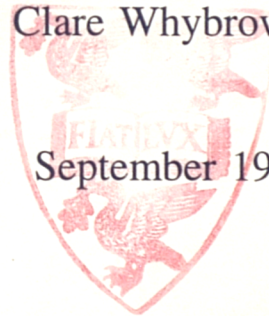


***TENURE AND TURNOVER AMONG DIRECT-CARE
WORKERS: THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL ASPECTS***

Thesis submitted in accordance with the requirements of
the University of Liverpool for the degree of Doctor in
Philosophy by Alison Clare Whybrow.

September 1994



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I would like to express my thanks to my supervisors, Ann Davies and Tony Crisp, for their invaluable help and guidance throughout this project. In addition, Tuvia Melamed was a useful collaborator in the early stages. Secondly, thanks to all the support I have received from the Secretarial and Technical staff in the department. The research would not have been possible without the participation and support of employees of the Brothers of Charity, with particular thanks to Ann Hogan and her unending patience. I reserve the greatest thanks to my mother and father, close friends and fellow postgraduates, without whom I would never have got past the starting post. In alphabetical order: Colette Ankers, Caroline Belcher, Judith Covey, Chris Hatton, Hsui Shuang Huang, Mark Kebbell, Ghulam Nabi, Liz Templeton, Sue Thomas, Karen and Valerie Whybrow. Finally, Thank-you to Pete Hawkins who gave me invaluable help putting the whole thing together.

This research was supported by a grant from the Brothers of Charity Services.

ABSTRACT

A person-organisation 'fit' perspective was adopted to investigate the influences on employee tenure and turnover in a service that supports people with learning difficulties in both community-based units and on a residential nursing home site. Questionnaire and interview data were collated to assess the impact of certain variables such as job attitudes and perceptions on turnover intentions, job search behaviour and health.

The aim of the PhD was to explore the psychological and theoretical issues behind staff turnover and ascertain practical steps the organisation could take to reduce turnover of direct-care staff. A reduction in both voluntary and involuntary turnover is beneficial to the organisation, although a reduction in voluntary turnover and an increase in tenure was the primary aim of the research and intervention strategies proposed. The research encompassed a broad range of issues addressed in the Occupational Psychology literature, to assess the relevance of organisational behaviour models and psychological theories to this particular organisation and to achieve a position from which to make informed practical suggestions to the organisation.

General models of organisational behaviour were found to some degree, to be applicable to the present occupational group. Job search behaviour was predicted by intentions to leave and intentions to search, however, job attitudes were also directly predictive of job search behaviour. Tenure and turnover were found to be qualitatively different variables. Tenure being predicted by organisational variables, such as rewards whilst turnover was predicted by demographic variables.

The impact of a pre-orientation employment package was assessed. The results suggested that further use of such packages could have some effect in reducing the discrepancy between expectations and the reality of the job, and reducing perceived stress in the initial stages of employment. The culture of the organisation was thought to have a major impact on whether the organisation is successful in achieving its goals and aims, and was the focus for the final study. The discrepancy between the values and processes of the organisation and the desired values and processes of the employees was also found to affect job attitudes, turnover intentions and job search behaviour.

The research recommended that the organisation implement a comprehensive, pre-employment orientation package, introduce training and development for direct-care staff and address the management structure of the present organisation in order to achieve necessary goals within the changing environment of service organisations.

Preface

The present research was carried out in an organisation supporting people with learning difficulties. The organisation had recently undergone a period of expansion and change in the nature of the support given to the service-users. The organisation had, as a result experienced a period of staff instability it was the to these issues of tenure and turnover within the organisation that the research was initially addressed.

Within services for people with learning difficulties, and health services in general, there have been recent budget constraints introduced. This inevitably conflicts with the goals of such services and is a consideration when making recommendations to services. The employees of these services require a large budgetary allocation and as such, should be an important consideration. It is the employees that service-users interact with and through whom the organisation's goals are achieved. Consideration of the outcomes for service-users has not been possible within the constraints of the research, although this is undoubtedly an important aspect of the effectiveness of employees within an organisation.

The research aimed to address the psychological and theoretical issues behind staff turnover and to ascertain practical steps the organisation could take to reduce turnover. A strategy of research was developed, encompassing a broad set of issues addressed in the Occupational Psychology literature, to assess the relevance of organisational behaviour models and psychological theories to this particular organisation. From this, a position can be achieved from which to make informed practical suggestions to the organisation.

Literature reviews

The introductory Chapters 1 and 2 review organisational behaviour and staffing issues in general, and the case of organisations providing support for people with learning difficulties in particular.

The research started with an evaluation of the theories of the employment relationship, and models of turnover and tenure. There are a number of models of turnover in the literature, all with a similar pattern of development of individuals' responses to the organisation and the resulting organisational behaviour. Four criticisms arise concerning the research to-date.

Interactions between the organisation, the individual and the organisational context have not been addressed. Although turnover is a well established area, there is a lack of generalizability of findings to particular organisations or groups of organisations and their needs. There is a lack of research on staffing issues in the growing area of services for people with learning difficulties. Many of the reports concerning staffing in such services are based on American organisations, and once again, findings may not be applicable to the UK. In addition, there is a lack of consistency in the measures that are used, in the conceptualisation of these measures and indeed the validity of the measures across different types of organisation.

Chapter 3 addresses the literature on occupational stress, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Previous findings relevant to the present occupational group studied are reviewed. Much of the work detailing organisational behaviour among service providers has been carried out on health service personnel, with little conducted in services supporting individuals with learning difficulties. Work on direct-care staff has been more abundant in the USA. However, some frame of reference can be constructed from previous work.

The final chapter in the review section addresses the measures and analytical techniques that are generally used in the present research.

Empirical research

The overall aims of the research were to assess why people were leaving the organisation, through the analysis of a number of variables, and by interviewing exiting employees.

The first study (Chapter 5) was retrospective in nature, the impact of demographic and organisational variables on turnover behaviour and tenure was assessed. In addition, predicting type of turnover from demographic and organisational variables was assessed.

→ The second study (Chapter 6) assessed the impact of the psychological variables of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and perceived stress on the outcomes of turnover intention and behaviour and mental and physical ill health.

The third study (Chapter 7) assessed why exiting employees left the organisation. An exit interview in questionnaire format, was constructed. This detailed what was important to the individual in their job and the important factors in their decision to leave the organisation.

Having assessed how relationships within the organisation are similar to those in the occupational literature in general, the research aimed to address selection procedures and to intervene in the selection procedures with a strategy to reduce the discrepancy between the expectations of new employees and the organisational reality.

A set of observation studies were conducted to achieve a realistic picture of what the job of direct-care worker consisted of (Chapter 8). From the observation studies it was possible to produce an informal description of the job, including both positive and negative aspects in the form of a leaflet. This leaflet was then included in the application pack of a random sample of applicants. The impact of the Realistic Job Preview on job expectations and subsequent job attitudes and turnover intentions and behaviour was assessed in the fifth study (Chapter 9).

The Realistic Job Preview study emphasised the idea of person-organisation 'fit' and on this basis the final study (Chapter 10) was designed to assess the value differences between the individual and the organisation. Thus, the differences between the values and processes of the organisation and the preferred values and processes of employees were assessed. The impact of these differences on the job attitudes and perceptions of employees was described.

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Chapter One: Turnover and tenure: Theories, models of organisational behaviour

Predicting turnover and withdrawal behaviours among staff in any organisation has been a concern for managers and administrators for a considerable time. Research in organisational behaviour to-date has attempted to establish general principles and appropriate intervention strategies to lead to the understanding and reduction of turnover. The type of organisation and occupation studied is diverse, with much of the work focusing on large businesses and institutions. The focus of the present review is direct-care staff supporting people with learning difficulties in 3-6 bed community-based houses, and 6-12 bed nursing home units. Only a relatively small amount of research conducted on organisational behaviour has focused on people supporting people with learning difficulties. Of this, very little has focused on organisations within the United Kingdom, the majority of the research having been conducted in the United States. The growth in this service sector warrants research into the organisational behaviour of direct-care workers.

Although many of the findings in the literature on turnover are generalizable between different groups of organisations and employees (Lakin, Hill, Bruininks, Hauber & Krantz, 1983), the applicability of a general model of organisational behaviour to any particular organisation within the spectrum is limited. Researchers consistently attribute inconsistent results in the testing of models and bi-variate relationships to the diversity of the samples that are studied (Dalessio, Silverman & Schuck, 1986). Cotton & Tuttle (1986) conducted a meta-analysis of the turnover literature, and found that the correlates of turnover did vary with the employee population under study. Type of industry, employee population and nationality can all have an influence. Use of a general model of organisational behaviour to formulate policies and guidelines may be counter-productive for individual organisations. Knowledge of general theories and models of organisational behaviour is an essential background, but focus must be on the specific type of organisation that is being researched.

The purpose of the present review is to 1) highlight the importance of the study of turnover, 2) examine the prevalence of turnover among this occupational

group 3) discuss measurement issues with regard to turnover, 4) to introduce the main theoretical perspectives concerning the employment relationship and their applicability to the study of turnover, 5) to discuss comprehensive models which have been developed and, 6) finally, the review aims to tie the research and the theories together providing a basis from which to evaluate the present research.

1.1 Why is the study of turnover important?

One of the main reasons for the extensive research into withdrawal behaviour and turnover is the fact that excessive turnover rates have detrimental effects to the organisation.

A quote from Lakin, Bruininks, Hill & Hauber (1982) is worth bearing in mind when considering the value of studying staff processes of direct-care workers who support people with learning difficulties:

"Personnel problems need to be improved before normalisation of people with learning difficulties can ever be realised.....it isn't normal for dependent people to have a steady turnover of carers".

George & Baumeister (1981) maintain that an unstable work force engenders an unfavourable working environment, and the organisation cannot function properly to achieve its goals. Numerous negative effects include: higher costs in hiring and training, reduced service capacity, an increased possibility for harmful decisions (Flippo, 1980), reduced staff morale, disrupted patterns of communication and working practices (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992), increased formalisation of rules, increased job stress, low productivity, staff shortages and reduced job satisfaction (Bersani & Heifetz, 1985; Lakin, 1988; Price, 1977; Zaharia & Baumeister, 1978a). A relation between support worker turnover and resident welfare may simply be presumed on the basis of economic grounds, Baumeister & Zaharia (1987) reported a full 80% of the cost of residential service programs is in the form of salaries.

In organisations that are highly dependent on the knowledge, skills and abilities (human capital) of the work force, turnover results in a significant depletion of productive capacity and reduced organisational effectiveness (Balfour & Neff, 1993). It harms the quality of the service provided and also has a negative impact on the well-being of the service-users. Zaharia & Baumeister (1979)

emphasise the importance of the human capital in services for people with learning difficulties:

"Clearly the most valuable resource in pursuit of habilitation and care of mentally retarded clients residing in public facilities is the technician level work force. These are the front-line people who typically assume major responsibilities for program implementation." (p.36).

In such an organisation, Balfour & Neff (1993) suggest turnover rates of over 20% per annum, should be considered a direct threat to the organisation's stock of human capital and its overall effectiveness. Baumeister & Zaharia (1987) suggest that the impact and severity of the losses of staff to the organisation depend upon three things, 1) the relative strength of core staffing, 2) the cohesiveness and morale of core staff, and 3) the time dimension of loss incidence.

Turnover can of course, have positive as well as negative consequences. Cope, Grossnickle, Covington, Durham & Zaharia (1987) found lower performance ratings among leavers as compared to stayers. However, only employees who were *terminated* had performance ratings significantly lower than those who stayed with the organisation. Martin, Price & Mueller (1981) on the other hand, found no significant differences in the performance level of nurses between stayers and leavers. Among voluntary leavers, no performance differences would be expected between stayers and leavers. Thus, involuntary turnover is more likely to be functional for the organisation than voluntary turnover.

Allen, Pahl & Quine (1990) suggest greater stability needs to be offered to staff and service-users alike, with the opportunity for appropriate training, support and supervision helping to create an effective service. This is particularly pertinent in the present organisation. Direct-care workers are often untrained and are not given pre-employment orientation packages. They enter their employment as direct-care workers often unprepared and sometimes, unable to cope with this unfamiliar type of work. Pre-employment orientation, training, support and supervision would relieve a lot of the difficulties of the direct-care workers job.

1.2. *The prevalence of turnover among services for people with learning difficulties*

Among organisations supporting people with learning difficulties in residential facilities, the reported turnover rate per annum has varied widely. Studies in the UK have generated annual staff turnover rates of 7%-16% in larger units and 25-54% in community houses (de Kock, Felce, Saxby & Thomas, 1987), 12% (Stenfort-Kroese & Fleming, 1992), 20%-21% (Felce, Lowe & Beswick, 1993), between 14-32% (Hatton & Emerson, 1992), 15.2% (Hatton & Emerson, 1993a) and 31% among male and 29% among female staff (Allen et al., 1990).

These turnover rates are smaller than those reported in the United States, where the average staff turnover rates in community settings has been estimated to be between 21% and 73% annually (Braddock & Mitchell, 1992; George & Baumeister, 1981; Jacobson & Ackerman, 1989; Lakin & Bruininks, 1981; Lakin, Bruininks, Hill & Hauber, 1982; Larson & Lakin, 1992; Mitchell & Braddock, 1990; Werbel & Gould, 1984). Zaharia & Baumeister (1979) found dismissal rates comprise about 15% of controllable turnover. Baumeister & Zaharia (1987) reported turnover rates between 26 and 35% when reviewing studies among direct-care staff in public residential facilities (Bensberg & Barnett, 1966; Sheerenberger, 1978; Lakin & Bruininks, 1981; Sheerenberger & Jones, 1980; Zaharia & Baumeister, 1979). Riediger & Baine (1987) reported an annual turnover rate of 40% in Canadian community based residential facilities. Tenure was also found to be fairly short, George & Baumeister (1981) found median tenure to be 8.0 months in larger facilities and only 5.5 months in smaller facilities. One reason for the large differences in turnover rates reported could be due to the different ways of measuring turnover, as well as to variations in the organisation studied.

The turnover rates reported in the studies in the UK are not atypical of national labour mobility. Felce et al. (1993) suggest that staff turnover is a permanent feature of staffed housing services for people with severe or profound mental handicaps. However, this does not reduce the importance of attempting to understand and counter excessive detrimental turnover of direct-care workers.

1.3. Measurement of turnover

A number of measures of turnover have been considered. The equation below was the measure of turnover used in the present study:

$$\frac{\text{No.leavers}-\text{No.starters}}{((X-1)+X+(X+1))/3} \times 100$$

X is the organisational size for month for which turnover is being calculated, X-1 is the organisational size for the previous month and X+1 is the organisational for the next month. Thus, an average organisational size is obtained.

Tenure has also been used as a measure of turnover, as well as having been studied in its own right as a predictor of turnover (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992). The diversity in measurement, 25 methods all were counted by Baumeister & Zaharia (1987), leads to conflicting results and a lack of continuity in the research that is conducted.

Tenure is a very different construct to turnover yet the two terms have been used interchangeably in the past. Kemery, Dunlap & Bedeian (1989) were concerned that the distinction between these two variables should be clarified. In their view, tenure should be used to denote length of stay (a continuous variable), whilst turnover should be reserved for truly discrete variables such as termination status (involuntary or voluntary) or qualitatively different types of turnover (functional or dysfunctional). Tenure itself can be measured in a number of different ways, job/position tenure, supervisor tenure and organisational tenure. Clarification of the definition and measurement of tenure and turnover would allow research to be coherently analyzed and future directions established. In the present review, tenure is used to denote time spent with the organisation and turnover denotes termination status.

Although tenure is distinct from turnover, it is often studied in addition to tenure for a variety of reasons. Firstly, turnover differentiates leavers from stayers, but does not differentiate the leaver who has worked for 40 years from one who has worked only 4 days (Ng, Cram & Jenkins, 1991). In this case turnover rate is not particularly informative. The length of employment between the time of the study and quitting provides more useful information. Most studies however, cannot wait until each study participant has left his/her job. Turnover and tenure data is often collected at a cut off point after the completion of the study. Secondly, turnover may be less important to individual organisations than tenure distributions (Pfeffer, 1983). Baumeister & Zaharia (1987) report that job

survival profiles are characterised by two functions: a rapid drop over the first 15 weeks followed by a more gradual decline thereafter. Finally, a third reason for measuring tenure is that the dichotomous status of turnover leads to statistical and conceptual problems (Ng et al., 1991).

1.4. Theoretical perspectives of the employment relationship

One problem in any research is to keep sight of the phenomena we are trying to understand. It is necessary to be clear about the theoretical basis from which the research emanates, the framework of the research and the objectives which the research is attempting to achieve.

Much of the work on turnover and tenure has been atheoretical. Staw (1984) suggested the one exception being the work on Realistic Job Previews. Research into turnover has looked at the process of turnover from a rational decision making stance, testing cognitive links in turnover models. The work can be criticised in that it leads to examination of theoretically unexciting relationships. Staw (1984) maintains that organisational psychologists have tended to be more concerned with research methodology than theory. A number of theories have evolved which redress this imbalance.

Mowday & Sutton (1993) recommend that i) theory should drive the research, theories should be seen as interactive to maximise further development; ii) multiple theories should be brought to bear on recognizably important problems. Finally, a wider consideration of contributions from other disciplines is necessary to develop the area. Specialisation, although increasingly necessary, can pose a barrier to increased understanding of organisations and the individuals and groups as it reduces communication among researchers from different disciplines sharing common research interests.

Three theoretical perspectives are discussed in this chapter: 1) theories regarding the employment relationship from the perspective of the individual, 2) theories from the organisational perspective, and 3) theories which address both sides of the employment relationship, the interactionist perspective.

1.4.1. The Individual's perspective Three theories addressing the employment relationship from the individual's perspective are discussed in this section: i) the attribution and achievement motivation theory, ii) the theory of reasoned action and iii) the image theory.

1.4.1.1. The attribution and achievement motivation theory (Wiener, 1972), suggests the nature of the attributions a new employee makes, affects later decisions by that employee. Affective responses and motivational outcomes depend on the resulting explanation for success and failure. Success in the job can be attributed to one of four reasons, reflecting two dimensions - internal/external and stable/unstable attributions; ability (stable, internal), effort (unstable, internal), luck (external, unstable) and task difficulty (stable, external).

Attribution of success to luck has a positive relationship with turnover in the first few months (Parsons, Herold & Leatherwood, 1985). Correlates of attributions include positive feedback, which has a positive relationship with internal attributions and a negative relationship with turnover. Aversive feedback is positively correlated with external attributions. Satisfaction with the task is positively related to internal explanations for successes and external explanations for failures (Parsons et al., 1985). The attributions that an individual makes for success and failure may be stable or vary from situation to situation.

1.4.1.2. The theory of reasoned action was designed to provide an understanding of complex decision-making processes (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). It assumes that people use the available information to arrive at a behavioural decision such as withdrawing from work. The process is viewed as a hierarchical sequence: a person's *intention* to perform (or not to perform) a specific behaviour is the immediate determinant of the behaviour. Intention is determined by the individual's *affect* or *attitude* towards performing the behaviour, and the person's perception of the social influence or *normative pressure* to perform the behaviour (the subjective norm). Other factors such as personal beliefs affect behaviour through their influence on one of the above components.

Moral obligation was added as a potential predictor of intention by Prestholdt, Lane & Mathews (1987) who applied the theory of reasoned action to nurse turnover. The two alternatives involved in the turnover decision (the option

to remain and the option to resign) were also explicitly recognised. Turnover was found to be determined by differential intention (obtained by subtracting attitude to leaving from attitude to remaining). This in turn was predicted by attitude to leaving, perception of the social influence to remain or resign, and feelings of moral obligation. Thus, the study supported the theory of reasoned action.

1.4.1.3. *The image theory* (Beach & Mitchell, 1990), also involves comparison of alternatives to arrive at a decision to remain in or leave the organisation, but this is based on an image framework. Image theory posits three images; the value image (basic principles that guide actions); the trajectory image (a person's future goals); and the strategic image (the process of attaining the trajectory goals). Two tests are applied to alternatives; the compatibility test (whether the choice 'fits' the value, trajectory and strategic images) and the profitability test: the alternative that maximises outcomes is chosen. For decisions that involve continuing or altering the current state of affairs, the employee judges the fit of the trajectory and strategic images. If there is goodness of fit, the status quo continues, if the fit is poor, either the images or the status quo is changed. Lee & Mitchell (1991) developed the 'unfolding model' from the image theory. This model assesses the influences affecting the choice to stay or leave the organisation at various points in the employment relationship.

Theories concerning the employment relationship from the individual perspective have the values of the individual as a core component. This is explicit in the theories of reasoned action and image theory, but in the attribution the personal values on which attributions are based are more implicit. The theory of reasoned action emphasises the importance of *social norms and obligations* in predicting intent, the attribution theory emphasises the importance of *perceptions* and the image theory emphasises the *individual's goal set*. Each of these components is an important consideration for the individual in considering the employment relationship. It is apparent therefore, that the three theories discussed are complementary, rather than contradictory, explaining different aspects of the influences on individuals' intentions and behaviour.

1.4.2. *The Organisational perspective* Theories based on the organisational perspective concentrate on organisational culture and employment processes that lead to the selection of individuals into the organisation, their socialisation and the organisational reasons behind the termination of the employment relationship. Only one theory viewing the employment relationship from the organisational perspective will be discussed

1.4.2.1. *The career systems theory* (Sonnenfeld, 1990), suggests that organisational staffing activities are driven by the organisation's business strategy, formulated in order for the organisation to achieve its goals in particular types of external environment. This strategy affects activities that the organisation needs to engage in to attract, develop and retain individuals with the appropriate skill mix. The activities are anchored along two dimensions, supply flow (whether the internal or external labour market is used to fill current vacancies), and assignment flow (the basis on which assignments and rewards are made within the organisation). The employment relationship may be severed by an organisation's decision to reduce the workforce to improve performance. Organisation's that support people with learning difficulties are unlikely to terminate the employment relationship using this reduction strategy, as the successful implementation of their business strategies depends on employee loyalty and commitment.

In the organisation under study, termination of employment is most probable where performance criteria have not been achieved, but many also result from lack of 'fit' between the individual and the organisation.

The career systems theory has as its central focus, the values of the organisation, from which the business strategy is formulated to achieve the goals within the external environment. This theory thus mirrors the basic pathway outlined in the image theory. There is the value image (the organisation's values), the trajectory image (the organisational goals) and the strategic image (how the organisation will achieve the goals set). The strategies that the organisation undertakes in order to achieve its goals would ideally consider the contextual effects of the organisation on employees' behaviour. Being aware of those contextual factors in organisational analysis is of importance when considering employee-organisation interaction.

The importance of the organisational context in the employment relationship is highlighted when considering how the individual and organisation interact. The context of the organisation, such as internal labour markets and level of technology, is suggested to have an important influence on every aspect of the organisation and individual responses to that organisation. Capelli & Sherer (1991) cite:

"what is unique about behaviour in organisations is presumably that being in the organisation - the context of the organisation - somehow shapes behaviour, and it is impossible to explore that uniqueness without an explicit consideration of the context" (p.97).

However, there are situations where the intended context may have a minimal influence for example, when individuals or groups are buffered from, or ignore contextual forces. Buffering from the official context can occur where the informal networks are strong and successful in terms of effectiveness for meeting employees' needs. Stevenson & Gilly (1991), observed the unsuccessful introduction of a formal network for staff complaint-handling in a hospital, due to the strength of the informal communication system that already existed. A second example includes individual disposition. Nelson & Sutton (1990), found that reported distress of employees was related to their disposition rather than the organisational context. Habitual routines may also insulate employees from contextual changes because, confronted by a familiar stimulus, these changes are not noticed or are miscoded by employees or groups. Thus, these hidden contextual influences are important when considering the present situation in an organisation and implementing changes.

Schneider (1987) argues that it is people who make the place, and the organisational structures and processes do not cause the feelings, experiences, attitudes, meanings and behaviours that are observed there. Powerful individuals, especially leaders, influence organisational attributes, processes and outcomes by making decisions that affect the organisation, and by shaping the thoughts, feelings and actions of people inside and outside the organisation. Recent research on social context has focused on how individual's behaviour in organisations is predicted by the degree of similarity among the individuals who compose them. Some studies find that increased heterogeneity is an advantage to the workforce,

whilst others argue that increased diversity increases dysfunctional organisational outcomes, such as increased turnover, lower commitment and more absenteeism. March (1991) suggests that the kinds of people hired by the organisation, the rate of socialisation of newcomers and the turnover rate influence stability and change in the organisation's code of work.

Proximity is another important factor when considering the influence that organisational context has on the employees behaviour. Conceptualising influences along a distal-vs-proximal dimension may help sharpen understanding of the environment in which organisations members operate and opens new and potentially important areas for inquiry. For example, although managers may have the legitimate influence over their workers, those that the workers deal with may exert greater influence through their proximity (Rafaeli, 1989). Ancona (1990) found teams were more successful to the extent that they took steps to decrease social distance from their organisational contexts.

The relevance and applicability of organisational decisions and processes to the individual employees will have an influence on those employees. Thus, the way contextual influences are presented to individuals and groups is important. For example, an organisational structure may be characterised as centralised or decentralised, but the impact of centralisation may depend on whether the decisions made by top managers are construed as a constraint on individual autonomy or as creating an opportunity for individuals to focus their attention on tasks they consider more interesting and important (Mowday & Sutton, 1993).

1.4.3. *The Interactionist perspective* These theories are based on an underlying concept of the 'fit' or 'match' between the organisation and the individual. 'Fit' refers here to the congruence between the norms and values of organisations and the values of persons (Chatman, 1989).

1.4.3.1. *The theory of work adjustment* (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), suggests that there must be a match between the individual's needs/values and the reinforcers available in the environment to achieve satisfactory performance and job satisfaction. Consideration must be given to abilities and ability requirements as well as to needs, interests, values and reinforcers in the environment.

1.4.3.2. *The exchange theory* of Grusky (1966), considers how individuals' balance rewards and costs in the work environment and how this balance influences commitment, satisfaction and the decision to leave. Evaluation of rewards and costs occurs in several ways. First, individuals' compare perceptions of rewards received from the organisation to perceptions of costs incurred to the organisation. Second, the desirability of leaving is assessed by i) evaluating the equity of the situation compared to the situation of others, and ii) evaluating the attractiveness of alternatives by comparing perceptions of present rewards and costs with those perceived among alternatives. Finally, ease of leaving is considered by assessing the availability of alternatives and the value of potential losses associated with accepting an alternative. Continuance (calculative) commitment considers the potential losses incurred by leaving an organisation. Attractiveness of leaving is represented by affective (moral) commitment. Commitment in turn, affects intentions to turnover and actual leaving.

Both the theory of work adjustment and the exchange theory have as their basis, the congruence between the individual and the organisation along some dimension. The interactionist theories combine the individual and organisational perspectives considering their dual influence on organisational and employee behaviour. Considering both the organisational and individual perspective is necessary given the profound interaction between organisational context and the individuals and groups that compose the organisation.

1.4.4. Summary The three perspectives discussed provide a substantial explanation of a complex relationship. The theories described are complementary attempts to explain the employment relationship. The individual's disposition, logic and framework of values, goals and strategies, the organisation's framework of values, goals and strategies and the congruence between the individual's needs and organisational rewards and reinforcers all contribute to the observed behaviour of individual's within the organisation. A multi-theory approach to organisational studies is necessary for future research to have any utility in organisational policy and development.

1.5. Models of turnover

Theories of organisational behaviour have generated behavioural models, hypothesising causal relationships between individual and organisational variables, the external environment and the interactions between the three aspects.

1.5.1. Early models of the turnover process The general framework of traditional models of turnover suggest personal, economic, organisational and role-related factors determine work-related affect (job satisfaction and organisational commitment), this determines individuals' intentions to leave, which in turn, influences actual turnover behaviour (Lance, 1991). Early models examined simple cognitive relationships between variables, causality was assumed to be uni-directional and the emphasis was on completely mediated relationships. Work-related affect was greatly emphasised as a determinant of turnover and has been extensively researched as a consequence.

One of the most widely researched models of organisational turnover is that of Mobley and his associates (Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979). A second model, Steers & Mowday (1981), contributed further to the understanding of the turnover process. More recent models of turnover behaviour are developed using the early models as a basis, thus providing a similar frame work from which to conceptualise turnover behaviour (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983).

1.5.1.1. Mobley's model assesses the relationship between work-related affect and turnover. The assumptions of the model are based on the work of Fishbein & Azjen (1975). These state that job attitudes should be directly related to withdrawal cognitions and only indirectly related to actual turnover behaviour with the best predictor of turnover being the employee's intention to leave the organisation.

Mobley et al. (1978) simplified the model, capturing the basic propositions of the original model. The demographic variables of age and tenure were thought to have some influence on job satisfaction, which was suggested to lead to thoughts of quitting. In turn, thoughts about quitting and the probability of finding an acceptable alternative led to intention to search which led to intention to quit.

Intention to quit was then suggested to lead to turnover. Support for the basic pathways: age/tenure - job attitudes - thinking of quitting - intention to search - intention to quit - turnover, has been generated (Dalessio et al., 1986; Dailey, Strasser & Bateman, 1982; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Mowday, Koberg & McArthur, 1984; Spencer, Steers & Mowday, 1983). However, Dailey et al. (1982) suggested that the relationships in the model were more complex than the original bi-variate relationships specified.

