result in a decreased likelihood of engaging in organisationally directed OCB. It is posited that this unexpected result might be explained in terms of chance variation (Vogt & Johnson, 2016). While the relationship between POJ and OCB-O was deemed significant, the level of statistical significance was low ($p = .05$), implying that significance might be attributed to the sample size rather than a true reflection of the predictive influence of POJ on OCB-O. It is posited that the true relationship between POJ and OCB-O may be more accurately reflected when considering the predictive influence of attitudinal commitment. This proposition is supported by Lavelle, McMahan, and Harris's (2009) assertion that employees' behavioural reactions (OCB) to work-related perceptions (POS and POS) are mediated by their attitudinal commitment to and identification with the particular target (i.e. the organisation).

Owing to the fact that employees' trust in their employing organisations and managers is fundamental to the social exchange relationship between these parties, it was anticipated that organisational trust would be reciprocated by a greater willingness to engage in organisationally directed OCB (Singh & Srivastava, 2016; Verburg et al., 2018). However, the SEM results did not indicate a significant predictive influence of organisational trust on OCB-O. Drawing on the principles of social exchange and the work of Lehmann-Willenbrock et al. (2013), it was postulated that employees' positive perceptions and experiences in the workplace would engender organisational trust, as reflected in the significant predictive paths that were evident between both perceived organisational support and justice and organisational trust in the structural model. In turn, organisational trust would lead to greater organisational commitment (notably attitudinal commitment), which would then foster a greater willingness to engage in OCB. Hence, while organisational trust might not be a significant predictor of OCB-O, it is possible that its predictive influence could be through attitudinal commitment. This finding extends social exchange theory by indicating that trusting employer-employee relationships will not necessarily result in a greater willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour, but that such behaviour will only be displayed if employees also

experience an emotional attachment to and moral responsibility towards their employing organisations.

Perceived organisational justice was not identified as a significant predictor of attitudinal commitment. This finding may be explained in terms of Liao and Rupp's (2005) multitarget and multilevel study of the relationship between organisational justice and commitment. These researchers (Liao & Rupp, 2005) found that only procedural justice could be linked to organisational commitment. In the current study, respondents were unable to differentiate between procedural and interactional justice, and these two components of justice perceptions were consequently integrated into a single dimension (see section 9.1.6). Hence, the potential effect of procedural justice on organisational commitment may have been diluted by combining procedural and interactional justice as a single dimension. This finding emphasises the necessity of differentiating between the dimensions of organisational justice when investigating their influence on attitudinal commitment and underscores the need for further research on the predictive influence of employees' justice perceptions on their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Ibrahim and Perez (2014) reported that the absence of a significant direct relationship between POJ and attitudinal commitment does not preclude the existence of a significant indirect relationship through a mediating variable. Therefore, although a significant direct relationship between POJ and attitudinal commitment was not evident in the data, it was posited that indirect significant relationships through the mediator variables (organisational cynicism and trust) might exist. The results of the mediation analyses are discussed in section 10.1.6.

Contrary to expectations, the results also did not show a significant relationship between psychological contract violation and attitudinal commitment. This finding could also suggest that variables might exist that either mediate or moderate the relationship between psychological contract violation and attitudinal commitment. Individual attachment styles (Schmidt, 2016) or the nature of the psychological contract (McInnis et al., 2009) have been revealed as moderators in extant research. Reciprocity norms have been shown to mediate the relationship between psychological contract violation and affective commitment (Quratulain et al., 2016), while perceptions of an exchange imbalance were shown to moderate the mediating influence of psychological contract violation in the relationship between a psychological contract breach and affective commitment (Cassar & Briner, 2011). It therefore seems plausible that, although no direct relationship between psychological contract violation and attitudinal commitment was evident in the data, an indirect or moderated relationship might exist. Further analyses were thus performed to test the existence of an indirect relationship between psychological contract violation and attitudinal commitment

through organisational cynicism and trust (see section 10.1.6) and the conditional effect of individualism/collectivism on relationships between these variables (see section 10.1.7).

Extant literature further suggests that employees who do not feel that their contributions to their employing organisations are valued (i.e. low POS) are likely to develop feelings of betrayal, which are subsequently reflected in higher levels of organisational cynicism (Chiaburu et al., 2013). POS, however, was not shown to be a significant predictor of organisational cynicism in the data. It is postulated that this incongruity is due to different measures used across studies and the nature of the sample. In this study, organisational cynicism was measured in terms of its cognitive dimension, described as employees' negative beliefs about their organisations (Sheel & Vohra, 2016) (see section 9.1.8). In contrast, Kasalak and Bilgin Akso (2014) measured organisational cynicism as a three-dimensional construct (cognitive, affective and behavioural) and conducted their research in a confined research sample (i.e. research assistants in an academic environment). Chiaburu et al.'s (2013) meta-analysis included 32 primary studies that empirically examined organisational cynicism in typical organisational settings. The same measurement scales, however, were not used to measure organisational cynicism in all of these studies, and as a result reflected not only cognitive cynicism (Pugh et al., 2003), which was the approach followed in this study. Some researchers measured organisational cynicism as a three-dimensional construct (James, 2005), while others regarded it as two-dimensional, reflecting an employee attitude comprising beliefs and expectancy (Wilkerson et al., 2008). Related constructs such as societal or institutional cynicism (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989), organisational cynicism as a reaction to social exchange violation (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003), organisational change cynicism (Bernerth et al., 2007; Brown & Cregan, 2008; Stanley et al., 2005), trait cynicism (Hochwarter et al., 2004) and behavioural expressions of cynicism in the workplace (Naus et al., 2007) were measured, which means that comparison with the results of this study would be inaccurate.

Finally, social exchange and psychological contract theorists have suggested that perceived psychological contract violation reduces employees' trust in their employing organisations (Chiang et al., 2013; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). The negative relationship between psychological contract violation and organisational trust has also been empirically confirmed (Obuya & Rugimbana, 2014; Pugh et al., 2003). However, psychological contract violation did not emerge as a significant predictor of organisational trust in the SEM analysis in the current study. It is posited that this finding may be ascribed to the differentiation between a psychological contract breach and a psychological contract violation. Whereas a breach refers to the inability or unwillingness of an employer to meet its obligations in terms of the

psychological contract, a violation relates to an employee's emotional reaction to a perceived breach (Robinson & Morrison, 1995). According to Zhao et al. (2007), a psychological contract breach may be regarded as an affective event which gives rise to affective reactions. These reactions may include perceived psychological contract violation and mistrust towards management. In this sense, both trust (or mistrust) and psychological contract violation are regarded as outcomes of a psychological contract breach.

From the results of the SEM analysis, it was inferred that there are complex interrelationships between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) and dependent (attitudinal commitment and OCB-O) variables. However, based on the significant relationships between the variables, an attempt was made to streamline the process by which employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences influence their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. This envisaged process, as depicted in Figure 9.18, entailed a number of indirect relationships between the predictive and outcome variables. The next step in the empirical analysis thus entailed a further exploration of these interrelationships by investigating the mediating role of organisational cynicism and trust in the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) in the workplace.

10.1.6 Discussion and interpretation of the results of the mediation analyses

***Empirical research aim 6:** To determine whether (1) organisational cynicism and (2) organisational trust significantly mediate the relationship between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB)*

Since the CCA results (see section 9.3.1) suggested that union commitment, OCB directed towards individuals in the organisation (OCB-I) and counterproductive work behaviour did not contribute significantly to the explanation of the variance in relational attitudes and behaviour, these variables were omitted from the SEM analysis and also excluded from further analyses in terms of mediation and moderation effects.

Based on the interpretation of the SEM results (see Figure 9.18 for an illustration), it was decided to assess only the mediating effects of organisational cynicism and trust in the relationships between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ

and psychological contract violation) as independent variables, and their attitudinal commitment to the organisation as a dependent variable. The mediating effects of organisational cynicism and trust in the relationships between work-related perceptions and work experiences and relational behaviour (OCB-O) were not tested, because it was posited that the predictive influence of these variables on OCB-O was through attitudinal commitment.

The results of the mediation analyses were reported in Tables 9.43 to 9.45 and Figures 9.19 to 9.21.

10.1.6.1 The mediating effect of organisational cynicism

Organisational cynicism as a mediating variable has received limited attention in extant research. Only a small number of researchers aiming to gain a deeper understanding of the relationships between employees' attitudes and behaviour and its antecedents have explored its mediating role. For instance, Nazir, Ahmad, Nawab, and Shah (2016) reported that organisational cynicism mediated the relationship between role stressors and turnover intention among nurses. Wan (2013) found organisational cynicism to be a mediator in the relationship between psychological contract breach and both OCB and turnover intention in the airline industry. Kim et al. (2009), in their study among employees in the transportation industry and MBA students, found that affective cynicism mediated the relationships between both perceived managerial competence and trustworthiness and job performance, while cognitive cynicism mediated the relationship between perceived managerial trustworthiness and organisational commitment; and behavioural cynicism mediated the relationship between perceived managerial trustworthiness and job performance. Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly (2003) found that cynicism mediated the effects of psychological contract breach on work-related attitudes (organisational commitment and job satisfaction). These findings provided the impetus for theorising that organisational cynicism might fulfil a mediating role in the relationships between the independent and dependent variables of relevance in this study.

Owing to the fact that the SEM results indicated that psychological contract violation and POJ were significant predictors of organisational cynicism, while organisational cynicism, in turn, predicted attitudinal commitment, two mediating effects were investigated. The first related to the mediating role of organisational cynicism in the relationship between psychological contract violation and attitudinal commitment, while the second investigated the intervening effect of organisational cynicism in the relationship between POJ and attitudinal commitment.

Drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norms of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), it was theorised that employees have certain beliefs about the mutual obligations

between themselves and their employers in the workplace (Coyle-Shapiro & Parzefall, 2008; Rousseau, 1989). If they perceive that their expectations are not fulfilled, this results in feelings of disappointment and betrayal (i.e. psychological contract violation) (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994), and employees consequently start to question the integrity and intentions of their employing organisations (i.e. organisational cynicism) (Andersson, 1996; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003). Perceptions of psychological contract violation were therefore theorised to result in employees becoming cynical towards their organisations and management and reciprocating their disappointment and cynicism with negative attitudes towards them (Chiaburu et al., 2013). The results empirically confirmed the theorised relationship, demonstrating that organisational cynicism mediated the relationships between psychological contract violation and attitudinal commitment. Hence, higher levels of psychological contract violation were associated with higher levels of organisational cynicism, which was subsequently associated with lower attitudinal commitment (see Figure 9.19). This implies that employees who display a negative emotional reaction to a perception that their employing organisations have failed to fulfil their obligations in terms of their psychological contracts, were more likely to hold cynical attitudes about their employers. In turn, cynical employees would be less likely to identify with the organisation's goals and values or to feel morally obliged to exert effort on its behalf (attitudinal commitment). This new insight extends social exchange theory by showing that the influence of psychological contract violation on attitudinal commitment is indirect through organisational cynicism. Hence, while employees may not always be able to fulfil employees' expectations in terms of their psychological contracts because of their subjective and individual nature, they may avoid the negative attitudinal consequences of perceived psychological contract violations by providing employees' with the necessary information and support. If employees understand the reasons for particular organisational actions and receive assistance for dealing with difficulties they experience in the workplace, they will be less likely to question the intention of these actions or to ascribe negative or self-serving intent to such actions. Therefore, by preventing the development of cynical employee attitudes towards the organisation, negative attitudinal outcomes (i.e. absence or low levels of attitudinal commitment) of perceived psychological contract violations can be averted.

It has also been posited that employees' perceptions of organisational justice inform their views of the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employers (McMillan & Albrecht, 2010). If they judge these relationships as poor, based on perceived unfairness in the workplace, they are more likely to become cynical towards their employing organisations and managers (Bernerth et al., 2007; Biswas & Kapil, 2017; Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008; Chiaburu et al., 2013; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014). Such employees tend to harbour feelings

of contempt towards their employing organisations (Lynch et al., 1999). They believe that their employers will exploit them for their own benefit and that they do not wish to cultivate an acceptable social exchange relationship (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008). In response, cynical employees tend to protect their own interests by not forming an emotional bond with their organisations (i.e. low affective commitment).

The results of the mediation analyses empirically confirmed the theorised relationship between POJ, organisational cynicism and attitudinal commitment, indicating that organisational cynicism mediated the relationships between POJ and affective commitment. Higher levels of POJ were associated with lower levels of organisational cynicism, which were subsequently associated with lower attitudinal commitment (see Figure 9.21). Hence, employees who perceived that their employers dealt fairly with them, would be less likely to hold cynical attitudes about them and would, in turn, be more likely to form positive relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) towards the organisation. This finding underscores the proposition that social exchange theory provides a functional theoretical foundation for understanding employment relationships by showing that employees will reciprocate perceived injustice in the workplace by emotionally distancing themselves from their employing organisations. This attitudinal reaction is grounded in an individual belief that the organisation does not value a long-term employment relationship based on reciprocal obligations (i.e. a social exchange relationship). Hence, the employee distances himself or herself from these perceived organisational values and does not experience an obligation to exert effort on the organisation's behalf.

In summary, employees' perceptions of organisational justice (POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) were shown to influence the extent to which they developed cynical attitudes towards their employing organisations and managers. In turn, their cynicism towards their employers affected their emotional attachment and moral obligation towards their organisations (i.e. attitudinal commitment). It was postulated that high levels of organisational commitment would, in turn, increase their willingness to engage in discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting these organisations (OCB-O). The results thus provided support for both the mediation effects of organisational cynicism that were tested.

10.1.6.2 *The mediating effect of organisational trust*

Trust is regarded as the foundation of social exchange (Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Jiang et al., 2017). Employees form opinions about the trustworthiness of their employing organisations, based on the abilities and intentions reflected in organisational practices (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009). Ways in which organisations may display positive intent (benevolence and integrity) include treating employees fairly and showing concern for their well-being (Dietz et al., 2011). The SEM results confirmed that POJ and POS were significant predictors of organisational trust and that organisational trust, in turn, predicted attitudinal commitment. The mediation analyses thus set out to confirm the mediating role of organisational trust in the relationships between POJ and POS respectively and attitudinal commitment.

It has been suggested in extant literature that fair (POJ) and supportive (POS) actions by an employer demonstrates benevolence and goodwill, which are indicators of trustworthiness, and create the impression that the organisation values employees' contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Freire & Azevedo, 2015; Kernan & Hanges, 2002; Searle, Weibel, et al., 2011). As a result, employees are reassured that it is safe to make themselves vulnerable to the employing organisation (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Yang et al., 2009). This vulnerability is often expressed in terms of higher levels of organisational commitment (Byrne et al., 2011). It was thus theorised that higher levels of perceived organisational justice and support would not only contribute to increased attitudinal commitment, but that the relationships between these perceptions and relational outcomes would also be mediated by organisational trust.

The results of the mediation analyses empirically confirmed the theorised predictive relationships between POJ (see Figure 9.21) and POS (see Figure 9.20) as antecedent variables, and organisational trust as the outcome variable. It was indicated that employees who believe that they are treated fairly by their employing organisations and who believe that these organisations value their contributions and care about their well-being, would be more likely to have faith that their employers would act in their best interests and uphold their obligations towards them. In turn, these employees would be more willing to identify with the goals and values of their employing organisations and to exert effort on their behalf. Organisational trust was therefore shown to be a mediating variable in the relationships between both POJ and POS as independent variables and attitudinal commitment as a dependent variable. The perceptions of trustworthiness created by perceived justice and support were shown to contribute to the establishment of high-quality exchange relationships

and create an obligation for employees to reciprocate by trusting the organisation (Whitener, 1997). Employees therefore express a willingness to be vulnerable by becoming emotionally attached or morally bound to their employing organisations (DeConinck, 2010). Although the role of organisational trust in social exchange relationships has been widely reported, these findings provide new insight in terms of its intervening role in the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and their attitudinal commitment towards the organisation. It could be inferred from the results that positive perceptions of organisational actions affect the trustworthiness that employees ascribe to managers as organisational representatives, and that it is this perceived trustworthiness that is reciprocated by a willingness to become vulnerable, as demonstrated in a greater emotional attachment to and moral obligation towards the organisation.

In summary, employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) were shown to influence the extent to which they trusted their employing organisations and managers. In turn, these trusting attitudes towards their employers influenced the extent to which employees would become emotionally attached to their employing organisations and feel compelled to work towards achieving organisational goals (i.e. attitudinal commitment). The results thus provided support for both mediation effects of organisational trust that were tested.

10.1.6.3 Main findings: Synthesis

The theorised intervening effects of organisational cynicism and trust were confirmed in the mediation analyses. The results of the mediation analyses thus provided new insight into the development of attitudinal commitment, as reflected in AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles, in the workplace. A contribution was made to social exchange theory by demonstrating that relational attitudes in the workplace are not merely a reciprocal reaction to individual perceptions and experiences, but that the ways in which commitment profiles develop are more complex.

Organisational cynicism was shown to intervene in the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POJ and psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment). It could therefore be inferred that employees who feel that their employers do not meet their obligations in terms of the psychological contract and treat them unfairly and with disrespect, are more likely to become cynical towards their employing organisations. In turn, they would be less inclined to identify with the organisation's values and to exert effort on its behalf.

Organisational trust emerged as a mediator in the relationships between work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment). It could therefore be construed that employees who feel that their employers value their contributions to the organisation, and treat them fairly with due regard for their well-being, are more likely to trust their employing organisations and managers. In turn, they would be more inclined to identify with the organisation's values and to exert effort on its behalf.

It could thus be inferred that organisations that strive towards encouraging the development of optimal commitment profiles (e.g. an AC/NC-dominant commitment profile) should consider the message they communicate to employees in terms of the value they place on their social exchange relationships with the organisation by means of organisational practices. Positive messages, as reflected in a long-term commitment towards employees, an appreciation for their contributions to the organisation and assistance to deal with difficulties that may ensue in the working environment, are likely to be reciprocated in a greater vulnerability towards the organisation (organisational trust) and a subsequent willingness to form an emotional bond with the organisation (attitudinal commitment). In contrast, negative messages, reflecting a lack of respect for employees and a disregard for their needs and contributions, are likely to result in cynicism towards the organisation and its representatives, which is likely to diminish the development of attitudinal commitment.

The results of the mediation analyses provided support for all four of the mediation effects that were tested. Supportive evidence was thus provided for the mediating role of organisational cynicisms and trust (research hypothesis H6, see Table 10.1) in the psychological framework.

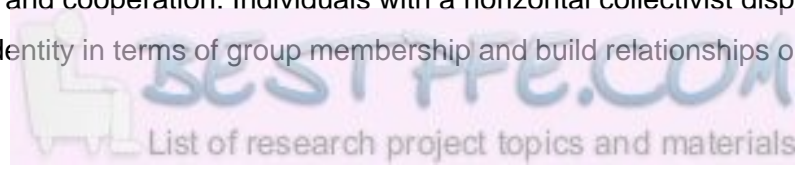
10.1.7 Discussion and interpretation of the results of the moderation analyses

Empirical research aim 7: *To determine whether the influence of individuals' (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) on their sense of organisational cynicism and trust; (2) trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations on their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and (3) relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) on their behaviour (OCB and CWB), is conditional upon their disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (moderating variable)*

In the previous section, it was established that organisational cynicism and trust mediate the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) in the workplace. It has, however, been suggested in extant literature that individualism/collectivism as an individual cultural disposition may affect how employees experience, interpret and react to organisational events and employer actions in the workplace (see Chapter 6).

It was explained that collectivists are more likely than individualists to view employer-employee relationships in terms of social exchange (Van Knippenberg et al., 2015). Therefore, collectivistically inclined employees interpret organisational practices and events in terms of their contribution to collective needs over the long term, rather than immediate individual need satisfaction (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Tavares et al., 2016). Collectivist employees also form perceptions of justice and support based on how the members of their in-group are handled – not limiting their views to their personal experiences only (Erdogan & Liden, 2006; Van Knippenberg et al., 2015). Extant literature thus suggests that, while all employees place a high premium on the extent to which their employers fulfil their obligations in the exchange relationship and engage in fair and supportive practices, employees with different cultural dispositions would have different expectations in terms of their employing organisations' obligations and would react differently if these expectations were not met.

In order to assess the extent to which employees' cultural disposition might influence how they react to organisational events, seven moderation analyses were conducted. Based on the CCA results (see section 9.3.1.2), horizontal collectivism was regarded as the core construct in terms of the theorised moderating variable (i.e. individualism/collectivism). The horizontal dimension captures the extent to which equality in the employment relationship is deemed important, while the vertical dimension captures the individual's attitude towards authority and hierarchy in the workplace (Sarkar & Charlwood, 2014). Employees with a horizontal collectivist disposition value equality and interdependency in their relationships with others (Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis, 2001). Such employees tend to view themselves as a part of a collective (the in-group), which, in an organisational environment, may include, inter alia, a work group or trade union (Brewer & Chen, 2007; Gelfand et al., 1996). Collectivist employees closely associate with the in-group and its members and regard all members as homogeneous (Triandis et al., 1990). Horizontal collectivism embraces common goals, interdependency, empathy, sociability and cooperation. Individuals with a horizontal collectivist disposition tend to define their self-identity in terms of group membership and build relationships on emotional



bonds and common goals rather than power and authority (Li et al., 2006; Oyserman et al., 2002; Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011; Triandis & Singelis, 1998).

It was anticipated that the extent to which individuals' perceptions of and experiences in the workplace influence their sense of cynicism and trust would be stronger for collectivistically inclined employees than for their individualistic counterparts. This expectation was based on the supposition that collectivists regard the trustworthiness of their organisations to be based on the predictability and benevolence of organisational actions, while individualists tend to focus on the ability and intent of their employers (Hatipoglu & Inelmen, 2018). Therefore, although higher levels of organisational trust are commonly associated with fair and supportive organisational actions (Biswas & Kapil, 2017), employees with a strong horizontal collectivist disposition were expected to display higher levels of organisational trust in response to the enhanced certainty and goodwill associated with such practices. Two moderation analyses were conducted to test this expectation. The first assessed the moderating influence of horizontal collectivism on the relationship between perceived organisational justice and organisational trust (see section 9.3.4.3), while the second related to its influence on the extent to which employees develop trust in their employing organisations based on perceived support (see section 9.3.4.4). Neither of the anticipated moderating effects, however, was empirically confirmed, implying that the extent to which employees' perceptions of justice and support in their organisations influence their trust in these organisations is independent of their cultural disposition.

In terms of organisational cynicism, it was anticipated that collectivistic individuals would have a less severe reaction to negative events in the workplace. This was based on the premise that collectivists show greater tolerance to workplace injustice than their individualist counterparts (Erdogan & Liden, 2006), and are more accepting if their immediate expectations are not met (Triandis, 1995). Two moderation analyses were conducted to determine whether empirical support could be obtained for this expectation. Firstly, the moderating effect of horizontal collectivism in the relationship between psychological contract violation and organisational cynicism was examined (see section 9.3.4.1). This was followed by an assessment of the moderating influence of horizontal collectivism in the relationship between perceived organisational justice and organisational cynicism (see section 9.3.4.2). The anticipated moderating effect of horizontal collectivism in these relationships was not confirmed, suggesting that the extent to which employees' expectations in the employment relationship are fulfilled and their perceptions of justice (or injustice) in the employment relationship, will influence the extent to which they develop cynical attitudes towards their employing organisations, notwithstanding their cultural disposition.

The next two moderation analyses (see sections 9.3.4.5 and 9.3.4.6) related to the relationships between employees' sense of organisational cynicism and trust and their commitment to their employing organisations. This expectation was based on reports in extant literature that collectivists tend to place greater value on trusting relations than their individualistic counterparts, who prefer to rely on rules and regulations to manage these relationships (Branzei et al., 2007). It has been reported that individuals' propensity to trust may be linked to their cultural dispositions (Bohnet et al., 2010; Realo et al., 2008). Cultural disposition has also been shown to contribute significantly to variance in organisational cynicism in the South African workplace (Bosman, Buitendach, et al., 2005). It was anticipated that collectivists, because of their appreciation for loyalty, obligation and duty in exchange relationships (Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, et al., 2012), would be more inclined to reciprocate trusting employment relationships with an enhanced emotional attachment to the organisation. The value that horizontal collectivists ascribe to equality and interdependency in their relationships with others (Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis, 2001) was also expected to influence their reciprocal reactions to perceived self-serving or malevolent organisational actions. It was anticipated that employees with a strong horizontal collectivist disposition would have a stronger affective reaction if they perceive organisational practices as dishonest, insincere and self-enriching, compared with employees with an individualist disposition. Horizontal collectivists attach great importance to relationships built on emotional connections and shared goals (Li et al., 2006; Oyserman et al., 2002; Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 2011; Triandis & Singelis, 1998). Hence, organisational actions that disregard these needs, will be met with hostility and frustration, which will cause employees to emotionally distance themselves from the organisation (Sheel & Vohra, 2016).

The results confirmed the anticipated moderating influence of horizontal collectivism in the relationship between organisational cynicism and attitudinal commitment, showing that cynicism towards the organisation would have a greater influence on attitudinal commitment at high levels of horizontal collectivism. However, the relationship between organisational trust and attitudinal commitment was not influenced by horizontal cynicism, suggesting that employees' trust in management will influence their attitudinal commitment to the organisation irrespective of their cultural disposition.

The final moderation analysis related to the relationship between employees' attitudinal commitment to their employing organisations and their tendency to engage in discretionary employee behaviour (OCB-O) (see section 9.3.4.7). Drawing on social exchange theory, it was shown in Chapter 6 that collectivistic employees tend to display higher levels of organisational commitment than their individualistic counterparts (Beresford, 2012; Meyer,

Stanley, Jackson, et al., 2012). This may be ascribed to the value they attach to interdependence, shared goals and collective long-term relationships (Triandis, 2011). For the same reason, collectivists are naturally inclined to engage in supportive and cooperative behaviour (Astakhova, 2015; Triandis, 2011), which may be reflected in higher levels of OCB (Özbek et al., 2016; Wang, 2015). It has also been reported in extant literature that the relationship between organisational commitment and OCB is stronger in collectivist cultures than individualist cultures (Cetin et al., 2015; Felfe et al., 2008). It was thus anticipated that there would be a stronger relationship between attitudinal commitment and OCB-O for employees with a highly horizontal collectivist disposition. This expectation was not upheld, however, as no moderating influence of horizontal collectivism in the relationship between attitudinal commitment and OCB-O was reported.

In conclusion, horizontal collectivism was found to moderate only one of the seven anticipated relationships. The results of the moderation analyses thus provided some supportive evidence for the moderating role of individualism/collectivism in the psychological framework (research hypothesis H7, see Table 10.1).

10.1.7.1 Main findings: Synthesis

The results of the moderation analyses indicated that employees with a strong horizontal collectivist disposition would be more inclined to distance themselves emotionally from their employing organisation in response to cynical beliefs about the organisation and its leaders. Employees' cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism did not, however, affect their reactions to work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), the extent to which organisational trust influenced attitudinal commitment, or the strength of the association between attitudinal commitment and OCB-O. The results showed that individualism/collectivism should not be disregarded as a moderator in the psychological framework and that it may influence the ways in which employees experience and react to organisational events.

This study extends social exchange theory by providing empirical evidence that the relationship between organisational cynicism and attitudinal commitment is conditional upon individuals' disposition in terms of horizontal collectivism. Although only a small practical effect was reported, the finding emphasises that, while all employees develop beliefs about their employing organisations based on their experiences and perceptions in the workplace, the ways in which they respond to these beliefs might differ, depending on their cultural dispositions.

10.1.8 Discussion and interpretation of the multiple regression analysis results

Empirical research aim 8: *To empirically assess whether gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership significantly predict work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB)*

This research aim was addressed by means of multiple regression analysis, the results of which were reported in Table 9.49. Again, the analyses included only those variables that were identified in the canonical correlation analyses and SEM.

The biographical variables of age, employment status, tenure and union membership were not shown to make unique significant contributions to predicting OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, perceived organisational justice, perceived organisational support, organisational cynicism, organisational trust or horizontal collectivism. Those biographical variables that were reported to be unique predictors of the variables of relevance in the psychological framework are discussed and interpreted in terms of the relevant literature in the sections below.

10.1.8.1 Gender

The results indicated that gender was a significant predictor of attitudinal commitment and organisational trust.

The results supported the argument expressed in extant literature (e.g. Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982) that traditional gender roles, whereby women are identified with the family role and men with the work role (Livingston & Judge, 2008), would affect the extent to which male and female employees develop emotional attachments to and moral obligations towards their employing organisations. However, research findings relating to the influence of gender on organisational commitment have been contradictory. While some studies have found weak correlations between these variables (Sloan, Buckham, & Lee, 2017), others have reported no relationship (Jiang et al., 2017; McLaggan, Bezuidenhout, & Botha, 2013; Sehunoe et al., 2015; Stanley et al., 2013). In instances where differences in organisational commitment based on gender were detected, females often reported higher levels of

organisational commitment than males (Vardaman et al., 2016). However, the results in this study contradicted the notion that women as a group tend to be more committed to their employing organisations than their male counterparts (Eleswed & Mohammed, 2013; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). The results revealed that male employees displayed higher levels of attitudinal commitment than females, corresponding with the findings reported by Daly et al. (2015). The prevailing conditions in the South African employment environment might provide some justification for this finding. Foley, Hang-Yue, and Wong (2005) suggested that women who experience gender discrimination in their workplaces might lack organisational commitment. Jaga et al. (2018) reported that South African women, and especially black women (who constituted 34% of the current sample), continue to experience gender discrimination in the workplace. These authors (Jaga et al., 2018) explain that South African organisations still embrace practices dominated by conventional male role characteristics. Working long hours, managing nonwork activities around job commitments and travelling for work regardless of family commitments are often the norm. Consequently, women, who are required to spend a lot of time, energy and attention to balancing their work and family roles (Mayer & Barnard, 2015), tend to distance themselves emotionally from their employing organisations. This may provide some insight into the lower levels of attitudinal commitment reported by female employees in this study.

In terms of organisational trust, it has been suggested that, owing to innate role differences, women tend to be more trusting than men (Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Dohmen et al., 2008). According to Chang, O'Neill et al. (2016), women tend to have more trust in authority figures than men, who are inclined to be more self-directed and competitive. The results revealed, however, that male employees were more trusting towards their managers than their female counterparts. This counterintuitive finding is further explored in section 10.1.8.6.

The findings thus suggested that organisations should take cognisance of gender differences when developing strategies aimed at fostering positive attitudes towards the organisation. While current practices may be encouraging commitment and trust for male employees, changes aimed at addressing ongoing discrimination against women in the workplace and providing flexible work arrangements may be required.

10.1.8.2 Population group

The results furthermore revealed that population group was a significant predictor of attitudinal commitment and horizontal collectivism. Black Africans reported lower levels of attitudinal commitment than other population groups and were shown to be more likely to have a

horizontal collectivist disposition. The link between black Africans and a collectivist disposition was anticipated and corroborated the notion expressed in extant literature that collectivism is a characteristic feature of the African culture (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1993, 1996).

No research expressly focusing on the relationship between population group and organisational commitment could be found. However, cross-cultural research has shown that organisational commitment tends to be greater in collectivist cultures because of the importance placed on collectivity and shared goals (Hofstede, 2001; House et al., 2004; Nazir, Shafi et al., 2016; Triandis, 2004). Although it was therefore anticipated that black African employees, who tend to hold collectivist dispositions, would demonstrate higher levels of attitudinal commitment towards their employing organisations, the opposite was reported in this sample. It is posited that this finding may be explained in terms of collectivistically disposed employees' relationships with their in-groups. Collectivists value the formation and preservation of relationships with their in-group and its members (Li et al., 2006). However, they will only regard their employing organisations as an in-group if they associate with and internalise its values and beliefs (Earley, 1993; Murphy & Turner, 2016). If they find these values and beliefs to be dissimilar to their own or a threat to the interests of their in-group (e.g. a work group), they are unlikely to form an emotional bond with the organisation (Gorodzeisky & Richards, 2016). South African organisations tend to be driven by Western individualist values such as independence, self-interest and competitiveness (Solarsh, 2012). Hence, black African employees with a collectivist disposition may resent this self-serving and competitive focus and might reciprocate by refraining from establishing an emotional attachment to or a moral obligation towards their employing organisations. Furthermore, collectivists are less likely to tolerate organisational actions that are detrimental to their in-group (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2015; Grijalva & Newman, 2015; House et al., 2004). When sensing a threat to the interests of the in-group, members of this group are more likely to display hostility and exclusionary attitudes that may be reflected in lower levels of attitudinal commitment (Gorodzeisky & Richards, 2016). This finding underscores the observation that the current understanding of organisational commitment and its antecedents in industrial and organisational psychology and business management research is derived mainly from a Western (individualistic) context (Ehrhardt et al., 2012) and emphasises the need for further research in more diverse cultural settings.

The results highlighted the importance of adapting organisational practices to accommodate the diversity of the South African workforce. It was shown that current practices, which are based mainly on individualistic principles, might discourage the majority of the workforce (black Africans) from forming emotional affiliations with their employing organisations.

10.1.8.3 *Level of education*

The results of the multiple regression analysis also revealed that employees' level of education significantly predicted their attitudinal commitment to, trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations. In addition, education influenced employees' experiences (psychological contract violation) and perceptions (perceived organisational support) in the workplace. The results indicated that employees with lower levels of education (NQF level 5 and lower) were more likely to perceive their employing organisations as supportive, to trust these organisations and to display higher levels of attitudinal commitment towards them than their higher educated (NQF level 6 and higher) counterparts. Employees with more advanced qualifications, in turn, displayed higher levels of psychological contract violation and organisational cynicism.

The results corroborated the inverse relationship between level of education and organisational commitment that has been reported in extant literature (Elele & Fields, 2010; Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). Eleswed and Mohammed (2013) explained this relationship in terms of the advanced expectations held by highly qualified employees. The inability of organisations to fulfil these expectations is then reciprocated by reduced commitment to the organisation.

Although research relating to psychological contract violation and perceived organisational support frequently include individuals' level of education as a control variable (see Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), no studies could be found that showed employees' levels of education to be significant predictors of their experiences of psychological contract violation or perceptions of organisational support in their workplaces. The results of the multiple regression analysis indicated, however, that highly qualified employees in the current sample reported lower levels of perceived support from their employing organisations and higher levels of psychological contract violation. It is posited that the effect of level of education on employees' work-related perceptions and experiences might also be attributed to their work-related needs and expectations (Bellou, 2009). Employees with advanced qualifications often have high expectations (e.g. increased income, autonomy, more interesting tasks and empowerment) of their employers (Maslach et al., 2001). Employment conditions in South Africa, however, are complex. External factors such legislative requirements (e.g. employment equity and affirmative action) and economic difficulties (see section 2.2.2) mean that employers cannot always meet these expectations (Jordaan & Ulrich, 2016). As a result, employers may be perceived as failing to fulfil their social exchange obligations or caring for their employees' well-being. Employees with lower levels of education are likely to harbour more realistic and

achievable expectations, which make them less susceptible to psychological contract violations.

The results also indicated that employees with higher levels of education reported higher levels of organisational cynicism and lower levels of organisational trust than those with lower-level qualifications. While there was no empirical evidence of the predictive effect of level of education on either organisational cynicism or trust, it was theorised that a negative relationship would exist between level of education and cynicism, and that level of education would be positively associated with organisational trust. Based on the work of Mirvis and Kanter (1989, 1991), it was surmised that highly educated individuals would have greater opportunity to fulfil their transactional and socioemotional needs in the workplace and would therefore be less likely to become cynical towards their employing organisations. It was also anticipated that organisational trust would be higher among highly educated employees, as suggested by Cyster (2009). However, the converse seems to be true in that highly educated employees in the current sample displayed greater levels of cynicism and lower levels organisational trust. Again, this may be ascribed to the unique employment conditions in South Africa. Highly qualified individuals often find themselves in low-level, underpaying and understimulating positions because of limited job opportunities and national policy on employment equity and affirmative action (Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008; Fourie & Van Eeden, 2010). This may give rise to cynicism towards their employing organisations because such employees are likely to feel that organisational practices are self-serving and lack fairness (Dean et al., 1998). They may also question their employers' willingness to act in good faith and to protect and promote their employees' interests, resulting in lower levels of organisational trust (Altuntas & Baykal, 2010).

The results of this study provided valuable empirical evidence of the predictive influence of level of education on employee attitudes (attitudinal commitment, organisational cynicism and organisational trust), experiences (psychological contract violation) and perceptions (POS). It is deemed essential, however, to emphasise the nature of the sample, which comprised employed undergraduate and postgraduate students registered for business management-related qualifications at a South African tertiary institution. While the sample frame provided access to a broad range of employees in a variety of South African organisations, it was limited to employees with higher than average levels of education. While 98 per cent of the sample had completed formal schooling, only 53 per cent of the national workforce report having completed Grade 12 (Statistics South Africa, 2018). Hence, it is anticipated that the results may vary substantially if similar research is conducted among employees who have not completed their secondary school education. Nevertheless, the results emphasise the

importance of considering employees' levels of education when determining strategies to enhance their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

10.1.8.4 Job level

The results indicated that job level had a unique predictive influence on OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism and horizontal collectivism.

Employers at supervisory and managerial levels were more likely to display higher levels of attitudinal commitment and a greater willingness to engage in organisationally directed OCB. Senior employees were also more likely to perceive their employing organisations as fair (POJ), caring and supportive (POS). They experienced fewer psychological contract violations in their workplaces and displayed lower levels of organisational cynicism. These findings corroborate Van Dyne et al.'s (1994) assertion that higher levels of employment may be associated with greater autonomy, more opportunities for interaction, involvement in decision making and increased attachment to the organisation, and that employees in higher-level positions often experience social pressure to "go the extra mile". It also lends empirical support to Riggle et al.'s (2009) finding that the extent to which POS is reciprocated by enhanced organisational commitment and performance may be influenced by the type of job performed. According to Elamin and Tlaiss (2015), higher levels of perceived organisational justice among managerial and supervisory employees may be ascribed to the fact that they have access to more information than lower-level employees and therefore tend to have a better understanding of why particular decisions are made and the procedures followed to reach such decisions. Employees at higher levels also tend to have closer relationships with the organisational decision makers and are afforded more opportunities to voice their needs and expectations (Van Dyne et al., 1994). In addition, it has been shown that senior employees are more likely to be provided with satisfying and challenging work assignments (Westwood, Sparrow, & Leung, 2001) and that their benefits increase with seniority, suggesting a long-term commitment from the organisation (Rousseau, 2001). It is therefore explicable that higher-level employees would perceive their employing organisations as supportive and would be more unlikely to experience psychological contract violations or to question the intentions and integrity of their employing organisations and their managers (i.e. they display lower levels of organisational cynicism).

Finally, supervisory or managerial employees were more likely than employees at lower levels to hold horizontal collectivist dispositions. This finding was unexpected, as extant literature

has suggested that lower levels of employment are typically associated with a collectivist disposition. This finding is further examined in section 10.1.8.6.

The findings suggested that senior employees generally tend to experience higher quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations than those at staff level. This was reflected in positive perceptions (POS and POJ) about the organisation and lower levels of reported psychological contract violations. In addition, senior employees were shown to be less cynical towards their employing organisations and consequently more likely to form an emotional bond to and moral obligation (attitudinal commitment) towards their employing organisations and to engage in positive discretionary behaviour that would benefit the organisation (OCB-O). However, the same could not be said for employees at staff level, implying that, if organisations wish to facilitate better employer-employee relations, they need to focus on the socioemotional needs of employees at the lower job levels. They should identify these needs and make a genuine effort to address them fairly. Interventions aimed at addressing employees' socioemotional needs will only be reciprocated by positive attitudes and behaviour if they are deemed sincere and not merely a strategy to coerce employees into meeting organisational goals.

10.1.8.5 Main findings: Synthesis

According to the results of the multiple regression analysis, age, population group, level of education and job level significantly predicted employees work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations and their relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB) in the workplace, lending partial support to research hypothesis H8 (see Table 10.1).

The results indicated that job level was a significant predictor of organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O), while gender, population group, level of education and job level had a unique predictive influence on attitudinal commitment. In terms of employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences, job level emerged as a significant predictor of POS, POJ and psychological contract violation. In addition, level of education had a significant predictive influence on psychological contract violation and perceptions of organisational support. Furthermore, employees' level of education and job levels emerged as significant predictors of organisational cynicism, while organisational trust was influenced by differences in terms of gender and level of education. Finally, population group and job level were shown to make

unique contributions in predicting employees' disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (horizontal collectivism).

Employees at higher levels in the organisation reported lower levels of psychological contract violation and organisational cynicism and higher levels of perceived organisational justice and support. As a result, these employees were also more likely to hold positive attitudes (attitudinal commitment) towards the organisation and to engage in discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation (OCB-O). Employees' levels of attitudinal commitment were also influenced by employees' gender (males were more trusting than females), population group (black Africans reported lower levels of organisational commitment) and level of education (employees with lower qualifications were more committed to the organisation). Employees' levels of education furthermore influenced their perceptions of organisational support, as well as their cynicism towards and trust in management, with higher qualified employees reporting lower levels of organisational support and trust in their employing organisations and higher levels of organisational cynicism. Individuals' cultural disposition (horizontal collectivism) was influenced by their population group and job level, with black Africans and senior employees being more inclined to have a horizontal collectivist disposition.

Employees' age, employment status, tenure and union membership did not have a unique predictive influence on their work-related perceptions (POS and POJ), work experiences (psychological contract violation), cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) or disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (horizontal collectivism).

The results suggested that organisations need to adapt their approach to managing employment relations in the workplace. If they hope to cultivate high-quality social exchange relationships that will enhance employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, they need to tailor their approach to accommodate differences in terms of personal characteristics such as gender, population group and levels of education. They should also realise that the same approach will not be equally successful for employees at different levels of employment.

10.1.8.6 Counterintuitive findings

Extant literature suggests that, because women tend to build their sense of self on their relationships with others, they invest a lot in building and maintaining relationships and, as a result, tend to be more trusting than men (Haselhuhn, Kennedy, Kray, Van Zant, & Schweitzer,

2015). However, the results revealed the opposite. Male employees reported higher levels of trust towards management than the female employees in the sample. This might be indicative of the unequal gender distribution in South African workplaces, with males occupying most of the senior managerial positions and females holding lower-level jobs (Commission for Employment Equity, 2017). Female employees may be less inclined to trust male managers to look after their best interests. The unexpected finding might also be ascribed to the continued discrimination experienced by women in the South African workplace – especially those from previously disadvantaged population groups (Jaga et al., 2018). According to Buchan, Croson, and Sonick (2008), individuals who belong to groups that have historically been discriminated against are less likely to believe that most people are trustworthy. Burns (2006) provided further support for this finding by positing that individuals in segmented societies differ in their trust levels because they form beliefs about the trustworthiness of others based on individual attributes such as race, ethnicity or gender. If these attributes are similar for the trustor and the trustee, trust levels tend to be higher. Hence, more trusting relationships are likely to exist within gender dyads (Jones & Shah, 2016). In the South African workplace, where women (notably black women) are mainly employed at the lower levels and managerial positions remain largely filled by males (Commission for Employment Equity, 2017), the lower levels of trust in managers experienced by women in the workplace might be attributed to differences in individual characteristics rather than gender per se or gender role differences. As indicated by Haselhuhn et al. (2015), theoretical and empirical research on gender differences in trust propensity and reciprocity norms is limited and the results inconsistent. More research is thus needed to understand these differences, especially in a South African employment relations context where increasingly more women are entering the labour market (Wärnich et al., 2018).

The results also indicated a positive relationship between job level and horizontal collectivism. This suggested that employees at higher levels of the organisation would be more likely to have a horizontal collectivist disposition. However, it has been shown in extant literature that being regarded as part of an inferior social class, which is often a direct outcome of an individual's level of employment, is typically associated with collectivism (Triandis & Singelis, 1998). Employees at lower levels of employment tend to have lower social status, which often requires the sharing of resources and development of values that emphasise security, reliability and tradition which are characteristic of collectivism (Triandis & Gelfand, 2011). In contrast, higher-level employees with leadership roles in their organisation (i.e. supervisory or management positions) typically subscribe to individualistic characteristics (Triandis, 2004). Further research relating to individual dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism among South African employees is necessary to gain a better understanding of the prominence of

various dispositions and their influence on employees' attitudinal and behaviour reactions to organisational actions and events.

10.1.9 Discussion and interpretation of the results of the test for significant mean differences

Empirical research aim 9: *To empirically assess whether individuals from various biographical groups (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) differ significantly regarding the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust), moderating (individualism/collectivism) and dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables*

Tests for significant mean differences were conducted to address this research aim. The analyses included only those variables that were identified in the canonical correlation analyses and SEM. Significant mean differences in terms of individually directed OCB, union commitment and counterproductive work behaviour were thus not tested.

No statistically significant differences were evident between the different age groups or groups in terms of employment status (i.e. permanent and contract workers) relating to OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, perceived organisational justice, perceived organisational support, organisational cynicism, organisational trust and horizontal collectivism. The results in terms of group differences for the remaining biographical variables (see Tables 9.51 to 9.59) are discussed and interpreted in terms of the relevant literature in the sections below.

10.1.9.1 Group differences: Gender

The results, as reported in Table 9.51, revealed differences between males and females in terms of attitudinal commitment, organisational trust and horizontal collectivism.

Males displayed higher levels of attitudinal commitment and organisational trust than females. Similar results were obtained in the multiple regression analysis and were discussed in section 10.1.8.1, where it was posited that the differences might be ascribed to traditional gender roles and gender discrimination experienced by women in the South African workplace (Foley et al., 2005; Jaga et al., 2018).

The results also indicated that males displayed higher levels of horizontal collectivism than females. It should be noted, however, that, while there was evidence of significant gender differences in terms of horizontal collectivism, both groups reported a strong horizontal collectivist disposition in the sample. The results therefore did not imply that females were more likely to hold individualistic views, but simply suggested that the horizontal collectivist disposition was stronger for male than female employees in the sample. This finding endorses Taras et al.'s (2010) proposition that the relationship between cultural values and outcomes is stronger for men than for women because men are more inclined to adhere to their entrenched cultural values in social situations, while women may act against their values for the sake of relationships with others. Hence, while female employees may have had equally strong horizontal collectivist dispositions than their male counterparts, the results suggest that they would be more likely to deviate from their inherent values if they believe that it would benefit work relations. It is thus plausible that female employees in the South African organisational context, which tends to embrace individualistic values (Jaga et al., 2018), may feel obliged to adapt their own values for the "greater good".

No statistically significant differences were evident between male and female employees in terms of OCB-O, psychological contract violation, perceived organisational justice, perceived organisational support and organisational cynicism.

10.1.9.2 Group differences: Population group

The results reported in Table 9.53 indicated statistically significant differences for at least one pair of population groups in terms of attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, perceived organisational support, organisational trust and horizontal collectivism.

Possible reasons for the differences between black Africans and other population groups in terms of attitudinal commitment and horizontal collectivism were explored in section 10.1.8.2. It was posited that black Africans were more likely to hold a collectivist disposition based on their African cultural heritage (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1993, 1996), which is based on the principles of *Ubuntu*, reflecting a communitarian philosophy that emphasises the significance of collaboration and consideration in establishing and maintaining harmonious interpersonal relationships (West, 2014). The results indicated statistically significant differences between black African, white and coloured employees in terms of horizontal collectivism. Black Africans showed the highest level of horizontal collectivism, followed by coloured and then white employees. These results corroborated earlier findings by Solarsh (2012), which reported that

that white employees in South Africa tend to be more individualistic, whereas black employees portray more collectivistic characteristics.

This collectivistic disposition and the relationships of collectivistically inclined individuals with their in-groups (Earley, 1993; Li et al., 2006; Murphy & Turner, 2016) were postulated to serve as the impetus for the lower levels of attitudinal commitment reported by black African employees. It was suggested that these employees might resent the Western individualist values traditionally ascribed to by South African organisations (Solarsh, 2012) and would regard these values as a threat to the interests of their in-groups (Gorodzeisky & Richards, 2016). As a result, they would be likely to reciprocate by distancing themselves emotionally from their employing organisations (Gorodzeisky & Richards, 2016), as reflected in lower levels of attitudinal commitment. The results revealed that white employees displayed the highest levels of attitudinal commitment. Significantly lower levels of attitudinal commitment were reported by Indian/Asian, coloured and black African employees (arranged from highest to lowest). It is noteworthy that these three population groups are included in the definition of designated groups in the Employment Equity Act (Republic of South Africa, 1998a). It therefore stands to reason that these groups of employees have been greatly disadvantaged by discriminatory employment practices in South Africa (Wärnich et al., 2018), which have yet to be fully rectified (Fredericks & Yu, 2018).

The historical difficulties and the ongoing struggles experienced by these previously disadvantaged employees were described in Chapter 2, where it was stated that the results of South Africa's history of oppression and its dual system of employment relations, based on race, are still felt today. It was therefore not unexpected that employees from previously disadvantaged groups would report poorer quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations than their white counterparts. These inferior relationships (in comparison with those experienced by white employees) were reflected in higher levels of perceived psychological contract violation and lower levels of perceived organisational support reported by black African, coloured and Indian/Asian employees. The results indicated that black African and white employees differed significantly in terms of their experiences of psychological contract violation and their perceptions of organisational support. Specifically, black Africans reported significantly higher levels of psychological contract violation and lower levels of perceived organisational support than their white counterparts. It is postulated that the higher levels of psychological contract violation experienced by black African employees in South African workplaces might be ascribed to the diverse experiences and lack of shared understanding between these groups of employees (Rousseau, 2003). This incompatibility is also reflected in Scott's (2014) and Smit's (2013) findings that employees from different

population groups differ in terms the nature of the support they need from their employing organisations. Because most managerial and senior supervisory positions in South African organisations are still held by white males (Commission for Employment Equity, 2017), it is feasible that a shared understanding of the parties' mutual obligations in terms of the psychological contract is hard to achieve (Rousseau, 2001). Because of this lack of common understanding, employers inadvertently fail to meet their perceived obligations and to provide the needed support, resulting in higher levels of psychological contract violation and lower levels of perceived organisational support. Further research on psychological contract violation and POS within and across population group dyads is recommended to gain a richer understanding of how employees from different population groups may form perceptions and experience events in the workplace based on their unique interactions with supervisors and managers.

In terms of organisational trust, statistically significant differences were evident between coloureds, whites and black Africans. White employees displayed the highest level of organisational trust, followed by black African and then coloured employees. These findings mirrored those of Burns (2006) who, in his research on racial stereotypes, stigma and trust in postapartheid South Africa, found that only a third of blacks felt that people in general could be trusted, followed by coloureds (41%) and then whites (43%). Although this finding may thus be ascribed to blacks' general tendency to be less trusting than whites (Smith, 2010), it is most likely also related to the country's long history of apartheid and the systematic discrimination against nonwhite employees, which is reflected in vast inequalities in socioeconomic status between population groups (Posel & Hinks, 2013).

No statistically significant differences were evident between population groups in terms of OCB-O, perceived organisational justice and organisational cynicism.

10.1.9.3 Group differences: Level of education

The results reported in Table 9.54 revealed a statistically significant difference for at least one pair of groups in terms of highest level of education for attitudinal commitment and organisational trust.

Individuals with Bachelor's Degrees or Advanced Diplomas (NQF level 7) differed significantly from those with a Matric or National Senior Certificate (NQF level 4) or lower in terms of their attitudinal commitment to their employing organisations. Individuals with higher levels of education (NQF level 7) reported lower levels of attitudinal commitment than those with lower

levels of education (NQF 4 and lower). As indicated in section 10.1.8.3, the results emulated previous research findings, which indicated an inverse relationship between level of education and organisational commitment (Elele & Fields, 2010; Luthans et al., 1987; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982) and implied that the organisation's inability to fulfil the often unrealistic expectations of highly educated employees might be reciprocated by a lack of attitudinal commitment (Eleswed & Mohammed, 2013). When examining the effect of education on organisational commitment, it might also be relevant to consider the high level of unemployment among South Africans with matric certificates and no further tertiary education. Recent labour force statistics indicate that 28 per cent of South Africans who have completed their secondary schooling (NQF level 4) are unemployed (Statistics South Africa, 2018). It thus stands to reason that those individuals with only a matric certificate, who were fortunate enough to gain employment, might experience a strong sense of gratitude towards their employers for the opportunity afforded them, and consequently reciprocate by developing an emotional attachment to and moral obligation towards their employers.

In terms of organisational trust, statistically significant differences were discernible between individuals with postgraduate qualifications (NQF levels 8 and 9), those with Bachelor's Degrees or Advanced Diplomas (NQF level 7) and those with a Matric or National Senior Certificate (NQF 4) or lower. Individuals with lower levels of education (NQF level 4 and lower) reported higher levels of organisational trust than those with higher qualifications (NQF levels 7, 8 and 9). Again, significant differences were apparent between those individuals who had completed only their secondary schooling and those who had obtained one or more tertiary qualifications. These results imply that employees without any tertiary qualifications might be less likely to question their employers' abilities to achieve organisational goals and meet their obligations towards their employees (Altuntas & Baykal, 2010). Such employees might also be more likely to believe that their employers have honourable intentions (benevolence and integrity) and would thus be more likely to deem their employers trustworthy, resulting in higher levels of organisational trust (Dietz et al., 2011; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007; Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011).

No statistically significant differences were evident between different groups in terms of highest levels of education relating to OCB-O, psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism or horizontal collectivism. Although the results of the multiple regression analysis (see section 10.1.8.4) suggested that employees' experiences (psychological contract violation) and perceptions (POS), as well as their attitudinal reactions to these perceptions and experiences (organisational cynicism), might differ between groups in terms of level of education, this was not confirmed in the results of the tests for significant

mean differences. It may thus be inferred that the main significance of employees' level of education in the psychological framework lies in its influence on individuals' attitudinal commitment and their trust in their employing organisations and managers.

10.1.9.4 Group differences: Tenure

Group differences in tenure were assessed on the basis of employees' tenure with their current employers, as well as their overall tenure (all employers). First, the results, as reported Table 9.56, revealed only one statistically significant difference for at least one pair of groups in terms of tenure with the current employer, which related to perceived organisational justice. The results indicated that employees who had been with their current employers for less than a year differed significantly from those that had been with the employer for two to five years, as well as those who had been with the employer for five to ten years. New employees (i.e. those who had been with the employer for less than a year) therefore reported higher levels of perceived organisational justice than those who had been in the organisation for a longer period (2 to 10 years). These results, which contradicted the positive relationship between tenure and organisational justice that has been reported in extant literature (Elamin & Tlaiss, 2015; Heffernan, 2012), are further explored in section 10.1.9.8.

No statistically significant differences were apparent between different groups in terms of tenure with the current employer relating to OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, POS, organisational cynicism, organisational trust or horizontal collectivism.

In terms of total tenure, the results reported in Table 9.57 indicated a statistically significant difference for at least one pair of groups in terms of organisational trust. The results showed that employees who had been employed for between one and two years differed significantly from those that have been employed for five to ten years. Newer entrants into the labour market (i.e. those who had been employed for between 1 and 2 years) thus reported higher levels of organisational trust than those who had been employed for a longer period (5 to 10 years).

Extant research on organisational trust at the commencement of the employment relationship and its development over time is limited, and the results have been inconclusive (Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016; Saunders & Thornhill, 2003). While some researchers have suggested that trust is relatively high at the start of the relationship and then decreases over time (Battaglio & Condrey, 2009; Jiang & Probst, 2016; Kiffin-Petersen & Cordery, 2003; McKnight et al., 1998; Pearce & Klein, 2017; Robinson, 1996), others have reported nonsignificant

associations between employee tenure and trust (Gilbert & Tang, 1998; Tan & Lim, 2009). The results obtained in this study lend empirical support to Searle and Billsberry's (2011) proposition that employees experience high levels of uncertainty and risk at the inception of an employment relationship and that employees who choose to enter an organisation inevitably hold high levels of trust in the organisation. Although employees' perceptions about the trustworthiness of their employers might be influenced by their experiences with and perceptions of former employers (Skarlicki, Barclay, et al., 2008), it was anticipated that an employee's decision to commence employment with a new organisation would signal a willingness to make himself or herself vulnerable to the new employer, which would suggest a high level of organisational trust at the commencement of employment (Mayer et al., 1995). However, employees' perceptions of the trustworthiness of their employers change over time and are influenced by the nature of their relationship with their employer and their experiences in the workplace (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Vanneste, Puranam, and Kretschmer (2014) postulated that employees who commence employment with a positive assessment of their employer's trustworthiness are likely to revise their beliefs downwards, resulting in declining trust over time. This decline in trust is further exacerbated when employees witness organisational incompetence or malevolence during their tenure (Pearce & Klein, 2017). It should be noted, however, that the results of the current study did not reveal any significant differences between groups in terms of organisational trust when focusing on the current employer only. It may thus be deduced that accumulative negative experiences with one or more employers over time are more likely to result in lower levels of organisational trust.