Miller, Katerberg & Hulin (1979) re-grouped the original variables into four categories: i) withdrawal behaviour, ii) withdrawal cognitions, iii) career mobility and iv) job attitudes. Withdrawal cognitions were found to predict withdrawal behaviour, whilst job attitudes and career mobility had only negligible contributions to predicting withdrawal behaviour (Miller et al., 1979; Mowday et al, 1984). Hom & Griffeth (1991) supported the withdrawal cognition grouping (combining intention to quit with intention to search), suggesting that the inter-correlations between the separate components warranted this grouping.

1.5.1.2. Steers and Mowday's model suggested individual characteristics, available information about a job/organisation, and alternative job opportunities affect job expectations and values. Job expectations, individual values, organisational characteristics, organisational experiences and job performance influence an individual's affective responses to a job (job satisfaction and organisational commitment). Affective responses may result in the employee trying to change a situation that in turn could influence subsequent attitudes. Affective responses also affect desire and intention to stay or leave, with the choice depending on a variety of both work and non-work influences. Finally, an interaction between intention to leave an organisation and alternative job opportunities leads to actual leaving.

Similarities exist between Steers and Mowdays' model and the model proposed by Mobley and his associates. However, one difference is that the development of work-related affect in Steers & Mowday's (1981) model is suggested to be a result of individual - organisational interaction rather than merely the result of age and tenure, although demographic variables are an important consideration.

A general pattern has emerged from research into turnover behaviour using the outline presented in the two models above. The best predictor of turnover appears to be intention to stay in the organisation. Job attitudes such as organisational commitment and job satisfaction influence turnover indirectly through thoughts of quitting and searching (Lee & Mowday, 1987). Antecedents of job satisfaction and organisational commitment include a variety of organisational and demographic variables. These include pre-employment expectations, leadership consideration behaviour, perceived job characteristics (Michaels & Spector, 1982), job performance, met expectations, job values, organisational experiences and organisational characteristics (Lee & Mowday, 1987). Lee & Mowday (1987) found available information about a job and organisation were significant predictors of met expectations and job values. Individual characteristics were also found to predict job values.

Perceived alternatives have often been suggested to influence turnover along with intentions to leave. However, no definite relationship has been found between perceived alternatives and either intentions to leave or turnover behaviour (Michaels & Spector, 1982; Miller et al., 1979; Mobley et al., 1978; Lee & Mowday, 1987). In addition, alternative job opportunities were not found to predict met expectations and job values (Lee & Mowday, 1987). Looking at perceived alternatives in terms of their relative utility and desirability may be more useful (Hom & Griffeth, 1991).

The details of the relationships between variables beyond the basic propositions in the early models are unclear. There has been a failure to cross-validate the results from different studies, or even within the same study (Mowday et al, 1984). The stability of the influence of different variables is in question. Studies testing Mobley et al.'s (1978) model indicate discrepancies including the actual variables that should be included in the model and the relationships between these variables. The utility of a general model across different occupational groups and within the same group at different points in time is therefore limited. Dalessio et al. (1986) suggest that some of the inconsistencies may arise from the diversity of samples studied, the problem of unmeasured variables (when potential correlates of variables are not considered), the reliability and validity of different measures,

and the use of different measures in different studies. The use of path analytic techniques and associated tests of goodness of fit is suggested to reduce the likelihood of omitting important pathways in the model (Dalessio et al., 1986).

1.5.2. Recent models of the turnover process Present models of the turnover process incorporate recent theoretical developments in the understanding of the employment relationship. The contribution of earlier research being encompassed within the new framework of more recent models.

1.5.2.1. The unfolding model (Lee & Mitchell, 1991) is based on image theory (Beach & Mitchell 1990). This addresses several decision processes that the employee goes through in the employment relationship, which are influenced by different cognitive and organisational variables. Lee & Mitchell (1991) suggested most research to-date insufficiently considers the precipitating events that prompt the turnover process. The initial catalyst for the decision process is a shock to the system or change, that affects the employee whether expected or unexpected. These 'shocks' elicit specific cognitive activity and determine the extent to which organisational commitment and anticipated job satisfaction affect voluntary turnover. This depends on the context and circumstances of the change/shock. The shock initiates the development of a general decision frame. This involves an assessment of the organisation's culture, reflecting shared beliefs, norms, values, and social interpretations, and a personal component which includes the employee's recollection of similar situations, the circumstances and action that was taken. The decision frame is then used to shape and guide present behaviour.

Lee & Mitchell (1991) suggested four general decision pathways: *Decision path 1*: following the shock to the system, a memory probe leads to recognition of a previous response or situation. The remembered response is re-enacted, resulting in voluntary turnover. Work-related affect has little to do with this decision.

Decision path 2: if no match with a previous situation results from the memory probe and no specific job alternative exists, further deliberation takes place. A re-assessment of the basic attachment to the organisation involving the value, trajectory and strategic images results in a response. Organisational commitment and job satisfaction are fundamental to the reassessment and have strong direct

effects on voluntary turnover. *Decision path 3*: with a specific job alternative in mind and no match being found with the memory probe, further deliberation is concerned with the match of the value, trajectory and strategic images with the present situation and the alternative. Organisational commitment and job satisfaction immediately affect assessment of an alternative and have an impact on voluntary turnover. *Decision path 4*: when there is no shock to the system the individual may occasionally assess the present situation, comparing it with his/her values and goals. The outcome of this assessment is job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. A change in the employee or organisation over time so that the image no longer fits, leads to image change or job dissatisfaction. Commitment and anticipated job satisfaction are moderate predictors of turnover, however, they should be strongly predictive of job search activities.

The decision pathways three and four are those which have been most extensively studied in the literature, and are addressed by models such as those developed by Mobley (1977) and Steers & Mowday (1981). Identification of the precipitating event to the turnover decision, if one existed, would allow more valid exploration of the importance of different variables in the turnover process.

1.5.2.2. *The matching model* (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990) was developed from the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). It was suggested that the degree of the match between the individual's values and goals and the organisation's values and goals determines affective outcomes towards the organisation, which in turn determines voluntary turnover. Thus, the individual's values and goals and the organisation's values, goals and context would be of primary importance in the employment relationship and the decision to leave an organisation.

Two further models were proposed which suggest the process of matching between the individual and the organisation is very important in the employment relationship. *The attraction - selection - attrition (ASA) model* (Schneider, 1987), and *the organisational demography model* (Pfeffer, 1983), both assert that personal attributes of the individuals who constitute an organisation's work force, and the interpersonal context created by the mix of personal attributes represented in the work force are key determinants of behaviour.

1.5.2.3. *The ASA model* suggests that organisations evolve towards a state of interpersonal homogeneity through the processes of attraction, selection and attrition. Similarity - attraction effects result in people being attracted to organisations whose members they believe are similar to themselves, similarly, current members will be attracted to similar others. Current members influence judgement of new employees, pressures to encourage dissimilar members to leave, form if the match is judged unsatisfactory. Personality, interests and values are assumed to be dimensions that influence attraction to organisations and the people in them. Schneider (1987) suggests that homogeneity of personalities, values and interests that characterise members within an organisation are what accounts for an organisation's apparent unique quality, or culture.

1.5.2.4. *The organisational demography model* the demographic composition of organisations influences many behavioural patterns, including communications, job transfers, promotions and turnover. Demographic variables assumed important were age, tenure, gender, religion, race and socioeconomic background, as these have been shown to influence peoples' attitudes and values (Pfeffer, 1983). The organisational demography model is similar to the ASA model in that both are suggested to affect the culture and processes of the organisation.

1.5.2.5. *The exchange model* (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983) based on the exchange theory, asserted that the degree to which the individual positively evaluates his or her job should be greater to the extent that the job offers high rewards and low costs. Greater rewards and lower costs did increase employee satisfaction and greater job commitment (desire to maintain a relationship and feelings of attachment). The decision to stay or leave was powerfully affected by job commitment. Tenure, greater investment of resources and poor quality of alternatives also influenced job commitment. Thus, the evaluation of rewards and costs should be considered as an influence on affective responses to the organisation. The results also suggested a direct relationship between affective responses and turnover existed.

1.5.3. Summary The earlier models suggest that turnover cognitions completely mediate the effects of job perceptions and affect on search for alternative

employment and actual turnover. There was considerable support for the sequence from organisational and demographical variables to work-related affect to intentions to quit and search to search behaviour and actual turnover.

Not all research has unequivocally supported the indirect pathway between work-related affect and perceptions and turnover behaviour. Lance (1991) found some support for a causal process: work environment perceptions - affective reactions - withdrawal cognitions and intentions - withdrawal behaviour, yet complete mediation of the effects of prior variables on subsequent variables at each link was not supported. A direct relationship was found between search behaviour and commitment and role stress. Similarly, Rusbult & Farrell (1983) found a direct effect of job commitment on turnover.

Earlier models lack the level of theoretical insight that more recent models encompass. Based on recent theoretical developments, later models offer a greater understanding of the variables and processes underlying employment relationship. In particular, recent developments place considerably more weight on the congruence of individual and organisational values. This congruence or 'fit' between the individual and the organisation is suggested to underlie perceptions of the organisation and job attitudes such as organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Adopting a theoretical interactionist perspective and focusing on qualitative outcomes such as tenure would enhance the existing research into the employment relationship and organisational behaviour.

Lance (1991) suggests precursors of other forms of turnover rather than voluntary turnover need investigation. The causal directions between variables in turnover models should be reconsidered with alternatives explored. Further inconsistencies result from the diversity of occupational groups studied, the variety of measures used to assess one construct and the validity and reliability of measures. A final confounding influence may be the different measures of turnover and the different turnover periods used in the study. These are all points that need to be addressed by future research in the field of organisational behaviour.

At present, only a small percentage of the variance in employee withdrawal behaviour is explained by existing models of turnover. Despite this, they continue to form the basis for organisational research. Lee & Mowday (1987) suggest

comprehensive models are important because i) the model is a starting point from which to evaluate processes, interactions and contexts that have been ignored; ii) they identify and categorise the various factors that previous research has found to be important to the leaving process; iii) research findings based on such models allow hypotheses to be generated concerning the relationships between different organisational and demographic variables; and iv) they have a practical value in helping managers think heuristically about possible causes for employees' leaving.

Chapter Two: Relationship of turnover and tenure with demographic and organisational variables and organisational outcomes: Empirical research

As the title suggests, this chapter is concerned with the findings of empirical research to-date pertinent to the organisational and demographic variables that are studied in the present research. Initially, the relationship between tenure and turnover is discussed, followed by a discussion of the relationships between demographic and organisational variables and tenure and turnover. Finally, the role of tenure as a moderator variable is discussed.

The most comprehensive reviews of the literature include the work of Cotton & Tuttle (1986), Hulin, Roznowski & Hachiya (1985), Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino (1979) and Porter & Steers (1973). They conclude that the existing body of research on the turnover process has left much to be understood about the psychology behind it. Researchers have relied on methodological and statistical procedures to achieve their conclusions. As a result, of this, explanations lack a theoretical basis and are assigned in a post-hoc fashion. Despite the shortcomings of empirical research to-date, the research forms a background as a necessary basis from which to formulate and evaluate hypotheses in the present research.

2.1. The relationship between tenure and turnover

A long tenure would suggest that the individual's goals and values were congruent with those of the organisation. If goals and values were not congruent, the individual would either leave or change his/her values, goals or the strategy to achieve those goals. A long tenure also suggests that a balance exists between rewards provided by the organisation and the costs incurred by the individual. Thus, it would be expected that individual tenure was negatively related to intention to leave and turnover. In support of this, a negative relationship between tenure and turnover has been found in a number of studies (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Balfour & Neff, 1986; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Gupta & Beehr, 1981; Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 1990; Lakin, Hill, Bruininks, Hauber & Krantz, 1983; Werbel & Gould, 1984). Indeed, Mangione (1973) concluded that tenure (length of service) is one of the best single predictors of turnover.

A prospective study of the relationship between tenure and turnover, partially supported a negative relationship. Joy (1990) found employees who had a low score on a prospective measure of tenure were high turnover risk employees. Thus, they had performance reviews in the bottom third of performance ratings, and high absence rates. The relationship between tenure score and turnover itself was not however, assessed.

The results are not equivocal, indeed, no relationship was found between tenure and turnover by Michaels & Spector (1982) or Razza (1993). Inconsistencies between results may be due to moderators and/or mediators of the tenure-turnover relationship, for example, intention to quit, thinking of quitting (Bannister & Griffeth, 1986), social ties, financial ties (Balfour & Neff, 1993), changes in the values or goals of the individual or changing individual needs.

2.2. Turnover tenure and demographic variables

Demographic variables have an important influence on the individuals' value and goal set, the level and type of rewards that they seek from employment and the reasons for them taking the employment initially. Thus, they are an important consideration in any model of organisational behaviour. The empirical research reviewed below is relevant to the variables studied in the present research.

2.2.1. Age Baumeister & Zaharia (1987) suggested young people are more likely to leave employment as they are more restless, mobile, harder to institutionalise and more likely to re-enter education. Older workers however, tend to have greater family responsibilities that encourage job stability. Allen, Pahl & Quine, (1990) suggested services may wish to employ staff in their middle age, especially women with children at school which would require part-time working and flexible shift times.

A negative relationship has generally been reported between age and turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Lakin & Bruininks, 1981; Lakin et al., 1983; Zaharia & Baumeister, 1987) and turnover intention (Lucas, Atwood & Hagaman, 1993). A positive relationship has been found to exist between age and tenure (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Bannister & Griffeth, 1986; Baumeister & Zaharia,

1987; Mobley et al., 1979). The results are not always consistent, Riediger & Baine (1987) and Werbel & Gould (1984) found a positive relationship between age and turnover. Distefano (1988) on the other hand, found no significant differences between stayers and leavers with regard to age. However, the majority of studies reviewed support a negative relationship between age and turnover.

Age may have an indirect effect on turnover through job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Michaels & Spector, 1982). This indirect effect has gained some support (Dalessio, Silverman & Schuck, 1986; Michaels & Spector, 1982). However, Razza (1993) found a non-significant relationship between age and job satisfaction. Age however, is correlated with a number of other variables so alone it contributes little to the understanding of turnover behaviour (Mobley et al, 1979).

2.2.2. *Gender* Some researchers have found a greater turnover rate among women than men (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Marsh & Mannari, 1977) whilst others found no gender differences (Distefano, 1988; Lakin et al., 1983; Mangione, 1973). Cotton & Tuttle (1986) found fewer studies showed gender differences than found no effects at all. Gender effects on turnover were less reliable among non-managerial and non-professional employees. Baumeister & Zaharia (1987) suggest where gender differences exist both social and economic factors may be contributing factors.

2.2.3. *Education* The higher expectations, higher goals and increased perceptions of alternatives associated with increased educational attainment tend to decrease affective organisational commitment and increase the propensity to leave (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). Research has indicated both a negative relationship between turnover and education (Federico, Federico & Lundquist, 1976), no relationship (Distefano, 1988; Hellreigel & White, 1973; Mangione, 1973) and a positive relationship (Balfour & Neff, 1993; Breaugh & Dossett, 1989; Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Lakin & Bruininks, 1981; Lakin et al., 1983; Price & Mueller, 1981; Riediger & Baine, 1987; Zaharia & Baumeister, 1978b), whilst education and tenure are generally negatively correlated (Baumeister & Zaharia, 1987; Mobley et al., 1979). The weight of evidence suggests a positive relationship between education and

turnover. Possible personal and organisational moderators of this relationship which need consideration include the career structure within the organisation, challenge within the career/job, the nature of the job itself, autonomy and personal ambition.

2.2.4. *Place of birth* From organisational demography models, it would be expected that employees within the locality of the organisation would be more similar demographically, and from this be more likely to successfully integrate into the organisation. Marsh & Mannari (1977) however, found those who grew up near their place of work had a higher turnover.

2.2.5. *Family responsibilities* Increased family responsibility has been associated with decreased turnover (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Cavanagh, 1990; Mobley et al., 1979). Number of dependents has a negative correlation with turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986), whilst married persons are somewhat less likely to quit than unmarried persons (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Ng, Cram & Jenkins, 1991). Age and family status were also found to be significantly correlated, with older people indicating a greater tendency to report having children (Werbel & Gould, 1984). Arnold & Feldman (1982) found number of children had a significant and positive correlation with organisational tenure, whilst marital status was not related to tenure.

Family responsibilities as a variable is often composed of both number of children and marital status. Number of dependents may however, be a more valid measure as i) marital status is not as powerful an indicator of family responsibility as it maybe once was, and ii) that husbands and wives may or may not be dependent on one another. Using number of dependents allows for the inclusion of elderly relatives as well as children being classed as dependents.

2.2.6. *Previous experience* Support workers with previous experience would be expected to be more accustomed to the rewards and challenges of the job and therefore, be less likely to leave the organisation as a consequence of the job. A negative relationship between previous experience and turnover was found (Balfour & Neff, 1993). Breaugh & Dossett (1989) found the relevance of prior job experience was also negatively correlated with turnover, indicating that employees with realistic expectations and applicable experience would be less

likely to leave. However, among nurses, greater experience in terms of years of nursing and years in a hospital was negatively predictive of job stress (Lucas et al., 1993), and associated with lower morale (MacRobert, Schmele & Henson, 1993), both were negative outcomes for the nursing staff, which impact on the organisation through absence and lower performance.

2.2.7. *Employment history* consisted of *number of previous jobs and tenure in most recent previous position*. Previous behaviour was expected to be a good predictor of present or future behaviour. Razza (1993) found a greater number of previous jobs, tenure in the most recent position and previous tenures of less than one year were negatively predictive of current job satisfaction. Indeed, those who reported longer tenure at their previous jobs, no more than two jobs prior to the current one and no previous job in which they terminated their employment in less than one year were more likely to report satisfaction with their current jobs. A positive correlation between previous job tenure and present job tenure was also found (Cascio, 1976; Breaugh & Dossett; 1989). Cascio (1976) found previous job tenure to be negative predictors of turnover.

2.2.8. *Intention to improve* Lakin et al. (1983) found employees accepting their direct-care positions for reasons other than professional advancement or fulfilment were more stable. An intention to advance professionally or striving for professional fulfilment may lead to higher turnover rates and lower tenure if a suitable career structure is not available in the present organisation.

2.2.9. *Health* Ill health would be expected to negatively impact the organisation by way of increased absence rates and lower performance. Increased absence in turn, may be presumed to lead to a shorter tenure and a higher turnover rate.

2.2.10. *Personality* Initially there was support for the utility of using personality to predict organisational behaviour, including tenure and turnover. A backlash against the measurement of personality constructs was reflected by Baumeister & Zaharia (1987) who stated that "*..most studies of employee personality as a predictor of attendant tenure have lacked a theoretical basis and their findings probably reflect alpha errors*" (p. 250). Similarly, Muchinsky & Tuttle (1979) concluded that personality variables, except at the extremes, have

only a marginal impact on turnover. More recent ideas espouse the importance of individual differences as explanations for a lack of congruence between the individual and the organisation, thus, aspects of personality may once again assume importance in this field.

2.3. *Turnover, Tenure and organisational variables*

Organisational variables reflect the values, processes and reward structures of the organisation. They have a major impact on the attitudes and perceptions that employees have towards the organisation, and thus, have a major impact on the individual behaviour within the organisation. The exchange theory would suggest that the variables which signify organisational rewards, such as hours, promotion, salary and position in the organisation, would have a positive relationship with tenure and a negative relationship turnover.

2.3.1. *Orientation and training* A positive relationship between orientation and training and tenure would be expected. Pre-employment orientation would enhance the individual's awareness of the organisation's values and goals. whilst training would reflect the investment of the organisation in its employees and thus, engender commitment from the employees. George & Baumeister (1981) note that when looking at position replacement costs, the surprising thing was not how much money and time was invested in staff preparation, but how little, especially in the categories relevant to orientation, pre-service and in-service training and time to proficiency. Felce, Lowe & Beswick (1993) polled reasons for leaving among direct-care staff and found that training and support could have been better in the opinion of some existing staff.

It would appear that training and orientation within services supporting people with learning difficulties have been conspicuous by their absence. The benefits of practical training would indicate implementation would be a positive step by this type of organisation. Hatton & Emerson (1993b) found satisfaction with training was a predictor of satisfaction with self development and income.

2.3.2. *Organisational Demography* O'Reilly, Caldwell & Barnett (1989) suggested demographic characteristics of work groups could affect the relative cohesiveness of groups, which may enhance or diminish the probability of

turnover. The image theory and career systems theory suggests that individuals and organisations would select those with similar value images and goals.

Employees with a more similar demographic background would be expected to share more similar values and goals.

Group cohesion has indeed been found to be a negative predictor of anticipated turnover (Lucas et al., 1993) and is positively predictive of organisational and professional satisfaction. Gow, Clark & Dossett (1974) similarly found social integration influenced length of stay, and was a critical factor in the turnover process (Sheridan, 1985). O'Reilly et al. (1989) explored the relationship between group demography, social integration and turnover. They found group level tenure homogeneity was associated with lower turnover rates of individuals, group level social integration was a moderator. Individual level social integration did not affect the turnover rate.

2.3.3. Service-user characteristics Service-users are an important aspect of the job of a direct-care worker, therefore, it may be assumed that their characteristics would have some impact on the organisational behaviour of employees. However, Lakin et al. (1983) found service-user characteristics were not related to staff turnover. Ganju (1979) suggested that ambulatory ability may be an important factor, rather than intellectual ability, in the turnover of direct-care staff. Indeed, George & Baumeister (1981) found staff supporting service-users who scored higher on scales assessing ability to function in living environments had a lower turnover. The presence of severe behaviour problems was also positively correlated with turnover. Hatton & Emerson (1993b) found interaction with clients was a factors in employee satisfaction although it is the nature of the interactions that are important. Negative aspects of the service-users may have a minimal impact on turnover behaviour if the proper training pre-employment orientation was given to employees.

2.3.4. Organisational size Turnover is suggested to co-vary with organisational size (Benson, Dickenson & Neidt, 1987). Indeed, adding new employees to increase an organisation's size is accompanied by an increase in the involuntary turnover of low tenured employees. Probationary employees are readily terminated, consistent with policies of minimally screening individuals at

the time of hiring. Variation in organisational size is expected to be only a minor determinant of turnover, with tenure and accession rate being more strongly related to organisational size (Benson et al., 1987). March & Simon (1958) argue that turnover would be lower and tenure would be greater in larger organisations. Large organisations have greater possibilities for intra-organisational transfers and this reduces the need for an employee to leave to gain improved employment opportunities. Supporting this, Caldwell, Chatman & O'Reilly (1990) found a positive correlation between tenure and the size of the firm in a mixed firm study. At a micro-level, the number of staff on a unit was negatively correlated with turnover (Larson & Lakin, 1992).

2.3.5. *Job Autonomy* Weisman (1993) found job autonomy increased work satisfaction, but had no direct effects on retention. Similarly, Hatton & Emerson (1993b) found satisfaction with self development and income was predicted by participation in decision making. Lane, Prestholdt & Mathews (1991) reported that nurses who work in a hospital where they felt they had the influence and respect to accomplish their goals were more likely to have positive beliefs about their job. In addition, high centrality of decision making was found to lead to high turnover and other forms of withdrawal (Baumeister & Zaharia, 1987). Thus, the research has indicated that job autonomy has a positive impact on job satisfaction and may have an indirect impact on turnover through job satisfaction.

2.3.6. *Management* Management processes and decision making are thought to have a direct impact on employee satisfaction and commitment. Cavanagh (1990) found nurses looked to their director to reduce stress and improve salary and job security to a greater extent than their immediate supervisor. Immediate supervisors were evaluated on their clinical and administrative skills.

2.3.7. *Salary* Turnover has generally been shown to have a negative relationship with salary (Cavanagh, 1990; Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Weisman, Gordon, Cassard, Bergner & Wong, 1993), whilst salary and tenure have a positive relationship (Federico et al., 1976; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Mobley et al., 1979; Newman, 1974). The strength and reliability of the relationship between pay and turnover may be moderated by whether professionals

and managers were studied or blue-collar workers and non-professionals.

Baumeister & Zaharia (1987) reviewing facilities supporting people with learning difficulties, cite low pay as one of the most frequently given reasons for quitting. Satisfaction with pay, however, has often not been found to be related to turnover (Mobley et al., 1979). Muus, Stratton, Dunkin & Juhl (1993) found pay and salary scale reasonability is related to job satisfaction, along with the extent to which the agency rewards advanced training and education and the adequacy of the benefits received. These were prevalently dissatisfying among short term nurses.

2.3.8. *Hours worked* The hours that are worked by direct-care workers are often unsocial and include weekend shifts and sleep-ins. Weisner et al. (1993) found shorter total hours was associated with increased retention.

2.3.9. *Position in the organisation* It would be assumed that the higher the position in the organisation, the greater influence the individual would have in organisational decisions, affecting his/her job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Indeed, MacRobert et al. (1993) report that nurses with higher positions demonstrated increased levels of morale.

2.3.10. *Career development* The opportunity for advancement within the organisation has a negative relationship to turnover (Cavanagh, 1990; Landinsky, 1967; Lawler, 1971; Marsh & Mannari, 1977), whilst promotion has a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992).

Mobley et al., (1979) suggest that an individual may be dissatisfied with the present job but attracted to it by the fact that it is useful for them in their career, for financial security or for other reasons. Jauch, Osborn & Terpening (1980) also suggested that an individual's organisational attachment may result from identification with the organisation and also from an identification with a particular career, or set of peers. Thus, individuals who are committed to their careers will be more likely to stay with an organisation that offers career development. Bedeian, Kemery & Pizzolatto (1991) found that the expected career growth opportunities interacted with career commitment in predicting intended turnover, the relationship between career growth opportunities and turnover intention being negative for subjects with higher career commitment, but positive for subjects with low career commitment. Those with a low career commitment

will tend to leave an organisation where opportunities for advancement are high, whereas those with a high career commitment will tend to stay. Pressures to achieve may make those employees with low career commitment want to leave.

Hom & Griffeth (1991) found withdrawal cognitions to be significantly positively predictive of expected utility of withdrawal, predicting job search, comparison of alternatives and finally retention. This supported Mobley et al.'s (1979) suggestion that consideration of job satisfaction and expected utility of the present job together may increase prediction of turnover.

2.4. *Perceived alternatives*

The relationship between aggregate unemployment levels, and turnover rates is well established (Price, 1977). A strong negative relationship between unemployment rate and organisational turnover rate is shown to exist (Baumeister & Zaharia, 1987; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Similarly, Arnold & Feldman (1982) found tenure was significantly and negatively correlated with perceived alternatives. However, when addressing influence of alternatives at the individual level, the results are not so certain. Conceptually the perception and evaluation of alternatives seems to be a crucial variable in the individual turnover process according to Mobley et al. (1979), yet there is little support for a significant influence of perceived alternatives on voluntary turnover. No relationship between perceived alternatives and turnover has been found (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992) in the majority of studies. One study by Danserau, Cashman & Graen (1974) however, found the expectancy of finding an alternative job did moderate the correlations between attitude and turnover.

Three reasons are suggested for the differences in the relationship between alternative opportunities and turnover rates when looking at the individual and the aggregate level. Firstly, different labour market economics attract different work forces, some may or may not be committed to the idea of work. Secondly, job opportunities affect job satisfaction directly, if there are a greater number of opportunities, an individual may express less satisfaction with the present position than if there are fewer opportunities. Finally, job opportunities, not intentions may

directly influence turnover, however, it is now thought that job satisfaction and perceived alternatives interact to cause terminations (Hulin et al., 1985).

2.5. Tenure as a moderator variable

The relationships between variables has been suggested to vary at different stages of the employment relationship. Therefore, tenure is seen to be a moderators of a number of relationships.

2.5.1. Performance and attendance and turnover Kanfer, Crosby & Brandt (1988) studied the moderating effect of tenure on the performance- and attendance-turnover relationships. For three tenure cohorts, 2-5 months, 6-12 months and 12+ months, the ability of performance, attendance, age, education level and pay to predict turnover was assessed. Performance and attendance was predictive of turnover for those with tenure between 6 and 12 months, leavers in this tenure period performed more poorly than stayers. Stayers were older on average than leavers after one year.

Ferris & Rowland (1987) looked at the effects of both organisational and supervisor tenure on the absence-intent to leave relationship. Supervisor tenure did moderate the absence-intent leave relationship whereas, organisational tenure was not a moderator, but correlated with absence and intent to leave. Dividing supervisor tenure and absence into low and high groups: high turnover was associated with low absence-low supervisor tenure and with high absence-high supervisor tenure, low turnover was associated with low absence-high supervisor tenure, and high absence-low supervisor tenure. The absence - withdrawal relationship appears to be a function of supervisor tenure.

2.5.2. Job satisfaction and turnover Gregson (1990) found tenure moderated the relationship between turnover and pay satisfaction. When tenure and gender were controlled for there was a negative association between intent to turnover and pay satisfaction.

2.5.3. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment Tenure was found to moderate the causal relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and the causal ordering of these variables on turnover decisions (Farkas & Tetrick, 1989). At 2 months and at 20-21 months tenure, job

satisfaction influenced commitment, and commitment directly influence intention to stay. Organisational commitment influenced job satisfaction at 8-10 months tenure, and satisfaction directly influenced intention stay. A cyclical or reciprocal relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, varying as a function of tenure is suggested.

2.5.4. Organisational commitment and turnover The negative relationship consistently found between organisational commitment and turnover (Werbel & Gould, 1984), may be moderated by career stage (Cohen, 1991). In the early career stage, psychological attachments to the organisation may be the primary antecedents of commitment. Over time, the individual engages in various acts that bind him or her to the organisation and lead to commitment.

Werbel and Gould (1984) argue that early commitment may be less stable than commitment based on investments and psychological bonds, therefore, commitment in new employees may be less likely to be associated with turnover behaviour than commitment in more tenured employees. Cohen (1991) on the other hand, suggests the turnover-commitment relationship would be strongest in the early career stages. The relationships between performance and commitment and absenteeism and commitment would be stronger however, in the mid- and late- career stages. The importance of performance in the organisational reward system may moderate the relationship between performance and turnover.

Using age and tenure as the career stage indicators, Cohen (1991) found an overall negative correlation between commitment and turnover for both indicators of career stage was found. The relationship was strongest at the early career stage and stronger when age was the measure of career stage. In the final career stage, with tenure as the indicator, the relationships between organisational commitment and performance and absenteeism are stronger than those in other career stages as predicted.

Werbel & Gould (1984) found no relationship between commitment and turnover for recently hired nurses. Early commitment was suggested to ultimately facilitate the formation of a more mature organisational attachment. Commitment was negatively related to leaving for more tenured employees.

The relationship between commitment and turnover at different career stages is therefore, unclear. The discrepancies could be a result of the different measures of career stage (tenure and age) that are used, type and length of tenure measured, and the relationship between different facets of commitment and turnover at the different career stages may also be an important factors in determining the strength relationship.

2.6. Summary

The discussion of findings from previous work on turnover among facilities providing residential support for people with learning difficulties, allows a comparison between the present organisation and previous research. It is clear that demographic and organisational variables do have a role in the individual's behaviour within the organisation, including tenure and turnover behaviour. Demographic and organisational variables also have a role in the development of affective variables and perceptions that the individual forms of the organisation.

It appears from the theoretical perspectives discussed and the empirical work that has been conducted, that a gap in the research exists. There is a need to incorporate the existing theoretical perspectives in applied research. The measurement of variables and the consideration of issues beyond the individual and his/her work environment needs to be further addressed.

Mobley et al. (1979) suggest that there is a need for longitudinal prospective studies, a popular call, necessary to assess the progression of relationships between variables in an organisation. This would indeed allow the precipitators' of the turnover decision process to be assessed. However, sufficient research has been conducted in organisational behaviour to highlight the dearth of theory and holistic approaches to the organisation and the individual. Within this framework, there is a legitimate need for non-work influences on the individual to be taken into account.

It may be more beneficial to assess the influence of demographic variables on the individuals values, perceptions and needs. Job attitudes and organisational behaviour, including turnover, may be viewed as the result of the interaction between organisational variables and individuals' values, perceptions and needs.

Chapter Three: Attitudinal and affective variables and occupational stress

Chapter three addresses job attitudes and perceptions which influence organisational behaviour. Job attitudes or affective variables (job satisfaction and organisational commitment) and perceptions of stress emanate from the interactions between the individual's values, goals and disposition and the organisations values, goals and reward systems. Occupational stress, or perceptions of stress, is thought to be a key variable in the manifestation of attitudes towards the organisation.

Chapter three is divided into two sections. The first section addresses perceived occupational stress whilst the second section discusses job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

3.1. Occupational Stress

Occupational stress or perceptions of stress by employees, has been extensively researched due to the suggested negative outcomes of excessive perceived stress. The following review aims to assess: 1) why occupational stress is an important variable to study for people supporting people with learning difficulties; 2) what occupational stress is; 3) the difference between stress and burnout; 4) factors contributing to the experience of stress, including i) organisational factors, ii) psychological factors and iii) individual differences as contributors; 5) negative consequence associated with occupational stress; 6) moderators of the experience of stress; and finally, 7) factors that may cause stress among people with learning difficulties.

3.1.1. Why study stress among employees working with people with learning difficulties?

Thomson (1987) points out that there have been recent major changes in the philosophy of care of people with learning difficulties, which have produced considerable disorganisation, uncertainty and conflict within the organisations and individuals providing a service for this group of people. Staff who have been working in this field for a long period of time have become accustomed to the

custodial methods of care, which are no longer relevant within the present framework. Thus, considerable ambiguity may result from recent changes.

Secondly, the negative consequences of stress for staff make this an important area for inquiry. Mental and physical ill health, reduced staff performance, lower job satisfaction and higher turnover are often cited as consequences of stress and burnout (Firth, McIntee & Britton, 1987; Nordhus & Fleime 1991; Rees & Cooper 1991; Sharrard 1992).

Thirdly, the negative effects of staff stress on the service-users themselves. For example, reduction of the quality of support given by staff or abuse of service-users may occur when the coping resources of staff are exceeded (Thomson, 1987). Maslach (1982) suggested most conceptualisations of burnout hypothesise a direct link between experienced burnout and a deterioration in the quality of care provided.

Finally, that stress is characteristic of the nursing profession (Firth et al., 1987), would indicate that this is an important variable to study in the present direct-care staff population.

3.1.2. *What is stress?*

Stress, defined biologically, is a process of transaction between the individual and the environment (Frankenhauser, 1978). Stress in itself, is not necessarily a negative experience for individuals. Recent definitions suggest perceptions can cause stress to be a negative experience for the individual. Gillis (1992) proposed that stress is produced by individuals misinterpreting ordinary events and exaggerating the meanings and consequences of negative events. Recent definitions often point either to a deficit in the individual in terms of abilities/cognitions or a deficit the environment in terms of demands which contribute to the experience of stress.

Occupational stress refers specifically to the interactions between the individual and the work environment. The experience of occupational stress is suggested to have negative consequences for employees. Bhagat, McQuaid, Lindholm & Segovis (1985) stated that stress changes the psychological or physiological condition of a person such that they are forced to deviate from

normal functioning. Monat et al. (1985) suggest occupational stress results from a lack of fit between the workers' needs and the environment. Edwards (1992) definition: that occupational stress is a discrepancy between an employees perceived state and his/her desired state, provided that this discrepancy is viewed as important by the employee; recognises the importance of individual differences in experienced stress and the importance of the role of perception of demands by the individual.

A stressor therefore, does not necessarily have a negative impact on the individuals that experience that stress. The interaction of the stressor, individual experiences, values and perceptions create individual differences in the outcomes of different stressors.

The concept of 'stress' is often used as a scapegoat for errors of management and employees and the difficulties that are faced by organisations. The circular argument, that stressors are the individual variables said to produce stress, does not aid the development of research questions or lines of enquiry that are likely to create guidelines to reduce the experience of stress by individuals.

3.1.3. Stress and burnout

Occupational stress and Burnout are often used as interchangeable terms. However, Ogus (1992) suggests burnout is separate from occupational stress as it involves three components, whereas occupational stress definitions focus primarily on the experience of strain. Another important difference is that stress is a fairly abstract term, but burnout has a definite structure, a progression of phases and particular consequences for the individual when they reach a particular phase. Burnout refers to a cluster of physical, emotional and interactional symptoms related to job stress and includes emotional exhaustion (EE), a sense of lacking personal accomplishment (PA) and a depersonalisation (D) of Service-users (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Burnout is depicted as a process gradually worsening over time, consisting of a series of phases and resulting from a build-up of chronic stress from emotionally demanding situations (Pines, Aronson & Kafry, 1981). Burnout is considered as an extreme form of stress, with burnout measures often used as measures of occupational stress. Burnout and stress are generally thought

to have the same antecedents and consequences however, burnout may be used to describe stress, but to say that someone is stressed does not mean that they are burned out.

3.1.4. Factors contributing to the experience of stress

A complex interaction of individual needs and resources and the various demands, constraints and facilitators within the individual's work environment (Handy, 1988), create the experience of stress among employees. There are the three main aspects which interact to contribute to the experience of occupational stress: the organisation, psychological factors and the individual.

3.1.4.1. Organisational factors A number of organisational/job related stressors have been identified: role conflict, role ambiguity, work load, responsibility, lack of communication, lack of commitment, career ambiguity, skill under-utilisation, noisy work environment, incorrect temperature in the work place, poor safety standards (Dolan & Balkin, 1987), subjective underemployment (Jones-Johnson & Johnson, 1992), tensions between the home-work interface (Cooper & Baglioni, 1988), availability of social support (Edwards, 1992), working in an institution or in the community (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), the social structure of the organisation (Arches, 1991; Schuler, 1977), lack of autonomy (Arches, 1991) the unpredictability of work demands and contact with the public (Schneider, 1991). Maslach (1982) suggested one of the most important antecedents of burnout was the difficulty of dealing with service-users face to face.

Lack of congruence between management structure and organisational values and strategies may be perceived as a stressor. Schuler (1977) found role conflict and ambiguity were lower when there was congruence between the structure of the organisation and the level of technology (the level of computerisation of the organisation). A less complex technology being more suited to a 'mechanistic structure' (one that has explicit policies and procedures, job descriptions, specific goals, high formalisation, top down communication, and departmentalisation) and more complex technology being suited to an 'organic

structure' (one with implicit goals and directions, openness in communication, inter-group cooperation, low formalisation, and task feedback systems).

Beehr et al. (1985) suggest stress occurs when employees are in ambiguous situations involving the potential for strongly valued outcomes and this situation of uncertainty lasts for a long period of time.

Tyler & Cushway (1992) suggest that strain from the physical environment and structure of the work, resulting from the combination of insufficient staffing, conflicting time pressure and the perception of a lack of equipment and resources and stress from dealing with suffering and dying patients and their relatives are the two main sources of stress in nursing.

3.1.4.2 Psychological factors Cognitive appraisals of job demands, (Cooper & Baglioni, 1988; Lazarus, 1991), dependency, self-criticism (Firth-Cozens, 1992a), perceived lack of control over the pace and amount of work (Cooper & Baglioni, 1988; Schneider, 1991), locus of control, type A personality traits (Edwards, 1992) and job attitudes such as job dissatisfaction are suggested to contribute to perceived occupational stress. Cooper & Baglioni (1988) found the more type A personality traits the individual displays, the more stress related illness that individual will experience. High levels of hope were associated with lower emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation and greater personal accomplishment (Sherwin, Elliott, Rybarczyk, Frank, Hanson & Hoffman, 1992).

Emotional involvement, indicated by role orientation (Nordhus & Fleime, 1991), is assumed to predispose workers to emotional exhaustion (Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1986) and thus, lead to burnout. In addition, a lack of self-esteem is said to predispose people to greater levels of emotional exhaustion (Dolan & Renaud, 1992). Lazarus & Folkman (1984) suggested for negative psychosomatic consequences of involvement to occur there seem to be two possible combinations of factors: i) the person is strongly engaged, has a high expressive role orientation and is over-involved in the care giving encounter, or ii) the employee is minimally engaged, scoring low on both instrumental and expressive role orientation, combined with feelings of hopelessness. The second combination may indeed be a progression from the first.

3.1.4.3 Individual differences as contributors to the experience of stress

Individual differences such as age, gender and disposition have been suggested to influence the level and outcomes of experienced stress. Older people reported more stress from overload, responsibility, boundary role and their physical environment and less stress from vocational, psychological, physical and interpersonal factors than younger people (Osipow & Doty, 1985). Jick & Mitz (1985) found women reported higher rates of psychological distress while men were more prone to severe physical illness. However, Rees & Cooper (1990), found women reported both higher levels of physical ill health *and* psychological distress. These results are particularly pertinent for health services which employ three times more women in general, than men. In a longitudinal study of medical students, Firth-Cozens (1992b), tried to identify what role early family experiences played in predicting perceived job stress. The results suggested there may be a dispositional contribution to organisational stress, with genetic as well as environmental factors contributing to the disposition. Kessler, Kendler, Heath, Neale & Eaves (1992) supported the existence of a genetic component to the experience of stress, suggesting genetic factors influenced the experience of stress through their interactions with different sources of support.

3.1.5. Outcomes of stress

Experiencing stress at work has consequences for both the individual, the service-users and the organisation. Negative effects have been studied with respect to mental and physical ill health, performance, low job satisfaction, increased intention to leave and higher turnover. However, the relationships between stress and its consequences are affected by such things as coping behaviour, perceptions, organisational factors and co-workers.

3.1.5.1. Relationships with others Perceived stress negatively affected the quality of a person's relationships with colleagues (Marcillessen et al., 1988). However, relationships at work were also found to be major source of stress as well as a potential source of rewards (Buunk & Verhoeven, 1991). Some relationships at work appear to function as buffers against problems caused by other relationships.

3.1.5.2. *Ill health* Experiencing stress in the workplace is suggested to lead to both physical and mental ill health (Kelloway & Barling, 1991; Nordhus & Fleime, 1991; Sharrard, 1992; Taylor & Cushway, 1992; Warr, 1987). Indeed, perceived occupational stress has an overall effect on mental health, not just job-related ill health (Kelloway & Barling, 1991). The experience of stress was a factor in the development of depressive symptoms (Robbins & Tanck, 1992; Swindle, Cronkite and Moos, 1989). Dysfunctional reactions to stress are more strongly associated with depressed affect when stress is higher than when stress is lower (Swindle et al., 1989). In addition, tense burnout contributed to cardiovascular disease (CVD) risk factors (Melamed, Kushnir & Meir, 1992). The progressive phases of burnout are associated with accelerating proportions of cases reporting four or more psychiatric symptoms on the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) (Golembiewski, Munzenrider, Scherb and Billingsley, 1992).

Greater perceived stress is reported among health workers than industrial workers, and they experience higher levels of physical and mental ill health as a consequence (Rees & Cooper, 1990).

3.1.5.3. *Burnout* Oguş (1992) the greater the perceived work stress, the greater the level of total burnout, emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation and the weaker the sense of personal accomplishment. Nurses who used preventative coping techniques experienced less burnout, less emotional exhaustion and a stronger sense of personal accomplishment. Oguş (1992) found that nurses with a more varied workload, who reported more stress, and had higher levels of burnout used palliative coping techniques more frequently.

A negative relationship has been suggested between burnout and job satisfaction (Ursprung, 1986). Indeed, Razza (1993) found burnout was negatively predictive of the current job satisfaction of direct-care staff. Lee & Ashforth (1993) however, found job satisfaction was predictive of helplessness and emotional exhaustion. Thus, the relationship between job satisfaction and burnout may be reciprocal. Organisational commitment has been found to negatively correlate with emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and work hassles (Leiter, 1992) and positively correlate with personal accomplishment, control coping, decision making and use of abilities. Burnout is also associated with outcomes of

lowered moral, reduced performance, drug and alcohol abuse, tardiness, absenteeism and increased job turnover (Constable & Russell, 1986; Jones, 1981).

3.1.5.4. Performance The relationship between perceived stress and performance has been suggested to be an inverted U-shaped relationship, with a moderate amount of stress being the most optimal for performance (Anderson, 1976; Cohen, 1980). However, Meglino (1976) suggests a positive relationship between stress and performance with problems, difficulties, anxieties and challenges being occasions for constructive activity and improved performance. Finally, Maslach (1982) proposed a negative relationship between perceived stress and performance. There has been some support for the existence of a negative relationship between perceived stress and performance (Jamal, 1984; Motowildo, Packard & Manning, 1986; Snibbe, Weisberger, Richards & Kelly, 1989). Similarly, Garden (1991) found a negative relationship between perceived stress and perceived performance.

A negative relationship between performance and stress has generally been supported. There may be only certain circumstances or preconditions where actual performance does deteriorate. Feeling negative about oneself, individual differences, social support and the nature of the task engaged in could all have moderating effects on the relationship between stress and performance.

The measurement of performance is difficult where the outcome of the job is not easily measurable. Supervisor ratings of employees performance tend to be biased, but often, the only source of performance appraisal. A clear distinction between actual and perceived performance is needed. The measure of stress used may lead to further inconsistencies.

3.1.5.5. Job satisfaction Occupational stress has a strong negative correlation with job satisfaction (Blegen, 1993; Fox, Dwyer & Ganster, 1993; Butler & Ehrlich, 1991; Mathieu, 1991). Indeed, Lucas et al. (1993) found job stress was negatively predictive of organisational satisfaction. Job satisfaction is also negatively correlated with strain among informal care-givers (Orbell, Hopkins, & Gillies, 1993), role conflict (Lang et al., 1992; Jones, Glaman & Steele-Johnson, 1993; Butler & Ehrlich, 1991; Kemery, Mossholder & Bedeian, 1987), role ambiguity (Lang et al., 1992; Jones, Glaman & Steele-Johnson, 1993; Kemery et

al., 1987; Hendrix, Ovalle & Troxler, 1985; Kemery, Bedeian, Mossholder & Touliatos, 1986), somatic complaints (Fox, Dwyer and Ganster, 1993; Lang et al., 1992), physical symptoms (Kemery et al., 1987) and extra-organisational stresses, (Drory & Shamir, 1988). Competence was a moderator of the stress-satisfaction relationship (Bhagat & Allie, 1989).

Occupational stress has been suggested to be a precursor of job satisfaction (Kemery, Bedeian, Mossholder and Touliatos, 1985; Lang, Wittig-Berman & Rizkalla, 1992) and a predictor of organisational and professional satisfaction (Lucas, Atwood & Hagaman, 1993). The effect of the interpersonal work environment on job satisfaction was suggested to be through its effect on person-role conflicts (Decker, 1985).

3.1.5.6. Organisational commitment A negative correlation has been found between organisational commitment and role conflict and role ambiguity (Alutto, 1969; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Stevens, Beyer & Trice, 1978). Indeed, role conflict was a negative predictor of organisational commitment (Morris & Sherman, 1981). The negative effects of stress have been found to have a positive relationship with organisational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) with perceived stress having negative outcomes when organisational commitment is high. However, stress has also been found to have negative outcomes when organisational commitment is low as commitment protects individuals from the effects of stress (Kobasa, 1982; Jamal, 1984). In their work, Begley & Czajak (1993) found high stress and low organisational commitment lowered job satisfaction, increased intention to quit and increased work-related irritation.

3.1.5.7. Absenteeism Role overload, role conflict and resource inadequacy were positively related to lateness and absenteeism (Jamal, 1984) Burnout is also associated with outcomes of tardiness and absenteeism (Constable & Russell, 1986; Jones, 1981).

3.1.5.8. Turnover intentions and behaviour Stress was found to be positively related to turnover behaviour (Jamal, 1984). Perceived stress was found to predict turnover (Firth et al., 1987). Burnout is associated with increased turnover (Constable & Russell, 1986; Jones, 1981).

3.1.6. Moderators of perceived stress

3.1.6.1 Coping Coping is a term widely used in the stress literature and has been defined as attempts by the individual to reduce the negative impact of stress on well-being (Edwards, 1992). Whether coping reduces the impact of perceived stress or not is measured through variation in the level of negative outcomes (mental ill health, reduced performance, etc.).

Coping is about how the individual appraises a potential stressor as well as how an individual faces that stressor. Lazarus's (1966) theory of psychological stress postulates a central role for cognitive appraisals and coping strategy adopted affecting the outcomes. Dewe (1992) attempted to explore the appraisal process that individuals go through when assessing stressors. Meaning and importance as part of the primary appraisal and perceptions of control and coping strategy as part of the secondary appraisal were suggested. Two important issues were i) the relevance of the events and the meanings associated with them and ii) factors that make events demanding. Similarly, McNair & Elliot (1992) suggested primary and secondary appraisal were suggested to be more influenced by the unique aspects of a stressful event and less sensitive to cognitively based variables such as self-perceived problem solving ability. However, those reporting more perceived skills in approaching and defining problems displayed a tendency to report the use of more problem focused coping strategies. Indeed, Schill (1990) found people who scored higher on the self-defeating personality scale had a stronger preference for emotion based rather than problem focused coping. These coping strategies (denial, mental disengagement, alcohol and drugs) are said to be dysfunctional and guaranteed to perpetuate individual's position as victims.

Problem focused or direct coping means solving an existing problem by either changing the situation, one's behaviour or both whereas avoidance, palliative or emotion focused coping applies to a focus on regulating emotional reactions or making one feel better without actually solving the problem (Ogus, 1992). While avoiding stressors might have short term benefits, frequent use of avoidance techniques is unlikely to be effective (Robbins & Tanck, 1992). Indeed, Tyler & Cushway (1992) found negative health outcomes were produced by a combination of workload related stress and use of avoidance coping strategies.

Nurses who suffered from ill health tended to use avoidance coping techniques significantly more frequently and reported experiencing higher stress. Individuals using problem focused coping appear to suffer less stress, or less stress related negative consequences than people using avoidance coping techniques (Swindles et al., 1989; Tyler & Cushway, 1992; Gillis, 1992). Palliative coping can be functional (relaxation, meditation) as well as dysfunctional (Ogus, 1992) on a short-term basis.

An active cognitive coping strategy was used more by those who reported a higher workload and related stress; an active behavioural strategy was used more by those who reported higher stress caused by a lack of confidence in their role; an avoidance coping strategy was most closely associated with stress caused by conflicts with other staff (Tyler & Cushway, 1992). Agentic traits (a person's sense of efficacy or agency) and gender role attitudes had both direct and indirect effects on work performance, distress and satisfaction (Long, Kahn & Schultz, 1992). Age was a moderator of coping strategy used (Osipow & Doty, 1985) with older people reported greater recreational, self-care and rational cognitive coping resources than younger people. Stage of burnout was also found to be a moderator of the coping style used (Melamed et al., 1992). In the early stages, individuals may employ active and direct coping strategies to enhance and protect their resources. In the more advanced stages, when burnout appears to be coupled with depression, listlessness and apathy, indirect and inactive coping behaviour prevails.

Coping strategies may reduce stress by i) changing the core components of stress, thus, affecting perceptions by altering the physical and social environment, personal characteristics and cognitive construction of reality; ii) by adjusting desires to conform with perceptions, or by reducing the importance associated with the discrepancy; and iii) use of methods that influence well-being directly, independent of psychological stress (relaxation and meditation) (Edwards, 1992).

3.1.6.2. *Social support* is said to have both direct and indirect effects on the experience of stress, with the effects depending on the type of support and moderating variables. Moderators include: the source of the support, the source of stress, position, the nature of the occupation, individual perceptions, personality

and gender. An understanding of the different types of support is necessary, with the first distinction to be made between help oriented exchanges and rewarding interactions including companionship and intimacy (Buunk, 1990). Companionship is suggested to bear a different relationship to health and well being than other forms of support (Buunk & Verhoeven 1991). House (1981) identified i) emotional support, ii) appraisal (feedback), iii) informational support and iv) instrumental support (practical help to achieve job demands) as separate forms of support.

A direct effect of social support on perceptions of stress is suggested (Pinneau, 1976), with the more supportive one's social environment is felt to be, the less stress one may perceive. The level of perceived support reported may depend on the level of perceived stress. Those individuals with higher levels of strain will be likely to report more support and those with low well-being may also seek out help more frequently (Buunk & Verhoeven, 1991). A positive relationship between experienced stress and support has been supported (Kaufman & Beehr, 1986). There may however, be an optimum level of perceived stress after which, more perceived stress is associated with reduced social support (Marcillessen et al., 1988). Both moderating and direct effects of social support on experienced stress were supported (Dolan & Renaud, 1992), the moderating effects of social support were suggested to interact with both personality traits and job demands. Similarly, Boumans & Landeweerd (1992) studied the direct and indirect effects of support and coping on nurses reactions to their work situation. They found social support to have both direct and moderating effects.

Source of support The professional relationship between supervisors and colleagues may inhibit individuals disclosing feelings that might make them appear incompetent. Receiving help especially from superiors may threaten self esteem and lead to negative reactions (Buunk, 1990). Winstead et al. (1992) found that in anticipation of a stressful event, subjects perceived more support after interacting with a friend than a stranger. Perceived support by the superior was related to the number of contacts, degree of intimate support and partly to rewarding companionship in the contacts with him/her (Buunk & Verhoeven, 1991).

Among new employees, support from senior colleagues led to lower satisfaction and interactions with senior colleagues were positively related to

intention to leave. However, support from peers was negatively related to intention to leave (Nelson & Quick, 1991). Support from senior colleagues may be offered to or sought more readily by newcomers who exhibit performance problems. The perceived helplessness of other newcomers and supervisors was associated with reduced stress for newcomers (Nelson & Quick, 1991).

Type of support It is suggested that instrumental support (practical help) may be more likely to reduce the strength of a stress producing situation than emotional support. Some sources of practical help may be more effective than others (supervisor vs co-worker) (Jayaratne & Chess, 1988). This may be partly due to expectations. Feedback, an assessment of performance, is an important source of support. There is a however, greater reliance on intrinsic sources (sources psychologically closer to the individual) than on external sources for feedback information (Greller & Herold, 1975). The focus needs to switch to intrinsic sources to understand feedback and its effects.

Perceived control Social support is suggested to function as a moderator of job strain only when control is high (Johnson & Hall, 1988). Melamed et al. (1991) found both perceived control and social support were negatively predictive of burnout and positively predictive of job satisfaction. The additive effects of perceived control and social support imply that the more resources available to the worker, the more pronounced the reduction of the effects from the job demands on burnout and job satisfaction. (Kasl, 1989; Melamed et al., 1991). Buffering effects of support have been found to be particularly pronounced among persons with a high internal locus of control (Lefcourt, Martin & Saleh, 1984; Sandler & Lakey, 1982).

Type A Watkins et al. (1992) found a high score on the type A cognitive questionnaire was related to poor quality of perceived support and greater life stress. The relationship being stronger for males. Type A beliefs may predispose individuals to health problems through impaired interactions with their interpersonal environment.

Genetic influences Kessler et al. (1992) found no differences between MZ and DZ twins with regard to the stress buffering effects of support. However,

genetic factors significantly influenced measures of perceived support as well as measures of actual support and need taken into account.

3.1.6.3. Social support as a moderator Social support has been suggested to be a mediator of the relationship between stressors and the reaction or outcome. This is known as the *buffer hypothesis*. This hypothesis has received some support (Chappell & Novak, 1992). Social support from both peers and supervisors was found to lead to an increase in satisfaction and commitment and a decrease in turnover and stress (Fischer, 1985; Ganster, Fusilier & Mayes, 1986). Buunk (1990) found support moderated the relationship between perceived stress and ill health. The moderating effects of support may be through emotional support or practical help and guidance. If an employee's anxiety is high due to perceived stress, the receipt of appropriate forms of support might serve to reduce that anxiety directly, without impacting on the features of the work situation leading to the stress (Jayaratne & Chess, 1988). Thoits (1986) suggests support promotes adjustment to stress by providing assistance with appraisal and coping processes. However, differences in the relationship between stress adjustment and support may be due to differences in social competence rather than to stress buffering effects of support (Heller, 1979; Heller & Swindle, 1983).

Jones-Johnson and Johnson (1992) found no support for a buffering effect of social support between subjective underemployment and psychosocial stress. Indeed, in one study social support aggravated perceptions of stress among units that had many stressors, but reduced perceptions of stress in units where stressors were virtually absent.

Research on the moderating effects of social support on perceived stress has given equivocal results (Jayaratne & Chess, 1988), indicating a lack of clarity as to what it is being measured.

Research may be more informative if the type and source of support were clear, the perceptions of support by the individual, personality and source of stress were considered. Marcillessen et al. (1988) suggested the antecedents of occurrence of social support need to be considered. Dolan & Renaud (1992) suggested a successful intervention should consider the nature of job demands, the type of

individuals involved and the origin of social support simultaneously. Similarly, Chappell & Novak (1992) concluded to alleviate burnout, burden and perceived job pressures must decrease or the workload change and rewards provided.

3.1.7. Factors that may cause stress among people working with people with learning difficulties

There are a number of organisational and job aspects pertinent to people working with people with learning difficulties that may be factors in the experience of stress by employees.

3.1.7.1. A lack of control over the work; Rees and Cooper (1990) reported that health workers believe they have little control over their work compared to industrial workers. Sharrard (1992) found that institutional staff tend to have more control over and be more satisfied, that is if they are supported and their role is defined, than community workers. Control over the job is related to the structure of the organisation as a whole.

3.1.7.2. Isolation; Allen, Pahl & Quine (1990) found that being left to cope alone with a relatively ill-defined role contributed most to perceived levels of stress among direct-care workers in community homes. This can be reduced by good communication between the direct-care workers and managers and also between homes. A lack of communication with hospital administrators was a cause of stress among American Psychiatric technicians (Browner, Ellis, Ford, Silsby, Tampaya & Yee, 1987). Those in smaller facilities reported more satisfaction with opportunities for discussion with peers than those staff working in larger facilities.

3.1.7.3. Other staff; different philosophies of care between different professions and colleagues attitudes and habits were rated as stressful (Thomson, 1987). Stressful work relationships were reported as more significant among hospital staff than community based staff. Nurses reported higher levels of stress at work from both colleagues and patients than other hospital staff (Rees & Cooper, 1990).

3.1.7.4. Aspects of the job and organisation; excess paperwork and shift schedules were found to be stressful (Browner et al., 1987). The contribution of pay and promotion opportunities to stress is equivocal, George & Baumeister

(1981) found community staff complained of low pay and lack of promotion opportunities. Rees & Cooper (1990) found similar results for health workers along with lack of positive feedback. Nurses in particular reported more stress from organisational structure and climate than other hospital workers. Sharrard (1992) reported community staff were less satisfied with hours, although they were more satisfied with their status than hospital staff. However, Allen et al. (1990) reported that staff in the community were more satisfied with paperwork, shifts, pay and promotion than those working in hospitals. Nurses and nursing assistants, in institutions reported more stress and more stress related consequences than those in the community (Nordhus & Fleime, 1991). Whether a community or residential site is more stressful for employees is not clear.