No statistically significant differences were discernible between different groups in terms of total tenure relating to OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism or horizontal collectivism.

10.1.9.5 Group differences: Job level

The results reported in Table 9.58 indicated the following statistically significant differences between managerial employees (managers and supervisors) and employees at staff level:

- Managerial employees displayed higher levels of OCB-O than employees at staff level, providing empirical support for Van Dyne et al.'s (1994) proposition that senior employees would be more willing to "walk the extra mile" for their employing organisations based on the benefits (e.g. more opportunities for interaction and involvement in decision making) inherent in their positions.

- Managerial employees displayed higher levels of attitudinal commitment than lower-level employees, suggesting that their increased status in the organisation and the benefits they accrue because of this status enhance their willingness to reciprocate by forming an emotional bond with their organisation and feeling morally obliged to exert effort on its behalf (Meyer & Allen, 1991).
- Employees at staff level experienced higher levels of psychological contract violation than employees in managerial positions. This may be ascribed to a lack of satisfying and challenging work assignments and limited benefits that are typically associated with lower-level employment (Rousseau, 2001; Westwood et al., 2001).
- Managerial employees perceived higher levels of organisational justice and support than employees at staff level. These findings supported Elamin and Tlaiss' (2015) finding that senior employees have access to more information than lower-level employees, and therefore tend to have a better understanding of why particular decisions are made and the procedures followed to reach such decisions, resulting in higher levels of perceived organisational justice. The findings also reinforced Riggle et al.'s (2009) suggestion that employees' perceptions of and reactions to organisational support are influenced by the type of job performed.
- In terms of organisational cynicism, statistically significant differences revealed that employees at staff level displayed higher levels of cynicism towards their employing organisations than employees at managerial level. This finding corroborates previous findings, which indicated that employees at lower levels in organisations tend to report higher levels of organisational cynicism (Andersson, 1996; Bommer et al., 2004; Mirvis & Kanter, 1989; Reichers et al., 1997; Wrightsman, 1992).
- Finally, statistically significant differences in terms of horizontal collectivism indicated that managerial employees displayed higher levels of horizontal collectivism than employees at staff level. This finding contradicted previous findings, which reported that senior employees with leadership roles in their organisations were more inclined to have individualistic characteristics (Triandis, 2004). The finding, however, corroborates Feldman and Msibi's (2014) conclusion that leadership in South African organisations is becoming increasingly Afrocentric and human oriented.

No statistically significant differences were apparent between different groups in terms of job level relating to organisational trust.

10.1.9.6 Group differences: Union membership

The results reported in Table 9.59 revealed statistically significant differences for at least one pair of groups in terms of union membership relating to perceived organisational support. Trade union members perceived lower levels of organisational support than nonmembers. This finding supports Maleka's (2018) observation that employees' who received opportunities to actively engage with their employers and those who experienced a high quality work-life were less likely to join unions as they did not require external (i.e. union) assistance to ensure better working conditions and fair compensation.

This finding may also be explained in terms of the voluntary and discretionary nature of POS (Solarsh, 2012). It has been shown in extant literature that employees only regard organisational actions and rewards as indicative of its positive assessment of their contributions to the organisation and benevolent intent, if these actions are taken at free will (Mayes, Finney, Johnson, Shen, & Yi, 2017). If, however, employees perceive that changes in organisational policies, practices and procedures have occurred because of government regulations or union involvement (e.g. collective bargaining), they will not regard these actions as indicative of organisational support (Shoss et al., 2013). In such circumstances, trade union members are likely to credit their unions for positive changes in the workplace and may therefore be less likely to regard their organisations as supportive. It has also been shown that employees who are frustrated and dissatisfied because of a lack of support from their employers, might be driven to join a trade union (Blackwood, Lafferty, Duck, & Terry, 2003), which would also result in an inverse relationship between union membership and POS, as reflected in the results.

No statistically significant differences were discernible between different groups in terms of union membership relating to OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, POJ, organisational cynicism, organisational trust or horizontal collectivism. There is a paucity of research on the potential differences between trade union members and nonmembers in terms of their work-related perceptions and work experiences and their reactions to these perceptions and experiences. The current findings should make a contribution in this regard by providing empirical evidence in support of propositions made in extant literature that trade union membership should not be regarded as an indication of employees' commitment to either a trade union or their employing organisation, and that joining a trade union would not

necessarily imply decreased commitment towards the organisation (Conlon & Gallagher, 1987). This finding also supports previous findings that trade union members are likely to display high levels of OCB irrespective of their commitment to their union because of their focus on shared needs (Chan et al., 2006; Redman & Snape, 2016).

Furthermore, a theorised positive relationship between procedural injustice and union membership has received some support in the literature. It has been posited that employees who experience unfair treatment in their working environments, especially when their employers do not follow fair procedures, might turn to trade unions to address these injustices (Blader, 2007; Buttigieg et al., 2007). It has also been suggested that there are lower levels of organisational trust and higher levels of organisational cynicism among union members and that this may be attributed to perceived injustices in the workplace (Brown & Cregan, 2008; Chang, O'Neill et al., 2016). The results, however, did not indicate that trade union members experienced higher levels of injustice in the workplace than nonmembers or that they harboured stronger cynical attitudes or distrust towards their employers. Hence, it is suggested that, while individuals may choose to join trade unions if they experience negative workplace events, this is not necessarily the chosen means of reciprocation for all employees. Even though joining a trade union might help employees to restore the balance in an unequal power relationship (Nel et al., 2016), affiliation with a trade union and active participation in union activities have been shown to be a function of an individual's belief in trade unionism rather than a reciprocal action in response to a perceived imbalance in the social exchange relationship (Monnot et al., 2011).

Finally, because unionisation is intrinsically collectivist in nature, it was anticipated that trade union members would be more inclined to hold a horizontal collectivist disposition. However, extant literature has shown that union identification and instrumentality are stronger predictors of union participation than a collectivist disposition (Kelly & Kelly, 1994). Hence, even when employees have a strong collectivist disposition, they will only be drawn to a trade union if they can identify with the union's values and beliefs and if the benefits associated with union representation outweigh the costs involved (Blackwood et al., 2003; Tetrick et al., 2007).

10.1.9.7 Main findings: Synthesis

Overall, the results of the tests for significant mean differences between groups revealed that employees' personal (gender, population group and level of education) and work-related (tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics should be considered when attempting to enhance relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

In terms of personal characteristics, it was shown that male employees were more trusting towards management and displayed higher levels of attitudinal commitment to their employing organisations than females. Differences were also apparent in terms of employees' populations groups, with black African employees reported as the least committed to their employing organisations. This might be ascribed to a greater propensity to experience psychological contract violations and a perceived lack of organisational support, which contribute to a lower level of trust in management reported by this group. Regarding levels of education, it was evident that employees with no tertiary education were more trusting and committed than those with one or more tertiary qualifications. The implication of these results is that organisations need to appreciate the unique needs of and frustrations experienced by women and previously disadvantaged employees in the workplace if they wish to encourage positive employee attitudes and behaviour. At the same time, they need to consider the expectations held by highly educated individuals if they want them to remain in the organisation and make a positive long-term contribution.

The results also revealed that employees' experiences in the workplace might differ depending on particular work-related characteristics. For instance, it was shown that senior employees experienced higher quality social exchange relationships with their employers as reflected in lower levels of psychological contract violation and higher levels of perceived organisational support and justice. As a result, these employees were less cynical towards their employing organisations, displayed higher levels of attitudinal commitment and were more likely to engage in organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O). It could thus be inferred that employees at staff level were more likely to experience negative events in the workplace and to reciprocate by forming negative attitudes and engaging in undesirable behaviour. It was also shown that newly appointed employees were more likely to perceive their employing organisations as fair in their dealings with employees, and tended to have trust in their managers. However, lower levels of trust and perceived organisational justice were reported for longer-tenured employees, which indicates that, at the commencement of employment, employers need to find ways of retaining the positive perceptions and attitudes held by employees.

The results in terms of trade union membership indicated that union members and nonmembers differed in their perceptions of organisational support only. Trade union members reported lower levels of perceived organisational support, which suggests that they have certain socioemotional needs that are not fulfilled by their employer and that they view the trade union as instrumental in fulfilling these needs. The results showed, however, that trade union members were not more inclined to engage in undesirable behaviour or to harbour negative attitudes towards or perceptions of their employing organisations than nonmembers.

Finally, the results revealed that black African males at senior levels in the organisation reported higher levels of horizontal collectivism than other groups of employees. Therefore, when considering the influence of cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism on employees' attitudinal and behavioural reactions to work-related perceptions and work experiences, employers might expect that the influence will be greater for this particular group of employees.

10.1.9.8 Counterintuitive findings

Extant literature has suggested that employees acquire more information and experience with organisational procedures and outcomes over time. Longer-tenured employees often have access to more information than newcomers and therefore tend to have a better understanding of why particular decisions are made and the procedures followed to reach such decisions (Elamin & Tlaiss, 2015). It was therefore anticipated that, as employees' tenure within their organisations increased, they would gain a better understanding of the factors affecting resource allocation and decision making in the organisation. As a result, they would have more realistic expectations of their employers and would be less likely to perceive organisational decisions or processes as unfair (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Thomas & Anderson, 1998). The results revealed, however, that new employees (i.e. those who have been with the employer for less than a year) were more likely to perceive their employing organisations as fair in their dealings with employees than those who had been in the organisation for a longer period of time (2 to 10 years).

10.1.10 Synthesis: Constructing a psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour

The central hypothesis of this study was that the relationship between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), as mediated by organisational cynicism and trust, might constitute a psychological framework that would enable industrial and organisational psychologists and employment relations practitioners to better understand employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in a diverse workforce.

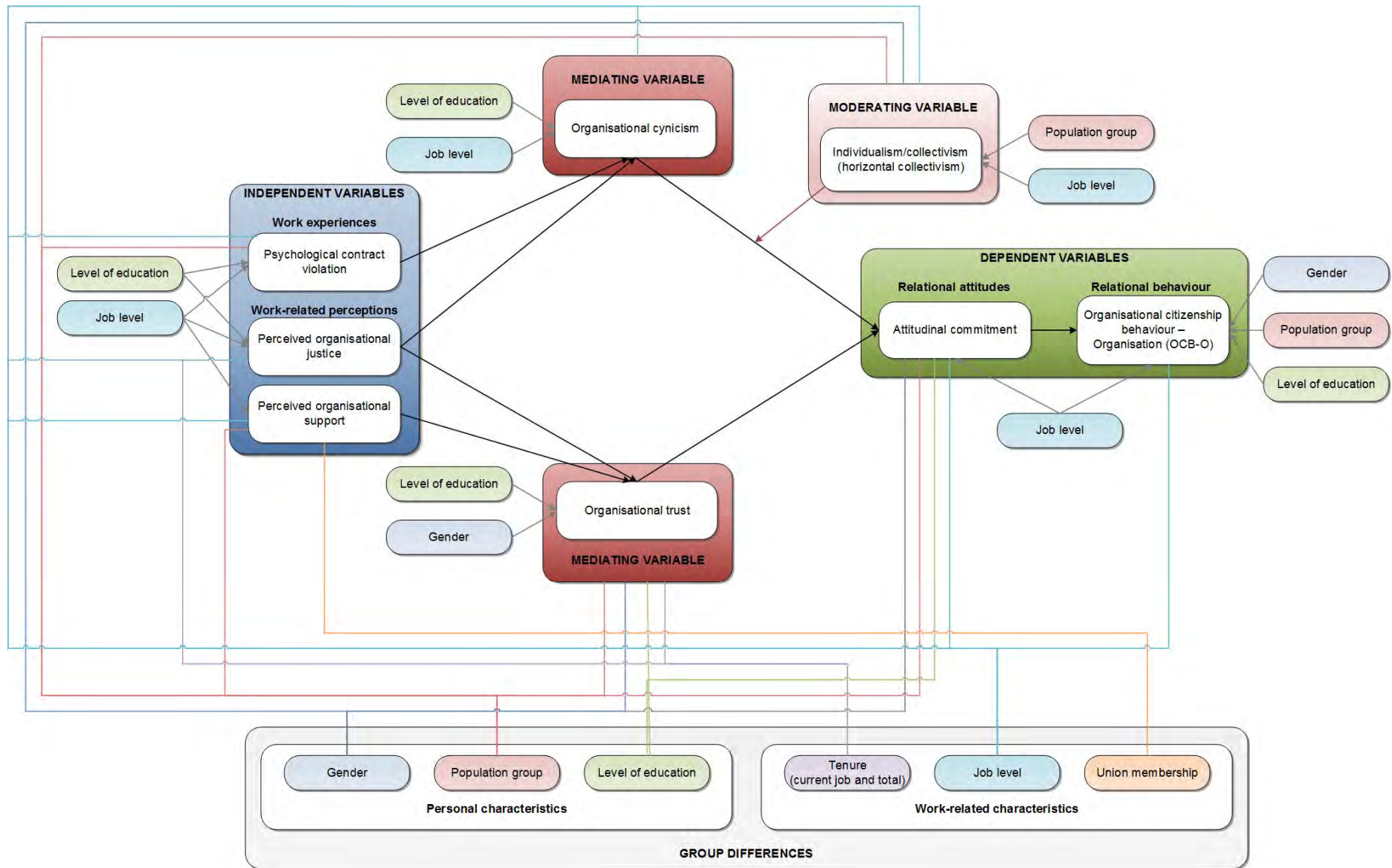


Figure 10.1. Empirically Manifested Psychological Profile for Enhancing Relational Attitudes and Behaviour

The study furthermore hypothesised that individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition might moderate the relationships between these constructs in a diverse sample of employees. The diversity of the workforce was further represented by employees' personal (gender, age, population group and education level) and work-related (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics.

It was anticipated that the theorised psychological framework might inform employment relations strategies, policies, procedures and practices that would enhance relational attitudes and behaviour in the South African organisational context, thereby contributing to organisational effectiveness.

These hypothesised relationships were statistically tested, and an overview of the empirically manifested psychological framework is provided in Figure 10.1, followed by an integration of the significant associations between the variables, as discussed in the preceding sections. These associations highlighted the essential psychological elements that should be taken into account when devising appropriate ways to establish high-quality employment relationships in South African organisations.

10.1.10.1 Establishing the quality of the social exchange relationship

The findings firstly affirmed the proposition made in Chapter 4 that employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) interact to shape their views in terms of the quality they ascribe to their social exchange relationship with their employing organisations (Methot et al., 2017; Organ, 1990a).

It was theorised that employees have certain expectations in terms of their employers' obligations in the employment relationship. These expectations are reflected in a psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989). If employers are perceived as failing to meet their obligations in terms of the contract, this creates an imbalance in the social exchange relationship that may manifest (not always) in a negative affective reaction, referred to as a psychological contract violation (Dawson et al., 2014; Griep et al., 2016). The results revealed that these affective reactions to a psychological contract breach were inversely related to employee perceptions of organisational justice. Although this relationship may be indicative of the feelings of injustice associated with psychological contract violation, it may also reflect the emotional reactions (e.g. anger, outrage, bitterness and resentment) that may follow perceived injustice in the workplace (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Colquitt, 2012; Folger, 1993; Hart et al., 2016; Howard & Cordes, 2010; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly,

2003). The results thus highlighted the existence of a two-pronged relationship between psychological contract violation and perceived organisational justice in determining the quality of social exchange relationships. This insight should make a contribution to social exchange theory, and specifically its application in an employment relations context, by showing how employees' perceptions of their employers' promissory obligations in the employment relationship, the extent to which these obligations are fulfilled and the ways in which employers deal with and interact with their employees, interact to shape their views on the quality of their social exchange relationships.

A further factor that has been shown to be instrumental in establishing the quality of social exchange relationships is perceived organisational support (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), which reflects the extent to which employees perceive their employing organisations as caring for their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The results revealed a strong positive correlation between employees' perceptions of organisational support and justice, lending support to the proposition that employers may affirm their concern for their employees' well-being by displaying continuous fairness in their interaction with them (Shore & Shore, 1995). In addition, a negative relationship was evident between perceived organisational support and psychological contract violation. This implies that employees, who felt that their employing organisations had fulfilled their promissory obligations in terms of the psychological contract, were also more likely to regard as positive the overall way in which employees are treated by the organisation. These findings lent empirical support to Kiewitz et al.'s (2009) proposition that employees' perceptions of organisational support are driven by the extent to which they believe the organisation fulfils or fails to fulfil its obligations in terms of the psychological contract. It furthermore implied that employees who perceive their employers as caring and considerate, will be positively biased towards their organisations and will, as a result, be less inclined to experience extreme negative emotional reactions in response to a perceived psychological contract breach (Bal et al., 2010; Dulac et al., 2008).

These results reinforced the need to adopt a broader approach to the management of employment relations, focusing not only on economic exchange, but also incorporating social exchange (Blau, 1964), as propagated by Dundon and Rollinson (2011). It was confirmed that social exchange, which reflects the mutual obligations of both parties in the relationship and the extent to which they are deemed to meet these obligations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), plays a definitive role in shaping the quality of employer-employee relationships. Drawing on the social exchange perspective on employment relations (Dundon & Rollinson, 2011) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960; Loi et al., 2015), it was further theorised that high-quality social exchange relationships would be reciprocated by positive attitudes towards and

constructive behaviour in the organisation (Lv & Xu, 2018). The findings suggested that employers could negate the negative effects of psychological contract violations, which are often inevitable because of the perceptual and subjective nature of psychological contracts (Bal, De Lange, Zacher, et al., 2013; Robinson, 1996; Schmidt, 2016), by valuing employees' contribution to the organisation, showing concern for their well-being and dealing with them fairly.

10.1.10.2 Behavioural reactions to perceived social exchange relationship quality

In terms of behavioural outcomes, the results indicated that organisational citizenship behaviour aimed at the organisation (OCB-O) was the most prominent behavioural outcome when examining relational behaviour from a social exchange perspective. It was shown that employees, who experience high-quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations, as reflected in low levels of psychological contract violation and high levels of perceived organisational justice and support, would be more inclined to engage in positive discretionary behaviour (OCB). The main outcome of these positive perceptions and experiences are likely to be reflected in behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation as an entity. This could be explained in terms of target similarity theory, which implies that reciprocal behaviour is directed at specific social exchange partners (Lavelle et al., 2007). Employees thus tend to reciprocate positive perceptions of and experiences in their workplaces with behaviour intended to benefit the source of these perceptions and experiences, namely the organisation (Chan et al., 2006).

The results indicated that employees' perceptions (POJ and POS) and experiences (psychological contract violation) that originated from their interactions with their employing organisations did not influence their behaviour towards individuals in the organisation. It could thus be concluded that there are alternative antecedents that explain individually directed OCB (OCB-I). It has been suggested in extant literature that intrinsic job cognitions, such as satisfaction derived from helping others, and prosocial values are the main determinants of OCB-I (Bourdage et al., 2012; Finkelstein, 2006; Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Ilies et al., 2007; Lilly, 2015; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Regarding negative behavioural consequences, it was anticipated that employees who experienced poor-quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations would reciprocate by engaging in CWB aimed at disadvantaging the source of their dissatisfaction, namely the organisation. This was based on the premise that OCB and CWB are negatively related and that they relate in an opposite way to potential antecedents (Spector & Fox, 2010).

Counterproductive work behaviour, however, did not emerge as a prominent behavioural outcome in the psychological framework. Although organisationally directed CWB was shown to be positively related to psychological contract violation and organisational cynicism respectively, and negatively related to perceived organisational support, the strength of these relationships was limited, suggesting the existence of other more prominent antecedents to CWB. It has been suggested in extant research that such antecedents may include personal factors such as personality, job stressors resulting from, inter alia, interpersonal conflict or unfair allocation of tasks, or work-related factors, such as job insecurity or organisational justice (Van den Broeck et al., 2014). However, perceived organisational justice did not emerge as a predictor of CWB in the current study. Further research on specific antecedents to CWB as well as the relationships of OCB and CWB to common antecedents is recommended to gain a better understanding of discretionary employee behaviour in the workplace.

Finally, the results suggested that employees who experience negative events in the workplace (psychological contract violation) or hold negative perceptions of their employing organisations (low levels of POS and POJ) would be more likely to reciprocate by withholding positive discretionary behaviour than by engaging in CWB. Withholding discretionary effort may be regarded as a safer way of retaliating because there is no risk of reprimand or punishment, which may be associated with deviant behaviour (Lavelle et al., 2018).

In summary, the results concurred that different antecedents exist for organisationally and individually directed OCB. While employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) were confirmed to be strong determinants of positive discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation, these perceptions and experiences did not influence employees' willingness to engage in discretionary behaviour with the intent of helping individuals in the organisation. Moreover, employees were unlikely to reciprocate negative perceptions and experiences in the workplace with counterproductive work behaviour.

10.1.10.3 Attitudinal reactions to perceived social exchange relationship quality

Drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norms of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), it was anticipated that employees would reciprocate the quality they ascribe to their social exchange relationship with their employing organisations with fitting attitudes. In terms of attitudinal outcomes, it was expected that employees who experience high-quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations would reciprocate by demonstrating

higher levels of organisational commitment (Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013). The expectation was also that such employees would be less likely to join a trade union. Trade union members who experienced high-quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations were expected to demonstrate lower levels of union commitment. In contrast, employees who experienced poor-quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations were expected to reciprocate with lower levels of organisational commitment and higher levels of union commitment. In order to test these assumptions, the predictive influence of employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and their work experiences (psychological contract violation) and both organisational and union commitment were considered. In addition, the relationship between organisational and union commitment was explored, as well as differences between trade union members and nonmembers in terms of their perceptions and experiences in the workplace and their attitudinal and behavioural reactions to these perceptions and experiences.

The results revealed that attitudinal commitment (as reflected in an AC/NC-dominant commitment profile) was the strongest indicator of relational attitudes in the workplace and confirmed that employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), as a composite set of independent variables, predicted their attitudinal commitment towards their employing organisations. It could thus be inferred that these perceptions and experiences would mainly influence employees' emotional attachment to and felt responsibility towards their employing organisations (attitudinal commitment), rather than their obligation to remain in their organisations because of the costs associated with leaving (continuance commitment). It could also be deduced that employers might encourage the development of AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles, which have been shown to be desirable in terms of advancing positive relational outcomes (Meyer, Stanley, et al., 2013). Perceived organisational support emerged as the strongest predictor of attitudinal commitment, followed by organisational cynicism and trust. Employees' perceptions of organisational justice and support were not identified as significant predictors of attitudinal commitment in the structural model, which may be ascribed to the stronger predictive influence of POS as well as the effect of the two mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust). The mediated relationships that emerged from the statistical analyses are discussed in section 10.1.10.4 below. The findings should contribute to social exchange theory by indicating that desirable commitment profiles (in this instance, an AC/NC-dominant profile) may be associated with a greater willingness to exert effort in excess of the minimum job requirements in order to contribute to the success of the organisation. Hence, if organisations wish to inspire positive discretionary behaviour that will enhance organisational success, they need to encourage their employees to form emotional attachments to the organisation and to identify

with its goals and values. However, this affective commitment to the organisation should be supported by a felt obligation towards the organisation, which may be achieved by applying the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). Hence, it is not sufficient to merely encourage an emotional bond (AC-dominant commitment profile) to the organisation. This emotional bond should be supported by a felt obligation to contribute to the organisation (i.e. an AC/NC-dominant commitment profile). Employees who experience high-quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations are likely to reciprocate by displaying a sense of responsibility to make a contribution to the effective functioning of the organisation.

The results thus implied that employers that wish want to enhance their employees' emotional attachment and felt obligation towards their organisations, should ensure that their employment relations policies, procedures and practices reflect earnest consideration of employees' socioemotional well-being (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Although employees' experiences of psychological contract violations and perceptions of organisational justice will influence their attitudinal commitment to their employing organisations, any negative effects may be mitigated by an honest display of commitment towards employees by the employer, as reflected in higher levels of perceived organisational support (Tavares et al., 2016). The results further corroborated the strong positive relationships between attitudinal commitment and positive discretionary behaviour (OCB) that have been widely reported in extant literature (Cetin et al., 2015; Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016). Owing to the fact that attitudinal commitment and POS emerged as the strongest predictors of OCB-O, it could thus be inferred that employers who express sincere appreciation for the contributions made by employees and demonstrate compassion, will not only enhance employees' emotional bond to the organisation, but will also encourage positive discretionary behaviour that is becoming increasingly imperative for organisational success (Weikamp & Göritz, 2016).

Contrary to expectations, however, the results indicated that trade union membership did not influence employees' commitment towards their employing organisations. Moreover, a significant positive correlation between organisational and union commitment implied that trade union members' commitment to their unions would not have an adverse effect on their commitment towards their employing organisations. It could thus be inferred from the results that dual commitment, described as a positive emotional attachment to both the employing organisation and the union (Angle & Perry, 1986), is possible in a South African organisational context. By fostering a positive relationship with trade unions, employers may thus enhance employees' perceptions of the quality of their employment relationships, thereby cultivating an emotional attachment to both entities (Redman & Snape, 2016).

The results also indicated that employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) were not strong predictors of union commitment. While the results suggested that trade union members' perceptions and experiences in the workplace might have some influence on their loyalty towards their trade unions, the magnitude of these relationships was limited. The results therefore implied that there are more prominent predictors of union commitment that were not included in the current analysis. These antecedents may include union-related factors such as union beliefs or values and pro-union attitudes (Monnot et al., 2011; Tetrick et al., 2007) or aspects of work such as dissatisfaction with conditions of employment (Kim & Rowley, 2006).

In summary, the results indicated that commitment to an organisation and a union is not mutually exclusive and implied that organisations may enhance organisational commitment by embracing trade unions. It emerged, however, that the antecedents of these two foci of commitment differ. Although it was confirmed that the theorised antecedents in the psychological framework (mainly POS with POJ and psychological contract violation to a lesser extent) predicted attitudinal commitment towards the employing organisation and therefore encouraged the development of AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles, the predictive influence of these antecedents in terms of union commitment was limited. The results thus highlighted the need for further research in terms of the antecedents and consequences of union commitment, as well as dual commitment to the organisation and trade union in a South African organisational context.

10.1.10.4 The mediating role of organisational cynicism and trust

The results confirmed the theorised mediating role of organisational cynicism and trust (see Chapter 5) in the psychological framework.

The results indicated that organisational cynicism and trust intervened in the relationships between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment). It could therefore be inferred that employees who feel that their employers fail to meet their obligations in terms of the psychological contract, do not value their contributions to the organisation and treat them unfairly with no regard for their well-being, are more likely to become cynical towards their employing organisations and less likely to trust that they will act in their best interests. In turn, they will be less inclined to identify with the organisation's values or to exert effort on its behalf.

The results of the mediation analyses shed some light on the predictive influence of psychological contract violation and POJ on attitudinal commitment in the psychological framework. Although psychological contract violation and POJ did not emerge as significant predictors of attitudinal commitment in the structural model, the results of the mediation analysis indicated that these perceptions and experiences affected the extent to which employees' develop cynical attitudes towards their employing organisations, which, in turn influenced their attitudinal commitment towards these organisations. It was shown that employees' cynicism towards their employing organisations would increase when employers were seen as not fulfilling their obligations in terms of the psychological contract (Andersson, 1996; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003) and when employees felt that they were not being treated fairly (Bernerth et al., 2007; Biswas & Kapil, 2017; Chiaburu et al., 2013). In turn, employees who held cynical attitudes towards their employing organisations would be less likely to form an emotional bond with their employing organisations. The negative relationships between organisational cynicism and organisational commitment that have been reported in extant literature (Dean et al., 1998; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Nafei, 2014) were thus corroborated.