3.1.7.5. *Lack of training*; this is a major problem on community homes. The training requirements for institutional and community staff still remain unclear (Thomson, 1987). Sharrard (1992) highlights the importance of supplying employees with the correct resources including training:

" It is likely that staff will suffer less anxiety about resident's behaviour or lack of progress if they are given adequate information or a chance to express concern without the fear that they will be seen to have failed. Service for people with a Mental Handicap will only run well if direct-care staff are given adequate encouragement and support." (Sharrard 1992, p37)

3.1.7.6. *Community attitude*; Staff working in the community may have the additional battle of continually fighting society's attitude towards people with learning difficulties which people on residential sites and institution may not have to face on an everyday basis.

3.1.7.7. *The values, goals and processes of the organisation*; Sarota (1984) quoted that:

"Satisfaction with the agency is the crucial component of the overall satisfaction among individuals working with people with a Mental Handicap"
Blau (1987) argues that more emphasis should be placed on developing a high degree of "fit" between individual ability and needs, job ability and requirements and organisational reinforcement systems to increase job satisfaction and organisational commitment. To increase the match between the job/organisation and the individual, it is necessary to ensure prospective employees have realistic

expectations. Access to realistic information about the job and organisation would allow individuals an informed decision to accept or reject the job offer.

3.1.7.8. Service-user Characteristics; This may especially be the case for staff on residential/hospital sites who are left supporting those with more severe learning difficulties as those Service-users who are more able are the first to move into the community (Thomson, 1987).

3.1.7.9. The slow rate of development of people with learning difficulties; Sarota (1974) found that 30% of the respondents in his study rated the slow pace or change and the lack of Service-user progress as dissatisfying. The ideals of normalisation may compound the difficulty of setting realistic goals, staff especially those who are inexperienced, may aim for inappropriate targets.

3.1.7.10. High Service-user-staff ratios; Thomson (1987) found the higher the Service-user-staff ratio the less the workers liked their jobs.

3.1.7.11. Service-users' families; These were rated for the majority as very stressful. Problems arise with the family sharing the responsibility for care of the child or adult with learning difficulties, previous encounters with professionals in the field of learning difficulties may colour the parents' vision making it difficult for the staff to gain trust of parents and work with them.

3.1.8. Summary

Stress is an important variable affecting organisational behaviour and job attitudes. The effects of stress reach into all aspects of an individuals' interaction with the work situation. There are practical strategies an organisation could implement to reduce the perceptions of stress within the workforce. In addition, individuals need to be aware of how they produce their own stress and how this source of stress can be reduced (Epstein & Katz, 1992).

Stress management such as teaching coping skills, alterations in the work environment giving employees more control and flexibility through greater involvement in policy decision making and encouragement to lead a more healthy lifestyles are all practical stress reducing steps. Better training for direct-care workers could be installed which made the potential applicants more prepared for the job with ongoing training maintaining the level of expertise of staff.

Focusing research away from 'stress' to the antecedent variables, their moderators and outcomes, could lead to a better understanding of the factors that need to be assessed or changed within a work situation to improve the efficacy of the workforce.

Research needs to consider the role of reciprocal relationships that evolve over time. It is important to consider a long term strategy in which reciprocal relations between the person and the environment are both understood and interpreted. Stressors in the workplace need to be objectively assessed. Subjective appraisals of the stressful event plays the most crucial role on determining both the selection of the response modalities and the effectiveness of various moderating influences exerted over time. It may therefore be useful to look for more vivid and enriched descriptions of such processes in qualitative as well as quantitative terms. It is also necessary to look beyond the boundaries of psychology into sociological and health science issues to obtain a more holistic view of job stress.

3.2. *Job satisfaction and organisational commitment*

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are thought to be central components of organisational behaviour. This central position has been reflected in the extensive research that has been conducted. Organisational commitment and job satisfaction are traditionally thought to be mediators of the relationships between demographic and organisational variables and turnover intentions and behaviour (Mobley, 1977; Steers & Mowday, 1981). More recent theoretical models maintain that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are important in certain decision pathways leading to withdrawal behaviour, and are important outcomes of person- organisation interaction.

Initially, job satisfaction and organisational commitment are discussed with respect to models of person-environment fit. Secondly, definitions of job satisfaction and organisational commitment are suggested. Thirdly, the review addresses antecedents of job satisfaction: i) personal and demographic variables, ii) organisational variables, and iii) variables that evolve through person-organisation interaction; the outcomes of job satisfaction and moderators of the relationship between job satisfaction and antecedent and outcome variables. Fourthly, antecedents of organisational commitment: i) personal demographic variables, ii) organisational variables, and iii) variables that result from the person-organisation interaction; the outcomes of organisational commitment and moderators of the relationship of commitment with antecedent and outcome variables are outlined. Finally, the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment and their relationship with turnover intentions and behaviour are discussed.

3.2.1. *Needs-rewards match or person-environment fit*

A number of theories have been generated which address person-organisational fit or congruence along some needs-rewards match dimension. This follows from the logical assumption that some employees are better suited to certain jobs than others, with the degree of match influencing job attitudes and behaviour.

3.2.1.1. *The exchange theory of organisational commitment* focuses on the implied or explicit contract between the organisation and the individual. Whitener

& Walz (1993) suggest individuals' consider the balance of organisational rewards with personal contributions and the attractiveness of alternatives, these comparisons affect their level of organisational commitment and, job satisfaction. Indeed, Whitener & Walz (1993) found low turnover intentions in their study, the participants felt that the rewards from their jobs exceeded the costs and that their balance of rewards and costs was greater than their perception of others' rewards and costs.

3.2.1.2. *The theory of work adjustment* (Wanous, 1980), suggests employees expect their needs to be fulfilled by the organisation, with unfulfilled needs leading to lowered job satisfaction and lowered organisational commitment. The theory predicts high organisational commitment when congruence between the individual's needs and expectations and organisational rewards and values exists.

3.2.1.3. *The motivating potential model* suggests that the affective reactions to the job depend upon the job fulfilling three psychological states of meaning, responsibility and knowledge of results (Gruenberg, 1980), these psychological needs do not vary with organisational position. Workers with high levels of intrinsic satisfaction are more likely to report overall job satisfaction at all occupational levels. Needs and values of employees may reflect trends within the labour market, for example, Hesketh & Gardner (1993) found satisfaction with aspects of the job that were normatively desirable depended on the perception that the job contained high levels of the attribute in question. For less normatively desirable aspects, both perceptions of job characteristics and work preferences contributed to satisfaction with those aspects.

3.2.2. *Empirical evidence supporting theories of person-organisation congruence*

Some evidence exists to support the needs-rewards match leading to greater job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Vandenberg & Scarpello (1990) found the match between employee needs and the rewards of the job to be significantly, positively correlated with job satisfaction for newcomers and more tenured employees. Indeed, agreement between personal goals and values and organisational values was significantly predictive of job satisfaction for direct-care staff (Razza, 1993). Similarly, the correspondence between aptitude and job

requirement significantly predicted satisfaction (Bizot & Goldman, 1993). Hesketh & Gardner (1993) found an index of person-environment fit moderated prediction of job satisfaction with a number of job and organisational attributes when work preferences and perceptions of job characteristics were controlled.

Agreement with *managerial goals* would reflect some correspondence between the employee and management. Jones, Glaman & Steele-Johnson (1993) did find a positive relationship between agreement with managerial goals and employee satisfaction.

Expectations Lawler's (1973) comparison model suggests that satisfaction is a function of the discrepancy between the level of desired outcomes and the perceived level of outcomes that actually exist (expectations vs reality). Prior experience with job outcomes as well as social comparisons affect the desired or expected level of outcomes, while the evaluation of pay, working conditions, and other job features are considered to determine the actual outcomes received.

Porter & Steers (1973) initially, suggested that when an individual's expectations are not substantially met, his/her propensity to withdraw increases. This indeed gained some support (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Dunnette, Arvey & Banas, 1973). Differences between expected and actual salary were also associated with shorter tenure (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979).

More recently, Steers & Mowday (1981) suggested job expectations and values were immediate antecedents of job satisfaction. Ilgen & Dugoni (1977) found met expectations had an inconsistent relationship with satisfaction and turnover, stating that actual expectations cannot compensate for deficiencies in the immediate job environment. Ilgen (1971), found satisfaction with one's performance was as much a function of prior expectations as the aggregate level of feedback. However, recent empirical research has supported the positive relationship between met expectations and job satisfaction (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Michaels & Spector, 1982), and organisational commitment (Arnold & Feldman, 1982). Although, no relationship between organisational commitment and pre-employment expectations was also found (Michaels & Spector, 1992). There is some empirical research to support the theories of needs-rewards match or person-environment 'fit'.

3.3. *Defining Job satisfaction*

Job satisfaction has been described using both situational explanations, which stress the importance of the immediate objective nature of work (Gruenberg, 1980), and/or dispositional explanations, which suggest any effects that the objective features of work have on satisfaction are ultimately mediated by the work values that individuals bring to the job as a result of prior socialisation (Hulin & Blood, 1968).

The majority of explanations include both satisfaction with the objective nature of the job and the subjective perceptions of the job mediated by employees' values (Hurlbert, 1991; Mobley et al., 1979) and needs (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). Support exists for both situational (Tett & Meyer, 1993), and dispositional (Locke, 1969; 1976) explanations. Herzberg (1968) suggested there were both intrinsic and extrinsic components of job satisfaction, which reflect the dispositional and situational aspects of job satisfaction respectively. Intrinsic satisfaction reflects job satisfaction through the matching of individuals' values and needs with organisational values and rewards. Extrinsic job satisfaction reflects satisfaction with the objective nature of the job e.g. work conditions and rewards.

Steers (1977) defines overall satisfaction as the *"degree to which members of a social system have a positive affective orientation towards membership in the system"* (p.79). Agho, Mueller & Price (1993) simply define job satisfaction as *"the extent to which employees like their work"* (p.1007).

Job satisfaction is treated as a single variable in many studies, which conceals the intra-individual differences with different aspects of the work situation. Thus, overall measures of job satisfaction obscure the more detailed relationships that exist between the facets of job satisfaction and individual and organisational variables. Clarification is needed. Facets of job satisfaction that have been identified and assessed include: pay, work, promotion, supervisor, co-worker and satisfaction with the job itself.

3.4. *Defining organisational commitment*

In the early eighties, Morrow (1983) concluded that *"commitment has consumed an inordinate amount of researchers' attention without a commensurate*

increase in understanding of its fundamental nature... " (p.498). This lack of progress may be the result of a lack of clarity in the definition of the concept of organisational commitment. Kundi & Saleh (1993) suggest the concept of OC should be differentiated from other well-known work-related concepts and be defined in a way that will help to predict its consequences rather than in terms of its consequences.

Many empirical models consider organisational commitment as an overall measure, however, research has indicated that the variable is composed of at least three conceptually and statistically distinct facets (Buchanan, 1974). The three facets popularly described are attitudinal/affective commitment, normative or moral commitment and behavioural/continuance commitment.

Attitudinal/affective commitment - Mowday, Steers & Porter (1979) described organisational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation. A number of researchers support this attitudinal definition (Baumeister & Zaharia, 1978; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Kalleberg & Berg, 1987; Kalleberg & Reve, 1993; Meyer & Allen, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Normative/moral commitment - This component is based on Wiener's (1982) suggestion that individuals exhibit behaviours solely because they believe it is the "right" and moral thing to do. Commitment is the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests. Personal norms have been identified as important contributors to behaviour (Pretholdt, Lane & Mathews, 1987). Normative or moral commitment is predicted to be influenced by the individual's experiences both prior to, and following entry into the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Wiener, 1982).

Behavioral/continuance commitment - This is manifested through the availability of alternatives and extent of side-bets which affect employees' perceived losses associated with leaving the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The side-bet idea was described by Salancik (1977b) as "*a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his/her actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities and his/her own involvement in the organisation*" (p.62). Indeed, DeCotiis & Summers (1987) suggest this facet of organisational

commitment may simply reflect an effective reward system and/or a lack of opportunity for alternative employment. The behavioural component of commitment, being described as affectively neutral, (Hallaby, 1986; Mueller, Wallace & Price, 1992), was suggested to describe simply intent to stay. However, the suggestion by Becker (1960) that commitment is a tendency to engage in consistent lines of activity based on the individual's recognition of the costs associated with discontinuing the activity, indicates behavioural commitment does not simply represent intent to stay.

Thus, employees with strong affective commitment remain because they *want* to, those with strong continuance commitment because they *need* to and those with strong normative commitment because they feel they *ought* to.

Support exists for three separate components of organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1990). Meyer & Allen (1991) found employees' emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement with the organisation are manifested through the nature and quality of different work experiences. They did however, find some overlap between affective and normative commitment, but both were relatively independent of calculative commitment. Indeed, Mueller et al. (1992) supported the distinction between loyalty and continuance commitment, with loyalty suggested to precede continuance commitment.

Clearly, it is better to recognise the separate components of organisational commitment, than obscure the different types of commitment within an all encompassing definition. The understanding of commitment and the role of commitment to predicting organisational behaviours will be better understood if the separate components are explicitly recognised.

3.4.1. Different foci of commitment

Within the organisation there are different focuses of commitment (Becker, 1992; Becker & Billings, 1993). Different foci identified by Blau, Paul & St.John (1993) and Mueller et al., (1992) include organisational, job and work commitment and career or occupational commitment. Commitments also arise outside the workplace, for example, commitment to the family.

Kundi & Saleh (1993) suggest organisational commitment should reflect an internal tendency to resolve conflicts between organisational demands and personal or sub-group interests in favour of the organisation. They define organisational commitment as:

"..the tendency, based on cognitive, affective, and normative forces on the individual, to behave in ways which place primacy on the promotion and protection of the interests of the organisation as opposed to a pre-occupation with the immediate/direct personal or sub-group interests."

However, the existence of other foci of commitment may reduce organisational commitment. The relationship between organisational and career commitment is described as an example below.

Career/professional commitment defined as *"the relative strength of identification with and involvement in one's profession"* (Morrow & Wirth, 1989, p.41), is similar in definition and construct to organisational commitment. Normative, affective and continuance aspects of occupational commitment have indeed been identified (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). The early literature on professional and organisational commitment assumes an inherent conflict between professional and organisational goals. Thus, those who were highly committed to their careers/professions could not be also highly committed to the organisation.

There is however, no inherent conflict between commitment to the profession and organisation if the individual's professional work expectations and goals are met by the employing organisation (Blau, 1968; Fielding & Portwood, 1980; Lachman & Aranya, 1986; Mueller et al., 1992). To alleviate the potential conflict between organisational and professional commitment the organisational structure can be modified to provide more professional incentives and less organisational control for the professional employee (Kornhauser, 1962; Miller, 1967).

Aryee & Tan (1992) found a positive relationship between organisational and professional commitment. Further, Wallace (1993) found only one negative correlation between organisational and professional commitment out of a total of 25 studies. Moderating variables of the organisational - career commitment relationship include i) degree of professionalization of the occupation, if this is high a positive relationship between professional and organisational commitment

would be expected, ii) position, with the correlation between professional and organisational commitment being higher for those in higher positions and iii) the measure of professional commitment used.

Similarly, other foci of commitment to not have to compete with organisational commitment if they are recognised as important by the organisation and steps are taken to incorporate the potential conflict into work design and provision. With increasing numbers of families where parents work, the organisation needs to consider the family commitments of employees, and incorporate this consideration in to the employment contract.

3.5. *Antecedents and outcomes of job satisfaction and organisational commitment*

Antecedents of attitudinal and affective variables include personal demographic, dispositional and organisational variables which affect the interactions between the individual and the organisation and the perceptions formed by the individual. Certain demographic variables may predispose individuals to certain life experiences and thus, affect individual values and predispositions. Individual values, in part, determine the congruence between the person and the job/organisation, which in turn plays a major role in organisational attitudes and behavioural outcomes. This is in opposition to Decotiis & Summers (1987), who disregard personal characteristics that are independent of the organisation such as race, age or gender stating they do not play a part in the development of organisational commitment, with only those personal characteristics acquired as a function of membership in an organisation being important. Positive organisational experiences would be expected to enhance job satisfaction and organisational commitment, as supported by Lee & Mowday (1987). What constitutes a positive experience inevitably varies depending on the situation and more importantly, on individual perception.

3.5.1. *Personal and demographic antecedents of job satisfaction*

3.5.1.1. *Employment History* Employees who reported longer tenure in their previous jobs, no more than two jobs prior to the current one, and no previous job

in which they terminated their employment within one year were more likely to report satisfaction with their current jobs (Razza, 1993).

3.5.1.2. *Gender* Baumeister & Zaharia (1987) found a staff gender mix at work led to higher job satisfaction than an all female staff. However, equivocal results have been found with regard to gender differences in job satisfaction. Eichinger, Heifetz & Ingraham (1991) suggested one's behavioural repertoire, consisting of both conventionally masculine and feminine characteristics, may have a relationship with satisfaction. They found those employees with a balanced on and off the job social role orientation expressed significantly higher levels of job satisfaction. Among human service professionals, who are expected to be both goal directed and decisive whilst being caring and compassionate, a mix of traditionally masculine and feminine traits would enable a flexible approach. Gender is likely to moderate the relationship between organisational rewards, pay, promotion and position and satisfaction.

3.5.1.3. *Family responsibilities* number of dependents was found to be positively correlated with job satisfaction and married employees were more satisfied with their jobs than unmarried employees (Arnold & Feldman, 1982).

3.5.1.4. *Education* has been shown to have a negative relationship (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Grau, Chandler, Burton & Kolditz, 1987; Miller, 1980), no relationship (Blegen, 1993), and a positive relationship (Judge, 1993; Tharenou, 1993) with job satisfaction. The weight of evidence however, suggests a negative relationship with position and ability as possible moderators.

3.5.1.5. *Predisposition* Weitz (1952) proposed that a worker's level of dissatisfaction might be more meaningful if placed in the context of a worker's predisposition to be satisfied in general. The relationship between job dissatisfaction and turnover would be expected to be greater for generally satisfied than for generally dissatisfied individuals. Considering affective disposition will allow a more accurate assessment of the actual job dissatisfaction of the individual. Judge (1993) found individuals with a positive disposition who were dissatisfied with their jobs were significantly more likely to quit than individuals with a negative disposition who were dissatisfied.

3.5.1.6. *Genetic influences* may influence the experience of satisfaction. A significant amount of variance in almost every behavioural trait has been suggested to be influenced by genetic factors. Thus, genetic factors would be expected to affect organisational behaviour. Bouchard, Arvey, Keller & Segal (1992) reported a study of 34 identical twins raised apart from birth. They found 30% of the variance in total job satisfaction was associated with genetic factors. The term 'genetic influences' does not however, mean an inability to change.

3.5.1.5. *Age, tenure and job satisfaction*, a number of studies have found a positive relationship between both age, tenure and job satisfaction. Age and tenure both measure certain similar aspects of the person-organisation relationship, therefore, a positive relationship would be expected. Job experience models would suggest tenure is a better predictor of job satisfaction, whereas career stage theory would suggest determinants of job satisfaction co-vary with age. Bannister & Griffeth (1986), re-examining the Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth (1978) turnover model, found a reciprocal relationship between age and tenure, with tenure being a precursor of job satisfaction.

3.5.1.6 *The tenure-job satisfaction relationship* is suggested to be more stable than that between age and satisfaction (Bedeian, Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). Blegen (1993). Indeed a positive correlation between tenure and job satisfaction has been found (Gregson, 1990; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Newman, 1974). However, found no relationship between tenure and job satisfaction. Bedeian et al. (1992) suggested the relationship varied depending on gender and the aspect of satisfaction and tenure that was being assessed. For *male* subjects, *job tenure* positively predicted satisfaction with co-workers, *tenure with supervisor* positively predicted satisfaction with pay and organisational satisfaction. For *female* subjects, *job tenure* negatively predicted satisfaction with work, supervision and promotion. *Tenure with supervisor* negatively predicted satisfaction with supervision and promotion. *Organisational tenure* positively predicted pay satisfaction, and negatively predicted satisfaction with supervision and promotion. George & Baumeister (1981) found a small negative relationship between satisfaction with pay and promotion and tenure, yet a positive relationship was also found between pay satisfaction and tenure (Gregson, 1990).

3.5.1.7. *The age-job satisfaction relationship* has been said to be U-shaped, to be positive and linear and to be positive and linear until a terminal period in which there is a significant decline in job satisfaction (Rhodes, 1983). The weight of findings suggest a positive relationship (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Baumeister & Zaharia, 1987; Blegen, 1993; Grau et al., 1987; Lee & Mowday, 1987). Age was also positively predictive of overall job satisfaction (Baumeister & Zaharia, 1987; Dalessio, Silverman & Schuck, 1986; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Michaels & Spector, 1982) and pay level satisfaction (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). Bedeian et al. (1992) found satisfaction with supervision had a significant negative relationship with age, which indicates the importance of looking at the facets of job satisfaction individually.

Explanations for the positive relationship include i) that jobs do not fulfil younger workers expectations, ii) developmental aging and iii) focusing on life-cycle factors, older workers typically have built up considerable seniority and experience and they tend to have better jobs, intrinsically and extrinsically. Indeed, Bedeian et al. (1992) suggest older workers are more satisfied because they get more of what they want out of work as they have been there longer. This is supported by Mottaz (1987), who found the relationship between age and job satisfaction non-existent when rewards and values were controlled.

The contribution of intrinsic and extrinsic factors to the age-job satisfaction relationship is unclear. Miller (1980) found both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards increase work satisfaction. Eichar, Norland, Brady & Fortinsky (1991) however, found intrinsic indicators (skill and autonomy) had a significant impact on the job satisfaction of older workers, however, none of the extrinsic indicators had an impact. In contrast, Lee & Wilbur (1985) found the age-extrinsic job satisfaction relationship more stable when controlling for co-variates (education, salary, tenure) than the age-intrinsic job satisfaction relationship. They suggest that future research should investigate the influence of cohort and cultural differences in the relationship between age and job satisfaction.

3.5.2. *Job and organisational antecedents of job satisfaction*

Job and organisational variables represent the structural components of the organisational values which emanate from the culture of the organisation.

Therefore, these variables would be expected to have a large impact on the development of organisational attitudes and perceptions.

3.5.2.1. Job and organisational characteristics Job characteristics that fulfil the three psychological states of *meaning, responsibility and knowledge of results*, suggested in the *motivating potential model*, create the motivating potential score (MPS). Evans & Ondrack (1991) indicate that the MPS is significantly and positively correlated with job satisfaction, total satisfaction and work satisfaction, and that individual needs moderate this relationship. Those with higher needs were more likely to be satisfied with more enriched jobs than those with lower needs. Hackman & Oldham (1974) and Michaels & Spector (1982) found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the MPS. Hackman & Oldham (1976, 1980) suggested job characteristics contributed to positive job attitudes through internal work motivation.

Job satisfaction has been found to be positively correlated with a number of job/organisational characteristics: pleasant working conditions, the use of skills and abilities (Staw, 1984), skill variety (Hackman & Oldham, 1974; Hendrix, Ovalle & Troxler, 1985), task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback from agents, dealing with others, (Hackman & Oldham, 1974), feedback (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Hackman & Oldham, 1974; Price & Mueller, 1981), job security (Arnold & Feldman, 1982), work facilitation, goal emphasis, job scope (Tharenou, 1993), and participation (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Price & Mueller, 1981). Michaels & Spector (1982) found increased job satisfaction was predicted by the job being perceived as having certain positive job characteristics, especially those that are normatively desirable (Hesketh & Gardner, 1993).

Hours worked was negatively predictive of work satisfaction, (Weisman, Gordon, Cassard, Bergner & Wong, 1993). Job routine would be expected to have a negative relationship with job satisfaction (Blegen, 1993) but, a positive relationship has also been found (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Price & Mueller, 1981). The conceptualisation of 'routine' needs to be clarified.

James & Jones (1980) whilst individuals rely on the psychologically significant and meaningful perceptions of job challenge, autonomy and importance for direct information in the formulation of job satisfaction, the relationship between perceptions and job satisfaction is reciprocal although, job satisfaction appears to be a stronger cause of perceptions of job characteristics than the reverse.

3.5.2.2. *Salary* Staw's (1984) review of the literature suggested *pay* was a covariate of satisfaction. Indeed, job satisfaction was found to positively correlate with wage rate (Judge, 1993), but also a *negative* relationship was found between pay and job satisfaction among nurses (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Cherniss, 1991; Grau et al., 1987).

Tenure and perceptions of fairness may moderate the job satisfaction-pay relationship. Gregson (1990) found a positive relationship between pay satisfaction and tenure, employees with tenure of 8+ years were more satisfied with pay than those with tenure of 3-4 years. Perceptions of distributive justice would be expected to enhance the relationship between pay satisfaction and pay, with pay satisfaction being lowest when the employees were low paid and distributive justice was perceived as unfair. Indeed, Razza (1993) looking at direct-care staff, found distributive justice perceptions were positively correlated with perceptions of present pay satisfaction and expected pay satisfaction.

3.5.2.3. *Position* within an organisation would be expected to be a determinant of the work environment experienced by the individual and ultimately shape that individual's attitudes and behaviour (Butler & Ehrlich, 1991). Managers were found to have significantly greater job satisfaction than clerical workers (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992) and line managers were more satisfied than staff (Jones et al., 1993). Individual competence or ability may affect aspects of satisfaction depending on the demands placed on the individual. This was supported by Bhagat & Allie (1989).

3.5.2.4. *Promotional opportunities* were also found to co-vary with job satisfaction (Staw, 1984). Job satisfaction was positively predicted by opportunity in the job (Price & Mueller, 1981) and promotion (Price & Mueller, 1981;

Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992). Gender moderated this relationship, with men being significantly more satisfied with promotion than women (Gregson, 1990).

3.5.2.5. Perceptions of fairness of organisational processes would be expected affect satisfaction with rewards and outcomes in a job. Folgor & Konovsky (1989) define two types of organisational justice: *distributive justice* - the perceived fairness of the amounts of compensation employees receive and *procedural justice* - the perceived fairness of the means used to determine those amounts. Distributive justice was suggested to be a more important predictor of job and pay level satisfaction than procedural justice (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992).

Sweeney & McFarlin (1993) tested four models looking at organisational justice and its outcomes. A two-factor model, where distributive justice was predictive of personal-level evaluations and procedural justice was a predictor of organisational-level outcomes (organisational commitment and trust in supervisor), provided the most parsimonious explanation of the data, supporting McFarlin & Sweeney (1992). Studying pay equity perceptions, the results of Summers & Hendrix (1991) and Lee & Martin (1991) gave partial support for this relationship. Distributive justice predicted pay satisfaction which in turn predicted overall job satisfaction. Perceptions of fairness would be expected to moderate all the relationships between organisational rewards and job satisfaction.

3.5.3. Person-organisation interaction: antecedents of job satisfaction

Perceptions of the organisation would be expected to have an impact on organisational behaviour through their influence on job attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

3.5.3.1. Support within the organisation and home environment arises from a number of sources and in a variety of forms. The lack of clarity of source and type of support leads to misleading conclusions. Generally, support was found to be positively correlated with job satisfaction (Grau et al., 1987; Tharenou, 1993), and positively predictive of job satisfaction (Butler & Ehrlich, 1991). Support from family and friends was positively predictive of job satisfaction (Price & Mueller, 1981; Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992). The importance of clarity of measurement of support and the source of support when considering the effects of

support is highlighted by the different results obtained depending on the source and type of support.

Support is often thought to moderate the effects of stress, and would therefore be expected to moderate the job satisfaction-stress relationship. Of those studies that have examined the buffering effect of social support on the stress-satisfaction relationship, inconsistent results have been obtained as the relationship between support and stress still remains unclear. Kaufman & Beehr (1984) found a positive relationship between support and stress, although they suggest this is because the source of the support and the source of stress were not independent. Group cohesion moderates the stress-satisfaction relationship, with job dissatisfaction related more strongly to role ambiguity in cohesive groups compared to that in non-cohesive groups (Beehr, 1976). Indeed, Lucas, Atwood & Hagaman (1993) found group cohesion to be a negative predictor of job satisfaction.

Social networks were suggest to be a source of support and were found to have an effect on job satisfaction by moderating the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction (Hurlbert, 1991). Membership in co-worker and kin-centred networks was positively correlated with job satisfaction, however, education level, worker values, position and authority moderated these relationships.

Good *supervisor-subordinate relationships* at work are associated with greater job satisfaction. The relationship between job satisfaction and supervisor support is reciprocal (Tharenou, 1993). Job satisfaction is positively correlated with quality of interaction between managers and subordinates (Jones et al., 1993) specifically: communication with supervisor and peers, (Blegen, 1993), recognition (Blegen, 1993; Staw, 1984), consideration behaviour of supervisors (Michaels & Spector, 1982; Staw, 1984), participation and kinship (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992), consistency (Klimowski & Hayes, 1980) and supervision received (Razza, 1993). Some facets of job satisfaction were positively correlated with frequency of evaluation, frequency of communication and subordinate involvement in determining performance standards (Klimowski & Hayes, 1980). Thus, supportive relationships at work appear to enhance positive job attitudes.