The results of the mediation analysis also revealed that organisational trust served as a mediator in the relationship between POJ and attitudinal commitment. It could thus be inferred that positive perceptions of organisational justice would not only result in lower levels of organisational cynicism, but would also enhance employees' trust in their employing organisations and managers, which, in turn, would give rise to a stronger emotional bond with the organisation. Hence, while POJ might not have a strong direct predictive influence on attitudinal commitment in the overall model, its indirect influence on attitudinal commitment through organisational cynicism and trust was significant.

The results thus implied that the predictive influence of psychological contract violation and POJ on attitudinal commitment lies in its relationship with organisational cynicism and trust. Therefore, while psychological contract violation and POJ were not identified as significant predictors of attitudinal commitment in the structural model, they remained significant predictors of relational attitudes and behaviour through their influence on organisational cynicism and, to a lesser extent, on organisational trust. The results further revealed that organisational trust also mediated the relationship between perceived organisational support and attitudinal commitment.

It could thus be inferred that the main influence of organisational cynicism in predicting attitudinal commitment related to its mediating role in the relationships between (1)

psychological contract violation and attitudinal commitment, and (2) POJ and attitudinal commitment. Organisational trust, in turn, mediated the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and their attitudinal commitment to their employing organisations. Hence, employees who experience psychological contract violations in the workplace and perceive low levels of organisational justice are more likely to develop cynical attitudes towards their employing organisations. Their perceptions of injustice and a lack of support will, in turn, cause them to question whether their employing organisations and managers will act in good faith and uphold their obligations. This cynicism towards and lack of trust in their employers are likely to result in negative attitudes (low attitudinal commitment) towards the organisation.

In summary, while perceived organisational support was identified as the strongest predictor of attitudinal commitment, the results of the mediation analyses revealed that its effect on attitudinal commitment was through organisational trust. In addition, psychological contract violation emerged as a significant predictor of attitudinal commitment through organisational cynicism, while the predictive influence of perceived organisational justice was shown to be mediated by both organisational cynicism and trust. The results thus indicated that perceived organisational support was the strongest predictor of relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) in the workplace. The extent to which employees perceive their employing organisations to care about their socioeconomic needs and appreciate their contribution to the success of the organisation would therefore determine their level of affective attachment to these organisations, as well as their willingness to go beyond what is required in order to help the organisation realise its objectives. It was further indicated that employees who experience psychological contract violations would be more likely to question the intent and integrity of their employing organisations. These cynical attitudes tend to be exacerbated by a perceived lack of fairness in employer-employee relations. Because of this cynicism towards their employing organisations, employees would be less likely to form an emotional bond with them, to associate with their goals and values and to exert extra effort for the organisation's benefit. In contrast, employees who regarded their employing organisations as fair and supportive were more likely to trust that they would act in the organisations' best interests and, as a result, they would be more willing to form an emotional attachment to them. It is posited that this attitudinal commitment to their employing organisations, might, in turn, encourage employees to engage in positive discretionary behaviour that would benefit the organisation.

These new insights should make a contribution to social exchange theory by affirming the reciprocal nature of the employment relationship while highlighting the complexity thereof. It

was shown that employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace are not only affected by their work-related perceptions and work experiences, but also by the beliefs about their employers that stem from these perceptions and experiences. Hence, while it is not always possible to prevent negative perceptions and experiences in the workplace, employers can mitigate any adverse effects by building trusting employer-employee relationships. If employees believe that their employing organisation does not have ulterior or self-serving motives for its actions, their relational attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation are unlikely to be negatively influenced by undesired organisational events.

10.1.10.5 The moderating role of individualism/collectivism

The results indicated that the horizontal collectivism dimension of the individualism/collectivism construct contributed the most to the explanation of its variance. Hence, horizontal collectivism was used as a proxy for individuals' cultural disposition. While, the results revealed that horizontal collectivism had limited predictive influence on OCB, the focus was on its potential moderating role in the psychological framework. It was theorised that a number of interaction effects between the antecedent, mediating and outcome variables in the psychological framework were conditional upon individuals' personal dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism. Individualism/collectivism was hypothesised as moderating the strength and/or direction of the predictive relationships between employees' (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations; (2) sense of organisational cynicism and trust and their attitudinal commitment; and (3) attitudinal commitment and their willingness to engage in OCB-O.

The results of the moderation analysis revealed only one moderating effect. The relationship between organisational cynicism and attitudinal commitment was shown to be conditional upon the level of horizontal collectivism. Stronger relationships between these variables were experienced by individuals who scored higher in terms of horizontal collectivism. This new insight should contribute to social exchange theory by indicating that individual dispositions may exist that influence the ways in which employees adjust their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace in response to the beliefs they develop about their employing organisations based on their perceptions and experiences in the workplace.

10.1.10.6 *Accommodating diversity in managing employment relations*

The results confirmed the importance of considering employees' personal (gender, age, population group and level of education) and work-related (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics when devising ways of fostering positive relational attitudes and behaviour. The multiple regression analysis indicated that gender, population group, level of education and job level had a significant predictive influence on work-related perceptions (POS and POJ), work experiences (psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB-O). Tests for significant mean differences were conducted to determine whether groups with particular personal and work-related characteristics would differ in terms of their perceptions, experiences, attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Significant differences were evident in terms of gender, population group, level of education, tenure, job level and union membership.

The results indicated that *gender* was a significant predictor of attitudinal commitment and organisational trust, suggesting that organisations should take cognisance of gender differences when developing strategies aimed at fostering positive attitudes towards the organisation. Female employees who reported the lowest levels of attitudinal commitment and organisational trust, may be encouraged to display higher levels of organisational commitment and trust in their employing organisations if employment relations policies and practices enable them to balance their work and family commitments. Flexible work schedules may help female employees to balance work and family commitments (Lee & Tang, 2015). By removing barriers to career advancement for women, employers may enhance their perceptions of organisational fairness and support (Lee & Tang, 2015), which may, in turn, improve female employees' trust in management.

Although gender was not shown to have a significant predictive influence on horizontal collectivism, a significant difference was evident in terms of horizontal collectivism, with males reporting higher levels of horizontal collectivism than females. While this did not suggest that female employees would be more likely to hold individualistic views, it implied that they would be more prepared to deviate from their inherent values if they felt that it was beneficial for the collective good (Taras et al., 2010). It has been reported, however, that this threat to their inborn identity may undermine their trust in and commitment to their employing organisations (Walton, Murphy, & Ryan, 2015).

The results also revealed that *population group* was a significant predictor of attitudinal commitment and horizontal collectivism. Black Africans reported lower levels of attitudinal commitment than other population groups, and were shown to be more likely to have a horizontal collectivist disposition. Organisations should thus realise that the Western individualist values such as independence, self-interest and competitiveness (Solarsh, 2012) do not necessarily resonate with the majority of the South African workforce. If organisations wish to enhance organisational commitment among black African employees, they need to adapt their employment relations policies and practices to accommodate collectivist values such as collectivity and shared opportunities (Williamson & Holmes, 2015).

While population group was not regarded as a significant predictor of psychological contract violation, perceived organisational support, organisational trust in the multiple regression analysis, the tests for significant mean differences revealed that population groups differed in this regard. The main differences were apparent between black African and white employees, with black Africans reporting higher levels of psychological contract violation and lower levels of perceived organisational support. Black African and coloured employees also reported significantly lower levels of organisational trust than their white counterparts. According to Coetzee (2015), employers may negate the negative experiences of employees from designated groups in the workplace by providing them with task autonomy, treating them with respect, giving them responsibilities and having realistic expectations of their performance. De Beer et al. (2016) suggested that employers need to invest in the career development of designated employees. By expressing their appreciation for these employees' contributions to the organisation and displaying an understanding of their unique needs, trust in management may be promoted.

The results of the multiple regression analysis also revealed that employees' *level of education* significantly influenced their experiences (psychological contract violation) and perceptions (perceived organisational support) in the workplace, as well as their reactions to these perceptions and experiences in the form of attitudinal commitment, organisational trust and organisational cynicism. The results indicated that employees with lower levels of education were more likely to perceive their employing organisations as supportive, to trust these organisations and to display higher levels of attitudinal commitment towards them, compared with their highly educated counterparts. Employees with more advanced qualifications, in turn, displayed higher levels of psychological contract violation and organisational cynicism. The results thus suggested that highly qualified employees in South African organisations were likely to question the quality of their social exchange relationships and to develop negative attitudes towards their organisations. Since these employees tend to have more alternative

job opportunities, they are more likely to leave the organisation in response to their dissatisfaction (Sibiya, Buitendach, Kanengoni, & Bobat, 2014). Employment relations practitioners should thus ensure that they interact with these employees in order to gain a better understanding of their expectations. Opportunities for development and career advancement should be provided. Highly qualified employees should thus believe that the organisation will offer job and/or development opportunities that match employees' interests (Lapointe & Vandenberghe, 2017). Lapointe and Vandenberghe (2017), drawing on social exchange theory, suggested that supervisory mentoring may play a key role in this regard. Effective mentoring by a supervisor signals concern for the developmental needs of the employee, which is likely to be reciprocated by positive attitudes towards the organisation such as enhanced organisational commitment.

In terms of work-related characteristics, the results of the multiple regression analysis indicated that *job level* had a unique predictive influence on OCB-O, attitudinal commitment, psychological contract violation, POJ, POS, organisational cynicism and horizontal collectivism. It was clear from the results that employees at operational level were more likely than their senior counterparts to experience poor-quality social exchange relationships with their employing organisations. They were less likely to regard their employing organisations as fair and supportive, and tended to experience more psychological contract violation. As a result, they were less inclined to form an emotional bond with and felt obligation towards their employing organisations and less likely not engage in positive discretionary behaviour in the workplace. Employees at lower levels in the organisation tend to have limited access to information and are often unable to influence organisational decision making (Searle, Den Hartog, et al., 2011). Their subsequent vulnerability in the employment relationship tends to negatively affect their trust in management (Martins & Von der Ohe, 2011). They are inclined to question management decisions and the procedures used to reach these decisions, often believing that they are self-serving and exploitive (Elamin & Tlaiss, 2015; Sheel & Vohra, 2016). Affording these employees more opportunities for interaction and involvement in decision making could foster more realistic expectations, which might, in turn, enhance their attachment to their employing organisations and inspire them to engage in positive discretionary behaviour in the workplace (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Thomas & Anderson, 1998; Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Although tenure and union membership did not emerge as unique predictors of employee perceptions, experiences, attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, differences in mean scores were reported between particular groups of employees in terms of these characteristics. In terms of *tenure* with their current employers, new employees (i.e. those who

had been with the employer for less than a year) reported higher levels of perceived organisational justice than those who have been in the organisation for a longer period (2 to 10 years). It could thus be inferred that employees perceived their employers as fair at the inception of employment, but that these perceptions turned negative as their relationships with their employers matured. In terms of overall tenure, the results indicated that newer entrants to the labour market reported higher levels of organisational trust than those who had been employed for a longer period. It could thus be deduced that employees inadvertently place their trust in management at the start of their careers. However, over time, they may experience disappointment and question their conviction that management will act in good faith and uphold their obligations to their employees. In order to build positive relationships with employees over time, employers will thus have to demonstrate fairness in their dealings with employees. By demonstrating ability, benevolence and integrity (Mayer et al., 1995), employers may enhance the extent to which they are regarded as trustworthy by employees, which may, in turn result in a greater emotional attachment to and felt responsibility towards the organisation.

In an employment relations context, it was anticipated that significant differences would exist between trade union members and nonmembers in the workplace. However, the only significant difference stemming from the results of the tests for significant mean differences related to perceived organisational support. Trade union members reported lower levels of organisational support than nonmembers. Employers should therefore realise that employees who do not receive the needed support from their employers, may resort to trade unions to fulfil their unmet needs. However, the results have shown that union membership and commitment to a trade union do not necessarily result in reduced commitment to the organisation. It could thus be deduced that employers may benefit by embracing and building positive relations with trade unions because positive employer-union relations may enhance employees' perceptions of organisational support and justice (Fuller & Hester, 1998), which have been shown to have a positive influence on employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

10.1.10.7 Main findings: Synthesis

In summary, the descriptive statistics indicated that respondents typically regarded the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employing organisations as positive, as depicted in relatively low levels of psychological contract violation and high levels of perceived organisational justice and support. This was also evident in the relatively low level of organisational cynicism towards their employing organisations. It was evident, however, that

respondents were not completely satisfied with their relationships with their employing organisations as they displayed some distrust towards management. Respondents' perceptions of the quality of their relationships with their employers were reflected in a moderate level of commitment to their employing organisations, which was based on a need to stay because of the cost associated leaving (continuance commitment), rather than an emotional bond to or felt responsibility (attitudinal commitment) towards their employing organisations. Respondents reported that they frequently engaged in positive discretionary behaviour (OCB) in their workplaces and that they were generally opposed to behaviour aimed at disadvantaging their employing organisations or its people (CWB). Employees who were trade union members, reported high levels of union commitment and, more specifically, loyalty to and responsibility towards their unions. The dominant disposition held by respondents was collective in nature (notably horizontal collectivism), which indicated that they valued interdependence, group cohesion, cooperation and equality.

In terms of the bivariate correlation analysis, the results revealed significant associations between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations and their relational attitudes (mainly organisational commitment) and behaviour (predominantly OCB) in the workplace. Organisational cynicism was also associated with these outcome variables in the expected directions. Organisational trust was positively correlated with OCB, organisational commitment and union commitment (notably willingness to work for the union). Significant relationships were also reported between individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition and the independent (POS and POJ) and dependent (OCB, organisational commitment and union commitment) variables. These bivariate correlations were small to large in effect size and in the expected directions. The magnitude of the correlations suggested, however, that there are alternative, more prominent predictors of CWB and union commitment exist that were not analysed in the current framework.

As far as inferential statistics were concerned, the canonical correlation analyses revealed that employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) as well as their attitudinal reactions to these experiences (organisational cynicism and trust) were strong predictors of their relational attitudes (notably attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (specifically OCB-O). Employees' disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (specifically horizontal collectivism) was shown to have some predictive influence on relational behaviour in the workplace (OCB-O and OCB-I). However, this influence only applied in the absence of the stronger predictors (POS, POJ psychological

contract violation, organisational cynicism and organisational trust). It was thus concluded that horizontal collectivism might fulfil a moderating role in the framework rather than serving as a predictor of relational outcomes. Finally, the CCA results confirmed that employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) were strong predictors of organisational cynicism and trust. Organisational cynicism and trust were thus revealed as significant outcomes of employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences, as well as significant predictors of relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB), providing impetus for its conceptualisation as mediating variables in the psychological framework.

The CCA results were useful in designing the best-fit structural model (see Figure 9.16) in that the construct variables that were shown to explain most of the variance in work-related perceptions, experiences, attitudes and dispositions (i.e. POS, POJ, psychological contract violation, organisational cynicism and organisational trust) as well relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (i.e. attitudinal commitment and OCB-O), were retained. The best-fit structural model revealed that attitudinal commitment and POS were the strongest predictors of OCB-O. Higher levels of attitudinal commitment and POS were associated with higher levels of OCB-O. An unexpected inverse relationship, however, was evident between POJ and OCB-O. This finding lends support to Colquitt et al.'s (2013) assertion that employees' have both cognitive and affective responses to justice perceptions. While employees' perceptions of organisational justice may thus influence their relational behaviour (OCB-O), its influence would be stronger if it is preceded by an emotional reaction. An alternative explanation may lie in the mediating effect of POS in the POJ-OCB relationship. According to Moorman et al. (1998), employees' perceptions of organisational justice (notably procedural justice) influence the extent to which they believe that their employing organisations value them and care for their well-being. Their beliefs in terms of organisational support, in turn, affect their willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour in the workplace. Since POS was identified as the strongest predictor of OCB-O in the model, it could be inferred that it might have a mediating effect in the relationship between POJ and OCB-O. Further analyses in terms of this mediating effect could provide valuable information on the relationship between employees' work-related perceptions (POJ and POS) and their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

Organisational cynicism and psychological contract violation were also identified as significant negative predictors of OCB-O. In terms of attitudinal commitment, POS and organisational trust emerged as the strongest predictors, suggesting that higher levels of POS and organisational trust would result in higher levels of attitudinal commitment. In addition,

organisational cynicism was shown to have a significant negative affect on attitudinal commitment. Finally, psychological contract violation (negative) and POJ (positive) emerged as the strongest predictors of organisational cynicism, while both POJ and POS significantly and positively influenced organisational trust.

The mediation analyses indicated that organisational cynicism and trust both fulfilled mediating roles in the relationships between employees' work-related attitudes (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O). Organisational cynicism intervened in the relationships between psychological contract violation and POJ respectively, and attitudinal commitment. Organisational trust served as a mediator in the relationship between POJ and POS respectively, and attitudinal commitment.

Although it was theorised that the strength and direction of the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) would be conditional upon their cultural dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism, only one moderation effect was confirmed in the results of the moderation analyses. It was revealed that horizontal collectivism moderated the relationship between organisational cynicism and attitudinal commitment.

The results of the multiple regression analysis indicated that employees' personal (gender, population group and level of education) and work-related (job level) characteristics significantly predicted their work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, their relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB) in the workplace and their disposition towards individualism/collectivism (horizontal collectivism).

The tests for significant mean differences demonstrated that respondents from various biographical groups in terms of personal (gender, population group and level of education) and work-related (tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics, statistically significantly differed regarding their work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, their relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB) in the workplace and their disposition towards individualism/collectivism (horizontal collectivism).

Overall, the results provided supportive evidence for all nine stated research hypotheses, as indicated in Table 10.1 below.

10.1.10.8 Counterintuitive findings

The results indicated that some of the theorised attitudinal (continuance commitment towards the organisation and union commitment) and behavioural (OCB-I and CWB) outcomes were not significantly influenced by employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ), their work experiences (psychological contract violation) or their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations. It could thus be concluded that there were stronger antecedents of continuance commitment, union commitment, OCB-I and CWB that were not tested as part of the current theoretical framework.

Some theorised relationships were not confirmed in the results. For instance, it emerged that organisational trust was not a significant predictor of OCB-O; POJ and psychological contract violation did not significantly affect attitudinal commitment; POS did not significantly influence organisational cynicism; and psychological contract violation was not a significant predictor of organisational trust. The results also indicated one significant relationship that was in an unexpected direction: The relationship between POJ and OCB-O was shown to be negative, while a positive relationship was anticipated.

In terms of the biographical characteristics, the results revealed that male employees were more trusting than their female counterparts while the opposite is generally reported in extant literature (Haselhuhn et al., 2015). In addition, employees at higher levels of the organisation were shown to be more likely to hold a horizontal collectivist disposition, while the converse was anticipated. Finally, new employees (i.e. those with lower shorter tenure in their current organisations) reported higher levels of perceived organisational justice, while higher levels of POJ are commonly reported for longer-tenured employees who tend to better understand the reasons for organisational decisions (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Thomas & Anderson, 1998).

10.1.11 Decisions concerning the research hypotheses

The results provided supportive evidence for all nine of the stated research hypotheses. Table 10.1 provides a summary of these hypotheses, the statistical procedures used to test them and the main findings relating to each hypothesis.

Table 10.1

Summary of the Main Findings Relating to the Research Hypotheses

Empirical research aims	Research hypotheses	Statistical procedures	Supportive evidence provided
Empirical research aim 1: To assess the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical interrelationships between the independent variables (work-related perceptions and work experiences), dependent variables (relational attitudes and behaviour), mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust) and moderating variable (individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism) in a sample of respondents employed in the South African organisational context	H1: There are significant relationships between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), organisational cynicism and trust, and individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism.	Correlation analysis (Pearson product-moment correlation)	Yes (partial support)
Empirical research aim 2: To assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables	H2: There is a significant relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables.	Canonical correlation analysis	Yes (partial support)
Empirical research aim 3: To assess the overall statistical relationship between horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables	H3: There is a significant relationship between horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables.	Canonical correlation analysis	Yes (partial support)

Empirical research aims	Research hypotheses	Statistical procedures	Supportive evidence provided
<p>Empirical research aim 4: To assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as a composite set of independent variables, and organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent dependent variables</p>	<p>H4: There is a significant relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as a composite set of independent variables, and organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent dependent variables.</p>	<p>Canonical correlation analysis</p>	<p>Yes (partial support)</p>
<p>Empirical research aim 5: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the construct variables, to assess the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretical hypothesised framework</p>	<p>H5: The theoretical hypothesised framework has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model.</p>	<p>Structural equation modelling ¹</p>	<p>Yes (partial support)</p>
<p>Empirical research aim 6: To determine whether (1) organisational cynicism and (2) organisational trust significantly mediate the relationship between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB)</p>	<p>H6: Individuals' sense of organisational cynicism and trust significantly mediates the relationship between their work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB).</p>	<p>Mediation analysis ¹</p>	<p>Yes (partial support)</p>
<p>Empirical research aim 7: To determine whether the influence of individuals' (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) on their sense of organisational cynicism and trust; (2) trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations on their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and (3) relational</p>	<p>H7: The effects of individuals' (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) on organisational cynicism and trust; (2) organisational cynicism and trust on relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and (3) relational attitudes</p>	<p>Moderation analysis ¹</p>	<p>Yes (partial support)</p>

Empirical research aims	Research hypotheses	Statistical procedures	Supportive evidence provided
attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) on their behaviour (OCB and CWB), is conditional upon their disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (moderating variable)	(organisational commitment and union commitment) on behaviour (OCB and CWB) are conditional upon individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism.		
Empirical research aim 8: To empirically assess whether gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership significantly predict work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB)	H8: Gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership significantly predict work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB).	Multiple regression analysis ¹	Yes (partial support)
Empirical research aim 9: To empirically assess whether individuals from various biographical groups (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) differ significantly regarding the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust), moderating (individualism/collectivism) and dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables	H9: Individuals from different biographical groups (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) differ statistically significantly regarding POS, POJ and psychological contract violation (independent variables), organisational cynicism and trust (mediating variables), individualism/collectivism (moderating variable) and organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB (dependent variables).	Tests for significant mean differences and post hoc tests (to ascertain source of differences) ¹	Yes (partial support)

¹ Based on the canonical correlations analyses, continuance commitment, union commitment, OCB-I and CWB were not included as outcome variables in the SEM analysis, mediation analysis, moderated mediation analysis, multiple regression analysis or tests for significant mean differences. Owing to the fact that horizontal collectivism was shown to contribute most to the variance in the individualism/collectivism construct, it was used as a proxy for individualism/collectivism in these analyses.

10.2 CONCLUSIONS

This section outlines the core conclusions that drawn from the literature review and the empirical study.

10.2.1 Conclusions relating to the literature review

The general aim of this research was to construct an integrated psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in a South African employment relations context. Specific *literature research aims 1 to 6* (see section 1.4.2.1) thus entailed a comprehensive contextualisation of the metatheoretical context of the study, namely employment relations in a South African organisational environment, and a theoretical exploration of the relationships between a number of relational variables that were deemed essential in this context. The relationship dynamics were examined between diverse employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace, as mediated by their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations, and moderated by their personal dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism. These literature research aims were addressed in Chapters 2 to 6, and a synthesis of the main findings was provided in Chapter 7. Chapter 7 thus served as a theoretical integration and reflective evaluation of the literature review, which culminated in a theorised psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour, based on the reported relationships between the constructs (*literature research aim 7*) as illustrated in Figure 7.1.

The following theoretical relationship dynamics between the constructs (see Figure 7.1) were inferred from the literature review:

- Employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace (OCB and CWB) and their commitment to their employing organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997) and trade unions (Gordon & Nurick, 1981) are essential relational outcomes in employment relations (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994).
- Reciprocation in terms of organisational behaviour is target specific. Work-related perceptions and work experiences are thus more likely to be reciprocated by organisationally directed behaviour (OCB-O and CWB-O) than behaviour directed at individuals in the organisation (OBC-I and CWB-I) (Dalal, 2005; Sackett et al., 2006). A differentiation between these targets of behaviour is thus necessary.

- OCB and CWB are theoretically distinct constructs and not at opposite ends of the same continuum (Dalal, 2005; Kelloway et al., 2002; Ng et al., 2016; Sackett et al., 2006).
- Organisational commitment may be regarded as a relational outcome, on the one hand, but also as a significant positive predictor of OCB (Cetin et al., 2015; Chinomona & Dhurup, 2016), on the other.
- Union commitment negatively influences trade union members' commitment to their employing organisations (Redman & Snape, 2016) as well as their discretionary behaviour in the workplace (Meyer & Morin, 2016).
- Dual commitment to an organisation and trade union is possible in a constructive employment relations climate (Snape & Redman, 2012) and has a synergic effect on positive discretionary behaviour (Meyer & Morin, 2016).
- Employees may reciprocate a perceived breach and/or violation of their psychological contracts with diminished organisational commitment (Bal et al., 2008; Bal, De Lange, Zacher, et al., 2013; Lapalme et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2007), increased union loyalty (Turnley et al., 2004), an unwillingness to engage in OCB (Bal et al., 2010; Lapalme et al., 2011; López Bohle et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2007) and/or a greater tendency to engage in CWB (Chiu & Peng, 2008). The effect of a breach is exacerbated if it is accompanied by a negative emotional reaction (psychological contract violation) (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).
- A perceived violation of the psychological contract may also result in a decline in organisational trust (Quratulain et al., 2016; Robinson, 1996) and/or an increase in organisational cynicism (Andersson, 1996; Chiaburu et al., 2013; Dean et al., 1998; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Pugh et al., 2003).
- Positive perceptions of organisational justice and support may be associated with enhanced organisational commitment and engagement in OCB (Chênevert et al., 2015; Shuck, Nimon, & Zigarmi, 2017), as well as an increase in organisational trust (Freire & Azevedo, 2015; Worrall et al., 2011).
- Negative perceptions of organisational justice and support may be linked to cynicism towards the organisation (Biswas & Kapil, 2017) and diminished organisational commitment, greater union commitment, an unwillingness to engage in OCB and retribution in the form of CWB (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Thacker, 2015).
- Employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work-related experiences (psychological contract violation) determine the quality of their social exchange relationships and therefore collectively influence their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Colquitt et al., 2014).

- Higher levels of organisational trust may be associated with enhanced organisational commitment and a greater tendency to engage in desirable workplace behaviour (OCB) (Byrne et al., 2011; Pirson & Malhotra, 2011).
- A lack of organisational trust may result in a decline in organisational commitment and an increase in CWB (Bies & Tripp, 1996).
- Organisational cynicism may result in a decline in both organisational commitment (Dean et al., 1998; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Nafei, 2014) and OCB (Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Evans et al., 2010; Nafei, 2014; Wanous et al., 2000), as well as higher levels of CWB (Stanley et al., 2005) and union commitment (Bashir & Nasir, 2013; Turnley et al., 2004).
- Employees experience and react to organisational events differently based on their cultural dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Tavares et al., 2016).
- Employees' personal (gender, age, population group and level of education) and work-related (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics may influence their perceptions, experiences, attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

The final literature research aim (*literature research aim 8*), which entailed identifying the implications of the proposed psychological framework for employment relations practices and formulating recommendations to facilitate the development of high-quality employment relationships and positive relational outcomes, was achieved in Chapter 7 (see Table 7.4).

The literature review thus provided the building blocks for the construction of a theorised psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in the South African employment relations context. The theoretical relationships between the independent (psychological contract violation, POS and POJ), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust), moderating (individualism/collectivism) and dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables that were deemed relevant in an employment relations context were explored. It was concluded that an integrated theoretical psychological framework, providing a holistic view of the relationships between these variables, could improve awareness of the complexities inherent in the employment relationship. Such a framework might assist in better understanding the ways in which organisational policies, procedures and practices may influence employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace and subsequently determine their relational attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation.

10.2.2 Conclusions relating to the empirical study

Nine empirical research aims (see Table 10.1) were set to empirically test the hypothesised relationships between the constructs in the integrated theoretical psychological framework (see section 7.7 in Chapter 7). These empirical research aims were achieved in Chapter 9. The results of the statistical analyses were integrated and discussed in section 10.1. The main conclusions relating to each of these aims are explained below.

10.2.2.1 Conclusions relating to empirical research aim 1

The first empirical research aim, namely to assess the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical interrelationships between the independent variables (work-related perceptions and work experiences), dependent variables (relational attitudes and behaviour), mediating variables (organisational cynicism and trust) and moderating variable (individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism) in a sample of respondents employed in the South African organisational context, was achieved in Chapter 9. The empirical results provided partial support for research hypothesis H1 (see Table 10.1).