Negative aspects of supervisor-subordinate relationships include having more than one supervisor (O'Driscoll, 1987), an over-structured system with an emphasis on close supervision, a lack of personal responsibility and achievement (Hampton, Summer & Webber, 1982) and whether work was subject to the whims of the supervisor (Hendrix, Ovalle & Troxler, 1985). A negative relationship between satisfaction with supervision and age existed (Bedeian et al., 1992).

Perception of the job as providing an opportunity for social relations with *co-workers* was significantly associated with higher job satisfaction for newcomers (O'Driscoll, 1987), after 6 months however, job characteristics and task identity were more important co-variables of job satisfaction. Satisfaction with co-workers was positively correlated with group level and individual level integration and negatively correlated with cohesiveness (O'Reilly, Caldwell & Barnett, 1989).

3.5.3.2. *Autonomy* has been found to have a positive relationship with job satisfaction (Blegen, 1993; Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Hackman & Oldham, 1974; McCloskey, 1990; Price & Mueller, 1981). Hackman & Oldham (1976, 1980) contend that autonomy contributes to internal work motivation and positive job attitudes. McCloskey (1990) found that nurses wanted autonomy, but they also wanted to maintain close working relationships.

The Professional Practice Model (PPM) fostering greater work group autonomy (Weisman et al., 1993), is an example of a work-group of individuals who self-regulate work on their interdependent tasks. Nurses on units using the PPM had significantly higher work satisfaction levels than comparison nurses. The enhancing effect of the PPM on work satisfaction was through the degree to which patient care is coordinated within the nursing staff and between nurses and other providers, and the effectiveness of team performance on the unit. The PPM may require a greater team effort, fostering close working relationships, a greater autonomy within the group and between the group and other units results.

3.5.3.3. *Control* The concept of autonomy at work may be related to the importance of control to the individual or perception of control in a job. Job satisfaction has been found to be positively correlated with the ability to influence one's job (Meadows, 1981), involvement in decision making (Hendrix et al., 1985), perceived amount of control at work (Fox, Dwyer and Ganster, 1993) and

negatively correlated with locus of control (Bleger, 1993). Indeed, Cavanagh & Coffin (1992) found the more people were involved in the decision making processes, the more likely they were to be satisfied with their jobs.

Posner & Butterfield (1979) found that an individual's positive attitudes about their work environment, positive feelings about their supervisor's competence, positive feelings about their access to the decision making network and clarity of their role requirements all varied directly with the degree to which they perceived having personal control in an organisation. Greater control led to more positive feelings. Training, ability and type of coping strategy were suggested to be moderators of the job satisfaction-control relationship.

Perceived control moderates the stress - job satisfaction relationship (Fox et al., 1993; Tetrick & LaRocco, 1987). Similarly, locus of control moderated the job satisfaction role ambiguity relationship (Organ & Greene, 1974). A negative relationship was found for those with a high internal locus of control, but not for those with a high external locus of control. However, Keenan & McBain (1979) found that role ambiguity was dissatisfying for both internals and externals, whilst Karasek (1979) found no moderating effects of control. Fox et al., (1993) also found when perceived control was high, the relationship between job satisfaction and perceived work load was positive, however, when the level of perceived control was low, the relationship between perceived work load and job satisfaction was negative.

3.5.3.4. Efforts to change the situation at work Hirschman (1970, 1974) suggested there are mechanisms that allow employees opportunities to voice dissatisfaction other than leaving. A consistent relationship between the presence of unions and the turnover rate has not however, been demonstrated (Spencer, 1986). Successful efforts to alter an unsatisfactory situation would be expected to lead to greater satisfaction at work. Indeed, Lee & Mowday (1987) find efforts to change the job were positively predictive of job satisfaction. The relationship was suggested to be reciprocal (Steers & Mowday, 1981). A negative relationship was found between the total number of opportunities an organisation gives employees to voice dissatisfaction over aspects of their work and the voluntary turnover rate (Spencer, 1986). High numbers of voice mechanisms are associated with high

levels of employees' expectancies for problem resolution and high perceived effectiveness of an organisation's procedures for resolving problems (Spencer, 1986).

3.5.3.5. *Job Involvement* Both a positive and negative relationship between job satisfaction and job involvement has been found although a positive relationship has gained more support (Cherniss, 1991). Job satisfaction was found to be significantly and positively correlated with job involvement, (Lee & Mowday, 1987; James & Jones, 1980). Thompson & Siess (1978) suggested that fulfilment of job expectations may moderate the involvement-satisfaction relationship.

3.5.3.6. *Perceived alternatives* Vandenberg & Scarpello (1980) suggest the more favourably the present job is compared with other jobs, the more satisfied the employee, whether a newcomer or tenured employee. Indeed, a negative relationship between job satisfaction and alternative opportunities is well established in the literature (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Carsten and Spector, 1987; Hulin, Roznowski & Hachiya, 1985; Miller, Katerberg & Hulin, 1979; Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978; Pond & Geyer, 1993). A positive relationship has however been found between alternative employment opportunities and job satisfaction (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Judge, 1993). The negative relationship would be expected to be moderated by age, position, tenure, level of intrinsic rewards and cohort beliefs among older employees. The results of Pond & Geyer (1993) indeed supported age as a moderator: for younger employees, there was a greater negative relationship between alternatives and job satisfaction than there was for older employees.

3.5.4. *The outcomes of Job Satisfaction*

3.5.4.1. *Job performance* has been suggested to have a reciprocal relationship with job satisfaction (Tharenou, 1993; Lee & Mowday, 1987). Varca & James-Valutis (1993) indicated that individuals with high levels of job satisfaction and high levels of job relevant ability received significantly higher performance ratings than all other workers.

Other performance behaviours, i.e. organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB), not recognised by the formal reward systems may be more reflective of job satisfaction. There are behaviours that benefit the organisation in general (OCBO), and behaviours that immediately benefit specific individuals (OCBI) and thus, indirectly contribute to the organisation. Williams and Anderson (1991) found job cognitions, including beliefs about managerial and co-worker behaviours, opportunities for advancement and working conditions were strongly related to OCB performance. The extrinsic component of job satisfaction was more highly related to organisational OCB, whilst the intrinsic component was more highly related to individual OCB. Therefore, both extrinsic and intrinsic facets of job satisfaction are associated with greater OCB behaviour which promotes the efficiency and effectiveness of the organisation. This suggests a different focus for the assessment of performance which adds to formal performance assessment methods.

3.5.4.2. *Absence* has been traditionally assumed to be an outcome of job dissatisfaction, however, recently, absence has been suggested to have negative effects on job satisfaction (Clegg, 1983). Tharenou (1993) found a reciprocal relationship with uncertified absence more likely to influence job dissatisfaction than the reverse, partially supporting Clegg (1983). Satisfaction was positively negatively correlated with frequency of absence and time lost (Tharenou, 1993). There no relationship between certified absence and satisfaction, indicating that satisfaction is less affected where there is a ready explanation available. Being absent for avoidable reasons may require self-justification which may lead the individual to attribute the absence to the fact that they don't like their job. Thus, absence would predict job dissatisfaction only where there was individual choice.

3.5.4.3. *Withdrawal and Turnover* According to Mobley et al. (1979), the implication of satisfaction - dissatisfaction is staying or leaving the organisation. People with greater job satisfaction would be expected to be less likely to leave the organisation voluntarily. Job satisfaction would indicate congruence between the individual's goals and those of the organisation. Turnover intentions have been found to mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover (Michaels & Spector, 1982; Miller et al., 1979). Job satisfaction has been found to be

negatively correlated with active job search, general efficacy of job search, ease of movement and expected utility of withdrawal (Blau, 1993) and positively correlated with intent to stay (Cavanagh & Coffin 1992; Grau et al., 1991; Hendrix et al., 1985; Steers & Mowday, 1981). Job satisfaction is a negative predictor of thinking of quitting (Bannister & Griffeth, 1986; Blau, 1993; Dalessio et al., 1986), intention to quit (Bannister & Griffeth, 1986; Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Dalessio et al., 1986; Hendrix et al., 1985; Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Kemery, Mossholder & Bedeian, 1987; Lang, Wittig-Berman & Rizkalla, 1992; Lucas et al., 1993; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Price & Mueller, 1981; Razza, 1993; Summers & Hendrix, 1991) and intention to search for a job, (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Bannister & Griffeth, 1986; Blau, 1993; Lang et al., 1992; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Razza, 1993; Stumpf & Hartman, 1984). Lucas et al. (1993) found organisational satisfaction predicted anticipated turnover.

A negative relationship between overall satisfaction and actual turnover has also gained substantial support (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Baumeister & Zaharia, 1987; Blau, 1993; Cavanagh, 1990; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Decker, 1985; Judge, 1993; Kemery, Bedeian, Mossholder & Touliatos, 1985; Lane et al., 1991; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Locke, 1976; Lucas et al., 1993; Mobley et al., 1979; Ng, 1993; Porter & Steers, 1973; Price, 1977; Saleh, Lee & Prien, 1965). Of seven studies, reviewed by Mobley et al. (1979), all but one indicated a significant negative relationship between overall job satisfaction and turnover, the other was non-significant. Satisfaction with the job in general was predictive of voluntary turnover (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987).

The existence of a negative relationship between satisfaction and turnover intentions and actual turnover has gained substantial support and would seem to be a logical association. Not all results support this relationships, Jones et al. (1993) found a *positive* correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intention, whilst Breeden (1993) found no relationship between job satisfaction and turnover.

Tenure is suggested to moderate the job satisfaction turnover relationship. DeCotiis & Summers (1987) suggested job satisfaction would be more strongly associated with avoidance behaviour for short-tenure employees. However, Vandenberg & Scarpello (1990) found no relationship between job satisfaction and

turnover behaviour for new comers whilst for more tenured employees, a negative relationship was found.

3.5.4.4. *Facets of job satisfaction and turnover* Relationships between aspects of job satisfaction and turnover have not always been consistent. The relationship between global job satisfaction, facets of job satisfaction and turnover has been suggested by the majority of researchers to be negative. There is a need for clarification of measures used, and sample differences noted when defining relationships between aspects of job satisfaction and turnover.

Pay satisfaction A negative relationship between turnover and pay satisfaction has been supported (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Hatton & Emerson, 1993; Hellreigel & White, 1973; Mangione, 1973). Similarly, a positive relationship between attitudes towards job benefits and intent to stay was found (Grau et al., 1987). George & Baumeister (1981) found satisfaction with pay and promotion received the lowest ratings in institutions supporting people with learning difficulties.

Satisfaction with promotion Turnover was negatively correlated with satisfaction with promotion (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Gregson, 1990), perceived chance of promotion (Marsh & Mannari, 1977) as was intent to turnover (Gregson, 1990). Ng (1993) however, found career satisfaction was predictive of an increased likelihood of quitting.

Satisfaction with supervision was negatively correlated with turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Hellreigel & White, 1973; Ilgen & Dugoni, 1977), intent to turnover, and negatively predictive of turnover (Gregson, 1990). Satisfaction with relationship with supervisor was predictive of reduced likelihood of quitting when overall job satisfaction was controlled for (Ng, 1993).

Intent to turnover was negatively correlated with *satisfaction with the firm and work* (Gregson, 1990) and *satisfaction with self-development* (Hatton & Emerson, 1993b). Turnover is negatively correlated with *satisfaction with co-workers and teamwork* (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Koch & Steers, 1978), *satisfaction with hours worked* (Ilgen & Dugoni, 1977) and *intrinsic satisfaction* (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Mangione, 1973; Mirvis & Lawler, 1977). In general, the facets of job satisfaction have a negative relationship with turnover intention and behaviour.

3.5.5. *Summary*

The relationship between job satisfaction and withdrawal intentions and behaviour is not as well established as the amount of research dedicated to the study of this relationship would suggest. Satisfaction is the most frequently studied psychological variable thought to be related to turnover, yet it typically accounts for less than 16% of the variance in turnover (Locke, 1976; Porter & Steers, 1973). There are a number of methodological issues which may account for some of the discrepancies in the research. The level of analysis (individual, group or organisational) may moderate the strength and direction of the relationship between job satisfaction and its antecedents and outcomes. Whether the measures used are global or facet measures may have some impact. Finally, the occupational group studied may contribute to the variance in results.

More concern needs to be turned to a more realistic ^{assessment} of job satisfaction, considering individual predisposition, ways of alleviating job dissatisfaction within the organisation and the external influences on the individual. It is important to consider the whole picture rather than unrealistic isolated dichotomous relationships.

3.5.6. *Personal and demographic antecedents of Organisational commitment*

3.5.6.1. *Gender* Gender models are based on a set of factors said to differ between men and women, i.e. family roles and socialisation, as well as varying labour market opportunities (Marsden, Kalleberg & Cook, 1993). The gender models suggest women have more choice than men whether or not to be employed, although they have limited choices within the labour market. Thus, those who seek work may have a greater disposition for commitment to work and employers.

The empirical evidence for the effect gender on organisational commitment remains equivocal. DeCotiis & Summers (1987) found no relationship between gender and commitment, whereas men were found to have greater organisational commitment than women (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Marsden et al., 1993). Marsden et al. (1993) attributed this difference to gender differences in commitment related job and career attitudes, in comparable positions women have

a trend to be more committed to their jobs than men. Position therefore, moderates the relationship between gender and organisational commitment. Gender differences between men and women in organisational commitment are far smaller than the within gender differences in organisational commitment (Marsden et al., 1993).

3.5.6.2. *Family responsibilities* Organisational commitment was greater among married employees (Marsden et al., 1993; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972) and among those with no young children (Marsden et al., 1993). Family supportive action was positively correlated with and predictive of organisational commitment (Lee, 1971).

3.5.6.3. *Education* is negatively correlated with and predictive of organisational commitment (Steers, 1977; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Koch & Steers, 1978; Angle & Perry, 1981). This relationship is consistent across different occupational groups (Steers, 1977) including direct care workers (Morris & Sherman, 1981), at different job levels and across job focus. In addition, Meyer & Allen (1990) found a negative correlation between education and all three components of organisational commitment. DeCotiis & Summers (1987) however, found no relationship between organisational commitment and education. Evidence generally suggests a negative relationship indicating a conflict remains between professional and organisational commitment as organisational structures fail to take into account the career needs of the employees.

3.5.6.4. *Age, tenure and organisational commitment* Age and tenure are seen as indicators of side-bets that an employee has with an organisation. Age and tenure would therefore, be expected to be important predictors of organisational commitment, particularly calculative or behavioural commitment. Cohen (1993) found both age and tenure had strong positive relationships organisational commitment. Calculative commitment had a stronger relationship with age and tenure than did affective commitment, supporting the idea that age and tenure are associated with greater side bets being invested in the organisation. Age and tenure had different relationships with organisational commitment implying that it is useful to measure both.

Further support for the positive relationship between tenure and commitment exists (Buchanan, 1974; Cohen, 1993; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Lee, 1971; Lee, Ashford, Walsh & Mowday, 1992; March & Simon, 1958; Mowday et al., 1979; Sheldon, 1971).

Age also has a well established positive relationship with organisational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981, DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Hrebiniak, 1974; Lee, 1971; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Sheldon, 1971). This relationship is consistent across different occupational samples (Steers, 1977) including direct-care workers (Morris & Sherman, 1981). Age has also been found to predict organisational commitment (Michaels & Spector, 1982; Steers, 1977), and was the strongest predictor of commitment during early career stages (Cohen, 1993).

3.5.6.5. *Career stage*, assessed by age and tenure, moderates the effects of factors that influence employees' psychological relationships to the organisation (Brooks, 1986; Buchanan, 1974; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1981). Three (Brooks & Seers, 1991), four (Dalton, Thompson & Price, 1977) and five (Brooks, 1986) stage models of career progression have been outlined.

Career development models, (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson & McKee, 1978; Super, 1957) suggest in the early career stages, mastery of task assignments, perceived work group cohesiveness (Brooks & Seers, 1991), task challenge (Brooks & Seers, 1991; Buchanan, 1974) and group attitudes toward the organisation were important predictors of organisational commitment. Self-image reinforcement, personal importance (Buchanan, 1974) and perceptions of the supervisor as an asset to advancement (Brooks & Seers, 1991) were predictors of commitment during mid-career stages. Group attitudes towards the organisation, realisation of expectations, work commitment norms (Buchanan, 1974) and organisational climate (Brooks & Seers, 1991) were predictive of organisational commitment at later career stages.

Cohen (1991) found age was a more important moderator with regard to the turnover-organisational commitment relationship, whereas tenure was more important with regard to the organisational commitment-performance and organisational commitment-relationships.

3.5.6.5. *Commitment disposition or propensity* is the aggregation of specific personal characteristics and experiences which may create a more stable attachment to the organisation (Mowday et al., 1982). Disposition was suggested to be positively correlated with organisational commitment (Mowday et al., 1982), particularly affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1993). Commitment propensity is measured using personal characteristics (career desire, familiarity with the job, self efficacy, and self confidence), expectations about the organisation, and choice factors in selecting the organisation (volition and sacrifice). Lee et al. (1992) found a significant positive correlation between commitment propensity and initial organisational commitment, however, stronger correlations existed between the commitment measures than between organisational commitment and commitment disposition. Personal characteristics and experiences during the entry process do have a value in predicting the newcomer's reaction to the organisation. Organisational commitment among new hires is positively predictive of later organisational commitment (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990).

3.5.6.7. *Other variables* that are positively correlated with organisational commitment include acceptance of the protestant work ethic (Lodahl, 1964), central life interest in work (Dublin, Champoux & Porter, 1975), ambition, upward mobility, need for social relations, being open, trusting (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972), sense of competence (Morris & Sherman, 1981), and motivation (Lee, 1971; Mowday et al., 1979). DeCotiis and Summers (1987) found organisational commitment predicted motivation. Need for achievement was also positively correlated with and predicted organisational commitment (Steers, 1977).

3.5.7. *Job and organisational antecedents of organisational commitment*

Organisational values, goals and context are manifested in the organisational structure, characteristics and processes. Thus, these aspects of the organisation would be expected to have an impact on organisational commitment of individuals.

3.5.7.1. *Organisational rewards* would be expected to have a positive relationship with organisational commitment. A positive relationship exists

between organisational commitment and perceptions of *personal importance* (Salancik, 1977a; Steers, 1977), hierarchical position (Sheldon, 1971), power (Brown, 1969) and influence (Stumpf & Hartman, 1984). Affective and normative commitment were positively correlated with personal importance, whereas, continuance commitment had a moderate negative correlation (Meyer & Allen, 1990). Brown (1969) competing objects of identification may moderate the relationship between personal importance and commitment.

Other indicators of organisational rewards that have a positive relationship with organisational commitment include: hierarchical *position* (Sheldon, 1971), *opportunity for development* within the organisation (Aryee & Tan, 1992; Brown, 1969; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972), availability of regular promotion procedures and career satisfaction (Aryee & Tan, 1992; Marsden et al., 1993; O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1980). Kalleberg & Reve (1993) pointed out that incentives, particularly *intrinsic rewards* are salient in promoting attachment. *Job level* was negatively correlated with continuance commitment and positively correlated with affective commitment (Harris, Hirschfield, Field & Mossholder, 1993).

3.5.7.2. *Occupational status* was proposed to moderate the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover (Cohen & Hudecek, 1993). The organisational commitment-turnover relationship was stronger for white collar employees, but, within this sample, the organisational commitment-turnover relationship was the same for professionals and non-professionals.

Organisational commitment of high status employees is achieved if the organisation meets their expectations regarding aspects of their job and occupation. Moderators for employees in low status occupations are suggested to be fewer employment opportunities, costs of leaving the organisation and a desire for stable employment. It would be expected that relationships between calculative and moral/affective commitment and outcomes may vary across occupational group. For employees in higher status occupations continuance commitment will have limited effect on their turnover behaviour as they have a greater number of employment opportunities, a lower dependence on the organisation and a greater dependence on their occupation.

Increasing organisational commitment as a way of reducing turnover is more important for white collar employees whereas, arranging the internal labour market will have a stronger effect on turnover for the blue collar workers. Hatton & Emerson (1992) found different levels of organisational commitment (alienative, moral and calculative) across the hierarchy of the organisation's staff, supporting the moderating effect of occupational status.

3.5.7.3. *Organisational justice* or perceptions of justice affect organisational commitment. Marsden et al. (1993) found organisational commitment is enhanced if employees share the perception that non-merit criteria do not play a part in reward, i.e. that justice procedures are fair. A combination of unfair procedures and low distributive justice produced the lowest ratings of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, in contrast, fair procedures produced high commitment regardless of the level of distributive justice (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993).

3.5.7.4. *Job characteristics* such as task identity, opportunities for optional interaction (Steers, 1977), feedback (Lee et al., 1992; Steers, 1977), utility of organisational feedback (Lee et al., 1992) and opportunity for self expression (Meyer & Allen, 1987) were all positively correlated with organisational commitment. Firm specific training also had a positive relationship with loyalty (Kalleberg & Reve, 1993). Job complexity was negatively related to attitudinal and behavioural aspects of organisational commitment (Steers, 1977).

Kundi & Saleh (1993) found support for the suggestion that job integration, the extent of job scope and opportunity for interaction with others in the organisation, affects organisational commitment through cognitive responsibility and affective identification. Whereas, organisational conflict and goal complexity were expected to attenuate organisational commitment.

Different organisational characteristics have different relationships with the different facets of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1990). Affective commitment was positively correlated with goal clarity, feedback, participation and commitment norm, but was less strongly correlated with skills, and correlated negatively with available alternatives. Calculative commitment was negatively correlated with feedback and skills and was weakly correlated with participation and commitment

norm. Normative commitment was moderately and positively correlated with goal clarity, participation, skills and commitment norm.

3.5.8. *Person-organisation interactions: Antecedents of organisational commitment*

Interactions between the individual and the organisation form the basis for organisational perceptions formed by the individual. Perceptions of the organisation have a major role in determining the individual's attitudes to that organisation and behaviour within the organisation. The initial period of employment has an important role in determining subsequent attitudes and behaviours (Buchanan, 1974, Hall, 1976; Wanous, 1980).

Kundi & Saleh (1993) suggest that individual, organisational variables and interactions influence organisational commitment through three variables: cognitive responsibility (extent to which individual feels responsible for occurrences within the organisation), affective identification (positive psychological orientation to organisation), and normative reciprocity (people should help those who have helped them); which interact with each other and directly predict organisational commitment. However, there is substantial evidence for the direct effect of a number of variables on organisational commitment.

3.5.8.1. *Organisational climate* DeCotiis & Summers (1987) found organisational climate had a direct effect on commitment, affecting both goal internalisation and role involvement. The level of formalisation of the organisational structure did not correlate with organisational commitment (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Kalleberg & Reve, 1993). Kundi and Saleh (1993) suggested components of organisational culture expected to facilitate organisational commitment were values for collectivism and performance. In support of this Kalleberg & Reve (1993), found interdependence positively correlated with loyalty. In addition, affective and normative commitment positively correlated with organisational dependency (Meyer & Allen, 1990). Norms of trust and reciprocity need to be established to enhance employment relationships within service organisations.

3.5.8.2. *Socialisation* Organisational commitment was found to have a positive relationship with greater social involvement (Buchanan, 1974a; Lodahl, 1964; Sheldon, 1971; Jones, 1986). Lee et al. (1992) suggest researchers should aim to understand the processes by which personal characteristics, situational factors and their interactions shape job attitudes and behaviours during organisational entry. Socialisation experiences may be particularly pertinent for newcomers, indeed socialisation accounted for a greater proportion of the variance in organisational commitment at 6 months than at 12 months (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The six socialisation dimensions described by Van Maanen and Schein (1979) reflect a single global polarity, institutionalised vs individualised (Jones, 1986). Organisational commitment was found to be positively correlated with institutionalised socialisation tactics (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Jones, 1986).

Different aspects of organisational commitment had different relationships with aspects of socialisation (Meyer & Allen, 1990). Affective and normative commitment were positively correlated with management reception, peer cohesion, and participation whilst continuance commitment was negatively correlated with management reception, personal importance and participation.

3.5.8.3. *Employee investment* Time, energy and other resources put into the organisation by the individual affect organisational commitment indirectly through cognitive responsibility and affective identification (Kundi & Saleh, 1993). Self-investment was positively correlated with affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1990), normative and continuance commitment were positively correlated with pension losses associated with leaving. Employee investment was suggested to increase organisational commitment as long as the rewards from the organisation were perceived to at least match the input.

3.5.8.4. *Morale* was suggested to mediate the influence of organisational effectiveness on organisational commitment (Hofer & Schendel, 1978). No relationship was found however, between organisational effectiveness and moral or commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981), yet, morale was a predictive of organisational commitment.

3.5.8.5. *Perceived organisational support* The employee's perception of the organisation's commitment to him/her may contribute to the employee's

subsequent commitment to the organisation. Perceived organisational support (POS) is suggested to be antecedent to organisational commitment (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa, 1986; Kundi & Saleh, 1993). POS was indeed strongly correlated with affective commitment, but not with continuance commitment (McFarlane-Shore & Tetrick, 1991). Similarly, organisational dependability was positively predictive of organisational commitment (Steers, 1977). Kundi & Saleh (1993), suggested affective identification and normative reciprocity moderate the POS-organisational commitment relationship.

Organisational support is demonstrated by explicit actions of the organisation to show its concern and care for employees, reflecting a willingness to invest in its employees. POS was not found to be distinct from job satisfaction (McFarlane-shore & Tetrick, 1991).

3.5.8.6. *Autonomy* has been found to be positively related to organisational commitment (Kalleberg & Reve, 1993; Steers, 1977). Harris et al. (1993) found task autonomy was positively correlated with affective commitment. The level of centralisation which was a direct predictor of autonomy, was found to be negatively correlated with organisational commitment (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). Indeed, commitment has been related to the type of control an organisation has over its members (Etzioni, 1975; Salancik, 1977b; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978).

3.5.8.7. The *supervisor-subordinate relationship* has various influences on organisational commitment which depend upon the leader behaviours that are displayed and the employees relationship with his/her immediate leader. Organisational commitment is found to be positively correlated with positive supervisor-subordinate interactions (Lee, 1971) leader reward behaviour (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987), leadership consideration (Morris & Sherman, 1981; Michaels & Spector, 1982; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987), feedback (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987), the opportunity to work autonomously (Marsden et al., 1993), initiating structure of supervisor relationship, (Morris & Sherman, 1981) and decision making (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). Close supervision has been associated with reduced organisational commitment (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1974; Maguire & Ouchi, 1975; Salancik, 1977a). Cohesiveness had a negative relationship with organisational commitment

(Buchanan 1974), and was suggested to mediate the relationship between leadership communications and decision making and organisational commitment (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). The level of commitment on the part of the leaders, affected organisational commitment through the affective identification and normative reciprocity of employees (Kundi & Saleh, 1993).

3.5.8.8. *Challenge and responsibility* was positively correlated with organisational commitment (Buchanan, 1974a; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Salancik, 1977a). Sense of work accomplishments contributed to organisational identification (Lee, 1971). Meyer & Allen (1990) found affective and normative commitment were positively correlated with job challenge and goal difficulty whilst, calculative commitment had moderate negative correlations with job challenge, goal difficulty. An optimal level of challenge and responsibility may exist, after which organisational commitment is reduced.

3.5.8.9. *Availability of alternatives*, measured using the unemployment rate and individuals' unemployment experience was related to perceptions about the ease of leaving the organisation, and was expected to be related to organisational commitment (Gerhart, 1990). Bateman and Strasser (1984) reported commitment to be negatively correlated with perceived environmental alternatives to a job. Vandenberg & Scarpello (1990) found among both new hires and more tenured employees, the comparison of alternative opportunities with present employment was related to OC. Comparison of the balance of rewards and costs between the present position and alternatives was important in influencing organisational commitment (Farrell & Rushbult, 1981). Affective and normative commitment were positively correlated with equity perceptions, however, continuance commitment was most strongly and negatively correlated with available alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1990).

3.5.8.10. *Group demography* Evidence suggests that increased work group diversity is beneficial for tasks requiring creativity and judgment (Jackson, Brett, Sessa, Cooper, Julin & Peronnin, 1991), yet people classify themselves into social categories such as class, race, gender and age and show strong preferences for groups based on these categories. The effect of work group demography appears to be moderated by the social category of the individual (Tsui, Egan & O'Reilly,

1992). Those with the traditionally powerful role, seem to be negatively affected by working with those with the "traditionally subordinate role".

3.5.9. Outcomes of organisational commitment

Job attitudes are suggested to mediate the relationships between demographic and organisational variables and organisational behaviour. Engaging in behaviours that reflect greater organisational commitment and strengthening one's position within the organisation would be expected to represent a lower turnover risk. Kundi & Saleh (1993) suggested greater organisational commitment leads to positive task and employee outcomes. Indeed, commitment intentions were positively correlated with prospective tenure (Joy, 1989).

3.5.9.1. Job performance would be expected to have a positive relationship with organisational commitment (Rushbult & Farrell, 1981; Steers, 1977). A positive relationship has indeed been found between OC and performance (Aranya & Ferris, 1984; Mowday, Porter & Dubin, 1974; Steers, 1977), and productivity (Lee, 1971; Mowday et al., 1979). Cohen (1991) found increasing commitment in the mid and late career stages increased performance. Organisational commitment may be a necessary but not sufficient condition for job performance (Wiener & Vardi, 1980) as positive relationship has not always been found (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987) and different occupational groups do not yield the same results.