The following overall conclusion was drawn in this regard:

Individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), relational attitudes (organisational commitment) and behaviour (OCB), organisational cynicism and trust, and individual disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (horizontal collectivism) are significantly related.

Based on the significant relationships that emerged, the following specific conclusions could be drawn, lending empirical support to the hypothesised relationships between the variables in the theorised psychological framework:

- A significant negative correlation between OCB and CWB confirmed that these constructs should be regarded as distinct. This implied that employees might reciprocate their perceptions and experiences in the workplace by engaging in either OCB (positive) or CWB (negative). The results suggested, however, that employees would rather reciprocate negative organisational perceptions and experiences with an unwillingness to engage in OCB than by engaging in CWB.



- The three independent variables (POJ, POS and psychological contract violation) were significantly correlated in the expected directions, which supported the notion of the existence of an interrelationship between these variables that determines employees' perceptions of the quality of their social exchange relationship with their employing organisations.
- The results supported the premise that POS, POJ and psychological contract violation should be regarded as antecedents of OCB (notably OCB-O), and organisational commitment, cynicism and trust as significant bivariate correlations in the expected directions were reported.
- The results furthermore confirmed the hypothesised relationships between organisational cynicism and trust as antecedents, and OCB (notably OCB-O) and organisational commitment as relational outcomes, lending support to the theorised mediating effect of organisational cynicism and trust.
- A significant positive correlation between organisational commitment (notably attitudinal commitment) and OCB (mainly OCB-O) was also reported, suggesting that high levels of organisational commitment would be associated with an increased likelihood of engaging in OCB.
- While the relationships between individualism/collectivism as an overall construct and the independent, mediating and dependent variables of relevance in the proposed psychological framework were mostly insignificant, significant relationships were evident in terms of the horizontal collectivism dimension. The results thus suggested that employees' cultural dispositions might influence their perceptions, experiences, attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

While an analysis of the bivariate correlations between the variables provided empirical support for some of the theorised relationships between the variables, some of the reported relationships deviated from the expectations. The following specific conclusions were drawn from these unexpected results:

- A small positive correlation between organisational commitment and union commitment suggested that there was dual commitment to these entities in the sample. While the existence of dual commitment did not necessarily suggest high levels of commitment to either of these entities, but rather that the levels of commitment to the organisation and union were similar, it did imply that trade union members' commitment to their organisations would not have a detrimental effect on their commitment to their organisations.

- Union commitment was significantly and positively related to OCB-O, while a negative relationship was in fact expected. This finding might suggest that, in certain conditions (e.g. a positive employment relations climate), employees who subscribe to the notion of unionism, which is driven by the notions of collectivity and shared goals, may inherently be more willing to engage in positive discretionary behaviour in the workplace.
- Finally, the results suggested that OCB-I, CWB, continuance commitment and union commitment were not significant relational outcomes in the proposed framework, and that there were alternative antecedents to these attitudes and behaviour.

10.2.2.2 *Conclusions relating to empirical research aim 2*

The second empirical research aim, namely to assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of independent variables, and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of latent dependent variables, was achieved in Chapter 9. The empirical results provided partial support for research hypothesis H2 (see Table 10.1).

The following overall conclusion was drawn in this regard:

Individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and organisational trust, significantly predict their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. More specifically, employees' positive perceptions of organisational support and justice and their trust in their employing organisations are significant positive predictors of attitudinal commitment and organisationally directed OCB (OCB-O). In turn, psychological contract violation and organisational cynicism are significant negative predictors of attitudinal commitment and OCB-O.

Based on the significant relationships that emerged, the following specific conclusions were drawn:

- Employees who perceive fairness in terms of organisational actions (e.g. pay, rewards, promotions and conflict resolution) are likely to reciprocate by displaying high levels of organisational commitment and a willingness to engage in activities beyond what is formally required, if this contributes to the success of the organisation.

- However, the influence of employees' perceptions of organisational justice on their relational attitudes and behaviour is surpassed by their perceptions of organisational support. When organisations demonstrate a sense of commitment to their employees' well-being and a valuation of their contributions to the organisation, they will be more likely to reciprocate by establishing an emotional attachment to and moral obligations towards their employing organisations and engaging in positive discretionary behaviour that may benefit the organisation.
- Employees who regard their employers as trustworthy, based on organisational actions, will also be more inclined to display high levels of organisational commitment and positive discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation.
- In contrast, employees who perceive that they have made certain contributions to their employing organisations that have not been reciprocated are unlikely to form an affective attachment to these organisations. They may even question the integrity and intent of their employers and will be less likely to engage in extra-role behaviour that may benefit the organisation.
- Employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace are not significantly influenced by their individual dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism.

Continuance commitment, union commitment, OCB-I and CWB did not emerge as significant relational outcomes. It may thus be concluded that there are stronger antecedents of these attitudes and behaviour.

Based on these findings, it may be concluded that relational attitudes and behaviour in organisations can be enhanced by showing concern for employees' well-being and a sincere appreciation for their contributions to the organisation. Organisations should also ensure that employees are treated fairly and respectfully. Clear and honest communication is essential – especially if employers are unable to meet employee expectations. Employees will be more likely to display positive attitudes and behaviour in the workplace if they believe the organisation has their best interests at heart.

10.2.2.3 Conclusions relating to empirical research aim 3

The next empirical research aim, namely to assess the overall statistical relationship between horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism as a composite set of independent variables and relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment), and behaviour (OCB and CWB) as a composite set of

latent dependent variables, was achieved in Chapter 9. The empirical results provided partial support for research hypothesis H3 (see Table 10.1).

The following overall conclusion was drawn in this regard:

Individuals' disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism influence their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. More specifically, horizontal collectivism, as the main contributor to the variance in the individualism/collectivism independent construct variate, significantly influences individuals' relational behaviour (OCB-O and OCB-I).

Based on the significant relationships that came to light, the following specific conclusions were drawn:

- Employees with a highly horizontal collectivistic disposition, who value common goals, interdependency, empathy, sociability and cooperation in relationships, will be more likely to engage in discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting both the organisation and individuals in it.
- Employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace are not significantly influenced by horizontal individualist, vertical collectivist and vertical individualist dispositions.

Counterproductive work behaviour, organisational commitment and union commitment did not emerge as significant relational outcomes. It may thus be concluded that these attitudes and behaviour are not affected by employees' dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism.

Based on these findings, it may be concluded that employees' positive discretionary behaviour in the workplace may be influenced by a strong horizontal collectivist disposition. However, this influence is overshadowed, by employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace, as well as their attitudinal reactions (cynicism and trust) to these perceptions and experiences (see previous section). Although employers should therefore take cognisance of employees' cultural dispositions and the values associated with these dispositions, they will not be able to predict employee behaviour based on individual dispositions. It is possible, however, that the inherent values associated with a horizontal collectivistic disposition may influence how individuals experience and react to organisational events.

10.2.2.4 Conclusions relating to empirical research aim 4

Empirical research aim 4, namely to assess the overall statistical relationship between work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) as a composite set of independent variables, and organisational cynicism, organisational trust and individualism/collectivism as a composite set of latent dependent variables, was achieved in Chapter 9. The empirical results provided partial support for research hypothesis H4 (see Table 10.1).

The following overall conclusion was drawn in this regard:

Individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) significantly influence their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations.

Based on the significant relationships that emerged, the following specific conclusions were drawn:

- Employees hold specific expectations about the promissory obligations of their employers in the employment relationship. If these expectations are not met, employees are likely to demonstrate a strong emotional reaction in the form of cynicism towards the organisation and its managers. If employees' expectations are met, however, they are likely to trust employers to act in their best interests.
- Employees also make judgements about the support they receive from their employing organisations and the ways in which they are treated. If they perceive their employing organisations as fair and supportive, they will regard them as trustworthy. If, however, they perceive a lack of support and unfair treatment, they will question their employer's integrity, honesty and sincerity.

Individualism/collectivism, as measured in terms of its four dimensions (horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism and vertical individualism), did not emerge as a significant relational outcome. This was anticipated because an individual disposition is regarded as an inherent quality, which is stable over time. It should therefore not be influenced by individual perceptions and experiences.

Based on these findings, it may be concluded that employers may enhance the quality of their relationships with their employees by making a sincere effort to meet their expectations in

terms of the employment relationship. If these expectations cannot be met, the adverse effects on employees' trust in their employing organisations may be mitigated by showing concern for the well-being of employees, appreciating their contributions to the organisation and treating them respectfully. If employees understand the reasons why their expectations cannot be fulfilled, they will be less likely to question the organisation's intent and integrity and its employment relations practices.

10.2.2.5 Conclusions relating to empirical research aim 5

The next empirical research aim was to assess the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretical hypothesised framework, based on the overall statistical relationship between the construct variables. This aim was achieved in Chapter 9. The empirical results provided partial support for research hypothesis H5 (see Table 10.1).

The following overall conclusion was drawn in this regard:

The empirically manifested structural model confirmed the hypothesised relationships between the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust) and dependent (attitudinal commitment and OCB-O) variables.

Based on the significant relationships that emerged, the following specific conclusions were drawn:

- The extent to which employees are prepared to engage in extra-role activities intended to benefit the organisation mainly depends on their affective attachment to and felt obligation towards their employing organisations. Hence, employees with an AC/NC-dominant commitment profile will be more inclined to exert extra effort towards organisational goal achievement.
- Employees' attitudinal commitment, in turn, is positively influenced by their perceptions of organisational support (which emerged as the strongest predictor) and their trust in management. Employees who feel that their organisations value their contributions and care about their well-being, are more likely to have positive views in terms of the ability and intent of their employers, and are therefore more likely to develop AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles that reflect an emotional attachment to and moral obligation towards their organisations.

- The extent to which employees trust their employing organisations is determined mainly by their positive perceptions of organisational support and justice.
- Employees' cognitive assessments of the integrity and intent of their employers also significantly influence their attitudinal commitment to the organisation, which are reflected in their dominant organisational commitment profiles. These assessments are influenced by perceived psychological contract violations and injustice.

On the strength of these findings, it may be concluded that the best way to encourage employees to engage in positive discretionary behaviour that will benefit the organisation is to focus on their emotional attachment to and moral obligation towards the organisation or the development of desirable (AC/NC-dominant) commitment profiles. Employees who experience a strong attitudinal commitment to the organisation will be more likely to “walk the extra mile” for the organisation. The development of AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles may be enhanced by showing an appreciation for the contribution made by employees and making a sincere effort to address their socioemotional needs in the workplace. Hence, employees who perceive their employing organisations as supportive are more likely to commit to their organisations and to engage in positive discretionary behaviour. Attitudinal commitment may be further boosted by building organisational trust and averting organisational cynicism.

Hence, the above conclusions not only confirmed the predictive influence of attitudinal commitment, as reflected in AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles, on employees' positive discretionary behaviour in the workplace (OCB-O), but also provided impetus for the conceptualisation of organisational cynicism and trust in the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their attitudinal commitment towards their employing organisations.

10.2.2.6 Conclusions relating to empirical research aim 6

Empirical research aim 6 was to determine whether (1) organisational cynicism and (2) organisational trust significantly mediate the relationship between individuals' work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB). This aim was achieved in Chapter 9. The empirical results provided partial support for research hypothesis H6 (see Table 10.1).

The following overall conclusion was drawn in this regard:

Individuals' sense of organisational cynicism and trust significantly mediate the relationship between their work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and their relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment).

Based on the significant relationships that were evident, the following specific conclusions were drawn:

- Employees who feel that their employers do not fulfil their promissory obligations in terms of the psychological contract and do not deal with employees fairly may respond by displaying a negative emotional reaction that may manifest as organisational cynicism. A cynical attitude towards the organisation may, in turn, have a detrimental effect on employees' relational attitudes towards the organisation.
- Employees who perceive their employing organisations as fair and supportive are more likely to regard them as trustworthy. They will reciprocate this perceived trustworthiness by making themselves vulnerable to the organisation. This vulnerability is expressed in terms of a stronger emotional bond and felt obligation towards the organisation.

Based on these findings, it may be concluded that employees form judgements on the trustworthiness of their employing organisations, based on organisational actions (i.e. the ways in which employees are treated). If they perceive them to be trustworthy, they will be more willing to make themselves vulnerable to the organisation. This vulnerability may be expressed in an emotional attachment or moral obligation to the organisation. Trustworthiness may be enhanced by showing compassion and goodwill towards employees and dealing fairly with employment relations matters. Employees who trust their employers to act in their best interests will not only form a stronger emotional bond with their organisations, but will also be more willing to engage in activities beyond what is required in their formal contracts of employment if this can benefit the organisation.

However, if employees perceive that their employers disregard their needs and treat them disrespectfully, they may experience a range of negative feelings such as anxiety, frustration, disillusionment and hopelessness. These feelings may be associated with cynicism and reflect employees' negative beliefs about their employers' integrity and intentions. This implies that employers should make a sincere effort to meet the expectations of their employees. If, however, they are unable to meet their expectations, the negative effect on employees'

attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation may be mitigated by providing clear information and honest feedback.

10.2.2.7 Conclusions relating to empirical research aim 7

The next research aim, namely to determine whether the influence of individuals' (1) work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) on their sense of organisational cynicism and trust; (2) trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations on their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB); and (3) relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) on their behaviour (OCB and CWB), is conditional upon their disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (moderating variable), was achieved in Chapter 9. The empirical results provided partial support for research hypothesis H7 (see Table 10.1).

The following overall conclusion was drawn in this regard:

The extent to which individuals' sense of organisational cynicism influences their attitudinal commitment to the organisation is conditional upon their disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (horizontal collectivism).

Based on the significant relationships that were evident, the following specific conclusions were drawn:

- Employees form negative beliefs (e.g. distress, disgust, shame, irritation, aggravation, tension, anxiety, frustration, disillusionment, pessimism and hopelessness) about their employing organisations if they perceive them as being self-serving, dishonest and insincere.
- These negative beliefs cause employees to distance themselves emotionally from their employing organisations.
- This emotional detachment in response to cynicism will be greater for employees with a horizontal collectivist disposition.

Based on these findings, it can thus be concluded that employees' cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism determines the extent to which their beliefs about their organisations influence their emotions towards and behaviour in these organisations. Although collectivists tend to have greater tolerance for organisational wrongdoings (Erdogan & Liden,

2006; Triandis, 1995), the results suggest that once they form negative beliefs about the organisation, their affective reactions to such beliefs will surpass those of individualists.

10.2.2.8 *Conclusions relating to empirical research aim 8*

Empirical research aim 8 was to empirically assess whether gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership significantly predict work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB and CWB). This aim was achieved in Chapter 9. The empirical results provided partial support for research hypothesis H8 (see Table 10.1).

The following overall conclusion was drawn in this regard:

Individuals' gender, population group, level of education and job level significantly predict their work-related perceptions and work experiences (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), organisational cynicism and trust, relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and relational behaviour (OCB-O) and disposition towards individualism/collectivism (horizontal collectivism).

Based on the significant relationships that were evident, the following specific conclusions were drawn:

- Gender emerged as a significant predictor of employees' attitudinal commitment to and trust in their employing organisations. In a South African organisational context, male employees tend to be more trusting towards their managers than females. Male employees are also more likely to display higher levels of attitudinal commitment towards their employing organisations than female employees.
- Population group was a significant predictor of attitudinal commitment. Black Africans tended to report lower levels of attitudinal commitment than employees from other population groups.
- Employees' population group was also linked to their disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism. Black Africans were more likely to have a horizontal collectivist disposition than employees from other population groups.
- Employees' level of education affects their perceptions of organisational support and their attitudinal commitment to and trust in their employing organisations. Employees

with lower levels of education are more likely to perceive their employing organisations as supportive, to trust these organisations and to display higher levels of attitudinal commitment.

- The extent to which employees experience psychological contract violations in the workplace and hold cynical attitudes towards their organisation, was also influenced by their levels of education. Employees with more advanced qualifications display higher levels of psychological contract violation and cynicism towards their employing organisations.
- Job level predicted individuals' discretionary behaviour in the workplace (OCB-O), their attitudinal commitment to their employing organisations, their work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), their cynicism towards their organisations and their cultural dispositions (horizontal collectivism).
 - Employers at supervisory and managerial levels are more likely to display higher levels of attitudinal commitment and are more willing to engage in positive discretionary behaviour that may benefit their organisations.
 - Senior employees are less likely to experience psychological contract violations and more likely to perceive their employing organisations as fair (POJ), caring and supportive (POS).
 - Organisational cynicism is less prevalent among senior employees than among those at the lower levels of employment.
 - Contrary to expectations, senior employees in South African organisations are more likely to hold horizontal collectivist dispositions.

Based on these findings, it can be concluded that organisations should take into account individual differences in terms of gender, population group, level of education and job level when developing strategies aimed at enhancing employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Owing to the fact that the results deviated from the norms in some instances, organisations should not rely on existing stereotypes but make a sincere and concerted effort to identify employees' needs and to understand the circumstances that give rise to these needs. This is especially important in the South African employment relations context, which has a long history of adversity and inequality which are still prevalent in modern workplaces. Demonstrating a genuine appreciation for individual differences will communicate compassion and benevolence, which are likely to be reciprocated with positive attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation.

It should be noted that the sample deviated somewhat from the demographic distribution of the national workforce in terms of age and population group. It is therefore acknowledged that

the results may be sample specific with limited generalisability to the broader South African population.

10.2.2.9 Conclusions relating to empirical research aim 9

The next empirical research aim was to empirically assess whether individuals from various biographical groups (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) differ significantly regarding the independent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust), moderating (individualism/collectivism) and dependent (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) variables. This aim was achieved in Chapter 9. The empirical results provided partial support for research hypothesis H9 (see Table 10.1).

The following overall conclusion was drawn in this regard:

Respondents from various biographical groups in terms of personal (gender, population group and level of education) and work-related (tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics differ significantly regarding their work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, their relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) in the workplace and their disposition towards individualism/collectivism (horizontal collectivism).

Based on the significant relationships that were identified, the following specific conclusions were drawn:

- Male employees are more likely to display higher levels of affective attachment to and moral obligation towards their employing organisations and to exhibit higher levels of trust in their managers than female employees.
- Males are more likely to hold a horizontal collectivist disposition than their female counterparts. This does not imply, however, that female employees hold individualist dispositions. In this sample, both groups reported high levels of horizontal collectivism.
- White employees are more likely to report higher levels of attitudinal commitment and perceived organisational support than black African employees. They are also less likely to experience psychological contract violations. White employees therefore tend to experience higher quality exchange relationships in their workplaces and are thus more likely to have an affective attachment to their employing organisations.

- Coloured and black African employees are more likely to report low levels of organisational trust. White employees are likely to report the highest levels of organisational trust.
- Black Africans are most likely to have horizontal collectivist dispositions, and white employees the least likely.
- Highly qualified employees are less likely to trust their employing organisations or to form an emotional attachment to and moral obligation towards them.
- Newly appointed employees are more likely to regard organisational actions as fair than those employees that have been in the organisation for a longer period.
- New entrants into the labour market are more likely to trust their employing organisations than more experienced employees.
- Senior and managerial employees are more likely to engage in positive discretionary behaviour in the workplace and to form an emotional attachment to and moral obligation towards their employing organisations.
- Employees at staff level are more likely to experience psychological contract violations and to have negative perceptions of organisational support and justice. Hence, these employees tend to experience poorer quality social exchange relationships with their employing organisations than senior and managerial employees. As a result, they are also more likely to hold cynical attitudes towards their employing organisations.
- Senior and managerial employees are more likely to hold horizontal collectivist dispositions than employees at lower levels.
- Trade union members are more likely to perceive low levels of organisational support than nonmembers.

Based on these findings it can be concluded that organisations should focus more on employees' personal (gender, population group and level of education) and work-related (tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics when developing employment relations strategies aimed at enhancing positive relational attitudes and behaviour. The results highlight the fact that negative attitudes and behaviour cannot unquestioningly be ascribed to employment status or trade union affiliation. Instead, there are more significant differences between individuals that affect their attitudes towards and behaviour in the workplace.

10.2.3 Conclusions relating to the central hypothesis

The central hypothesis, stated in Chapter 1, indicated that the relationship between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological

contract violation) and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), as mediated by organisational cynicism and trust, may constitute a psychological framework that will enable industrial and organisational psychologists and employment relations practitioners to better understand employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in a diverse workforce. The central hypothesis furthermore specified that individualism/collectivism as an individual disposition may moderate the relationships between these constructs in a diverse sample of employees, and that employees' perceptions, experiences, attitudes and behaviour may be influenced by individual characteristics (gender, age, population group, employment status, tenure, job level, education level and union membership).

Both the literature review and the empirical study provided evidence to support the central hypothesis.

It is concluded from the empirical findings that the employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) inform their view on the quality of their exchange relationship with their employing organisations, which influences their relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) in the workplace. However, the effect of work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) on relational attitudes and behaviour is mediated by organisational cynicism and trust. Furthermore, individuals' cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism (notably horizontal collectivism) may influence the extent of their attitudinal reactions to organisational events.

Moreover, individuals from different groupings in terms of personal (gender, population group and level of education) and work-related (tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics may differ with regard to their work-related perceptions (POS and POJ), work experiences (psychological contract violation), trust in and cynicism towards the organisation, relational attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) and their disposition in relation to individualism/collectivism (horizontal collectivism).

The relationship dynamics between the variables, as depicted in Figure 10.1, were used to construct a psychological framework that should hopefully enable industrial and organisational psychologists and employment relations practitioners to better understand employees' relational attitudes and behaviour in a diverse workforce. This psychological framework should inform employment relations strategies, policies, procedures and practices that will enhance

relational attitudes and behaviour in the South African organisational context, thereby contributing to organisational effectiveness.

10.2.4 Conclusions relating to the field of industrial and organisational psychology

The inferences made from the literature review, together with the results of the empirical study, should make a significant contribution to the field of industrial and organisational psychology, and more specifically, employment relations management.

The literature review provided new insights into the social exchange dynamics of employment relationships. It showed how employees' expectations in terms of the promissory obligations of their employers, the extent to which these expectations are met and their perceptions about organisational practices in terms of justice and support, are interrelated to shape their views on the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employing organisations. It further revealed how the quality that employees ascribe to their employment relationships, influences their attitudes towards and behaviour in their organisations. Moreover, it was shown that employees' trust in management and their beliefs about the intent and integrity and organisational leaders influence how they react to organisational events. The study should thus contribute to a better understanding of the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions in terms of organisational justice and support, their work experiences (psychological contract violation), their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations and their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

In delineating the metatheoretical context of the study, the literature review ensured an appreciation for the unique nature of and challenges in the South African employment relations environment. It furthermore highlighted the influence that diverse cultural values, as depicted in individual dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism, may have on the ways in which employees experience and react to organisational events. The study also highlighted the importance of understanding and accommodating individual differences in terms of gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership in a diverse South African workforce.

Moreover, the literature review provided new insights into the various concepts and theoretical models relating to employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ), their work experiences (psychological contract violation), their trust in and cynicism towards their

employing organisations, their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) and their individual dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism. In addition, the literature review provided the foundation for the construction of a psychological framework aimed at enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. From the theoretical findings, it may be construed that industrial and organisational psychologists and employment relations practitioners who want ensure better employer-employee relations, should focus on finding ways to encourage positive discretionary employee behaviour in the workplace (OCB) and discourage negative behaviour (CWB) intended to harm the organisation and to stimulate positive attitudes towards the organisation (organisational commitment). Hence, they should focus on the concepts and theoretical models relating to these relational outcome constructs, as well as the variables that have been shown to influence them, including union commitment, organisational cynicism and trust, perceptions of organisational support and justice, psychological contract violations and individual dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism.

The empirical study provided new insights into the relationship dynamics between the theorised antecedent (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation), mediating (organisational cynicism and trust), moderating (individualism/collectivism), outcome (organisational commitment, union commitment, OCB and CWB) and biographical (gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) variables. The new information gained from the empirical analysis helped the researcher to identify the critical relational outcomes (attitudinal commitment and OCB-O) in an employment relations context, and ensured a better understanding of the antecedents to these relational attitudes and behaviour. By taking cognisance of these findings, industrial and organisational psychologists and employment relations practitioners could assist organisations in developing appropriate employment relations policies and procedures to enhance the quality of employees' social exchange relationships with their employing organisations and, in turn, contribute to positive attitudes towards and behaviour in the workplace.

The ultimate relational emphasis in the psychological framework was on employees' attitudinal commitment to their employing organisations and their positive discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation (OCB-O), as these relational outcomes were shown to be the strongest contributors in explaining relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. It could be construed from the empirical study that organisational actions are reciprocated by attitudes and behaviour directed at the organisation specifically, and not individuals in it. Organisational actions and employees' perceptions are also unlikely to affect employees' commitment to

trade unions. Furthermore, it could be inferred, that negative work-related perceptions and work experiences are more likely to be reciprocated by withholding positive discretionary behaviour than by engaging in counterproductive work behaviour. The empirical study thus showed that there are stronger antecedents to individually directed OCB, counterproductive work behaviour and union commitment, paving the way for further research in this regard. However, a significant conclusion that was drawn from the empirical study was that trade union members' commitment to their unions does not have a negative impact on their commitment to their employing organisations, and that dual commitment to these entities may, in fact, have positive relational consequences.

The research revealed the following core premises that may be added to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) as a mechanism for explaining employment relations dynamics:

- By relying on social exchange theory as a theoretical foundation for understanding the nature of the employment relationship, it is implied that the relationship is long term in nature. It therefore reflects employer and employee actions and reactions over time rather than focusing on specific events or experiences.
- The emphasis in terms of social exchange is on establishing balance in the employment relationship, and therefore finding ways of satisfying the needs and achieving the goals of both parties (employers and employees) in the relationship becomes important. Hence, mutual interdependency in the relationship is emphasised.
- These needs and goals are not merely transactional in nature (i.e. work in exchange for pay), but include a range of unvoiced and unspecified expectations and obligations. Employees hold expectations about the benefits to be gained from the relationship, as well as the obligations expected to be fulfilled (as reflected in the psychological contract). While employee obligations are typically well documented, employer obligations in the social exchange relationship are less formal and based on subjective individual expectations. However, these employee expectations and the extent to which they are fulfilled, inform employees' beliefs (organisational cynicism and trust) about their organisations and direct their relational behaviour in the workplace. Employee perceptions of psychological contract violations explain their willingness (or unwillingness) to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour,

and these perceptions are enhanced by low levels of organisational trust and high levels of organisational cynicism.

- The employment relationship is grounded in the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), and employees' judgements in terms of the fairness of this relationship are based on the perceived cost-to-benefit ratio. Hence, employees are inclined to continuously judge the costs and benefits associated with the relationship. If they perceive an imbalance in the relationship, they will make adjustments to restore balance. These adjustments include amending the beliefs that employees hold about their employing organisations as well as their attitudes towards and behaviour in these organisations.
- When employees encounter high-quality social exchange relationships with their employing organisations (i.e. relationships characterised by care, consideration, appreciation and fairness), they experience this as a positive imbalance, and may reciprocate by making themselves vulnerable to the employer (i.e. by displaying a high level of organisational trust). Their trust in their employing organisations encourages a greater emotional attachment to and felt obligation towards these organisations, which, in turn, will enhance their willingness to engage in risk-taking behaviour. Such behaviour may include positive discretionary behaviour that benefits the organisation, but does not form part of their formal job requirements, and may therefore not have any direct advantage for individual employees.
- In contrast, when employees experience a poor-quality social exchange relationship with their employing organisations (i.e. relationships that reflect injustice and unmet expectations), this is regarded as a negative imbalance that gives rise to reservations about the organisation's intent and integrity (i.e. organisational cynicism). Employees restore the perceived imbalance in the employment relationship by emotionally distancing themselves from the organisation and altering their behaviour in the workplace. Hence, they display an unwillingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour (i.e. they only do what is required in terms of their formal job descriptions) or even a tendency to engage in behaviour intended to harm the organisation.
- By enhancing the quality of social exchange relationships, organisations can encourage the development of desirable commitment profiles. Employees with AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles are inclined to associate with the organisation's goals and values and display high levels of emotional attachment to

the organisation. Such employees have a desire to be involved in organisational activities and believe that they have a moral responsibility to the organisation. Hence, they are more likely to engage in positive discretionary behaviour that will advance organisational success. The study thus extended social exchange theory by adding insight into the role of commitment profiles (specifically an AC/NC-dominant profile) in social exchange relationships.

- Employees' perceptions of the extent to which their employers care for their well-being and appreciate their contributions to the organisation are significant determinants of their commitment profiles and relational behaviour. Employees view organisational support as the employer's commitment to maintaining a long-term mutually beneficial relationship and, as a result, reciprocate by developing AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles that reflect an emotional attachment to the organisation and an obligation to contribute to its success, and hence a greater willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour (OCB-O).
- Employees' reactions to organisational events are influenced by their cultural dispositions. In particular, the extent to which employees subscribe to horizontal collectivist values such as equality, interdependency, empathy, sociability and cooperation, affects the extent of their attitudinal reactions to negative beliefs stemming from organisational actions. When these employees perceive organisational actions as contradicting their dispositional values, they are likely to question the intent and integrity of their employing organisations and, as a result, they are less likely to form an affective attachment to or felt obligation towards them. Employees with different cultural dispositions manifest less severe reactions to the same events. Hence, when attempting to understand employees' attitudinal reactions to organisational events, it is essential to take cognisance of their unique cultural dispositions.

Finally, the empirical study endorsed the use of a variety of measuring instruments in the South African organisational environment. These instruments included the following: the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002); the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale (Bennett & Robinson, 2000b); the Organisational Commitment Survey (Meyer & Allen, 1997); the Union Commitment Scale (Bayazit et al., 2004b; Friedman & Harvey, 1986); the Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach measures (Robinson & Morrison, 2000); the Justice Scale (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993b); the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support–Shortened Version (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Hochwarter

et al., 2003b); the Organisational Cynicism Scale (Dean et al., 1998); the Trust in Management Scale (Mayer & Davis, 1999); and the Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b). By reporting the psychometric properties of these instruments in a South African sample, guidelines were provided in terms of the administration of the measures and the interpretation of results obtained by using them in this context. These findings revealed that industrial and organisational psychologists and employment relations practitioners should continue to pay attention to the psychometric properties of particular measuring instruments before applying them in organisational initiatives. Organisations should seek the assistance of professionals to ensure that the administration and interpretation of the results of these instruments are fair and equitable.

10.3 LIMITATIONS

The limitations of the literature review and the empirical study are discussed below.

10.3.1 Limitations of the literature review

The exploratory research on employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ), their work experiences (psychological contract violation), their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations, their relational attitudes (organisational cynicism and organisational trust) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), and their individual dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism in the South African employment relations context was limited for the following reasons:

- Numerous attitudinal and behavioural variables may be of relevance in an employment relations and organisational context. This study explored only two attitudinal (organisational commitment and union commitment) and two behavioural (OCB and CWB) outcomes that were deemed essential.
- A number of antecedents of these attitudinal and behavioural outcomes have been identified in extant literature. The emphasis in this study, however, was on selected antecedents, namely POS, POJ and psychological contract violation. Hence, the study was unable to provide a comprehensive indication of all the factors that potentially influence relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.



- While there is an abundance of research relating to constructs that were included in the theorised psychological framework, and various results relating to the relationships between some of them have been published, most of the research has been conducted in Western individualistic samples. There is a paucity of research investigating these relationships in collectivist cultures and, more specifically, limited research has been conducted in the South African employment relations context. The literature that was consulted to conceptualise the theoretical psychological framework might therefore not have been equally applicable in the current sample, which deviated from the traditional norms.
- In terms of investigating the effects of psychological contract violation on relational attitudes and behaviour, there was no differentiation between the types of psychological contracts held by employees. However, different behavioural outcomes have been reported in extant literature, depending of the nature of the psychological contract (transactional or relational) that employees hold with their employing organisations (Fu & Cheng, 2014). Furthermore, in this study, the psychological contract was deemed to be between an individual employee and his or her employing organisational as an anthropomorphic entity. It is accepted, however, that employees are likely to maintain multiple relationships with diverse organisational representatives and even with different organisations in contemporary employment relationships (Alcover et al., 2017a, 2017b).
- Although it stands to reason that employees' perceptions of organisational support and justice may vary and evolve over time (Caesens, Stinglhamber, et al., 2016), the current study was based on employee perceptions measured at a particular point in time. The antecedents to these perceptions were also not considered, although it is accepted that the value that individuals ascribe to preceding events in the workplace are likely to impact on their perceptions of organisational support and justice (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).
- In this study, organisational trust was regarded as unidirectional, and provision was not made for the development of mutual trust between parties, which might be essential in an employment relations context.
- The proposed psychological framework did not incorporate the interaction between management processes and trust and the development of trust over time (Lewicki &

Bunker, 1996; Nielsen, 2011). It might be expected, however, that variations in the trustee's actions over time would result in changes in terms of perceived trustworthiness and thereby have an impact on the level of trust experienced (Mayer et al., 2011).

10.3.2 Limitations of the empirical study

The findings of the empirical study could be limited because of the generalisability with regard to the characteristics and size of the research sample, and the psychometric properties of the measuring instruments used. The following limitations should be taken into consideration:

- Although the sample consisted of 740 participants, a larger sample would have been preferable to establish the existence of a conclusive relationship between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ), their work experiences (psychological contract violation), their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations, their relational attitudes (organisational cynicism and organisational trust) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), and their individual dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism.
- The sample represented mainly black African females who were permanently employed and had completed their formal schooling, which limited the generalisability of the results to the broader South African population.
- While the sample frame (employed students registered for business management-related qualifications at a higher education institution) provided access to a broad range of employees in a variety of South African organisations, it was limited to employees with higher than average levels of education. The results could differ if similar research is conducted among unskilled employees.
- Grouping job level into two categories (management and staff level) removed some of the explanatory power of the job level variable. Future researchers should differentiate between management levels (i.e. junior, midlevel and senior management) to further explore the influence of job level on aspects such as psychological contract violation, organisational trust, organisational commitment and perceived organisational justice.

- The measuring instruments were reliant on the participants' personal opinions, views and self-awareness, which may have had an effect on the validity of the research findings.
- Every effort was made to ensure the validity and reliability of the measures. Although this contributed to the accuracy of the findings, it meant that some of the theorised relationships between constructs or their dimensions could not be empirically tested. The following shortcomings are highlighted:
 - The validity and reliability of the individual (CWB-I) subscale of the Interpersonal and Organisational Deviance Scale could not be established. Hence, this dimension of CWB was not included in the empirical analyses.
 - Some of the measures that were retained revealed low reliabilities. This included the continuance commitment dimension of the Organisational Commitment Survey, the responsibility to the union dimension of the Union Commitment Scale, and all four subscales of the Horizontal and Vertical Individualism and Collectivism Scales. Hence, the findings relating to these constructs should be interpreted with caution.
 - Although the Organisational Commitment Survey has been widely used in organisational commitment research, both internationally and in South Africa, respondents in the current sample were unable to differentiate between the affective and normative dimensions of organisational commitment. Hence, the theorised interrelationship between the three dimensions of organisational commitment could not be assessed.
 - Similarly, respondents were unable to differentiate between psychological contract breach and violation as measured with the Feelings of Violation and Perceived Contract Breach Measure. Because a psychological contract violation presumes the existence of a breach, only the former was retained for further analysis.
 - Respondents were also unable to differentiate between the procedural and interactional dimensions of organisational justice as measured with the Justice Scale. Procedural and interactional justice were thus retained as a single dimension, with distributive justice as a second dimension. It was therefore not possible to determine whether the procedural and interactional dimensions of organisational justice relate differently to relational attitudes and behaviour.
 - Discriminant validity could not be established for the three subscales measured with the Organisational Cynicism Scale. In an attempt to reach maximum parsimony in the data, only the cognitive dimension of organisational cynicism was

retained. Conclusions could therefore not be drawn relating to the theorised affective and behavioural dimensions of the organisational cynicism construct.

- In order to more accurately compare the interactive effect of multifoci commitment (organisation and trade union), the same measures (AC, CC and NC) should be used to ascertain employees' commitment towards both these entities.
- Although self-reporting measures have been shown to be valid means of determining the frequency of employee behaviour (Berry et al., 2012; Carpenter et al., 2017; Dalal, 2005; Fox et al., 2012; Liu & Ding, 2012; Peng, Wong et al., 2016), concerns have been expressed about the effectiveness of self-rating and the possibility of skewed responses due to the social desirability of workplace behaviour (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). It is anticipated that a well-rounded understanding of employee behaviour might be gained by using multiple sources of information (i.e. supervisor, peer and self-ratings in the same study). Using different source ratings reduces common method variance and improves the accuracy of research findings (Lau et al., 2016).
- No distinction is made between trade union members and trade union officials or representatives. It is possible, however, that the latter will hold higher levels of commitment towards the union (Fullagar, 1986; Magenau et al., 1988) and that this, in turn, will shape their perceptions of union instrumentality and support, which may be vastly different from those of trade union members (Zacharewicz et al., 2016). Moreover, no information was collected on the specific trade unions, although one might anticipate that the levels and antecedents of union commitment may vary for different unions in a single organisation.
- It has been shown in extant literature that levels of union commitment and dual commitment are influenced by the current employment relations climate (Fortin-Bergeron et al., 2018; Kim & Rowley, 2006). Hence, employees who perceive a positive relationship between management and trade unions will be more likely to display high levels of commitment towards both the organisation and the union, while this might differ in organisations with prevailing employment relations disputes and conflict (Snape & Redman, 2012). While inferences were made about employment relations conditions experienced by employees, based on their perceptions of the quality of their social exchange relationships with their employees, the employment relations climate was not explicitly measured in this study. The inclusion of a measure

to ascertain the prevailing employment relations climate (e.g. Cook, MacKenzie, & Forde, 2017; Pohler & Luchak, 2015) in an organisation might enrich the findings of similar research in the future.

- The study related to the South African organisational environment and did not consider the employment relations contexts specific to particular workplaces or organisations. It is plausible that different results could be obtained in different workplaces. For instance, organisations with mainly unskilled blue-collar workers tend to experience higher levels of conflict between labour and management (e.g. organisations in the South African mining sector) (Hill & Maroun, 2015; Humby, 2016). In such organisations, high levels of unionism often prevail, and it is likely that union members would be more likely to direct their loyalties towards their unions if they are seen as instrumental in addressing their needs (Monnot et al., 2011). However, if the trade union is not deemed to be assisting the members in addressing their concerns, the negative employment relationships in the particular workplace might have negative consequences for both organisational and union commitment (Redman & Snape, 2014).
- The biographical variables were limited to gender, age, population group, level of education, employment status, tenure, job level and union membership. Other biographical variables might have exerted a different influence on the research findings. For instance, the size (large enterprises or small businesses) and type (private or public sector) of organisation were not considered, although it is possible that different employment relations conditions would exist in different organisations depending on these considerations.
- Regression-based and mediation and moderation analyses, using the PROCESS (v 3.0) macro for IBM SPSS (Hayes, 2018a) and IBM SPSS version 25 (IBM Corp, 2017) were conducted to examine various interaction effects. While it has been argued that SEM, as an analytical tool, offers more flexibility and has a greater ability to account for random measurement error, it has also been shown that the differences in results obtained from these two methods are negligible (Hayes et al., 2017). While the PROCESS procedure was deemed appropriate in terms of the objectives of this research, it may be argued that isolating the mediating effect according to the Hayes (2018) approach, negates the potential impact of the other variables in the structural model on the proposed indirect relationship. Further research using SEM to test the

mediation effects within a broader SEM model, taking all other relationships in the model into consideration should be conducted.

- The key limitation of the current study was the cross-sectional nature of the research design, which means that causality could not be inferred and that concerns about common method variance might be expressed. This limitation was addressed to some extent by relying on solid theoretical grounds, as reported in extant literature, to construct the pathways between the variables. Although the persistent criticisms of cross-sectional data in terms of common method variance have been questioned (Rodwell et al., 2015; Spector et al., 2006), it is acknowledged that future research employing a longitudinal design would allow for a more comprehensive measurement of the outcomes as they would be investigated over time, and the direction of relationships could thus be inferred.

Despite the above-mentioned limitations, it can be concluded that the study provided valuable information on the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ), their work experiences (psychological contract violation), their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations, their relational attitudes (organisational cynicism and organisational trust) and behaviour (OCB and CWB), and their individual dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism. The results of the study could be regarded as a first step in advancing and stimulating further research into the development of relational attitudes and behaviour in the South African employment relations context from a social exchange perspective.

10.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Because of these research findings, conclusions and limitations, the following recommendations for industrial and organisational psychology as well as practice and further research in this field are discussed below.

10.4.1 Recommendations for the field of industrial and organisational psychology

Based on the research findings, conclusions and limitations, a number of recommendations are made for the field of industrial and organisational psychology, and the management of employment relations in particular. These recommendations serve as indications of ways in which employment relations practice and theory could be expanded to enable industrial and

organisational psychologists and employment relations practitioners to address the relational challenges experienced in the South African organisational environment.

- Employment relations in organisations should not be regarded as a means of dealing only with conflict in collective relations (i.e. the relationship between organisations and trade unions). Instead, organisations should view employment relations as a broad field of application, encompassing all dimensions of the employment relationship. With this relationship at its core, employers need to find ways of balancing the needs and obligations of the parties in the employment relationship and ensuring high-quality social exchange relationships.
- Too much emphasis is often placed on the formal (legal), collective and economic dimensions of the employment relationship, while the reality of employment relations in the workplace is not based on legal rights and duties, but emerges through the daily interaction and interpersonal relationships formed between the parties in the relationship. Although the importance of formal contracts of employment and regulatory requirements in managing employer-employee relationships is not disputed, a broader approach to employment relations management is necessary to incorporate employees' socioemotional needs, as well as both the implicit and explicit obligations of the parties in the relationship. The aim of employment relations policies, procedures and practices should be to embrace the interdependence inherent in the employment relationship, and therefore show concern for the well-being of employees, appreciation for their contributions to the success of the organisation and equity and fairness in decision making and the distribution of resources. Building mutual trust and respect should be regarded as an essential component of successful employment relations.
- The intricate dynamics of employer-employee relationships could be better understood by adopting a social exchange perspective on employment relations. The centrality of reciprocity and mutual benefit in the relationship should thus be emphasised. Employees continuously endeavour to find balance in terms of the costs and benefits associated with their relationship with their employing organisations. These costs and benefits are not only transactional (i.e. work in exchange for remuneration) in nature, but include unspecified and unvoiced expectations and obligations (a psychological contract) that are subjective and individualistic. Investing time and resources in understanding and, where possible, fulfilling these tacit expectations and obligations has been shown to be more effective in terms of building positive employment

relationships over the long term than addressing transactional needs. Hence, a greater awareness and appreciation of social exchange in the employment relationship should be fostered. If employment relations policies, procedures and practices are derived from the principles of social exchange, this will not only enable organisational representatives (e.g. managers, supervisors or employment relations practitioners) to facilitate balance in employer-employee relations, which will benefit the organisation and individual employees, but will also provide guidance on ways of restoring balance when necessary.

- A social exchange perspective on employment relations implies that the behavioural focus should not be on formal job performance only, but should also incorporate discretionary employee behaviour. While positive discretionary behaviour holds undisputed benefits for the organisation, it also affects individual relations and hence the social and psychological context in which employees operate.
- The extent to which employees engage in positive discretionary behaviour in the workplace is mainly driven by their affective attachment to and felt obligation towards their employing organisations. While organisational commitment has been extensively covered in organisational behaviour literature, attention is seldom focused on other foci of commitment. In the South African employment relations environment, it is imperative to consider trade union members' commitment to their unions and its potential influence on their commitment to their employing organisations and their behaviour in the workplace. An understanding of the benefits of dual commitment to these potentially conflicting entities may inform more inclusive employment relations strategies aimed at embracing and empowering trade unions, and ultimately benefiting all role players.
- While organisational justice is commonly regarded as a central theme in employment relations management literature, its operationalisation is often limited to the procedural and distributive dimensions of organisational justice as these elements are largely driven by legal requirements in the South African organisational environment. It is, however, essential that attention should also be paid to the interactional dimension of organisational justice, which requires the demonstration of trustworthiness, reliability and general fairness in organisational relationships. Moreover, the quality of social exchange relationships is not only determined by employees' perceptions of justice in the workplace, but also by the extent to which employers are perceived as fulfilling

their promissory obligations, caring for the well-being of their employees and appreciating their contributions to the organisation in their day-to-day interactions with them. Employment relations as a field of study and practice should thus embrace a broader understanding of the quality of the social exchange relationship rather than focusing on the fair distribution of resources and fair organisational procedures only.

- It should be acknowledged that organisations are faced with numerous economic and social challenges. In addition, employee expectations are not always realistic and employees' perceptions of justice and support are inherently subjective. It is therefore impractical to imply that organisations should always meet the needs of their employees. However, organisational representatives should be empowered by providing them with appropriate means to mitigate the negative effects of unmet expectations and negative perceptions. The results of this study suggest that these means relate to employees' trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations. Employees' tolerance and understanding may be enhanced if organisational representatives (e.g. managers, supervisors and employment relations practitioners) are seen to be competent, honourable (i.e. displaying benevolence and integrity) and sincere. This underscores the importance of including adherence to ethical principles as a core competency in employment relations management practice.
- Finally, employment relations policies, procedures and practices in South African organisations need to be sensitive towards the diverse nature of the workforce. This diversity does not only relate to personal characteristics such as gender, population group and levels of education, but also to employees' cultural dispositions. Existing employment relations management literature mainly reflects Western individualistically oriented values, which may be unfamiliar to or unacceptable for a large portion of the South African workforce, who are of African descent and subscribe to collectivist beliefs. The Africanisation of South African employment relations literature should thus be regarded as a key priority.

10.4.2 Recommendations for practice

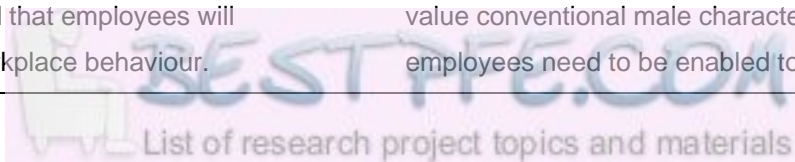
The construction of a comprehensive psychological framework, illustrating the dynamics of the significant relationships between the variables that emerged from the study, provided the impetus for the development a number of individual and organisational interventions that may

be implemented to enhance relational attitudes and behaviour in South African organisations. The recommendations for employment relations practice are outlined in Table 10.2.

Table 10.2

Recommendations for Employment Relations Practice

Organisational level interventions	Individual level interventions
Recommendations in terms of discretionary employee behaviour	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organisations should promote long-term, open-ended relationships with employees that are based on interdependency and reciprocal obligations. The core emphasis in employment relations policies should thus be on building strong employment relationships by focusing on employees as humans with their own socioemotional needs, rather than commodities. Employment relations policies, procedures and practices should not relate to transactional exchanges only, but should also demonstrate an awareness of and a willingness to accommodate the socioemotional needs of employees. The focus of employment relations practices should be on finding ways to encourage positive discretionary behaviour and proactively discourage undesired behaviour and not only on dealing with the negative consequences of the latter. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Senior and managerial employees, who have greater autonomy and more opportunities for interaction and involvement in decision making, display higher levels of positive discretionary behaviour that will benefit the organisation. To encourage positive discretionary behaviour at lower job levels, employment relations policies should provide for mechanisms whereby lower-level employees can interact and communicate with others (from all levels in the organisation) in a nonthreatening environment. Participatory structures should be created whereby lower-level employees are afforded opportunities to make recommendations and participate in decision making on matters that affect them. Managers and supervisors should have discussions with individual employees to establish their needs and to clarify the expectations they have in terms of employer obligations in the exchange relationship.
Recommendations in terms of organisational commitment	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organisations need to create positive work conditions that encourage both a desire to remain in the organisation (affective commitment) and a moral imperative to do so (normative commitment). Employment relations policies should thus be tailored to foster the development of AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles. This will enhance employer-employee relations and increase the likelihood that employees will engage in desired workplace behaviour. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Male employees display higher levels of commitment to their employing organisations than females. Organisations can encourage commitment among female employees by implementing employment relations policies that address gender discrimination in terms of opportunities, recognition and reward, and changing employment relations practices that value conventional male characteristics. While all employees need to be enabled to balance their



Organisational level interventions	Individual level interventions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisations can enhance employees' desire to remain in the organisation (affective commitment) by encouraging involvement, focusing on common objectives and shared values, and providing opportunities for career advancement within the organisation. • A sense of responsibility towards the organisation (normative commitment) can be stimulated by recognising and accepting both parties' mutual obligations in the employment relationship. Furthermore, employees need to have a clear understanding of the organisation's goals and their role in achieving them. • While trade unions are unavoidable in most South African workplaces, antagonistic employer-trade union relationships often prevail. It has, however, been shown that a negative employment relations climate, characterised by hostility and conflict, may result in a unilateral commitment to either the employing organisation or trade union, depending on the perceived support and instrumentality of the entity. While dual commitment to these entities is possible, it only prevails in a positive employment relations climate. Therefore, employers should make a concerted effort to build constructive relationships with trade unions. Employees who perceive a cooperative relationship between these entities are more likely to form a positive attachment to both, and as a result, be more inclined to engage in activities that will benefit all role players. Employment relations policies should therefore provide for the recognition and empowerment of trade unions. Such policies may be regarded as a form of organisational support (i.e. caring for their needs) and fairness (the right to affiliation and representation) by trade union members, which 	<p>work and family commitments, this is especially true for female employees who remain the primary caregivers in South African households.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Black Africans in this study ported lower levels of organisational commitment. This can be ascribed to the Western individualist values that are reflected in employment relations policies, procedures and practices. Organisations need to assess the values and beliefs that employees subscribe to and make a concerted effort to find common ground. Employment relations policies should be revised to incorporate traditional African values that are held by a majority of the South African workforce. • Highly educated employees are less committed to their employing organisations. These employees tend to have greater expectations and more alternative employment opportunities than employees with lower levels of education. If organisations wish to foster greater commitment by these employees, they should engage with them to determine their expectations in terms of development and career advancement and devise ways in which these expectations can be met. • Employment at lower levels in the organisations is also associated with a reduced probability of high organisational commitment. Organisations need to engage with employees at lower job levels. By affording them opportunities to voice their needs and expectations and making a sincere effort to meet these expectations where possible, organisations may encourage greater commitment from these employees.

Organisational level interventions

may enhance the quality they ascribe to their relationships with their employing organisations.

Individual level interventions**Recommendations in terms of the quality of the social exchange relationship**

- Employees hold particular beliefs (which may differ vastly from one employee in the same organisation to the next) about the organisation's obligations towards them. These beliefs are formed mainly through the interactions that employees have with organisational representatives (e.g. executives, line managers, supervisors and employment relations practitioners). Organisations should thus ensure that these interactions create realistic and consistent expectations in terms of employer obligations. Unilateral changes to employment relations policies should be avoided, as these may be interpreted as a violation of employees' established psychological contracts.
- Truthful and accurate communication between employees and organisational representatives regarding expected obligations will enhance a shared understanding of the nature of these obligations and the reasons for nonfulfilment. By instituting a formal socialisation process and creating opportunities for interaction with organisational representatives, organisations may reduce perceived breaches and mitigate employees' emotional reactions when breaches do occur.
- Employees' observations of how others are treated or the nature of organisational policies, practices and procedures may influence what they perceive as promissory employer obligations, which may be transactional or relational in nature. While the transactional component (i.e. the exchange for time, skills and effort by the employee for compensation by the
- Organisations need to engage with individual employees to determine what they hope to gain from the employment relationship.
- There is a need to accept that employees from different demographic groupings (in terms of gender, population group, level of education, etc.) may have different ideas, opinions and perspectives that should be considered and accommodated where possible. Employment relations policies should therefore provide means whereby the views of a diverse workforce can be expressed.
- If employers are unable to meet employee expectations, honest and clear feedback needs to be provided. If employees have realistic expectations, understand the reasons for employer actions and feel that they are being treated fairly and handled with compassion and respect, they will be less inclined to reciprocate by means of negative affective reactions (e.g. cynicism) that are likely to have a detrimental effect on their attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.
- Employment relation policies should reassure employees that their socioemotional needs (e.g. the need for recognition, acceptance and emotional support) are an organisational priority and that assistance will be provided when needed (e.g. in the event of illness, inability to work or mistakes).
- Employees from previously disadvantaged population groups (notably black Africans) tend

Organisational level interventions	Individual level interventions
<p>employer) is understandably important, meeting transactional obligations will not guarantee high-quality exchange relationships. This can only be achieved by appreciating the relational expectations held by employees, which include, inter alia, job security, opportunities for training and development, and prospects for career advancement in the organisation.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisations need to be ethical, fair and consistent in their application of legal provisions, employment contract stipulations and organisational policies and procedures (procedural justice). This can be achieved by being open to voice and input and promoting consistency, impartiality, accuracy, credibility, representivity and ethical conduct. They also need to be fair in their interactions with employees (interactional justice). This can be achieved by treating employees with respect, listening to their concerns, providing them with information about decisions and being empathic towards their needs. • Organisations should pay more attention to organisational support policies to show employees that their contributions are valued and that their well-being is important. This cannot be achieved by means of once-off or haphazard interventions because perceptions of organisational support are formed over time. Organisational policies, procedures and practices should reflect benevolent intent and respect towards employees. Supportive organisational actions should thus include the following actions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – establishing fair employment relations policies and procedures in consultation with all stakeholders and fairly implementing them; 	<p>to experience poor-quality exchange relationships in the workplace, which are reflected in high levels of psychological contract violation and a lack of perceived organisational support. Although organisations are obliged to meet legal requirements intended to address the wrongs of the past, this is not sufficient. Organisations need to converse specifically with these employees to determine the expectations they hold from the employment relationship and what they consider as supportive organisational actions.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Similarly, employees at lower job levels experience poor-quality exchange relationships with their employing organisations. Organisations need to determine the socioemotional needs of these employees and make a genuine effort to address them fairly. • New employees report higher levels of perceived organisational justice than employees who have been with their employing organisations for a longer period. This implies that employees, as they become more familiar with organisational practices, question the fairness of their employers' actions. Employment relations policies and procedures should therefore be developed and implemented in order to assist all organisational representatives (e.g. line managers and supervisors) to consistently apply fairness in their interactions with employees. • Trade union members report lower levels of perceived organisational support than nonmembers. This suggests that employees join trade unions to fulfil their need for support in the workplace if their employers fail to meet these needs. While the value of trade unions in

Organisational level interventions	Individual level interventions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - accommodating diversity-related issues in employment relations policies and procedures (e.g. language policies, communication procedures and skills development) - taking a strong stand against prejudice and discrimination in employment relations policies; - adopting policies and practices that emphasise cooperation and mutual interests; - providing regular opportunities for interaction and feedback from both sides and providing opportunities for employee participation in decision making on matters that affect them; - allowing employees to make suggestions for improvements relating to operations, working conditions and work practices and giving honest consideration to these suggestions; - implementing employment relations policies aimed at recognising, valuing and rewarding employees' contributions to organisational goal achievement; - affording opportunities for training and development; and - implementing conditions of employment aimed at accommodating employees' specific needs (e.g. flexible work arrangements). 	<p>addressing particular employee needs (e.g. a need for belonging to a like-minded community and the provision of legal advice) that organisations cannot fulfil should be acknowledged, their support should not supersede that of the organisation, because this could result in a unilateral commitment to the union which may have detrimental consequences in terms of trade union members' attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation. Hence, while employment relations policies should provide for the recognition and empowerment of trade unions, their role in the workplace should be clearly defined. While this role should not be confined to collective bargaining or advising and representing employees in disciplinary matters and grievances, organisations should ensure that trade unions do not become the sole custodians of employees' socioemotional needs. Employment relations policies should provide for ways in which employees can be recognised for their contribution to the organisation and assisted if they experience difficulties, both within and outside the workplace.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisational actions will only be regarded as supportive if they are perceived as sincere, discretionary in nature and consistently applied. Therefore, organisational interventions should emanate from a genuine concern for employees' well-being. If organisational actions are seen as self-serving (i.e. a means of extending employees' contributions to the organisation) or serving ulterior motives (e.g. gaining public support), or if such initiatives are based on, say, legal requirements or the outcomes of collective bargaining, they will not be regarded as reflective 	

Organisational level interventions**Individual level interventions**

of benevolent employer intent and will not have the desired relational consequences.