Some performance behaviours not recognised by the organisational reward systems, such as organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB), have been said to be correlated with organisational commitment. OCB is said to enhance organisational effectiveness, whilst impression management (IM) was suggested to have a negative impact on organisational effectiveness. OCB was found to be positively related to affective commitment and perceived organisational support (POS) and negatively related to continuance commitment (McFarlane-Shore & Wayne, 1993). There was also a positive correlation between supervisory favour behaviour (part of IM) and affective commitment and OCB.

3.5.9.2. Attendance was found to have a positive relationship with organisational commitment (Steers, 1977; Farrell & Rusnbuli, 1981). Cohen

(1991) found greater commitment in the mid- and late- career stages was associated with reduced absenteeism.

3.5.9.3. *Intent to leave and job search* Organisational commitment is positively correlated with intent to remain in the job (Becker & Billings, 1993; Farrell & Rushbult, 1981; Steers, 1977) and in the career (Aryee & Tan, 1992). Normative and affective organisational commitment were negatively correlated with intent to leave (Meyer et al., 1993) and organisational commitment was directly predictive of desire to leave (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). organisational commitment also had a negative relationship with job search behaviour (Stumpf & Hartman, 1984).

3.5.9.4. *Turnover* Organisational commitment was found to have a negative relationship with turnover (Aryee & Tan, 1992; Baumeister & Zaharia, 1987; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Lee et al., 1992; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Mowday et al., 1974; Porter, Crampon, & Smith, 1976; Porter et al., 1974; Steers, 1977; Werbel and Gould, 1984), and is predictive of voluntary turnover (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987).

Vandenberg & Scarpello (1990) found organisational commitment was negatively predictive of turnover intentions among both new hires and more tenured employees although the relationship was stronger for new hires than for more tenured employees (Cohen, 1991; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990). Porter et al. (1974) however, found OC was a better predictor of turnover later in a employees tenure. Indeed, no relationship was found between moral commitment and turnover for newcomers whereas moral commitment was negatively related to turnover for more tenured employees (Mueller et al., 1992; Werbel & Gould, 1984). It is argued that moral commitment takes time to develop being less stable among new employees. Intent to stay may moderate the relationship between moral commitment and turnover.

3.5.10. *Summary*

Commitment may serve as "*....a stabilizing force that acts to maintain behavioral direction when expectancy/equity conditions are not met and do not function*" (Scholl, 1981 p.593). Commitment minimizes the dysfunctional effects

of short term idiosyncratic behaviour on the part of the organisation toward individual employees. However, high commitment may allow an organisation to violate members expectations in the short term without having those violations negatively affect the individual attitudes or behaviour.

A high level of organisational commitment among employees may have negative consequences, such as a lack of organisational flexibility, innovation and adaptability with an inviolate trust in past policies and procedures (Randall, 1987). Thus, a play off exists between commitment and innovation. Indeed, Allen & Meyer (1990) found a significant, negative correlation between role orientation and organisational commitment, indicating high innovation is correlated with low organisational commitment and vice-versa. The extent to which an organisation communicates and rewards a particular role orientation may moderate this relationship.

There is no commitment-type of individual, rather "*....individuals come to an organisation with certain needs, desires, skills and so forth and expect to find a work environment where they can utilise their abilities and satisfy many of their basic needs. When the organisation provides such a vehicle the likelihood of increasing commitment is enhanced*" (Steers 1977, p.53). This environment is characterised by participation in the decision-making process, clear communications about organisational intentions, activities and performance, autonomy with respect to work definition and conduct, and a sense of cohesion among organisational members. Agreement between individual preference for a particular environment and goal set and the organisational goal set is expected to lead to high commitment to the organisation.

Organisational commitment has important implications for both individual and organisational outcomes. Commitment is concluded to be central to organisational life. In short, when an organisation commits to meeting the needs and expectations of its members, its members commit to the service of the organisation in terms of its goals and values.

3.6. *The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment*

A positive relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction is frequently reported (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Blau, 1993; Blegen, 1993; Becker & Billings, 1993; Harris et al., 1993; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Ng, 1993; O'Driscoll, 1987; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990). A positive relationship also exists between affective commitment, calculative commitment and job satisfaction (Jones et al., 1993). Satisfaction with work, opportunity for professional development, co-workers, pay, supervision and general satisfaction were positively correlated with commitment, while satisfaction with number of hours worked was negatively correlated with commitment (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). Whether the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment is uni-directional or reciprocal remains to be clarified. The answer however, has implications for the utility of organisational interventions (Mathieu, 1991).

Organisational commitment and job satisfaction have both been reported to have a negative relationship with turnover intention and behaviour (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Michaels & Spector, 1982). There are three models proposed: 1) the satisfaction to commitment model, 2) the commitment to satisfaction model and 3) the independent effects model.

3.6.1. *The satisfaction to commitment model* suggests that commitment takes longer to develop and is more stable than satisfaction (Porter et al., 1974). This model encourages the study of mechanisms through which satisfied workers become committed to the organisation and has received empirical support (Koch & Steers, 1978; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Price & Mueller, 1986; Steers, 1977; Summers & Hendrix, 1991; Wanous, 1980; Williams & Hazer, 1986). The model predicts that commitment mediates the effects of satisfaction on withdrawal variables. While both satisfaction and commitment are a function of the correspondence between individual expectations and organisational reality (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987), satisfaction is the more immediate consequence of one's perception of the correspondence.

Satisfaction with hours worked, co-workers and the job in general were predictive of organisational commitment (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987).

Vandenberg & Scarpello (1990) also found organisational commitment was positively predicted by job satisfaction for more tenured employees. That organisational commitment was a better predictor of turnover than satisfaction was supported by a number of studies (Porter et al., 1974; Porter et al., 1976; Steers, 1977; Mowday et al., 1979). Organisational commitment had a stronger relationship with turnover in more tenured employees (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990). Hatton & Emerson (1993) however, found no facets of commitment were predictive of propensity to leave the organisation.

3.6.2. The *commitment to satisfaction model* suggests organisational commitment engenders a positive attitude toward the job (Bem, 1967; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), and people stay based on how they feel about their jobs. Some support exists for this model (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Bem, 1967; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). That commitment may develop prior to entry, (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981; Schein, 1968) or at least may be evident at early stages of employment (Porter, Crampon & Smith, 1976) lends support to the hypothesis. Changes in commitment are therefore, expected to have only indirect effects on turnover.

A stronger relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave/turnover than that between organisational commitment and intent to leave/turnover has also gained support (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Michaels & Spector, 1982). Hatton & Emerson (1993b) however, did not find commitment to be predictive of any of the facets of job satisfaction.

3.6.3. The third model is the *independent-effects model*, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, although related, are distinct constructs (Dougherty, Bluedorn & Keon, 1985; Michaels & Spector, 1982) and both are suggested to contribute uniquely to the turnover process. No particular causality between the two attitudes is implied, although this does not rule out the possibility of reciprocal influences (Farkas & Tetrick, 1989). This model calls for research into how attitudes toward the job and company combine and/or interact to influence the intent and final decision to quit. Satisfaction and commitment have been found to contribute independently to the prediction of withdrawal intentions yet satisfaction was a stronger predictor than commitment (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

3.6.4. Moderators of the organisational commitment-job satisfaction relationship include tenure in the organisation (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). A cyclical or reciprocal relationship between satisfaction and commitment was found by Farkas & Tetrick (1989) studying the variables at three tenure points. Mathieu (1991) also found a positive reciprocal relationship, with the influence of satisfaction on commitment being stronger than vice-versa. External variables confound the reciprocal relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Indeed, the magnitude of the reciprocal relationship was found to depend on other variables that were included in the predictive equations.

3.7. Criticisms and future directions

Cotton & Tuttle (1986) suggested differences between outcomes of studies were attributable to the moderating effects of employee population, industry, nationality and time. However, a number of methodological issues need to be addressed, including: 1) the research design; cross-sectional vs longitudinal, 2) the possible lack of reliability of measures, 3) the lack of discriminant validity between attitudinal measures, the external validity of many of the existing findings remains in doubt (Steers, 1977), 4) there is a reliance on perceptual rather than objective measures of the job, positive/negative halo effects may exist among job characteristics (Staw, 1984), 5) statistical controls are misused and results can therefore, be misleading (Bouchard et al., 1992).

Different study designs are needed, with greater focus upon individual differences in determining satisfaction and commitment. Individual disposition with respect to satisfaction and commitment is one variable that would be interesting to include in the research. Staw (1984), also suggested looking at individual's mood as a determinant of job-related cognitions.

When will objective changes be expected to change attitudes and when are manipulations of social cues likely to be major or minor events? Studies testing the interaction of subjective and objective influences are needed (Staw, 1984).

Chapter four is divided into two sections, initially, general measures that were used are discussed, followed by a discussion of general statistical analysis techniques used. The measures used were based on or taken from previous research in the area of occupational psychology. The demographic and organisational measures are described first. Secondly, aggregate organisational variables and measures of unemployment data are described. Thirdly, the attitudinal variables of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and occupational stress are reviewed along with measures of perceptions of control, type A behaviour and coping strategies used. Finally, outcome variables of turnover cognitions, job search behaviour and mental and physical ill health are discussed.

4.1 Demographic and organisational variables

Personal demographic data and information concerning organisational variables was drawn from personnel files. To assess reliability, a sample of 20 personnel files were rated independently by four raters. Consistency across the four raters was assessed using the Kappa statistic for inter-rater reliability. The results of the Kappa calculations for each of the variables assessed between rater 1 and the other 3 raters are given in Appendix 4.1. Kappa values equal to 0 or less than 0 are classed as poor, between 0 and .2 as slight, between .21 and .4 as fair, between .41 and .6 as moderate, between .61 and .8 as substantial and between .81 and 1 as almost perfect (Dewey, 1990). The Kappa values showed rater 1 was suitably reliable.

The governing factors over the choice of variables were ease of collection, the meaningfulness of the variable and the reliability of the variable when collected by a number of independent researchers.

4.1.1. Demographic variables

Two sub-groups of demographic variables were collected i) *personal variables* and ii) *work history variables*, each variable is described below.

Age has been considered both as a categorical variables and a continuous variable previously. The present research considers age as a continuous variable. This was calculated by subtracting the date of birth from the date of applying for employment with the organisation.

Place of birth Employees were divided into those born within the locality of the organisation (1), born outside the county but within the United Kingdom (2) and those born outside the United Kingdom (3).

Gender this was studied as a simple dichotomous variable, female participants were given a value of 0, whilst male participants were given a value of 1.

Education level. It was not possible to measure years of education consistently throughout the research, therefore, five categorical levels of education were devised. These categories were based on the importance of each level in the labour market. The lowest category was no formal qualifications, given a value of 1, the first level of qualifications was specified as CSE 2 or below, or O'level/GCSE grades below C, given a value of 2. The second level of formal qualifications was O'level/GCSE grades A,B, or C, or CSE grade 1, given a value of 3. Thirdly, attendance at college for A'level, BTec, apprenticeships or other 2-3 year college courses was classified as the fourth level of education. The final educational level that was specified was education to degree standard, or a professional qualification, such as a registered nurse.

Marital status There were four categories: Single (0), Divorced/Separated (1), Widowed (2) and Married (3). Marital status is not however, as strong a predictor of family responsibilities and stability as it once was and as such was not expected to be an important variable in the analysis of results.

Number of dependents Taken as the number of dependents an employee declared at the time of starting with the organisation. Although this may change over time, the most reliable measure was to take the number of dependents from the application form.

Intention to improve was assessed from the application form, whether the individual expressed an intention, when applying, to improve their position or career prospects through training or experience gained in their position.

Tenure in the most recent position This was taken as time spent in the position immediately prior to starting work with the present organisation. This represents the time the employee spent in his/her last job, his/her last period of unemployment or his/her last period of study. Tenure was calculated by subtracting the time the applicant started their most recent position subtracted from the date they completed the application form for the present with the organisation.

Number of jobs held This was the number of jobs held in the five years prior to employment with the present organisation.

Length of previous relevant experience This was the number of months working in a field directly related to the present occupation, such as nursing, residential support for elderly people. Only relevant experience in paid employment was noted.

Previous experience with people with learning difficulties This could be either voluntary or paid.

Status when applying for the present position this was measured as either unemployed, caring for dependents, studying or employed.

Health If the applicant stated that there were no health problems, this was scored as 1, any health problems were scored as 0.

Reason for leaving Reason for leaving was categorised as either voluntary or involuntary. In a retrospective study it is not possible to determine the exact reasons for leaving and the distinction is not as dichotomous as previously suggested, Campion (1991). There is often disagreement between administratively recorded reasons for leaving and self-reported reasons for leaving (Lefkowitz and Katz, 1969). However, for the present study reasons for leaving have been divided into those that were more voluntary and those that were more involuntary. Resignation, retirement and leaving due to pregnancy were seen as voluntary decisions, dismissal, illness/death, laid-off or temporary employment were seen as involuntary reasons for leaving. The question of whether pregnancy is seen as voluntary or involuntary turnover is in dispute; Marsh and Mannari (1977) included pregnancy as voluntary turnover, Mirvis and Lawler (1977) and Waters et al. (1976) excluded pregnancy from voluntary turnover. However, this is something

that can more easily be determined by a prospective question at the time of leaving.

4.1.2. Organisational variables

Tenure in the organisation was measured in years, and was simply the length of time the employees had been with the organisation at the point of the study. Tenure was calculated by subtracting the date of the study or the date of leaving if sooner from the date of starting.

Site worked at There were three main sites at the organisation; one residential nursing home site and two community based sections of the organisation. The two community sites were managed separately, and were also under separate local authorities, thus, there were some fundamental differences between the two community sites. At the end of the period of research the two sites were merged.

Position All the participants in the research were direct-care employees except where specified in the method. There were two main positions, that of support worker and that of senior support worker. The senior support worker position was further split into qualified nurses and unqualified senior support workers, as those who were qualified often had greater responsibilities.

Salary This was taken as the annual remuneration of the participants. The salary level was obtained from the application forms and inflation and salary increase were accounted for, using the retail price index¹. This probably inflated the salaries, as the rate of increase in pay was not in line with the increases in the retail price index.

Hours worked The majority of employees generally started as part-time members of staff. This however, was not always reflective of the number of hours worked, many part-time staff worked full-time hours if overtime is included. Thus, full-time status did not always reflect an increase in hours, but it was an increase in status and was accompanied by a wage increase.

¹ Employment Gazette, 1975-1993. Labour market statistics. London: Harrington Kilbride plc. Table S1.

Career development There were three levels of development, no development, an increase in hours from part- to full-time; and a promotion to a higher position within the organisation.

4.2. *Aggregate organisational variables measures of unemployment*

Turnover This was calculated on a monthly basis using the following formula:

$$\frac{\text{No.ofleavers}-\text{No.ofstayers}}{((X-1)+X+(X+1))/3} \times 100$$

The numerator refers to the number of leavers and the number of stayers for the month X for which turnover is being calculated. The denominator for this equation represents the average organisational size over a three month period: X-1 refers to the organisational size during the month immediately prior to the one for which turnover is being calculated; X+1 refers to the organisational size for the month immediately after the month for which turnover is being calculated; X refers to the month for which turnover is calculated. For example, consider turnover for the month of February. The numerator would consist of the number of leavers minus the number of stayers for February, whilst the denominator would consist of the average organisational size for January, February and March. This equation, with average organisational size over three months, rather than organisational size for the month turnover was being calculated alone, was developed to accommodate the rapid expansion of the organisation, and as such the unstable organisational size. Turnover calculation is similar to other turnover calculations that have been used to allow for cross comparison with other studies (Baumeister & Zaharia, 1987).

Attrition rate was the number of employees leaving each month divided by the total employees in the organisation for that month.

Accession rate The number of new starters for each month was divided by the total number of employees for that month.

Unemployment rate The proportion of the workforce (taken as a percentage) that was classed as unemployed in the county for each month from January 1974 to

January 1992 was calculated². A measure of unemployment was taken for the time the employee started with the organisation and for the time they left.

4.3 Attitudinal variables

These variables included job satisfaction, organisational commitment, occupational stress, type A behaviour, perceptions of control and coping strategies used by the employee. The OSI was used to assess many of the behavioural measures. This was developed by Cooper, Sloan and Williams (1988). Validation work on the OSI among different occupational groups has been carried out. The preliminary research has provided evidence for the construct validity of the OSI with a blue-collar sample (Cooper and Williams, 1991). It was felt that the OSI would be an appropriate measure for the present occupational group. The internal reliability assessments from attitudinal questionnaires are shown in Appendix 4.2. The individual questionnaire items are shown in Appendix 4.3.

4.3.1. Job satisfaction

Much of the early work on job satisfaction assessed this variable using a global measure of the construct, which masked employees' differential satisfaction with different aspects of the job and organisation. There are six facets of job satisfaction that have been identified in the literature, these are satisfaction with the firm as a whole, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with opportunity for promotion, satisfaction with the job itself, satisfaction with the immediate supervisor and satisfaction with co-workers. Job satisfaction was measured using scales from the Occupational Stress Inventory (OSI) developed by Cooper, Sloan and Williams (1988) which encompass the six facets of job satisfaction generally described in the literature. The OSI measures five scales of job satisfaction and one overall measure of job satisfaction. The five scales measure each of the six facets of job satisfaction, however, satisfaction with pay is assessed on a separate scale but is included in the scale measuring satisfaction with achievement, value and growth. The response for each of the items is on a 6 point Likert type scale.

² Employment Gazette, 1975-1993. Labour market statistics. London: Harrington Kilbride plc. Table S6.

Satisfaction with achievement, value and growth This scale assesses pay satisfaction, satisfaction with promotional opportunities, and personal growth within the organisation.

Satisfaction with the job itself assess satisfaction with the actual job, job security, tasks required in the job and the amount of work the employee has.

Satisfaction with organisational design and structure This scale assessed satisfaction with communication in the organisation, implementation of changes within the organisation, conflict resolution, the staffing structure and the challenge presented by the job.

Satisfaction with organisational processes This assesses satisfaction with leadership, participation, motivation and autonomy.

Satisfaction with personal relationships including personal identification with the organisation, relationships with others at work and the organisational 'feel'.

Broad view of job satisfaction assess satisfaction with relationships with others, the job itself, style of supervision, challenge presented by the job and satisfaction with the management structure. These items are from one of the previous scales assessing job satisfaction.

4.3.2. Organisational commitment

There are three facets of organisational commitment that have been generally identified in the literature, developed from work by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979). The present research uses scales of commitment developed by Penley and Gould (1988) based on Etzioni's model of organisational involvement. The three scales of commitment are alienative, moral and calculative commitment. Two well known forms of commitment are instrumental commitment and affective commitment these are consistent with the scales of calculative and moral commitment, respectively, that are assessed by the present measure of commitment. Alienative commitment is a different measure of commitment and is more easily classed as feelings of alienation from the organisation. There was initial evidence for the conceptual independence of these scales and for the internal consistency of these scales. The instrumental commitment view sees commitment as an exchange

based relationship between the organisation and the individual, the affective view sees commitment as what the organisation means personally to the employee.

Moral commitment This scale encompasses acceptance of and identification with organisational goals. The scale assess what Mowday et al. (1979) term moral and affective commitment.

Calculative commitment This facet of commitment is consistent with the instrumental view of organisational commitment, expressing commitment to the organisation through an exchange based relationship.

Alienative commitment is described as attachment to the organisation as a consequence of firstly, a lack of control of over the internal organisational environment and the perceived absence of alternatives for organisational commitment.

4.3.3. Occupational stress

Sources of perceived pressure were assessed using scales from the OSI. The scales measured perceived pressure from six areas of the job, organisation and the job - home interface.

Stress from factors intrinsic to the job this scale assesses the impact of the job content on the individual, over and under employed, too much or too little variety and keeping up with new developments.

Stress from the managerial role This covers role conflict and ambiguity, pressure from managing people, pressure from having no power and influence and conflicting personal beliefs with those of the organisation.

Stress from relationships with other people measures the perceived sources of pressure from managing the work of others, coping with organisational politics, support offered by others at work and shortcomings of other people.

Stress from career and achievement Measures both pressure from achieving and not achieving, and lack of opportunity.

Stress from the organisational structure and climate a high score highlights lack of support, communication, resources (including staff) and general morale.

Stress from the home/work interface A high score indicates a negative impact of work on the employee's home and private life in general, with lack of support from those outside work.

4.3.4. Type A behaviour

There were four scales measuring type A behaviour, these were attitude to living, style of behaviour, ambition and overall type A.

Attitude to living A high score indicates a commitment to work, confidence and competitiveness.

Style of behaviour A high score indicates impatience and restlessness in all areas of life.

Ambition A high score indicates an ambitious competitive individual, who is concerned about the impression others have of him/her.

Broad view of Type A is composed of items from the other Type A scales, this assess ambition, confidence and patience.

4.3.5. Perceptions of control

The employees perception of control in the work situation is measured by three scales and an overall scale of control.

Organisational forces A high score indicates employees are highly restricted in their jobs by organisational interventions that they cannot control.

Management processes A high score indicates invalid assessment of employees and a lack of consultation or consideration of direct-care workers in management decisions.

Individual influence A high score indicates a feeling of being not being able to personally influence events in the organisation.

Broad view of control items are taken from the three scales above. The scale looks at perceived organisational control of the work situation, fairness of management and personal influence.

4.3.6. Coping strategies

Six coping strategies are described by the OSI which is used to measure coping in the present study. A high score on the coping scales indicates that the individual uses the type of strategy, the score does not indicate whether they use the coping strategy in a positive, problem focused way or in an emotion focused way. Powell (1991) suggests for a given level of experienced stress, perceived strain will be lower for those individuals with more coping resources. A higher level of strain is predicted for those individuals with fewer coping resources.

Social support assesses relationships with others within and outside the work situation.

Task strategies discusses strategies which are employed by the individual to get the job done.

Logic assess the individual's detachment from the situation, being objective rather than emotional about a situation.

Home and work relationship refers to separation of home life from work and developing interests and activities outside work.

Time refers to time management, stalling work and slowing down to make time.

Involvement refers to attempts to make work more interesting, being able to release tension and realising limitations.

4.4. Outcome measures

4.4.1. Withdrawal cognitions and behaviour

The withdrawal cognitions and behaviour that are measured are *intention to quit*, *intention to search* and *search behaviour*.

4.4.2. Ill health

Both *mental ill health* and *physical ill health* are assessed. A high score on either scale indicates some ill health

4.5. Analytic methods

4.5.1. Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis was conducted to establish the relationships between variables used in the present research. However, many of the variables were not linear or even ratio scales, but categorical data. In these instances, the categorical variables were condensed into dichotomous variables, thus, allowing point bi-serial correlations to be calculated.

4.5.2. Regression analysis

The type of regression analysis used in the research was hierarchical multiple regression. The theoretical basis to this type of regression adds validity to the results and is consistent with the testing and development of theory that is at the basis of this research.

4.5.3. Block Recursive Path Analysis

There are many programs designed for path analysis of variables. However, these tend to require large numbers of participants to make them statistically valid. However, there are causal path analytic techniques available, which may not identify the wealth of relationships between different variables but more than adequately give support to the theoretical existence of relationships between variables. The techniques for conducting causal path analysis are initially derived from two sources: Asher (1983) and Davis (1985). One of the main advantages of path analysis is that it enables one to measure the direct and indirect effects that one variable has on another.

Recursive modelling techniques require the direction of causality between two variables to be made explicit by the investigator at the outset of the research, Asher (1983), if a causal relationship exists. Recursive path analysis cannot establish the direction of causality, this decision has to be made on to be made theoretical and substantive grounds.

Davis (1985) suggests four guidelines to assist with the ordering of the variables in a model. These guidelines point out that:

1) A later event cannot cause an earlier one. Therefore if X stops before Y begins, then the direction arrow runs from X to Y.

2) The direction of causation is from X to Y if X is linked to an earlier step in a well-known sequence,

3) If X never changes and Y sometimes changes then the direction is from X to Y. Thus the direction from gender to salary would be from gender to salary.

4) If X is relatively stable, hard to change and has many consequences, whilst Y is easy to change, volatile and has few consequences, the direction is from X to Y.

In the present research, block recursive modelling was used, with the causal direction between the blocks of variables pre-determined by the investigator. The process involves initially, taking those variables that are significantly correlated with the outcome variable. The research, for conservative reasons, took a significance level of $p < .01$ as the significance level which the correlation coefficient must reach to be included in the regression model. Similarly, these significant correlates of the outcome measures must meet the four assumptions put forward by Davis (1985) to be causal predictors of the outcome variables. The correlates of the outcome variables therefore constitute the first block entered in the regression equation.

Variables in a block cannot be causally predictive of other variables in a block. Variables that significantly correlate with the variables in the first block at $p < .01$ and meet the requirements for causality constitute the second block of variables in the regression equation. The regression procedure is such that each variable in block one would become the dependent variable for those variables in block two that are causally antecedent to it. Thus, a model is constructed by a series of regression analyses. Each variable that is not significant in the regression equation at $p < .05$, is removed from the regression analysis before the next independent variable is added to the model.

Case to variable ratio The case to variable ratio in hierarchical regression analyses is recommended to be a minimum of 4 to 5 cases per variable. In Chapter 5, the number of cases in the regression analysis identifying predictors of type of turnover were 272, there were no more than 10 variables in any one block giving the smallest case:variable ratio of 27.2:1. For the regression analysis predicting voluntary turnover and tenure the number of cases was 173, with no more than 9

variables in any one block, giving a case:variable ratio of 19.2:1. Predicting involuntary turnover and tenure, the smallest case:variable ratio was 19.8:1. In Chapter 6, the regression analysis predicting search behaviour, the smallest case:variable ratio was 9.4:1. Predicting mental ill health, the smallest case:variable ratio was 12.1:1, and predicting physical ill health, the smallest case:variable ratio was again, 12.1:1. Thus, the power of the regression analysis conducted was well within the recommended case to variable ratio.

Chapter Five: Predicting turnover, type of turnover and tenure using personal demographic and organisational variables

5.1. Introduction

Recent theories of organisational behaviour emphasise the importance of individual differences in goals and values and how these interact with the values and goals of the organisation. Demographic variables are important antecedents to the development of individual values and needs. Previous research has shown demographic and organisational variables to have an effect on turnover behaviour, although traditional models of the turnover process would suggest this effect is generally indirect when attitudinal variables such as organisational commitment and job satisfaction are measured (Mobley, 1977; Steers & Mowday, 1981).

A retrospective study was conducted to assess whether the previous empirical findings concerning the relationships between tenure and turnover and demographic and organisational variables are relevant to the present occupational group. The study aims to assess the ability of demographic and organisational variables to predict three dependent variables: 1) reason for leaving an organisation (voluntary or involuntary), 2) organisational tenure, and 3) organisational turnover. In addition the different results that are obtained with different measures of turnover are highlighted.

The use of demographic and organisational variables to predict organisational behaviour has been questioned, however, biographical data items have been used for over 60 years for selecting employees (Breugh & Dossett, 1989). As such, a considerable amount of research on biographical variables has accumulated and these variables have been shown to predict several important employee behaviours. Breugh & Dossett (1989) argue for the case of theoretically grounded biodata information as predictors of employee behaviour. Should biographical variables enable a profile of suitable employees to be constructed, a reduction of turnover could be achieved without the financial cost involved in hiring and firing unsuitable employees. Pre-hire turnover reduction strategies such as profiling, are often less expensive and more easily implemented than post-hire strategies (Breugh & Dossett, 1989). The difficulty confronting the use of biographical data items is discrimination against protected groups of people. For

example, age being used in the study may result in the discrimination against a certain age group.

When the organisation is one that provides residential support to people with learning difficulties, the physical and emotional welfare of the service-users is of direct importance to the service, employing the right staff is therefore, a priority.

An organisation might want to consider carefully choosing a limited number of biodata items that are unlikely to have adverse impact, have high face validity and that, based on psychological theory, are likely to be predictive of one's criterion measures. Owens (1976) emphasizes two key themes that should help one select biodata items: a) using verifiable biodata information, however, it should be remembered that reality is rarely measured or obtainable, and b) having a point to point correspondence between biodata items and criterion measures, i.e when there is a clear logical correspondence between the predictor and the criterion.

The research to-date studying the relationship between variables measured in the present study and the organisational outcomes of turnover and tenure is summarised below. Hypotheses concerning predictors of leaving are suggested on the basis of theoretical and conceptual ideas. Predicting type of turnover is useful in that it allows the identification of individuals, through demographic data, who are more likely to be terminated by the organisation and those that are more likely to leave voluntarily. There has been no research predicting type of turnover among direct-care workers. Profiling using demographic and organisational characteristics provides the organisation with information for pre-hire selection criteria.

5.1.1. Hypotheses

Tenure Mangione (1973) concluded that tenure was the best single predictor of turnover. A negative relationship has often been found (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Balfour & Neff, 1986; Gupta & Beehr, 1981; Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 1990; Lakin, Hill, Bruininks, Hauber & Krantz, 1983; Werbel & Gould, 1984). Although the weight of evidence points to a negative relationship, not all findings were consistent, Michaels & Spector (1982) found no

relationship between tenure and turnover. There are a number of reasons for inconsistencies such as the existence of moderators and mediators as well as methodological errors.

Hypothesis 1a: Tenure will have a negative relationship with organisational turnover.

It would be expected that those who leave involuntarily will have a shorter tenure than those who leave voluntarily, in conjunction with the career systems theory (Sonnenfeld, 1990) which suggests that those who do not meet the performance criteria of the organisation would be terminated. This is especially likely in the present organisation where there is a 3 month probationary period before the employee signs a contract of employment.

Hypothesis 1b: Those who left involuntarily will have a significantly shorter tenure than those who left voluntarily.

Age has been found to have a negative relationship with turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Lakin & Bruininks, 1981; Lakin et al., 1983; Zaharia & Baumeister, 1987) and turnover intention (Lucas, Atwood & Hagaman, 1993). Whilst a positive relationship exists between age and tenure (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Bannister & Griffeth, 1986; Baumeister & Zaharia, 1987; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979).

Hypothesis 2: Age will have a negative relationship with turnover and a positive relationship with tenure.

Increased *family responsibility* is associated with decreased turnover (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Cavanagh, 1990; Mobley et al., 1979). Number of dependents is negatively correlated with turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986), whilst married persons are somewhat less likely to quit than unmarried persons (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Ng, Cram & Jenkins, 1991). Marital status is not expected to have a relationship with turnover (Arnold & Feldman, 1982).

Hypothesis 3a: Number of dependents will have a negative relationship with turnover and a positive relationship with tenure.

Hypothesis 3b: Marital status will not be correlated with tenure or turnover.

Gender Although some studies have found greater turnover rates among women than men (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Marsh & Mannari, 1977), Cotton & Tuttle (1986) found fewer studies showed gender differences in turnover and tenure than found no effects at all, thus, gender was not expected to be significantly related to either tenure or turnover.

Hypothesis 4: Gender will not have a significant relationship with tenure or turnover.

Education has been shown to have a negative relationship with turnover (Federico, Federico & Lundquist, 1976), no relationship (Distefano, 1988; Mangione, 1973; Hellreigel & White, 1973) and a positive relationship (Balfour & Neff, 1993; Breaugh & Dossett, 1989; Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Lakin & Bruininks, 1981; Lakin et al., 1983; Price & Mueller, 1981; Riediger & Baine, 1987; Zaharia & Baumeister, 1978b). The weight of evidence points to a positive relationship between turnover and education, and from this a negative relationship between education and tenure would be expected.

Hypothesis 5: Education will have a positive relationship with turnover and a negative relationship with tenure.

Place of birth Work by Marsh & Mannari (1977) found those who grew up in the locality of the organisation had a higher turnover rate. This could be due to a number of reasons including the existence of support from family and friends, knowledge of the area and knowledge of other job opportunities.

Hypothesis 6: Those who grew up near the place of work will have a higher turnover and shorter tenure.

Previous experience is suggested to be positively related to tenure and negatively related to turnover as those with experience should be more accustomed to the problems and challenges associated with their work and less likely to seek relief by leaving the organisation. A negative relationship between previous experience and turnover was supported by Balfour & Neff (1993).

Hypothesis 7a: Previous experience with people with learning difficulties will have a negative relationship with turnover and a positive relationship with tenure.

Hypothesis 7b: Length of previous relevant experience will be negatively related to turnover and positively related to tenure.

Employment history Razza (1993) found that those with no more than two jobs prior to the current one, and no previous job in which employees terminated in less than one year were predictive of satisfaction with their current jobs. Job satisfaction is suggested to be positively related to job tenure and negatively to turnover. A positive correlation between previous job tenure and present job tenure has also been found (Cascio, 1976; Breaugh & Dossett; 1989), and previous job tenure was predictive of turnover (Cascio, 1976).

Hypothesis 8a: Number of previous jobs in the last five years will have a positive relationship with turnover and negative relationship with tenure.

Hypothesis 8b: Previous tenure will be positively related to present tenure and negatively related to turnover.

Intention to improve Lakin et al. (1983) found employees accepting their direct-care positions for reasons other than professional advancement or fulfilment were more stable. An intention to advance professionally or striving for professional fulfilment would lead to higher turnover rates and lower tenure.

Hypothesis 9: Those expressing an intention to improve, through training will have a higher turnover rate and shorter tenure.

Health There has been little work on the effects of health on tenure and turnover. However, ill health would be expected to lead to greater absence frequency and therefore, a greater turnover rate.

Hypothesis 10: A positive relationship will be found between ill health and turnover and a negative relationship between ill health and tenure.

The relationship between *hours* worked and tenure and turnover has received little attention, however, Weisman et al. (1993) found shorter hours increased retention. In the present study, hours was measured as either full-time or part-time, the number of actual hours worked was not measured. Indeed, the number of hours that the part-time and full-time members of staff actually worked

was not often very different. Thus, being a full- or part-timer reflected status and wage increase rather than the actual number of hours worked.

Hypothesis 11: Hours worked will have a negative relationship with turnover, and a positive relationship with tenure.

Salary Pay and turnover had a negative relationship in the majority of studies reviewed (Cavanagh, 1990; Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Weisman, Gordon, Cassard, Bergner & Wong, 1993), whilst salary and tenure have a positive relationship (Federico et al., 1976; Mobley et al., 1979, Michaels & Spector, 1982; Newman, 1974). However, a lack of relationship between pay satisfaction and turnover has often been found, Mobley et al. (1979). The strength and reliability of the relationship between pay and turnover was moderated by whether professionals and managers were studied or blue-collar workers and non-professionals. Based on the exchange theory alone, a negative relationship would be expected between salary and turnover, and thus, a positive relationship between salary and tenure. Pay and turnover are shown to have a negative relationship in many of the studies reviewed.

Hypothesis 12: A negative relationship would be expected between turnover and salary, and a positive relationship between tenure and salary.

Position and morale have been shown to have a positive relationship, MacRobert, Schmele & Henson (1993). A positive relationship between tenure and position and negative relationship between turnover and position would be expected on the basis of the exchange theory.

Hypothesis 13: Position will have a positive relationship with tenure and a negative relationship with turnover.

Career development Generally, chance for advancement within the organisation is negatively related to turnover (Cavanagh, 1990; Landinsky, 1967; Lawler, 1971; Marsh & Mannari, 1977). Promotion or an increase in hours from part- to full-time would be expected to have a positive relationship with tenure, with a negative relationship between turnover and career development.

Hypothesis 14a: Career development, being promoted or increasing hours from part-time to full-time will be negatively related to turnover and positively related to tenure.

Organisational size Turnover is also suggested to co-vary with organisational size, Benson, Dickenson & Neidt (1987). A larger organisation offers greater opportunities for advancement within, therefore it would be expected that the greater the organisational size, the longer the tenure. A positive relationship was found by Caldwell, Chatman & O'Reilly (1990). Similarly, Expansion of the organisation will also give the organisation the ability to remove those employees that do not 'fit in' or do not meet performance criteria of the organisation. Thus, expansion will increase the involuntary turnover rate.

Hypothesis 15a: Expansion will be positively correlated with an increase in involuntary turnover.

Hypothesis 15b: Organisational size will be positively correlated with tenure.

Perceived alternatives A strong negative relationship between unemployment rate and organisational turnover rate is shown to exist (Baumeister & Zaharia, 1987; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). However, when addressing the relationship between alternatives and turnover and tenure at an individual level, the results are not so clear. Arnold & Feldman (1982) found tenure was significantly and negatively correlated with perceived alternatives, whereas Cavanagh & Coffin (1992) found no relationship between perceived alternatives and turnover. This relationship has remained largely ambiguous in tests of empirical models. It may be expected that high unemployment rate when joining would lead to perception of few alternatives.

Hypothesis 16: There would a positive relationship between tenure and unemployment level when joining.

5.2. Method

5.2.1. Subjects

The organisation that was studied provided residential support for people with learning difficulties in both community houses and on a nursing home site. The subjects of the study were direct-care workers that had left the organisation over a seven year period, from 1984 to December 1991. Over the seven years of the study, the organisation had undergone considerable expansion. In 1991, the organisation employed nearly six times as many staff as in 1984. During this time, the type of support given to people with learning difficulties altered from that of custodial care on one residential site in large impersonal units, to one of emphasis on community care in small units where support was given to facilitate maximum development of service-users. The type of service-user had changed from being all male to both male and female service-users. There were 289 employees who left during this time, 189 voluntary leavers and 100 involuntary leavers. 68.2% of the sample were female, the majority were single (64.4%) and most had no dependents (65.4%). The majority of subjects were at the bottom of the job scale (85.7%), most worked part-time (64.6%), and most had no career development (86.5%).

5.2.2. Measures

5.2.2.1. *Demographic variables* - these included: *age* (years); *Gender* (Female=0, Male=1); *Family responsibilities* (Number of dependents and marital status: single=0, separated/divorced=1, married=2); *Place of birth* (local=1, UK=2, outside UK=3); *Education* (No formal qualifications=1, GCSE/O'level C or less, CSE less than 1=2, GCSE/O'level ABC, CSE grade 1=3, A'level/BTec/College=4, professional qualification/degree or above=5); and *health* status at the time of joining (some health problems experienced=0, no health problems experienced=1).

5.2.2.2. *Employment History* - This included: *tenure in previous position* (from start of most recent position to the date applied for present position); *number of jobs* held in the last five years; *status at the time of applying* (unemployed=0, caring for a family=1 studying=2, or working=3); and *intent to*

improve (no expressed intention to improve=0, expressed intention to improve=1).

5.2.2.3. *Work experience* - This included *length of relevant experience* (months) in a direct-care job with any group of people, and *previous experience with people with learning difficulties* (no experience=0, some experience=1).

5.2.2.4. *Organisational variables* - These were: *salary* (accounting for inflation); *hours* (part-time=0, full-time=1); *position* (support workers=1, senior support workers=2, nurses=3); *site worked on* (residential site=0, community site 1=1 and community site 2=2); and *career development* (no development=0, increased hours from part-time to full-time=1, promotion to a higher position=2).

5.2.2.5. *Aggregate variables* - These were *organisational size* (total size each month), and *alternative opportunities* (level of local unemployment at the time of entering and leaving the organisation).

5.2.2.6. *Turnover* This was measured using the following equation:

$$\frac{\text{No.leavers}-\text{No.starters}}{((X-1)+X+(X+1))/3} \times 100$$

X represents the month for which the turnover rate was calculated.

A second measure of turnover that is often used is the basic monthly *attrition* rate of employees from the organisation:

$$\frac{\text{No.leavers}}{\text{organisationalsize}} \times 100$$

This second measure was taken with the intention of highlighting the importance of using consistent measures for the turnover variable, as different measures would lead to different outcomes.

3.2.2.7. *Reason for leaving*- voluntary or involuntary. In a retrospective study it is not possible to determine the exact reasons for leaving and the

distinction is treated as dichotomous. However, Campion (1991) pointed out, that leaving is rarely a strictly voluntary or involuntary act, contribution from both the organisation and the individual may affect the decision to stay or leave in most cases. There is often disagreement between administratively recorded reasons for leaving and self-reported reasons for leaving (Lefkowitz & Katz, 1969). However, for the present study reasons for leaving have been divided into those that were more voluntary and those that were more involuntary, as the voluntariness and avoidability of the decision to leave could not be determined. Resignation, retirement and leaving due to pregnancy were seen as voluntary decisions, dismissal, illness/death, laid-off or temporary employment were seen as involuntary reasons for leaving. The question of whether pregnancy is seen as voluntary or involuntary turnover is in dispute; Marsh & Mannari (1977) included pregnancy as voluntary turnover, Mirvis & Lawler (1977) and Waters et al. (1976) excluded pregnancy from voluntary turnover. However, this is something that can more easily be determined by a prospective question at the time of leaving.

3.2.2.8. *Tenure* - Organisational tenure (years), that is the time from starting to the time of leaving the organisation. Predictors of actual tenure were only sought among a group of employees who had left the organisation by the time of the study.

5.2.3. Design

The design of the study was retrospective in nature. There were three dependent variables: tenure, turnover and reason for leaving. The demographic and organisational variables, work experience variables and unemployment level were independent variables. Two measures of turnover rate were included to show the diversity of the results that are found between demographic and organisational variables and turnover if different measures of turnover are used. The design of the study was a within subjects design, with each subject being rated on each of the above measures.

5.2.4. Procedure

The personnel records for each employee who left the organisation between 1984 and 1991 was studied to gain information on each of the variables that are

detailed above. In order to ensure that the variables were reliable, four independent raters assessed 20 personnel files and a Kappa statistic was calculated to assess the inter-rater reliability. For more details see Chapter 4.

5.2.5. Summary Statistics

Table 5.1 and 5.2 below, show the summary statistics for each of the variables for voluntary and involuntary leavers. Due to the large occurrences of employees with no previous relevant experience, it was decided to split relevant experience at the median value for the two groups (median relevant experience was 4 months for voluntary leavers and 0 months for involuntary leavers). Similarly, the majority of employees had no dependents, therefore number of dependents was divided into three groups (no dependents=0, 1 or 2 dependents=1 and more than 2 dependents=2).

Table 5.1: Means and Standard deviations of linear variables across the two sets of leavers

Variable	Voluntary leavers		Involuntary leavers	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Tenure (years)	1.74	2.42	1.15	1.71
Previous tenure (years)	2.1	2.97	1.14	1.5
Age (years)	29.6	11.2	26.8	8.95
Number of jobs	1.65	1.24	1.73	1.29
Salary (£)	7997	5390	6163	4413
Unemployment level when joining	16.9	2.86	16.1	2.48
Unemployment level when leaving	16.57	2.31	16.1	2.17

Table 5.1 gives the mean values of tenure, tenure in previous position, age, number of jobs held in the last five years, salary, unemployment level when starting and unemployment level when leaving.

A t-test procedure indicates that those who left voluntarily had a significantly longer tenure ($t=1.51, p < .024$), were significantly older ($t=1.56,$

$p < .014$), had a significantly higher salary ($t=1.78$, $p < .0016$), and a significantly longer tenure in their previous position ($t=3.92$, $p < .0003$) than those who left involuntarily.

Table 5.2: *Frequency table showing distribution of voluntary and involuntary leavers across categorical variables*

Variables		Voluntary leavers		Involuntary leavers	
		Freq	%	Freq	%
Gender	Male	53	28	39	39
	Female	136	72	61	61
Education	No formal quals.	42	22.7	24	24.2
	O'level less than C grade	31	16.8	24	24.2
	O'level C grade or greater	57	30.8	29	29.3
	A'levels or equivalent	10	5.4	9	9.1
	Professional quals./degree	45	24.3	13	13.1
Number of dependents	No dependents	123	69.9	66	71.1
	1 or 2 dependents	38	21.6	19	20.6
	more than 2 dependents	15	8.6	7	7.6
Place of birth	Local	120	73.1	71	72.6
	UK	36	22	11	12.8
	Outside UK	8	4.9	4	4.7
Marital status	Single	112	60.2	69	72.6
	Separated	11	5.9	3	3.2
	Married	63	33.9	23	24.2
Status when applying	Unemployed	81	44	55	56.7
	Caring for family	3	1.6	1	1
	Studying	29	15.8	9	9.3
	Working	71	38.6	32	33
Previous experience	No experience	69	37.3	43	43.4
	Some experience	116	62.7	56	56.6
Intention to improve	No intention	33	17.6	16	16.2
	Intention	155	82.4	83	83.8
Health	Some ill health	30	18.6	22	23.9
	No ill health	131	81.4	70	76.1
Position	Support worker	155	82.9	90	90.9
	Senior support worker	26	13.9	9	9.1
	Nurse	6	3.2	0	0
Site worked on	Nursing home site	118	62.4	62	62
	Community site 1	44	23.3	21	21
	Community site 2	27	14.3	17	17
Hours worked	Part-time	117	62.9	67	67.7
	Full-time	69	37.1	32	32.3
Career development	No development	158	83.6	92	92
	Increase in hours	9	4.8	3	3
	Promotion	22	11.6	5	5

Table 5.2 above, shows the frequency of levels of each of the variables in the two groups of leavers. A chi-square analysis was carried out to assess whether there were any differences within the two groups for each variable. There were significantly fewer people employed and more people unemployed at the time of applying for a position with the organisation, in the voluntary leavers group ($X^2=4.58, p < .032$). There were no significant difference within the two groups for any of the other variables.

5.2.6. Screening Data

Linear variables were screened for skewedness and kurtosis, tenure, age, relevant experience, salary level and previous tenure in a job. The transformations for voluntary and involuntary leavers are shown below in Table 5.3a and Table 5.3b respectively. For those who left voluntary, it was necessary to transform tenure and previous tenure using a square root transformation.

Table 5.3a: Skewedness and kurtosis before and after transformations for voluntary leavers

Variable	Before transformation		After transformation	
	Skewedness	Kurtosis	Skewedness	Kurtosis
Tenure	2.7	8.15	1.21	1.6
Age	0.1	0.08	-	-
Previous tenure	2.93	10.27	1.5	2.61
Salary	1.18	0.11	-	-
Number of jobs	0.7	0.07	-	-
Unemployment level when starting	0.16	-1.31	-	-
Unemployment level when leaving	0.64	-0.85	-	-

Similarly, for those who left the organisation involuntary, only present tenure and previous tenure were transformed using a square root transformation (see Table 5.3b below).

5.2.7. Analysis

The relationships between the demographic and organisational variables and between the demographic and organisational variables and the withdrawal measures were analyzed using correlational analysis. To enable point bi-serial

Table 5.3b: Skewedness and kurtosis before and after transformations for involuntary leavers

Variable	Before transformations		After transformations	
	Skewedness	Kurtosis	Skewedness	Kurtosis
Tenure	3.45	14.54	1.8	4.01
Age	1.28	1.18	-	-
Previous tenure	3.06	11.29	1.35	2.95
Salary	1.89	3.22	-	-
Number of jobs	0.45	-0.5	-	-
Unemployment level when starting	0.92	-0.55	-	-
Unemployment level when leaving	1.13	0.41	-	-

correlations to be conducted on categorical variables, they were collapsed into dichotomous variables.

Marital status was collapsed such that single and separated employees were given a value of 0, whilst married employees were given a values of 2. *Place of birth* was collapsed into those born within the locality of the organisation (0) and those born outside the locality of the organisation (1). *Position*, those in senior support worker positions and nursing positions were given a value of 2, whilst support workers were given a value of 1. *Site worked on* was collapsed into residential site (0) and community-based site (1). *Number of dependents* was collapsed into no dependents (0) and some dependents (1). *Career development* was collapsed into those that had no career development (0) and those that had their hours increased or promotion to a higher position (1). *Status at the time of applying* was collapsed into unemployed or caring for dependents (0) and studying or working (1).

Modelling and regression analysis - For each of the dependent variables, reason for leaving, tenure and turnover, a model was constructed on the basis of statistical, conceptual and theoretical evidence for their causal predictors. Block recursive modelling techniques were used which employed hierarchical regression analysis. See Chapter 4 for a full description of the analysis techniques. For further discussion on causal modelling see Asher (1983) and Davis (1985).

Some conservative measures were included in the data analysis to increase the reliability and validity of the results. For a variable to be included in the model, it had to be conceptually and chronologically able to affect a variable in the preceding block, the correlation coefficient had to be significant at $p < .01$. A second conservative measure is that the pathways between the variables were assumed to be unidirectional, and variables in the blocks could not be regressed onto one another.

5.3: Results

The results section initially addresses the support gained for each of the hypotheses stated in the introduction using correlation analyses. The utility of the demographic and organisational variables in predicting the three dependent variables for both the voluntary and involuntary leavers is then assessed using causal modelling techniques.

5.3.1. Correlation analysis: Voluntary leavers

Table 5.4 below, shows the relationships between the demographic and organisational variables and organisational tenure, monthly attrition rate, monthly turnover rate and reason for leaving. The demographic and organisational variables have different relationships with the two withdrawal measures, attrition and turnover, giving some initial support to fact that the results of studies of turnover depend very much on the measure of turnover that is utilised. Table 5.5 below, shows the relationships between the demographic and organisational variables.

5.3.1.1. *Tenure and turnover* Marital status was not significantly correlated with either tenure or turnover, supporting Hypothesis 3b. Similarly no significant relationship between gender and tenure and turnover was found, supporting Hypothesis 4. There was a significant positive relationship between education level and turnover ($r=.23, p < .01$), but no relationship with tenure, partially supporting Hypothesis 5. Partial support for Hypothesis 9 was found as there was a greater turnover rate for those who expressed an intention to improve than for those who did not ($r=.22, p < .01$). Those who were full-time had a significantly longer tenure than those who were part-time ($r=.23, p < .01$), giving some support for Hypothesis 11. There was a positive relationship between salary and tenure ($r=.56, p < .0001$) giving some support for Hypothesis 12. A positive relationship was found between career development and tenure ($r=.54, p < .0001$), partially supporting Hypothesis 14. No support was found for Hypothesis 15b as a negative relationship was found between organisational size and tenure ($r=-.53, p < .0001$). A positive relationship between unemployment rate when starting and turnover was found ($r=.2, p < .01$), contradicting Hypothesis 16.

Table 5.4: Relationships between demographic and organisational variables and tenure, turnover and reason for leaving.

Variable	Reason for Leaving	Voluntary leavers			Involuntary leavers		
		Ten	Att	TO	Ten	Att	TO
Previous tenure (years)	-.23	-.03	-.06	-.02	-.00	-.06	-.48
Age (years)	-.13	.05	-.09	-.17	.04	-.1	.08
Gender	.11	-.07	-.07	-.02	-.11	-.03	-.01
Place of birth	-.09	-.08	-.06	.13	-.27	-.03	-.18
Education	-.1	.05	.09	.23	-.13	-.21	-.21
Dependents	-.03	-.1	.08	-.1	.25	.09	.1
Marital status	-.11	.02	-.06	-.13	.01	-.02	.06
Health	-.09	.1	.02	.03	.3	-.02	-.05
Jobs	.02	-.08	.01	.01	-.19	-.14	.02
Previous experience	-.06	.12	-.07	.12	.24	.14	-.03
Relevant experience	-.09	-.04	-.1	-.06	-.16	-.23	-.15
Intent	-.003	-.17	.12	.22	.07	.11	-.05
Status	-.13	-.05	.005	.07	-.05	-.07	-.09
Position	-.11	.18	-.1	-.02	.04	-.1	-.23
Site worked at	-.001	-.13	.13	.05	-.11	.03	.13
Hours worked	-.05	.23	-.17	.06	.23	-.09	-.16
Salary	-.16	.56	-.14	-.12	.48	-.16	-.2
Career development	-.1	.54	.004	-.07	.6	-.02	-.00
Organisational size	.19	-.53	.21	-.15	-.55	.03	.14
Unemployment one	-.15	.04	-.05	.2	.13	-.05	-.01
Unemployment two	-.1	.05	.08	.16	.07	.05	-.04

For voluntary leavers: $r > .193, p < .01, r > .242, p < .001, r > .274, p < .0001$.

For involuntary leavers: $r > .265, p < .01, r > .339, p < .001, r > .402, p < .0001$.

For the whole group: If $r > .152, p < .01$, if $r > .194, p < .001$, if $r > .22, p < .0001$.

Unemployment one - unemployment level when starting; Unemployment two - unemployment level when leaving. Ten - tenure in present organisation (years); Att - monthly attrition rate; TO - monthly turnover rate.

5.3.1.2. Relationships between demographic and organisational variables

These are shown in Table 5.5. Those who had dependents were significantly older than those who did not have dependents ($r = .31, p < .0001$). A positive relationship was also found between age and marital status for voluntary leavers ($r = .57, p < .0001$). Those who were married were significantly older than those who were single.

5.3.2. Correlation analysis: Involuntary leavers

5.3.2.1. *Tenure, turnover and reason for leaving* Marital status was not significantly correlated with either tenure or turnover, supporting Hypothesis 3b. No significant relationship was found between gender and tenure or turnover, supporting Hypothesis 4. [Partial support was gained for Hypothesis 6 as there was no support a negative relationship between place of birth and tenure ($r = -.27, p < .01$). Those born in the locality of the organisation had a significantly shorter tenure than those who were born outside the locality.] A negative relationship was found between previous tenure and turnover ($r = -.48, p < .0001$), partially supporting Hypothesis 8b. Those who suffered from ill health had a significantly shorter tenure than those who did not ($r = .3, p < .01$), giving some support for Hypothesis 10. A positive relationship between salary and tenure ($r = .48, p < .0001$) was found giving some support for Hypothesis 12. A positive relationship was found between career development and tenure ($r = .6, p < .0001$) partially supporting Hypothesis 14. Thus, those who had their hours increased to full-time or were promoted to a higher position, had a significantly longer tenure than those who did not. No support was found for Hypothesis 15b as a negative relationship was found between organisational size and tenure ($r = -.55, p < .0001$).

5.3.2.2. Relationships between demographic and organisational variables

These correlations are shown in Table 5.5. Those who had dependents were significantly older than those who did not have dependents ($r = .43, p < .0001$). A positive relationship was also found between age and marital status ($r = .55, p < .0001$). Those who were married were significantly older than those who were single.

5.3.3. Relationships between Reason for leaving and demographic and organisational variables

Table 5.1 indicated that those who left involuntarily had a significantly shorter tenure than those who left voluntarily giving some support to Hypothesis 1b. Support was gained for Hypothesis 15a, with increasing organisational size,

Table 5.5: Relationships between demographic and organisational variables analysed separately for the voluntary and involuntary leavers. (Correlations for voluntary leavers in bottom half of table, for involuntary leavers in top half of table).

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.
1. Previous tenure	-	.03	-.03	.06	-.03	-.01	.00	-.00	-.05	-.02	.06	.00	.01	.1	-.04	.02	.06	-.04	.01	.02	.04
2. Age	.24	-	-.1	-.03	.03	.43	.55	-.12	-.02	-.21	.31	-.23	.09	.08	.24	-.01	.17	.25	.24	-.09	.08
3. Gender	-.02	-.1	-	.06	.1	-.1	-.19	-.12	.13	-.08	-.14	.14	-.06	-.11	.05	-.15	-.1	-.08	.1	-.08	-.23
4. Place of birth	-.06	-.1	.05	-	.35	.03	.03	-.03	-.17	-.02	.21	.11	.06	.25	.18	.0	.01	-.28	.12	-.02	-.1
5. Education	-.07	-.27	.18	.37	-	-.19	-.06	-.18	.35	.09	.28	.07	.11	.34	.11	.29	.27	.03	.15	.25	.22
6. Dependents	.08	.31	-.08	-.04	-.18	-	.54	-.13	-.1	-.12	.22	-.22	.14	-.11	.29	.03	-.02	-.1	.31	-.2	-.08
7. Marital status	.13	.57	-.09	-.1	-.23	.46	-	-.11	-.12	-.04	.29	-.39	.16	.08	.11	.19	.23	.01	.12	-.1	-.04
8. Health	.06	-.2	-.18	-.07	-.01	-.05	-.06	-	-.15	.06	-.08	.02	.01	-.00	-.08	.05	.15	.07	-.31	.12	.07
9. Jobs	-.15	-.04	.16	.26	.23	-.00	-.00	-.01	-	-.13	.29	-.03	.08	-.1	.15	-.05	-.02	-.11	.12	-.12	-.02
10. Previous experience	.03	-.16	.04	.13	.25	-.04	-.06	-.02	-.01	-	.07	.19	.06	.21	-.18	.31	.31	.04	-.48	.24	.13
11. Relevant experience	.04	.16	.02	.13	.22	.12	.11	-.15	.36	.02	-	-.27	.13	.05	.05	.21	.19	.02	-.00	.15	.25
12. Intent	-.17	-.21	.08	-.04	-.07	-.08	-.19	-.01	-.06	-.00	-.23	-	-.42	.05	-.08	.03	-.03	.04	-.12	.06	-.06
13. Status	.09	-.12	.03	.13	.25	-.04	-.04	.01	.03	.26	.09	-.26	-	.02	.09	.19	.07	-.1	.03	.01	.15
14. Position	.13	.02	.06	.24	.47	.03	.03	-.07	.1	.24	.29	-.19	.21	-	-.1	.31	.41	.04	-.3	.3	.2
15. Site worked at	-.08	.09	.05	.06	.08	.08	.04	-.23	.09	-.04	.00	.02	-.17	-.2	-	-.01	-.21	-.01	.35	-.2	.05
16. Hours worked	.00	-.16	.09	.23	.46	-.08	-.07	-.00	.06	.31	.15	-.07	.34	.48	.00	-	.57	.00	-.41	.34	.4
17. Salary	.1	.08	.08	.16	.31	-.02	-.03	.01	.04	.14	.2	-.24	.11	.42	-.13	.47	-	.32	-.53	.22	.27
18. Career development	-.13	-.00	-.05	-.07	.08	.01	.02	.08	-.02	.06	-.09	-.13	.00	-.01	.04	.14	.31	-	-.32	.16	.12
19. Organisational size	.03	.23	-.04	-.15	-.2	.22	.17	-.26	.08	-.39	.06	.01	-.17	-.15	.27	-.36	-.5	-.21	-	-.75	-.45
20. Unemployment one	-.08	-.2	.11	.19	.27	-.13	-.07	.2	.00	.27	.02	.05	.14	.12	-.12	.26	.1	.02	-.8	-	.65
21. Unemployment two	-.02	-.16	-.02	.21	.19	-.06	-.02	.2	.05	.18	-.04	.03	.09	.06	-.03	.27	.21	.18	-.5	.54	-

For voluntary leavers: $r > .193, p < .01, r > .242, p < .001, r > .274, p < .0001$. For involuntary leavers, $r > .265, p < .01, r > .339, p < .001, r > .402, p < .0001$.

there was an increase in involuntary turnover ($r=.19, p<.01$).