- Organisational initiatives should be consistently and continuously applied over the long term. Consistency does not imply a “one size fits all” approach. For organisational actions to be deemed supportive, they should reflect organisational values that demonstrate understanding and acceptance of the social identity and varied needs of a diverse workforce. That being said, employment relations policies should promote equal access to employment, opportunities for development and advancement, and treatment for all categories of employees in the workplace.

Recommendations in terms of the influence of organisational cynicism and trust

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| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees may become cynical towards their employing organisations if they feel that their employers are failing to meet their promissory obligations in the exchange relationship or deal with them unfairly. However, their beliefs about the intent, integrity, sincerity and honesty of organisational actions are based on subjective perceptions, which means that cynicism towards the organisation cannot necessarily be prevented. Organisational interventions should therefore not be aimed at questioning or discrediting employee perceptions because the emotional reactions endure irrespective of their authenticity. The focus of organisational interventions should rather be on limiting the negative emotional reactions to organisational cynicism. • Organisations should ensure that there is congruence between what is stated in employment relations policies and organisational actions. Employees are likely to develop cynical beliefs about the organisation and management if | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees at lower job levels are more likely to be cynical towards their employing organisations than senior and managerial employees. Organisations should therefore create opportunities in which these employees can voice feelings of distress, tension, anxiety, frustration, disillusionment, pessimism and hopelessness, which are typically associated with organisational cynicism. Since employees would probably not be willing to share these feelings with organisational representatives (e.g. supervisors or employment relations practitioners), employee wellness programmes whereby employees are able to gain access to trained professionals may be a way of assisting employees and showing concern for their well-being. • Female employees in this study displayed lower levels of organisational trust than their male counterparts. This can be ascribed to the ongoing gender discrimination experienced by |
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Organisational level interventions	Individual level interventions
<p>there is dissimilarity in terms of espoused policy and practice.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The reasons for organisational decisions and actions should be clearly communicated. Hence, an effective communication policy is essential in building organisational trust. If employers are unable to fulfil their obligations to their employees for external reasons (e.g. financial difficulties), the emotional reaction will be less severe than when they are perceived as unwilling to meet their obligations. Effective communication may also prevent perceptions of injustice and subsequent lack of trust that may arise from negative organisational events. • Employees develop trust in their employing organisations on the basis of their evaluation of organisational trustworthiness, which is reflected in the collective ability of organisational representatives to achieve organisational success, as well as the intent (benevolence and integrity) reflected in their actions and the predictability (regularity and consistency) of these actions. Managerial practices such as the following may enhance organisations' perceived trustworthiness: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – setting realistic but challenging goals for the organisation and its employees; – holding individuals accountable for the achievement of these goals and rewarding them if the goals are successfully achieved; – establishing clear policies and procedures in terms of the allocation of resources and consistently applying them in the workplace; – refraining from an overreliance on formal workplace rules, policies and procedures as this tends to reflect a lack of mutual trust; 	<p>females in the workplace. Organisations may enhance female employees' trust in management by determining which organisational practices are regarded as discriminating against female employees, and adjusting these practices where necessary. Employment relations policies should encourage taking a strong stance against all forms of discrimination.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It has also been suggested that trust is stronger within gender dyads. Female employees would therefore be more trusting towards female managers. However, management positions in South African organisations remain largely occupied by males. While this may to some extent explain the lower levels of trust among female employees, it does not suggest that all female employees should be supervised by females. Mentoring programmes, however, could a significant contribution in this regard. By identifying strong female mentors, organisations could create an environment in which female employees develop greater trust in the ability, intent and benevolence of their employing organisations. • Employees from previously disadvantaged population groups (notably coloureds and black Africans) report low levels of trust in their employing organisations. This can be ascribed to South Africa's history of apartheid and the systematic discrimination experienced by nonwhite employees. While formal programmes in terms of affirmative action, employment equity and skills development might make some contribution in addressing unfair discrimination and redressing inequalities, these programmes are unlikely to build employee trust in

Organisational level interventions	Individual level interventions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - establishing communication channels that foster transparency and information sharing; - providing opportunities for interaction and discussion where employees feel comfortable to express their opinions without being judged; - genuinely considering all proposals from employees and providing feedback in terms of the usefulness thereof; - providing a supportive context (e.g. implementing appropriate reward and information systems, providing opportunities for growth by means of training, educational advancement and coaching and providing encouraging and reliable leadership) in which employees can work towards organisational goal achievement; and - promptly and effectively dealing with conflict in the workplace <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisational policies in terms of, say, selection, promotion, compensation and performance management, should be developed in consultation with employees and fairly implemented to promote organisational trust. 	<p>management among these employees. To restore these individuals' trust in the organisation, employment relations policies and their application in management actions need to reflect compassion, consideration and reliability as organisational values.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Highly qualified employees are more likely to question the trustworthiness of management. These employees tend to doubt managers' abilities to achieve organisational goals and question their intentions. Trusting relationships with these employees can be built by involving them in setting organisational objectives, holding them accountable for the achievement of particular objectives, while enabling them to do so by providing the necessary support and resources, and recognising and rewarding them once the objectives have been achieved. • While new entrants into the labour market tend to display high levels of organisational trust, this trust tends to diminish over time. This may be ascribed to incompetence and malevolence witnessed in managerial actions, which necessitates a re-evaluation of their trustworthiness. Although it is difficult to negate the negative perceptions about managerial trustworthiness that have developed over time, probably in a number of workplaces, the organisation will have to make an effort to restore trust. This can be achieved by openly sharing information with employees, ensuring the credibility of managers, putting controls (e.g. policies, procedures and contracts) in place that will increase the dependability of future behaviour and showing care and concern for employees, thereby demonstrating the organisation's commitment to restoring trust.

Organisational level interventions	Individual level interventions
Recommendations in terms of cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organisations should realise that all South African employees do not necessarily ascribe to the Western individualist values that commonly shape employment relations policies, procedures and practices in local organisations. Employees have different cultural dispositions that influence the way they experience and react to events in the workplace. These dispositions shape the expectations they have of their employing organisations and determine how they react when these expectations are not met. Policy makers should thus take cognisance of cultural differences and the unique cultural values held by South African employees when drafting employment relations policies. The data suggested that employees in South African organisations hold a strong horizontal collectivist disposition. This means that they closely associate with their in-groups and place great value on maintaining balance in social exchange relationships. In this context, employees would thus be more likely to respond positively to organisational policies and practices that emphasise cooperation, common goals and interdependency rather than autonomy and competition. For these employees, organisational support would be essential because collectivistically inclined individuals value empathy with and understanding of the needs of the collective. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The black African males in this study reported higher levels of horizontal collectivism. One would therefore expect these employees to be intolerant towards organisational actions that are detrimental to their in-group. This in-group typically consists of other employees with similar personal characteristics, employed in the same or similar working environments. When they sense a threat to the interests of the in-group or its members, they are prone to hostility towards and negative behaviour in the organisation. When developing organisational policies, cognisance should thus be taken of employees' cultural dispositions and the value they ascribe to communal relationships. Employees who subscribe to a strong horizontal collectivist disposition, will interpret organisational actions not only in terms of their personal impact, but also according to their influence on the in-group and its members.

Because of the cross-sectional nature of the study, the recommendations apply mainly to the specific sample and should not be regarded as applicable to all South African employees. Caution should thus be exercised when implementing these recommendations in specific organisational settings with due cognisance of the differences that may exist in terms of

personal (gender, age, population group and level of education) and work-related (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics.

10.4.3 Recommendations for future research

The findings of the study indicated a need for further research in terms of relational attitudes and behaviour in the South African workplace. The following recommendations are made for possible future research:

- The quality that employees ascribe to their social exchange relationships with their employing organisations, as shaped by their perceptions and experiences in the workplace, did not emerge as a strong predictor of their tendency to engage in counterproductive work behaviour. The inference here is that there are stronger predictors of negative workplace behaviour. In an employment relations context, this may include, for instance, interpersonal and intergroup conflict or organisational constraints (Ayoko et al., 2003; Fox et al., 2001). Alternatively, the relationships between the antecedent variables and CWB may be conditional upon moderating variables that were not tested in the psychological framework constructed in this study. For instance, Spector and Fox (2005), suggested that the magnitude of employees' behavioural reactions to negative workplace events may depend on their perceived level of control. Hence, it is possible that employees who experience injustice in the workplace will not resort to CWB if they have avenues at their disposal to address the perceived injustice (e.g. an effective grievance procedure). However, if employees perceive unfair treatment and have no way of addressing this, they might be more likely to engage in CWB as a means of retribution. Further research is required to determine the main determinants of counterproductive workplace behaviour. This should enable industrial and organisational psychologists and employment relations practitioners to proactively deal with matters that may encourage employees to engage in undesirable behaviour rather than reactively dealing with its consequences by means of disciplinary and counselling procedures.
- While an exploratory attempt was made in this study to investigate the extent to which employees' work-related perceptions and work experiences influence the likelihood that they will resort to collective action (e.g. a strike, picketing or protest action) in order to restore perceived imbalances in the employment relationship, the validity of the items developed to measure this factor (i.e. collective action as a form of CWB) could

not be confirmed. It is thus recommended that a measure be developed that focuses on collective action, as a specific form of CWB intended to redress, draw attention to or express dissatisfaction with organisational events (Kelloway et al., 2010) in the South African organisational context.

- The literature review revealed that the various components of organisational commitment (AC, CC and NC) do not only have differential effects on employee behaviour (Kam et al., 2016), but also that these components are intertwined, resulting in a synergistic effect on behaviour (Jaros, 1997; Randall et al., 1990; Somers, 1995). It was posited that optimal commitment profiles exist in that employees with these profiles would be more likely to engage in desirable workplace behaviour (Kabins et al., 2016). The empirical results revealed, however, that the respondents in the current sample were unable to clearly differentiate between AC and NC. Therefore, the affective and normative components of organisational commitment were integrated as a single component (attitudinal commitment) for the purposes of constructing the psychological framework. Although it could be established that attitudinal commitment was a stronger predictor of discretionary employee behaviour (notably OCB-O), than continuance commitment, the interactive effect of the three components could not be established. Future research should be conducted using a person-centred approach to assign commitment profiles to individuals in order to determine how these profiles might influence their perceptions and experiences in workplace or affect their attitudinal and behavioural reactions to these perceptions and experiences. It is recommended that future research be conducted, focusing specifically on these commitment profiles and their relationship with employee behaviour in the workplace.
- In unionised environments, research in terms of individual commitment profiles, might include not only the dimensions of employees' commitment to their employing organisations, but also their commitment to their trade unions, because these potentially conflicting targets of commitment may influence one another (Cooper et al., 2016; Meyer, Stanley, et al., 2013). It was established in this study, that dual commitment to an organisation and trade union is possible in in the South African organisational context. It was also implied that dual commitment to these entities might enhance employees' willingness to engage in positive discretionary behaviour in the workplace. Extant literature has suggested, however, that dual commitment is only possible in a constructive employment relations climate. This corresponds with the description of the sample in which positive perceptions of and experiences in their workplaces were generally reported. It is posited that the duality of commitment to

these potentially conflicting entities may not be equally viable in antagonistic employment relations environments. Further research is required in terms of dual commitment in negative employment relations climates and the subsequent interactive effect of these on foci of commitment. In addition, research should also be conducted to establish the antecedents of dual commitment and understanding its influence on organisational outcomes.

- Since this study was conducted from an organisational perspective, the need was to determine to what extent organisational commitment is influenced by union commitment. However, it has also been shown in the literature (Bamberger et al., 1999) that organisational commitment is not only an antecedent of union commitment, but also mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and union commitment. Research to gain a better understanding of the interrelationship between organisational and union commitment and how they relate to other antecedent and outcome variables, could make a significant contribution towards comprehending the development and effect of union commitment in the South African employment relations environment.
- While a significant negative relationship between psychological contract violation and union loyalty was reported, this relationship was not further explored as part of the psychological framework owing to the limited contribution made by union commitment in terms of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. However, South African employers are often unable or unwilling to offer continued employment, competitive salaries or certain levels of benefits, which could be viewed as a breach of the psychological contract. If trade unions are considered instrumental in compelling employees to address these unmet expectations, it is anticipated that trade union members might reciprocate with increased loyalty towards such unions. Further research on the expectations that trade union members have of their employing organisations and their emotional, attitudinal and behavioural reactions in the event of these expectations not being met, might contribute to a greater understanding of the role and value ascribed to trade unions in the South African employment relations environment.
- Extant literature has suggested that perceived procedural justice is a stronger predictor of positive attitudinal and behavioural outcomes than distributive justice (Akanbi & Ofoegbu, 2013). Employees' perceptions of injustice in terms of the distribution of

resources might therefore not negatively influence their attitude towards and behaviour in the organisation if appropriate reasons for the perceived inequality are provided and fair procedures are followed in the allocation of resources. It has furthermore been suggested that interactional justice may be a stronger predictor of relational attitudes and behaviour in collectivist cultures (Ehrhardt et al., 2012; Lee & Wei, 2017). While this study set out to determine the differential effect of the three organisational justice dimensions on employee attitudes and behaviour, only two dimensions emerged from the data. Respondents were unable to differentiate between procedural and interactional justice. Hence, these two dimensions of justice were combined as a single dimension, with distributive justice as a second dimension. This may be attributed to the mainly collectivist nature of the sample. Additional research may be necessary to further explore the potential moderating effect of cultural disposition on the relationship between POJ and attitudinal (organisational commitment) and behavioural (OCB) reactions. Such research should not be limited to the individualism/collectivism dimension.

- Although the current research confirmed the interactive effect of POS, POJ and psychological contract violation, as indicators of the quality of the social exchange relationship between employees and their employing organisations, on relational attitudes and behaviour, the details of this interaction have not yet been fully explored. For instance, it has been suggested that POS may be considered an intervening variable in the relationships between employees' perceptions of organisational justice and their attitudinal and behavioural reactions to these perceptions. While POJ in isolation may thus not be regarded as a significant predictor of desired attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, its predictive influence may be indirect through the enhanced perceptions of organisational support associated with fairness in the employment relationship.

Similarly, employees' perceptions of organisational support are driven by the extent to which employees believe that their employers are fulfilling their promissory obligations in terms of the psychological contract. While perceived psychological contract violations have thus been shown to negatively influence employees' discretionary behaviour in the workplace, the specific focus of psychological contract violation (i.e. the fulfilment of immediate needs) might suggest a short-term change in behaviour. However, if employees' perceptions of the extent to which their psychological contracts are fulfilled are regarded as a contributor to their perceptions of organisational support, which as an aggregate and long-term focus, the anticipation is that the indirect

influence of psychological contract violation (or fulfilment) on OCB through POS may be stronger than its direct influence on discretionary behaviour. Moreover, it has been suggested that POS may mitigate the undesirable consequences of perceived psychological contract violations. These relationships, however, were not explored in detail in this study. Further exploration of the relationships between POS, POJ and psychological contract violation could help to promote a better understanding of their interactive effect on employee behaviour in the workplace. If organisations were aware of this interaction, they would be able to devise appropriate interventions to maximise the quality of social exchange relationships and thus promote the desired employee behaviour.

- In this study, employees' perceptions of the exchange relationship were investigated. Although this approach of emphasising employee perceptions is in keeping with the dominant employee-centred approach to psychological contract research (Rousseau, 1995), future research using data from the employer's perspective would contribute to a greater understanding of mutual expectations in the employment relationship and its influence on reciprocal attitudes and behaviour.
- The formation of psychological contracts and employees' reactions to psychological contract violations are influenced by their cognitive frameworks, and one of the factors that shapes employees' cognitive frameworks is their experiences with previous employers (Sherman & Morley, 2015). Researchers could gain greater insight into employees' expectations in terms of the psychological contract and their reactions when these expectations are not met, by investigating not only their relationships with their current employing organisations, but also their previous work experiences. An employee who has experienced a psychological contract breach or violation in the past, is more likely to expect the same in his or her new employment relationship (Sherman & Morley, 2015). In addition, the reasons for perceived breaches of the psychological contract were not identified. However, it has been reported in extant literature that the intensity of employees' reactions to a perceived breach may be influenced by the reason for the breach (Wei, Wang et al., 2015). Further research in terms of the antecedents of perceived psychological contract breaches and their influence on employees' emotional reaction to a breach could provide greater insight into the formation of high-quality social exchange relationships in the workplace.

- In terms of perceptions of organisational support, the focus in this study was on an overall perception held by employees, based on the extent to which they regard their employer as being appreciative of their efforts and caring for their well-being. It has been shown, however, that abrupt or unexpected positive or negative events, having an important symbolic value to employees, might also lead to an increase or a decrease of POS among employees (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Examples of such events might include retrenchments, mergers or a lack of promotion opportunities. Research specifically focusing on employees' perceptions of organisational support in response to such events, could make a significant contribution in terms of POS research.
- While this study explored dual commitment to the organisation and trade union, helping to gain greater insight into the effect of multiple commitments in the workplace on employee attitudes and behaviour, it was limited to two foci of commitment. According to Cooper et al. (2016), there are a number of other commitment targets, both inside and outside the organisation. These targets of commitment may include, for instance, commitment towards a profession, supervisor, client or job. Further research is required to determine how commitments to a variety of targets influence one another and ultimately influence employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.
- In this study, it was found that employees' trust in their employing organisations intervenes in the relationships between their work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and their relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Further research should be directed not only at finding effective ways of enhancing trust between employers and employees, but more importantly on repairing trust in instances where it has deteriorated, as broken trust has serious consequences for both the organisation and individuals in it (Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017).
- This study relied mainly on social exchange theory to explain the relationships between variables. However, this is not the only relevant theoretical lens. Other theories that have been relied upon to explain the relationships between these variables include, for instance, affective events theory (e.g. Colquitt et al., 2013; Holtz, 2013; Jacobs et al., 2014) and uncertainty avoidance theory (e.g. Biswas, 2016; Cetin et al., 2015; Liu & Ding, 2012). Hence, although social events theory was deemed a solid theoretical foundation for the proposed psychological framework, it is anticipated that a greater

understanding of the relationships between the variables might be gained by also considering alternative theoretical perspectives.

- Although mediation in the proposed framework focused specifically on the mediating role of organisational cynicism and trust in the relationships between employees work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation) and their attitudes (attitudinal commitment) and behaviour (OCB-O) in the workplace, the SEM results implied that attitudinal commitment might also play an intervening role in the relationships between the independent variables and OCB-O. Even though these results suggested the existence of a more complex relationship between organisational cynicism and trust, attitudinal commitment (as a possible mediating variable) and OCB-O, further investigation of these relationships was beyond the scope of this study. It is thus recommended that serial mediation analysis (Hayes, 2018a; Kane & Ashbaugh, 2017) be used to further explore these relationships in future research.
- The sample in this study consisted of employed students at a higher education institution in South Africa. While the suitability of the sample for the purposes of this study was comprehensively argued, it is acknowledged that a certain degree of sampling bias may exist affecting the homogeneity of the sample relative to the working population. Similar research in corporate samples is recommended to test the findings in a broader South African employment context.
- Future studies should consider longitudinal designs to recognise the dynamic nature of the employment relationship. Longitudinal research designs may extend the current research by assessing the value added by the suggested recommendations. By measuring all variables prior to, during and after suggested organisational interventions, it might be possible to determine whether the relationships between the variables remain consistent. A longitudinal study of the interactions between the elements of the proposed psychological framework would also allow researchers to test the assumptions regarding the directions of causality in the framework, thereby enabling more substantial causal inferences that might promote deeper insight into the development of relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

10.5 EVALUATION OF THE STUDY

The study examined the existence of interrelationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POS, POJ and psychological contract violation) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations, their personal dispositions in terms of individualism/collectivism and their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace. It was posited that examining the interrelationships between these variables would contribute to a greater understanding of the nature of the employment relationship and would offer new insights into employment relations practices aimed at enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

The findings suggested that positive discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation and attitudinal commitment towards the organisation were significant outcomes in employment relations. The findings furthermore indicated that there are specific interactions between the variables that might provide new insight into employment relations practices aimed at encouraging desirable employee attitudes and behaviour in South African organisations.

10.5.1 Value added at a theoretical level

At a theoretical level, this study highlighted the importance of refocusing employment relations as a field of study and practice on its core element, namely the employment relationship. It was shown that a broader view on employment relations management should be adopted, incorporating the individual and informal dimensions of the relationship, which have received limited attention in South African employment relations literature. It was argued that employment relations practices in South Africa, with its unique socioeconomic and political challenges, should move away from its overreliance on legislation and formal procedures, and that other means should be found to encourage positive employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

The literature review contributed to existing employment relations theory by identifying and clearly conceptualising a number of constructs of relevance in enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in the South African employment relations environment. Appropriate theoretical models were identified and used to comprehend the relationships between these variables in an effort to construct an integrated theoretical psychological framework. The study furthermore

showed that social exchange theory might be used as an overarching theoretical lens for exploring the relationship dynamics in an employment relations context.

The behavioural component of the framework related to both positive (OCB) and negative (CWB) discretionary behaviour that shapes the organisational, social and psychological context in which the parties to the employment relationship function. The attitudinal emphasis was on employees' attachment to two potentially competing entities (the organisation and the trade union) and the possibility of dual commitment to these entities. By investigating the antecedents of OCB, CWB, organisational commitment and union commitment that have been reported in extant literature, the elements of an integrated theoretical psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour were identified and conceptualised in the context of a culturally diverse South African workforce. These antecedents included employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), as well as their trust in and cynicism towards their employing organisations. It was also hypothesised that employees' cultural disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism, as well as their personal (gender, age, population group and level of education) and work-related (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics, may influence how they experience and react to workplace events.

At a theoretical level, the integrated psychological framework that was developed following a comprehensive literature review might contribute to existing employment relations management literature by highlighting relationships between variables that have not been examined in a South African employment relations context. The insights gained from the literature review could be used to inform employment relations policies and practices aimed at enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour, with due cognisance of the diverse nature of the South African workforce. This might also guide further research on the development of high-quality social exchange relationships and the influence of cultural and demographic differences on workplace relations.

10.5.2 Value added at an empirical level

At an empirical level, the contribution of this study was the construction of an empirically tested psychological framework for enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in the South African employment relations context. The study should therefore make a novel contribution by providing empirical support for theoretically posited relationships between variables that have not been tested in this context, thereby extending social exchange theory. These relationships include the interactive effect of work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work

experiences (psychological contract violation) on attitudinal (attitudinal commitment) and behavioural (OCB-O) outcomes; the mediating effect of organisational cynicism and trust in the relationship between these antecedent variables and the attitudinal and behavioural outcomes; and the association between attitudinal commitment and OCB-O.

The insights gained from the empirical results, which highlighted the centrality of organisationally directed OCB and attitudinal commitment as relational outcomes in employment relations and identified an AC/NC-dominant commitment profile as a meaningful psychological state that significantly influences OCB-O, should make a contribution to social exchange theory as a lens for understanding the dynamics of employment relations in a South African organisational context. Further possible contributions to social exchange theory would be providing empirical support for the interactive effect of work-related perceptions (POS and POJ) and work experiences (psychological contract violation), as indicators of the quality of the social exchange relationship, on relational attitudes and behaviour and revealing the dominance of POS as an antecedent variable. In addition, organisational cynicism and trust were identified as significant antecedents of relational attitudes and behaviour. It was shown that employee experiences of psychological contract violation and perceptions of injustice contribute to organisational cynicism, which, in turn, leads to a deterioration of desired relational attitudes and behaviour. In contrast, positive employee perceptions in terms of organisational support and justice were shown to enhance organisational trust, which, in turn, encourages positive attitudes towards and behaviour in the organisation.

Moreover, the study provided an indication of the dominant cultural disposition (horizontal collectivism) held by South African employees and extended social exchange theory by empirically confirming that employees' disposition in terms of individualism/collectivism might influence how they experience and react to organisational events. The empirical results indicated that specific personal (gender, population group and education level) and work-related (tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics might influence individuals' perceptions and experiences in the workplace and ultimately their work-related attitudes and behaviour. Given the diversity of the South African workforce, the empirical results should make a valuable contribution in terms of identifying those factors that organisations need to consider when developing employment relations policies and implementing interventions aimed at enhancing relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

Finally, the empirical results should make a contribution to the field of industrial and organisational psychology by assessing the psychometric properties of a number of measurement instruments that have only been used in international settings. By ensuring the

validity and reliability of these measurements in a South African sample, this study should encourage further research on these constructs in the South African organisational context.

10.5.3 Value added at a practical level

At a practical level, the development of an empirically validated psychological framework contributed to an enhanced understanding of the relationship between employees' perceptions and experiences in the workplace and their impact on work-related attitudes and behaviour. Based on this understanding, recommendations were formulated in terms of employment relations policies and practices at both organisational and individual level (see Table 10.2).

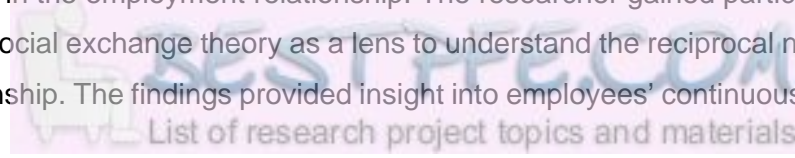
Firstly, it was emphasised that employment relationships are based on interdependency and reciprocity. Hence, employment relations policies and practices should not only be aimed at meeting organisational objectives, but also addressing employee needs. While the transactional needs of employees were not disregarded, social exchange principles were relied upon to show that employees are more likely to make an effort on behalf of the organisation that exceeds the required (job-related) performance standards if they experience an affective attachment to and moral obligation towards their employing organisations (as reflected in AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles). It was also shown that AC/NC-dominant commitment profiles would be more likely to develop when high-quality social exchange relationships exist that enhance employees' trust in their employing organisations and prevent employee cynicism towards the intent and integrity of their organisations. Suggestions were therefore made in terms of organisational level employment relations policies and practices that might be used by employment relations practitioners and industrial and organisational psychologists wishing to enhance relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace and contribute to organisational success. Propositions in terms of organisational practices related to the nature of the interactions between organisational representatives and employees, while suggestions in terms of employment relations policies related to elements such as communication, socialisation, employee involvement and participation, training and development, career management, organisational support, diversity and discrimination, conditions of employment and conflict management. It was emphasised that cognisance should be taken of the horizontal collectivist values (interdependence, group cohesion, cooperation and equality) held by a large portion of the South African workforce but are not reflected in organisational policies.

Secondly, it was postulated that, because of the diverse nature of the South African workforce, individual level interventions would also be necessary to enhance relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. Such interventions should focus on determining the unique needs and expectations of employees and providing opportunities for all employees to engage with organisational representatives, to make recommendations and to participate in decision making on matters that affect them. It was emphasised that employment relations policies should be amended to provide for the needs of marginalised employees (e.g. women and black Africans) whom organisations have traditionally disregarded. Furthermore, it was stressed that honest and clear communication with individuals is essential – not only to establish their expectations in terms of the employment relationship, but also to provide reasons when these expectations cannot be fulfilled. It is hoped that by considering the differences between employee groups (based on personal and work-related characteristics) that were reported in this study, employment relations practitioners and industrial and organisational psychologists will be able to make valid suggestions in terms of individual-level interventions that organisations could implement. These interventions would align individual needs and objectives with organisational goals and thereby enhance the quality of social exchange relationships in the workplace, ultimately contributing to organisational success.

Finally, it is anticipated that, by implementing the suggested organisational and individual interventions, employment relations practitioners and industrial and organisational psychologists will enable organisations to contribute to the social imperative of reducing inequality in the South African workforce, and ultimately in the broader South African society. By providing for African collectivistically inclined cultural values in employment relations policies, organisations could redress historical imbalances and promote mutual respect and inclusiveness in an effort to enhance transformation in South African organisations.

10.6 REFLECTION ON DOCTORATENESS AND CONCLUSION

To conclude, in conducting this study, the researcher's own understanding of employment relations as a field of study and practice was extended beyond the traditional focus on conflict, collective bargaining and formal procedures emanating from legislation and regulations. She felt compassion for the employment relations-related challenges that persist in contemporary organisations by gaining a deeper understanding of the historical development of employment relations in South Africa and the events that have given rise to the long-established conflict between the parties in the employment relationship. The researcher gained particular insight, however, by using social exchange theory as a lens to understand the reciprocal nature of the employment relationship. The findings provided insight into employees' continuous striving for



balance in employer-employee relations and the ways in which both employees and organisations may benefit by ensuring that this balance is achieved.

The psychological framework emanating from the research findings added a broader perspective on how employees' relational attitudes towards and behaviour in their employing organisations develop. The insights gained from the research findings extended social exchange theory as applied in a South African sample by highlighting the significance of high-quality social exchange relationships and suggesting that such relationships might be established by making a sincere effort to understand and address employees' socioemotional needs in the workplace. Hence, organisations should be aware of the reciprocal obligations and expectations in the employment relationship. They should make a genuine effort to meet their obligations and provide honest feedback if they are unable to do so. The findings further suggested that organisations should create a fair and enabling environment, where employees' contributions to the organisation are valued and their well-being is prioritised. Organisational actions should reflect benevolence, compassion and integrity and an appreciation for and consideration of individual differences. The researcher values the significance of these findings, which emphasise the humaneness of employment relations.

The study contributed to the doctorateness and graduateness of the researcher as an academic and employment relations practitioner. As an academic, the researcher gained insight into the ways in which industrial and organisational psychology as a field of study and practice, and specifically employment relations as a subfield focusing on employer-employee relationships, might be extended by adopting a social exchange perspective and focusing on reciprocity and mutual benefit. The researcher also reflected on the nature of the South African workforce with a view to developing theory that resonates with a largely African collectivistically inclined workforce. As an employment relations practitioner, the researcher benefited by gaining an understanding of how balance may be facilitated in employer-employee relations. The practical recommendations emanating from the research findings should guide the researcher in her role as a management consultant in her endeavours to help organisations deal with psychological factors that may influence relational attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

The doctorateness achieved by completing the current study should enable the researcher to contribute to the national objectives in terms of improvement of education, training and innovation by increasing the percentage of PhD qualified staff in the higher education sector. Furthermore, the researcher should make a contribution to research and the improvement of qualifications that are regarded as critical components of transformation in the South African

higher education sector. The research should also play a role in the achievement of the University of South Africa's transformational objectives of considering the African context (culture and values) and dealing with Eurocentrism in higher education.

10.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The aim of this chapter was to integrate the research results and discuss the conclusions of the study in terms of both the theoretical and empirical aims. The potential limitations of both the theoretical and the empirical study were identified. This was followed by recommendations for future research. The research was integrated by highlighting the extent to which the findings of the study provided support for the relationships between employees' work-related perceptions (POS and POJ), work experiences (psychological contract violation), their cynicism towards and trust in their employing organisations, their relational attitudes (organisational commitment and union commitment) and behaviour (OCB and CWB) in the workplace and their personal dispositions in terms of individualism collectivism. A comprehensive psychological framework for enhancing employment relations was constructed, incorporating the extent to which employees' personal (gender, age, population group and level of education) and work-related (employment status, tenure, job level and union membership) characteristics influence these perceptions, experiences, attitudes and behaviour.

This chapter achieved the following empirical research aim:

Research aim 10: To formulate recommendations for employment relations practices and future research

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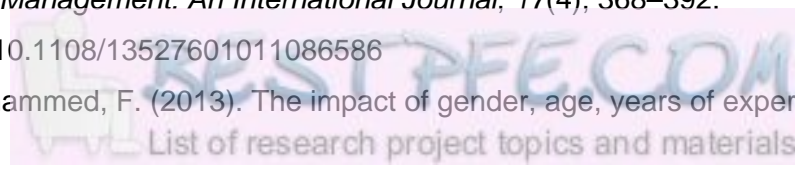
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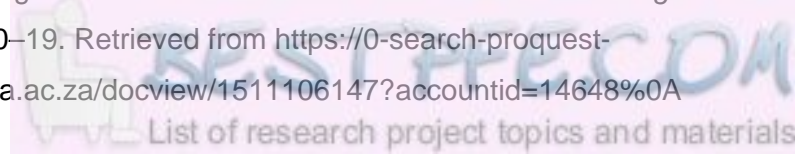
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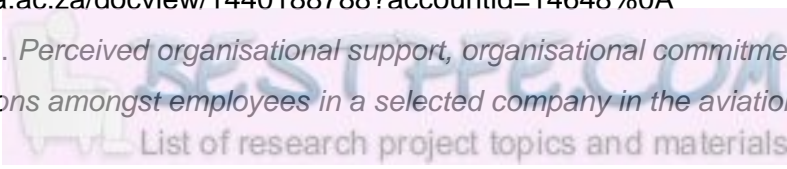
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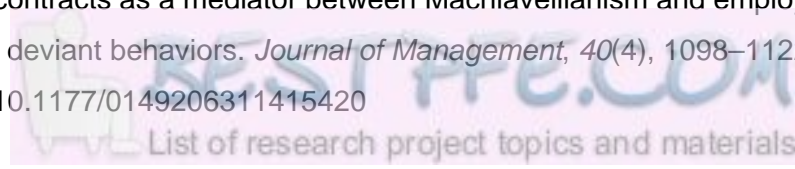
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APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE OBTAINED FROM THE CEMS/IOP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE



CEMS/IOP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

07 November 2014

Ref #: **2014/CEMS/IOP/016**
Name of applicant: **Monica Kirsten**
Student #:
Staff #: **1114794**

Dear Monica Kirsten,

Decision: Ethics Approval

Name: Mrs Monica Kirsten
AJH van Der Walt Building, Office 03-55
Department of Human Resource Management
College of Economic and Management Sciences
University of South Africa

E-mail: kirstm@unisa.ac.za

Tel: (012) 429 4924

Supervisor: Prof M Coetzee

Proposal: Constructing a psychological framework for enhancing employment relations in the South African organisational context

Qualification: DCOM IOP

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the **CEMS/IOP** Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Final approval is granted.

The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the CEMS/IOP ETHICS COMMITTEE on 07 November 2014.



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The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

- 1) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
- 2) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the (CEMS/IOP Ethics committee) Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.
- 3) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.
- 4) [Stipulate any reporting requirements if applicable].

Note:

The reference number [#2014/CEMS/IOP/016] should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication [e.g. Webmail, E-mail messages, letters] with the intended research participants, as well as with the CEMS/IOP Ethics committee.

Kind regards,



DR O LEDIMO
Chairperson: IOP Ethics Committee
College of Economic & Management Science
Tel: +27 012 429 8278



PROF T MPOFU
(Acting) Executive Dean
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APPENDIX B: ETHICAL CLEARANCE OBTAINED FROM THE RESEARCH PERMISSION SUBCOMMITTEE (RPSC) OF THE UNISA RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE (URERC)



RESEARCH PERMISSION SUB-COMMITTEE OF SRIHDC

26 January 2015

Ref #: 2015_RPSC_003 (RS)
Mrs Monica Kirsten
Student #: 3555-445-2
Staff #: 1114794

Dear Mrs Monica Kirsten,

Decision: Research Permission Approval

Name: Mrs Monica Kirsten
Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology
College of Economic and Management Sciences
UNISA
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082 678 5261

Supervisor:
Prof Melinde Coetzee
Coetzm1@unisa.ac.za

A study titled: "Constructing a psychological framework for enhancing employment relations in the South African organizational context."

Your re-submission regarding permission to conduct research involving UNISA students in respect of the above study has been received and was considered by the Research Permission Subcommittee of the Unisa Senate Research and Innovation and Higher Degrees Committee (SRIHDC) on 20 January 2015.

It is my pleasure to inform you that permission has been granted for this study, for the period between 1 February 2015 and 30 November 2016, with the following provision:

1. The RPSC has granted you permission to distribute hard copies of questionnaires to all students registered for study schools' held by the School of Management Sciences and the Centre of Business Management during 2015 and 2016.
2. Permission to obtain the email addresses of all students registered in the School of



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Management Sciences and Centre for Business Management during 2015 and 2016 in order to disseminate an online questionnaire.

3. The RPSC cannot grant you permission to access the cellphone numbers of students to promote voluntary, free participation of the students in your study.

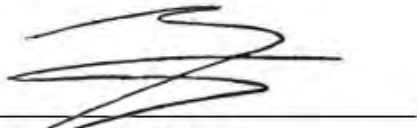
You are requested to submit a report of the study to the Research Permission Subcommittee (RPSC@unisa.ac.za) within 12 months of completion of the study.

Note:

The reference number [2015_RPSC_003] should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants.

We would like to wish you well in your research undertaking.

Kind regards,



PROF L LABUSCHAGNE
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR: RESEARCH

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APPENDIX C: A TIMELINE OF THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Table C.1

The Historical Development of Employment Relations in South Africa

Colonialism (± 1652 – 1870)	
<i>During this period employment relations entailed master-servant relationships (individualist in nature).</i>	
1856	The Master and Servants Act 15 of 1856 regulates relations between a slave and his or her owner.
Industrialisation (± 1870 – 1947)	
<i>This period is characterised by conflict and the rise of trade unionism (i.e. collective employment relationships).</i>	
1870	Discovery of gold.
1872	Discovery of diamonds.
1881	The first trade union – a branch of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners – based in Great Britain starts operating in South Africa.
1886	Active gold mining (industrialisation) begins. Inequality and conflict between skilled and unskilled workers exist from the outset. Skilled workers consist mostly of white men recruited from Europe and Australia. Unskilled workers include, in addition to the black population, migrants from Mozambique, India and China, as well as white Afrikaners who lost their livelihoods during the South African War.
1896	The first truly South African union – the South African Typographical Union – is formed for white members only.
1897	The first reported strike by a trade union takes place in Randfontein.
1899 - 1901	The South African War contributes to the development of a new class of unskilled, urbanised white labour resulting in a militant struggle by white skilled (English-speaking) workers to maintain the differential between skilled and unskilled labour. Fewer black people are prepared to offer cheap labour on the mines as wages are lowered by 30% on the pre-war rates.
1904	Since white workers can no longer supply all the necessary skills, Chinese workers are brought in to alleviate the cheap labour crisis. The Transvaal Labour Importation Ordinance (ordinance 17 of 1904) is promulgated to protect the interests of the white European miners prohibiting the employment of non-South African, nonwhite workers in specified occupations.
1909	The Industrial Disputes Prevention Act 20 of 1909 is promulgated to regulate labour relations in general.

1907 - 1914	Large-scale strikes by white workers, now organised in industrial unions to include semi-skilled workers, take place in the mining and transport industries.
1910	The Union of South Africa comes into being on 31 May 2010 with the unification of four previously separate British colonies: the Cape Colony, the Natal Colony, the Transvaal Colony and the Orange River Colony. The Labour Party (<i>Arbeidersparty</i>), a professedly democratic socialist party representing the interests of the white working class, is formed.
1911	The Mine and Works Act 12 of 1911, barring Africans and coloureds from being training as skilled and artisan workers, is enacted. The Native Labour Regulation Act 15 of 1911 is promulgated to regulate black labour matters. No provision is made for collective bargaining and the Act does not provide means for black workers to raise their grievances.
1912	The South African Native National Congress (SANNC) (later to become the ANC) is formed and black political mobilisation gains momentum.
1913	The Natives Land Act 27 of 1913 promotes structured segregation.
1914	In response to increasing industrial unrest, the Workmen's Compensation Act 25 of 1914 and the Riotous Assemblies and Criminal Law Amendment Act 27 of 1914 are passed by the government granting them wider powers to curtail public unrest caused by individuals and trade unions.
1914 - 1918	The First World War results in a decline in available labour.
1919 - 1920	The first black trade union – the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union of Africa (ICU) – is established. There is increasing labour unrest, especially by black trade unions.
1922	The Rand Rebellion highlights the increasing animosity between black and white workers. White miners in the coal and gold mines engage in a violent strike, which soon becomes a full-blown rebellion including armed confrontations between commandos, formed by the striking workers, and police and defence force. The strike lasts 70 days during which more than 200 people die and as many as 1 000 are seriously injured. The political and labour relations consequences of the strike are significant, highlighting the increasing animosity between black and white workers – black workers are seen as a major threat to white interests.
1923	The South African Native National Congress (SANNC) changes its name to the African National Congress (ANC).
1924	The Industrial Conciliation Act 11 of 1924 repeals the Disputes Prevention Act 20 of 1909 and formalises trade unionism in South Africa but prevents black workers from joining trade unions, thus setting the scene for a dual employment relations system. The South African Party is ousted by the National Party, in a pact with the Labour Party, reflecting a shared concern to protect the white worker from both the (English-speaking) capitalist and the black worker.
	The inexperienced black trade union movement experiences unique problems relating to migrant labour's peculiarities, class differences (skilled and more aristocratic union leaders

alongside unskilled members), money shortages and the clash between two factions (one much more pro-militancy than the other), which gradually leads to its demise and downfall by the end of the 1920s.

1925 The Wage Act of 27 of 1925 is passed. Its aim is to establish machinery for the formulation of conditions of service and minimum wage levels for workers in cases where the relevant employers and workers are not organised.

1929 - The Great Depression results in large-scale movements of labour.
1939

1934 - The Van Reenen Commission is appointed and this leads to the promulgation of the
1937 Industrial Conciliation Act 36 of 1937 replacing the 1924 Act. The definition of an employee contained in this Act inadvertently affords black women (nonpass-carrying individuals) the opportunity to join registered trade unions.

The Wage Act 44 of 1937, regulating the affairs of black workers who are not included under the definition of a worker, as well as white workers who are not unionised, is also passed.

1939 - The Second World War has an impact on the labour supply.
1945

Apartheid (±1948 – 1989)

During this period a dual employment relations system (in terms of race) is promoted.

1948 The National Party comes into power.

1948 - The Industrial Legislation Commission of Inquiry (the Botha Commission) investigates
1951 existing employment legislation and recommends new legislation – separate laws for black and non-black workers.

1952 On 26 June 1952 the Defiance Campaign – the first large-scale, multi-racial political mobilisation against apartheid laws under a common leadership – is launched by the ANC.

1953 Following recommendations made by the Botha Commission, the Native Labour (Settlement of Disputes) Act 48 of 1953 (later known as the Black Labour Relations Regulation Act) comes into effect. This Act provides for the establishment of workers' committees for black employees in an attempt to deter trade unionism among blacks. These committees, however, are ill conceived as few employees have the expertise to initiate their establishment and ensure their effective functioning. Although a limited number of such committees are formally registered (only 24 by 1973), they remain the only legitimate form of black worker representation until 1979.

The South African Communist Party (SACP) is secretly launched.

The South African Congress of Trade Unions (SACTU), a nonracial trade union, starts working closely with the ANC in its political campaigns.

1955	The Freedom Charter is signed by the Congress Alliance (including the ANC, SACTU and other Congress Alliance organisations) on 25 and 26 June 1955, paving the way for a united, nonracial and democratic South Africa.
1956	The Industrial Conciliation Act 28 of 1956 (later known as the Labour Relations Act) is passed, introducing far-reaching discrimination in employment matters and statutory job reservation. This Act prohibits Asian, coloured and black workers from joining or holding office in multiracial unions and stipulates that mixed unions should either split into single-race unions or form segregated branches of white unions, which were to remain under white leadership.
1957	The Wage Act 5 of 1957 is passed.
1970 - 1973	There is a renewed outbreak of strikes and labour violence by disgruntled black workers including, inter alia, black bus drivers employed by PUTCO in Johannesburg and black nonunionised workers in Natal (now KwaZulu-Natal). In January and February 1973 an estimated 100 000 workers take to the streets in Durban to demand wage increases.
1973	The Black Labour Relations Regulation Amendment Act 70 of 1973 is promulgated providing for the establishment of liaison committees to address black workers' need for representation. This Act provides for the establishment of liaison committees, as an alternative to workers' committees, at plant level with the main purpose of improving communication between employers and their black employees. Black employees are also given limited freedom to strike in terms of this Act. The Act is, however, not intended to include black trade unions in the process of collective bargaining but rather to suppress their perceived increasing power. The Act does not succeed in addressing the problem of increased black worker militancy. On the contrary, it highlights the shortcomings in the employment relations system – a lack of formal and acceptable collective bargaining structures and procedures for black workers.
1976	On 16 June 1976 between 15 000 and 20 000 black students march on Orlando Stadium in Soweto to demonstrate their dissatisfaction with the educational system for black people. The police open fire and two people are killed. This action incites demonstrations throughout the country, which continue for months, resulting in 575 dead and 2 398 wounded people. Many trade unionists are detained, which initially retards trade union growth. Local and foreign capital intensifies pressure on the government to introduce political change.
1977	The Black Labour Relations Amendment Act 84 of 1977 is promulgated, with the aim of improving the position of black workers, particularly with regard to the machinery for negotiation.
1977 - 1979	The Wiehahn Commission investigates the South African labour relations system and makes recommendations for a new labour policy.
1979	The Industrial Conciliation Amendment Act 94 of 1979 is implemented giving employees of all races and their unions equal rights. The Act grants freedom of association to all workers regardless of race, sex or creed, and allows all trade unions (irrespective of their

	composition in terms of colour, race or sex) to register. This results in a rapid increase in unionisation of black working people.
1981	The Industrial Conciliation Act is amended through an amalgamation of laws and renamed as the Labour Relations Act 28 of 1956. The Black Labour Relations Act 48 of 1953 is repealed, effectively removing all discriminatory measures on the ground of race, colour or gender from labour legislation. The Labour Relations Act 28 of 1956 heralds several important developments in South African employment relations granting full autonomy in respect of trade union membership and removing all racial restrictions. It also provides for the formation of the industrial court.
1985	COSATU is established with 33 affiliated trade unions and an initial membership of 450 000.
1986	There is a sharp increase in unrest, violence, strikes, school and consumer boycotts, and stay away actions mainly driven by the ANC/COSATU/SACP alliance.

Democracy (±1990 - current)

Social dialogue and legal reforms are aimed at offering all employees with equal protection, but political and socioeconomic problems prevail impacting on employment relations.

1990 - 1993	The dismantling of apartheid begins with negotiations concerning a new dispensation at CODESA.
1990	Nelson Mandela and other political prisoners are released. The ANC, PAC and SACP are unbanned and restrictions on 33 organisations including COSATU are lifted. The ANC/COSATU/SACP alliance (tripartite alliance) is formalised.
1993	The new interim Constitution is accepted.
1994	The first democratic elections take place. The new coalition Government of National Unity (GNU), dominated by the ANC, is widely perceived as pro-labour. This is in direct contrast to previous governments, which were perceived to have a market-business bias. The pro-labour approach is reinforced by the continued alliance between the ANC, COSATU and the SACP.

The GNU continues to support the free-market principle as a means of economic growth while making an effort to address South Africa's economic and social problems by implementing the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) as the guiding policy-direction document for government resource allocation. This programme focuses on the upliftment of previously disadvantaged communities and individuals by means of education and training, affirmative action, job creation and programmes to address unemployment.

South Africa is formally readmitted to the International Labour Organization (ILO) and pledges support for the four core ILO conventions covering collective bargaining, freedom of association, trade union rights and maternity rights.

1995	The National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC) is formed showing a move towards corporatism.
1996	The RDP is replaced by the Growth, Employment and Distribution policy (GEAR), leading to early signs of tension in the tripartite alliance. GEAR is not well received by COSATU and the SACP who blame it for increased levels of poverty and unemployment.
1997	The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 108 of 1996 becomes effective on 4 February 1997, entrenching fair labour relations practices as a fundamental right (section 23).
1996 - 1998	The Department of Labour introduces a five-year plan directed at fundamental changes in the country's labour dispensation through policy and legislative reforms resulting in the implementation of the following new Acts: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 • the Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997 • the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 • the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998
1998	There is a new wave of strike action as a result of slow delivery on election promises, and the jobs summit is convened to address unemployment.
	In an attempt to address the unemployment crisis, a jobs summit is convened with representatives from government and organised business and labour.
1998 - 2000	There is a decrease in the collective impact of trade unions and a decline in strike activity. This is a direct result of organisations downsizing their labour requirements and increasingly making use of temporary and part-time labour (which has a detrimental impact on trade union membership) as well as harsher legislative requirements relating to strikes.
	GEAR fails to facilitate the job creation aspired to and unemployment levels continue to escalate.
2001	Approximately 1 000 000 COSATU members participate in a national strike against privatisation.
	The Unemployment Insurance Act 63 of 2001 is promulgated providing for the provision of benefits to unemployed people.
2002	The Labour Relations Amendment Act 12 of 2002, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act 11 of 2002 and the Unemployment Insurance Contributions Act 4 of 2002 are promulgated. The amendments to these Acts are intended to address escalating economic and labour problems.
2003	The Strategy for Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) is officially launched by the Department of Trade and Industry in March 2003. This strategy is criticised, however, as being elitist and not addressing the needs of the majority (the poor and unemployed).

	Further legislative changes are introduced with the promulgation of the Skills Development Amendment Act 31 of 2003 and the Unemployment Insurance Contributions Amendment Act 32 of 2003 which makes contributions by employers to the Unemployment Insurance Fund mandatory.
2004	<p>The changing labour legislation introduced by the ANC-led government results in extensive controversy – aspects thereof are opposed by various parties including business, neo-liberal economists, some political parties and even groups of the unemployed who regard the laws as generally serving the interests of a “labour aristocracy”, and interfering too drastically with market forces.</p> <p>In his State of the Nation address in Parliament in February 2004, President Mbeki reconfirms the commitment of the ANC-led government to creating a people-centred society, with people free from poverty and without the radical inequalities that apartheid had brought to the country.</p> <p>The Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act 53 of 2003 becomes effective on 21 April 2004.</p>
2006	<p>The Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA) is launched with the aim of introducing policies to increase economic growth and thereby alleviate poverty and unemployment.</p> <p>A three-month strike in the private security industry results in 60 murders committed by striking workers.</p>
2007	The public sector is subjected to a large-scale four-week strike, characterised by widespread intimidation and violence. This contributes to 9.2 million working days lost to strike action during this year.
2007 - 2008	The global economic crisis results in large-scale retrenchments and a decline in union membership.
	The Joint Initiative for Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA) is announced.
2005 - 2009	A battle for leadership in the ANC (Mbeki vs. Zuma) results in a move from a perceived pro-capital (Mbeki) to a pro-labour (Zuma) dispensation. Although the ANC government seems to take a more socialist-oriented approach, the tensions between the alliance partners persist.
2010	The New Growth Path (NGP) is tabled with the intention of directing new economic policy development. The focus of the NGP is on job creation, but government finds it difficult to reach a balance between the increased labour productivity and higher wages necessary for sustained economic growth and the wage moderation needed to enable job creation and ensure a good standard of living for the poor.

The National Development Plan (NDP) is introduced, but again this plan places massive strain on the ANC/COSATU/SACP alliance. COSATU argues that the NDP is reminiscent of GEAR and that it will not succeed in creating decent work, thereby having little real impact on the poor. Government and its social partners struggle to agree on the appropriate policy framework for South Africa as reflected in a variety of policy changes since the onset of democracy (RDP, GEAR, JIPSA, AsgiSA, NGP and NDP). The policy framework is criticised as pro-capitalist and contributing to increased unemployment, stagnant real wages and increased inequality.

Growth in atypical employment practices gives rise to propositions to amend the BCEA, the EEA and the LRA to protect vulnerable workers. A new Employment Services Bill providing for public employment services is tabled.

Another widespread public sector strike results in 20.7 million working days lost due to strike action during this year.

2012 The National Development Plan 2030 (NDP) prepared by the National Planning Commission is adopted by Cabinet.

AMCU supersedes the National Union of Mineworkers (NUM) as the dominant trade union in the Platinum industry marking the rise of more militant trade unions.

An unprecedented strike wave starts at Impala platinum mines and spreads to coal, iron and other sectors. At the end of the strike, at least three people have been killed, 58 injured and 29 hospitalised. They were all assaulted on their way to work as a punishment for not supporting the strike action.

The Marikana massacre is a turning point in South African employment relations. Labour unrest in the platinum industry results in the death of 34 workers. This defining event forces a re-examination and redefinition of employment relations and the management thereof in South African.

2013 The Basic Conditions of Employment Amendment Act 20 of 2013 and the Employment Equity Amendment Act 47 of 2013 are promulgated.

Of the total number of strikes recorded, 52 per cent are unprotected. It is estimated that the country lost about R6.7 billion in wages due to labour unrest during this year.

2014 The Employment Services Act 4 of 2014 and the Labour Relations Amendment Act 6 of 2014 are promulgated.

Large-scale labour unrest takes place in the agricultural and automobile manufacturing sectors. The longest strike in South African history takes place in the platinum sector. The strike lasts five months and workers lose R10.7 billion in wages while the companies

involved, Anglo American Platinum, Impala Platinum and Lonmin, lose R24.2 billion in revenues. This is followed by a four-week strike by over 200 000 members of the National Union of Metalworkers of South Africa (NUMSA) employed in the metal and engineering sector.

Although the number of strike instances decreases from 114 in 2013 to 88 in 2014, the magnitude of the strike in the mining sector results in a 455.7 per cent increase in workdays lost from 2013 to 2014.

2015 COSATU's general secretary, Zwelinzima Vavi, and largest affiliate, the National Union of Metalworkers of SA (NUMSA), is expelled from the federation in November 2015.

The number of strikes shows a significant increase (25%) across all economic sectors, with unrealistically high wage demands by workers negatively impacting on competitiveness in all industries.

2017 Political turmoil and ideological differences lead to deepening divisions in the tripartite alliance. A new trade union federation, the South African Federation of Trade Unions (SAFTU), is formed. A number of trade unions previously affiliated to COSATU (notably NUMSA – prior to its expulsion COSATU's largest affiliate) join this federation. This negatively impacts on COSATU's membership and further weakens the tripartite alliance.

Sources: Alexander (2013); Anstey (2013); Béliard (2016); Bendix (2015); Bhorat et al. (2014); Bond (2013); Chamber of Mines of South Africa (2014); Chinguno (2013); Commission for Conciliation Mediation and Arbitration (2016); Department of Labour (2013); Department of Labour (2014); Finnemore & Joubert (2013); Jacobs & Yu (2013); Kaufman (2004a); Lavender (2014); Macmillan (2017); Nel et al. (2016); Nkosi (2017); Pons-Vignon & Anseeuw (2009); SEIFSA (2014); Swanepoel & Slabbert (2012); Venter et al. (2014); Von Holdt (2010).

APPENDIX D: INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH

Dear Student

If you are currently registered for a business management-related qualification at the University of South Africa (Unisa) and employed in a formal organisational setting, you have the opportunity to participate in a research project relating to individual perceptions and experiences in the workplace.

The aim of the research is to construct a psychological framework for enhancing employment relations in South African organisations. Various psychological constructs are investigated for this purpose, including employees' general nature, their work-related perceptions and experiences in the workplace and the attitudes and behaviour resulting from these experiences and perceptions. Specific emphasis is placed on employees' cynicism towards their employing organisations and managers.

Approval to conduct the research has been obtained from the University of South Africa. However, your participation is voluntary and you are free, at any point in the process, to withdraw from the study without offering any explanation. You do not need to share any information that you feel uncomfortable disclosing. All responses are completely anonymous and will not be traced back to a particular individual. The results of this study will be utilised for research purposes only.

If you are currently employed in a formal or organisational setting and willing to share your experiences in the workplace, kindly access the online survey by clicking on the following link:

<http://survey.unisa.ac.za/index.php/129915/lang-en>

The survey will be available until 3 June 2016.

It should not take you more than 30 minutes to complete all the questions in this survey.

Please read and follow the instructions provided.

Note that the online survey platform LimeSurvey works best in Google Chrome or Firefox.

Your input will contribute to the representativeness of the sample, which increases the generalisability of the study. By participating in this study, you will not only contribute to the research, but may also assist in making a positive contribution to enhancing employment relations in the South African context.

It is recommended that you complete the survey in one sitting but, if you are unable to do so, you may return to it later by clicking on the "Resume later" option at the bottom of the screen. If you click on the "Resume later" button, you will be asked for a username and password (create your own) that you can later use to continue the survey. When you wish to continue, simply click on the link to the survey (above) again and then click on the "Load unfinished survey" button. You will be required to insert the username and password that you created and will then be able to continue with the completion of the survey. Receiving an error message while completing the survey is usually due to internet connectivity problems. In the unfortunate event of this happening, please use the "back button" of your search engine to navigate back to the last screen complete and proceed with the survey.

It is not anticipated that participating in the study will harm you in any way. However, should you require further information or have any concerns, you are most welcome to contact me (kirstm@unisa.ac.za).

Thanking you in advance for our participation.

Yours faithfully

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