Reason for leaving was also significantly correlated with previous tenure ($r=-.23, p<.0001$), salary ($r=-.16, p<.01$) and unemployment level when starting ($r=-.15, p<.01$). Thus, voluntary leavers had a significantly longer previous tenure than involuntary leavers, had a significantly higher salary than involuntary leavers and unemployment level when starting was significantly greater.

5.3.4. Relationships between tenure, turnover and organisational size

Table 5.6 below shows the relationships between accession rate, total turnover rate, voluntary turnover, involuntary turnover, organisational size, and tenure. Tenure has a significant and negative relationship with organizational size ($r=-.54, p<.0001$) in contrast to expectations giving no support for Hypothesis 15b. Total turnover was as expected, significantly and positively correlated with voluntary turnover ($r=.872, p<.0001$), involuntary turnover ($r=.695, p<.0001$), and organisational size ($r=.46, p<.0001$).

Table 5.6: Relationships between tenure and turnover for both voluntary and involuntary leavers

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Tenure	-					
2. Total turnover	-.04	-				
3. Voluntary turnover	-.027	.872	-			
4. Involuntary turnover	.075	.695	.25	-		
5. Total accession rate	-	.18	.12	.19	-	
6. Organisational size	-.54	.46	.32	.43	.23	-

If $r>.25, p<.01$; if $r>.32, p<.001$; if $r>.35, p<.0001$.

Voluntary turnover and involuntary turnover were positively correlated ($r=.25, p<.01$), voluntary turnover and involuntary turnover were both significantly and positively correlated with organisational size ($r=.32, p<.001$ and $r=.43,$

$p < .0001$ respectively). It appears that both voluntary and involuntary turnover increase with increasing organisational size. Accession rate was not significantly correlated with any of the variables.

5.3.5. Hierarchical modelling: Predicting voluntary and involuntary turnover

5.3.5.1. Identification of blocks of variables

The relationships between organisational and demographic variables for the whole groups of leavers are shown in Table 5.7 below. A summary of the blocks of variables entered in the regression is shown in Table 5.8 below.

Reason for leaving (voluntary and involuntary) is negatively correlated with tenure in the previous position ($r = -.23$, $p < .0001$) and salary ($r = -.15$, $p < .01$), whereas organisational size is positively correlated with reason for leaving ($r = .19$, $p < .01$). These three variables form the first block in the regression analysis.

Block one - Those that had a longer *previous tenure* tended to be older ($r = .21$, $p < .001$). Senior support workers/nurses had a significantly longer previous tenure ($r = .15$, $p < .01$). Those in a higher position had a significantly greater salary ($r = .44$, $p < .0001$) as did those born outside the locality of the organisation ($r = .199$, $p < .001$), those with longer relevant experience ($r = .20$, $p < .001$), those with previous experience with people with learning difficulties ($r = .19$, $p < .001$), those who worked full-time as opposed to part-time ($r = .50$, $p < .0001$) and those who had had their hours increased from part- to full-time ($r = .32$, $p < .0001$). Salary had a positive relationship with education level ($r = .32$, $p < .0001$), unemployment level when starting ($r = .16$, $p < .01$) and unemployment level when leaving ($r = .24$, $p < .0001$). Those who expressed an intention to improve had a significantly lower salary than those who did not ($r = -.17$, $p < .01$). *Organisational size*, although significantly correlated with other demographic and organisational variables, it was not thought to be causally predicted by any of the related variables.

Block two - those who worked on the residential site were significantly more likely to be in a higher *position* than those working in community based facilities ($r = -.17$, $p < .01$), and employees expressing a some form of ill health were significantly more likely to be in a lower position ($r = -.17$, $p < .01$). Those

Table 5.7: Relationships between demographic and organisational variables for both voluntary and involuntary leavers

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	
1. Age	-																			
2. Gender	-.11	-																		
3. Place of birth	-.04	.02	-																	
4. Position	.05	-.00	.16	-																
5. Site worked at	.13	.05	.1	-.17	-															
6. Marital status	.57	-.14	-.03	.06	.06	-														
7. Number of dependents	.34	-.09	-.02	-.01	.15	.48	-													
8. Education level	-.18	.14	.37	.44	.09	-.17	-.18	-												
9. Jobs	-.04	.15	.2	.03	.11	-.04	-.03	.26	-											
10. Status	-.04	-.02	.13	.17	-.08	.09	.02	.22	.04	-										
11. Relevant experience	.21	-.03	.18	.22	.02	.18	.16	.25	.33	.11	-									
12. Previous experience	-.17	-.01	.12	.23	-.09	-.05	-.06	.2	-.06	.19	.05	-								
13. Salary	.12	.01	.2	.44	-.15	.06	-.01	.32	.03	.13	.2	.19	-							
14. Hours worked	-.11	-.00	.26	.43	-.00	.01	-.04	.41	.02	.3	.17	.31	.5	-						
15. Intention to improve	-.21	.1	-.01	-.12	-.01	-.25	-.12	-.03	-.05	-.32	-.24	.06	-.17	-.04	-					
16. Health	-.16	-.16	-.01	-.04	-.17	-.07	-.08	-.06	-.17	.02	-.13	.02	.07	.02	-.00	-				
17. Previous tenure	.21	-.05	.01	.15	-.06	.12	.06	-.03	-.12	.1	.05	.03	.14	.02	-.12	.06	-			
18. Career development	.07	-.07	-.07	.01	.03	.03	-.02	.07	-.05	-.01	-.06	.06	.32	.11	-.08	.08	-.08	-		
19. Organisational size	-.02	.2	.03	-.13	-.2	.24	.13	-.29	.13	-.43	.04	-.04	-.12	-.21	.29	-.38	-.52	-.25	-	
20. Unemployment one	-.15	.03	.17	.18	-.14	-.06	.14	.27	-.04	.11	.05	.27	.16	.29	.05	.18	-.02	.07	-.8	-
21. Unemployment two	-.08	-.11	.18	.1	.00	-.01	-.06	.21	.02	.12	.04	.17	.24	.32	.00	.16	.02	.17	-.5	.59

If $r > .152$, $p < .01$, if $r > .194$, $p < .001$, if $r > .22$, $p < .0001$. Unemployment one - Unemployment level at the time of starting; Unemployment two - unemployment level at the time of leaving.

who were employed at the time of applying are significantly more likely to be in a higher position ($r=.17, p<.01$). Those who have had some *relevant experience* are significantly more likely to be married ($r=.18, p<.01$), have dependents ($r=.16, p<.01$) and have had more previous jobs ($r=.33, p<.0001$). Those expressing an *intention to improve* are more likely to be unemployed at the time of applying ($r=-.32, p<.0001$). Those employed at the time of applying are significantly more likely to work full-time *hours* ($r=.3, p<.0001$). *Age, Previous experience with people with learning difficulties, place of birth, status when applying, unemployment level when starting and unemployment level when leaving* were not significantly related to any further demographic or organisational variables, at least not to variables that could be said to have a causal influence on them.

Block three - Those expressing *ill health* were significantly more likely to be female ($r=-.16, p<.01$). Those with a greater of *previous jobs* were significantly more likely to be male ($r=.15, p<.01$).

Block four - Gender was the only variable in block four.

Table 5.8: Blocks of variables predicting type of turnover

Block 4	Block 3	Block 2	Block 1	Outcome variable
Gender	Health Number of jobs held previously Marital status Number of dependents Status when applying Site worked on	Age Position Place of birth Length of relevant experience Experience with people with learning difficulties Hours worked Career development Unemployment level when starting Unemployment level when leaving Intention to improve	Previous tenure Salary Organisational size	Reason for leaving

5.3.5.2. Results of the regression analysis

If any variable or group of variables was not significant at $p<.05$, it was removed from the equation before any further variables were entered. The results

of the regression procedure are summarised in Table 5.9 below. A model of predictors of type of turnover is also depicted in Figure 5.1 below.

Reason for leaving was negatively predicted by previous tenure ($R^2=.052$, $p<.0001$) and salary ($R^2=.016$, $p<.05$), and positively predicted by organisational size ($R^2=.015$, $p<.05$).

Block 1 - Previous tenure was positively predicted by age ($R^2=.045$, $p<.001$). *Salary* was positively predicted by place of birth ($R^2=.04$, $p<.001$), education level ($R^2=.07$, $p<.0001$), level of experience (length of relevant experience and previous experience with people with learning difficulties combined) ($R^2=.032$, $p<.01$), organisational status (hours worked and position) ($R^2=.17$, $p<.0001$) and career development ($R^2=.075$, $p<.0001$) and negatively predicted by intent to improve ($R^2=.02$, $p<.01$).

Table 5.9: Hierarchical regression analysis: predicting type of turnover

Dependent variable	Independent variable	d.f.	B	Part R ²	Model R ²	F _{calc}	Prob
Reason for Leaving	Previous tenure	(1,287)	-.26	.052	.052	15.64	.0001
	Salary	(1,286)	-6*10 ⁻⁶	.016	.068	4.98	.026
	Organisational size	(1,285)	.001	.015	.09	4.51	.035
Previous tenure	Age	(1,287)	.008	.045	.045	13.59	.0003
Salary	Place of birth	(1,287)	1375	.04	.04	11.89	.0006
	Education level	(1,286)	.5	.068	.108	21.86	.0001
	GROUP 3	(2,284)		.032	.14	5.23	.006
	Relevant experience		1010				
	Previous experience		170				
	Unemployment 1	(1,283)	-44	.002	.142	-	*
	Intention to improve	(1,283)	-1595	.022	.162	7.52	.0065
	GROUP 6	(2,281)		.173	.335	36.63	.0001
	Hours worked		4667				
Position held		5036					
	Career development	(1,280)	5690	.075	.41	35.51	.0001
Position	Health	(1,287)	-.07	.001	.001	-	*
	Status when applying	(1,287)	.108	.028	.028	8.25	.0044
	Site worked on	(1,286)	-.116	.026	.054	7.75	.0057
Length of relevant experience	GROUP 1	(2,286)		.038	.038	5.57	.004
	Marital status		.08				
	Number of dependents		.11				
	Number of previous jobs	(1,285)	.14	.12	.15	38.68	.0001
Hours worked	Status when applying	(1,287)	.28	.09	.09	27.36	.0001
Intention to improve	Status when applying	(1,287)	-.24	.1	.1	31.86	.0001
Number of previous jobs	Gender	(1,287)	.404	.023	.023	6.82	.01

* not significant at $p<.05$, variable removed from the equation before further variables or groups of variables were added.

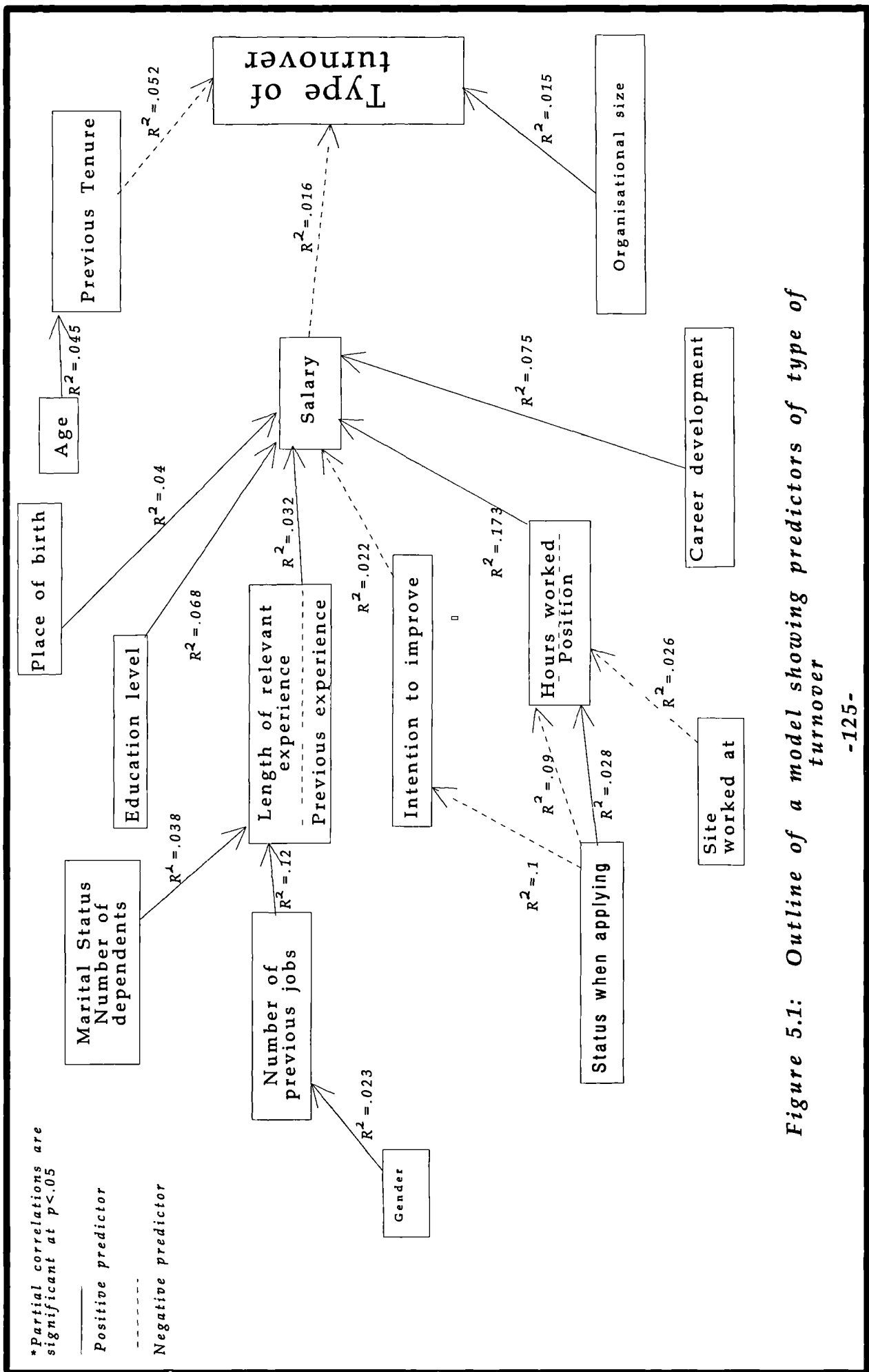


Figure 5.1: Outline of a model showing predictors of type of turnover

Block 2 - Position was positively predicted by status at the time of applying ($R^2=.028, p<.01$), and was negatively predicted by site worked at ($R^2=.029, p<.01$). *Length of relevant experience* was positively predicted by family responsibilities ($R^2=.038, p<.01$), and number of jobs held over the last five years ($R^2=.12, p<.0001$). *Hours worked* was positively predicted by status at the time of applying ($R^2=.09, p<.0001$). *Intention to improve* was negatively predicted by status at the time of applying ($R^2=.1, p<.0001$). *Age, Place of birth, previous experience with people with learning difficulties, unemployment level when starting, unemployment level when leaving and status when applying* were not predicted by any further variables.

Block 3 - Number of jobs held in the last five years is positively predicted by gender ($R^2=.023, p<.01$).

5.3.6. Hierarchical modelling: Predicting tenure

The voluntary and involuntary leavers were analyzed separately for the dependent variable of tenure. Table 5.5 above, shows the correlation matrix for the relationships between demographic and organisational variables for both the voluntary leavers (bottom half of Table 5.5) and the involuntary leavers (top half of the Table 5.5).

5.3.6.1. Identification of blocks of variables: Voluntary leavers

Tenure - There was a positive relationship between tenure and salary ($r=.56, p<.0001$). Those who had some career development, (promotion or increase in hours) had significantly longer tenure ($r=.54, p<.0001$). Similarly, those who worked full-time as opposed to part-time had significantly longer tenure ($r=.23, p<.01$). Tenure was significantly, negatively correlated with organisational size ($r=-.53, p<.0001$), in contrast to expectations.

Block one - Career development was not significantly correlated with other organisational and demographic variables beyond those in the same block. Those who had a higher *salary* tended to have a higher level of education ($r=.31, p<.0001$), longer relevant experience ($r=-.2, p<.01$), work in a higher position ($r=.42, p<.0001$), and to be less likely to express an intention to improve ($r=-.24, p<.001$). *Full-time* employees were significantly more likely to have been

born out of the locality ($r=.23, p<.01$), have a higher level of education ($r=.46, p<.0001$), have previous experience with people with learning difficulties ($r=.31, p<.0001$), be employed when applying ($r=.34, p<.0001$), have a higher position within the organisation ($r=.48, p<.0001$), unemployment level when starting tended to be higher ($r=.26, p<.001$) and unemployment level when leaving tended to be higher ($r=.27, p<.0001$). *Organisational size* no further variables were thought to be causally antecedent to organisational size.

Block two - Those with a higher level of *education* tended to be younger ($r=-.27, p<.0001$), were significantly less likely to be married ($r=-.23, p<.001$) and tended to have had a greater number of previous jobs ($r=.23, p<.01$). Those who expressed an *intent* to improve were significantly younger ($r=-.21, p<.01$) and significantly less likely to have dependents ($r=-.19, p<.01$). *Position* was negatively correlated with site worked on ($r=-.2, p<.01$). *Length of relevant experience, experience with people with learning difficulties, status at the time of applying, place of birth, unemployment level when starting and unemployment level when leaving* were not significantly correlated with any other variables or not significantly correlated with other variables which could cause them.

Block 3 - was composed of age, jobs, number of dependent and marital status, which were not significantly correlated with any causally antecedent variables.

Table 5.10: Voluntary leavers: Blocks of variables to predict tenure

Block 3	Block 2	Block 1	Outcome variable
Age	Place of birth	Career development	Tenure
Jobs	Education level	Salary	
Number of dependents	Intention to improve	Hours	
Marital status	Length of relevant experience	Organisational size	
	Experience with people with learning difficulties		
	Status at the time of applying		
	Position in the organisation		
	Unemployment level when starting		
	Unemployment level when leaving		

5.3.6.2. Results of the regression analysis

Any variable or group of variables which was not significant at $p < .05$, was removed from the regression equation before any further variables were added. The results of the regression analysis are summarised in Table 5.11 and an outline of predictors of tenure for voluntary leavers is shown in Figure 5.2.

Dependent variable - Organisational size was a negative predictor of tenure ($R^2 = .28$, $p < .0001$). The three organisational variables were regressed as a block variable onto *tenure*, career and salary were positive predictors of tenure, whilst hours worked was a negative predictor ($R^2 = .093$, $p < .0001$).

Block 1 - Salary was positively predicted by education level ($R^2 = .09$, $p < .0001$), length of relevant experience ($R^2 = .018$, $p < .06$), and negatively predicted by intention to improve ($R^2 = .037$, $p < .01$). *Hours worked* were positively predicted by place of birth ($R^2 = .05$, $p < .01$), education level ($R^2 = .16$, $p < .0001$), previous experience with people with learning difficulties ($R^2 = .04$, $p < .01$), status at the time of joining and aggregate unemployment level when joining ($R^2 = .046$, $p < .01$) and position in the organisation ($R^2 = .07$, $p < .0001$).

Table 5.11: Voluntary leavers: Regression analysis predicting tenure

Dependent variable	Independent variable	d.f.	Beta	Part R ²	Model R ²	Finc	Prob
Tenure	Organisational size	(1,172)	-.003	.283	.283	68.04	.0001
	GROUP 2	(3,169)		.093	.376	8.39	.0001
	Salary		.52				
	Hours		-.04				
	Career		.00001				
Salary	Education level	(1,187)	1552	.094	.094	19.32	.0001
	Relevant experience	(1,186)	1416	.017	.11	3.65	.058*
	Intention to improve	(1,186)	-4387	.047	.14	10.13	.0017
Hours	Place of birth	(1,187)	.08	.054	.054	10.67	.001
	Education level	(1,186)	.06	.164	.218	39.05	.0001
	Previous experience	(1,185)	.10	.039	.26	9.74	.002
	GROUP 4	(2,183)		.046	.302	5.98	.003
	Status when applying		.17				
	Unemployment 1		.02				
Position	Position	(1,182)	.09	.068	.371	19.75	.0001
Position	Site worked on	(1,187)	-.16	.042	.042	8.17	.005
Education level	Age	(1,187)	-.03	.076	.076	15.29	.0001
	Number of previous jobs	(1,186)	.26	.046	.122	9.78	.002
Intention to improve	Age	(1,187)	-.007	.044	.044	8.67	.004

* variable removed from the equation before the entry of further variables

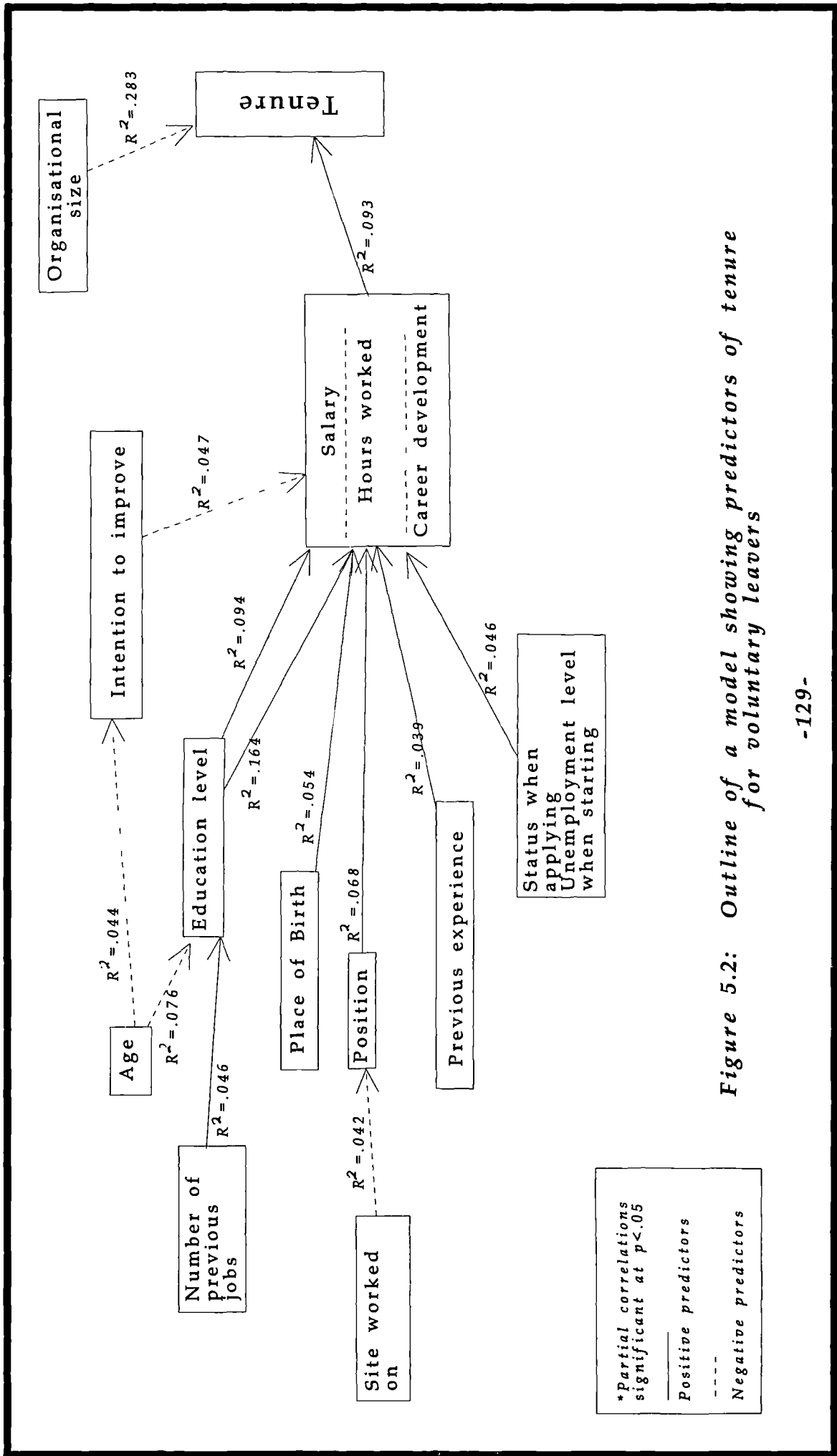


Figure 5.2: Outline of a model showing predictors of tenure for voluntary leavers

Block 2 - Position was negatively predicted by site worked on ($R^2 = .04$, $p < .01$). *Education level* was negatively predicted by age ($R^2 = .08$, $p < .0001$), and positively predicted by number of jobs held previously ($R^2 = .046$, $p < .01$). *Intention to improve* is positively predicted by age ($R^2 = .04$, $p < .01$).

5.3.6.3. Identification of blocks of variables: Involuntary leavers:

Tenure - Those who were born locally had significantly shorter tenure than those born outside the locality or in a different country ($r = -.27$, $p < .001$). Those had poorer health at the time of applying had a significantly shorter tenure than those who had better health. Those who had an increase in hours or promotion, had a significantly longer tenure than those who did not ($r = .54$, $p < .0001$). The relationship between tenure and turnover was not significant. No evidence was found for a direct relationship between tenure and any other demographic or organisational variable.

Block 1 - This was composed of place of birth, health at the time of applying, organisational size, career development, and salary. None of the variables were significantly correlated with any variables that were causally antecedent.

The blocks of variables are summarised in Table 5.12 below.

Table 5.12: Involuntary leavers: Blocks of variables to predict tenure

Block 1	Outcome variable
Place of Birth	Tenure
Health	
Organisational size	
Career development	
Salary	

5.3.6.4 Results of the regression analysis

Table 5.13 above, shows the results of the regression analysis. *Dependent variable - Tenure* was positively predicted by health ($R^2 = .086$, $p < .002$), and career development and hours ($R^2 = .196$, $p < .0001$) and negatively predicted by place of birth ($R^2 = .07$, $p < .01$) and organisational size ($R^2 = .22$, $p < .0001$).

Table 5.13: Involuntary leavers: Regression analysis predicting tenure

Dependent variable	Independent variable	d.f.	B	Part R ²	Model R ²	F _{max}	Prob
Tenure	Place of birth	(1,98)	.07	.074	.074	7.8	.006
	Health	(1,97)	.08	.086	.16	9.98	.002
	Organisational size	(1,96)	-.002	.22	.327	30.43	.0001
	GROUP 4	(2,94)		.196	.524	18.74	.0001
	Career Salary		.9				.000003

5.3.7. Hierarchical modelling: Predicting turnover

5.3.7.1. Identification of blocks of variables: Voluntary leavers

Demographic and organisational variables that are significantly correlated with organisational turnover are shown in Table 5.4. Education is positively correlated with turnover ($r=.23, p<.01$) as is intention to improve ($r=.22, p<.01$). Unemployment level when starting was positively correlated with turnover ($r=.2, p<.01$).

Block one - Education level was significantly greater among those born outside the locality ($r=.37, p<.0001$), those with previous experience with people with learning difficulties ($r=.25, p<.001$), those with some previous relevant experience ($r=.22, p<.01$) and single employees ($r=-.27, p<.001$). Education level was positively correlated with number of jobs held previously ($r=.23, p<.01$) and negatively correlated with age ($r=-.27, p<.0001$).

Table 5.14: Voluntary leavers: Blocks of variables to predict turnover

Block 3	Block 2	Block 1	Dependent variable
Number of dependents	Place of birth Number of previous jobs Previous experience Length of relevant experience Age Marital status	Education level Intention to improve Unemployment level	Turnover

Those expressing an *intention to improve* were significantly younger ($r=-.21, p<.01$), significantly less likely to be married ($r=-.19, p<.01$) and significantly

less likely to have any relevant experience ($r = -.23, p < .01$). *Unemployment level* when starting was not causally predicted by any significant correlates.

Age was significantly greater among those with dependents ($r = .31, p < .0001$). Those who were *married* were significantly more likely to have dependents ($r = .46, p < .0001$).

5.3.7.2. Results of the regression analysis

The results of the regression analysis are summarised in Table 5.15 below. A model of predictors of turnover for voluntary leavers is shown in Figure 5.3 below.

Dependent variable -Turnover was positively predicted by education level ($R^2 = .052, p < .002$), intention to improve ($R^2 = .054, p < .11$) and unemployment level when starting ($R^2 = .016, p < .077$).

Table 5.15: Voluntary leavers: regression analysis predicting turnover

Dependent variable	Independent variable	d.f.	B	Part R ²	Model R ²	F _{inc}	Prob
Turnover	Education	(1,181)	.24	.052	.052	9.93	.002
	Intention to improve	(1,180)	1.03	.054	.106	10.83	.001
	Unemployment 1	(1,179)	.08	.016	.12	3.16	.077*
Education level	Place of birth	(1,187)	.96	.138	.138	30.05	.0001
	Age	(1,186)	-.03	.055	.194	12.72	.0005
	Marital status	(1,185)	-.18	.005	.2	-	-
	Number of previous jobs	(1,185)	.096	.018	.211	4.11	.044
	GROUP 5	(2,183)		.06	.27	7.57	.0007
	Previous experience			.50			
Intention to improve	Age	(1,187)	-.006	.044	.044	8.67	.004
	Marital status	(1,186)	-.043	.008	.052	-	-
	Relevant experience	(1,186)	-.153	.039	.083	7.85	.0056
Age	Number of dependents	(1,187)	7.61	.095	.095	19.55	.0001

* Variable removed before entry of further variables

Block one - Education level was positively predicted by place of birth ($R^2 = .138, p < .0001$), number of jobs held previously ($R^2 = .02, p < .04$) and previous experience ($R^2 = .062, p < .0005$) (length of relevant experience and

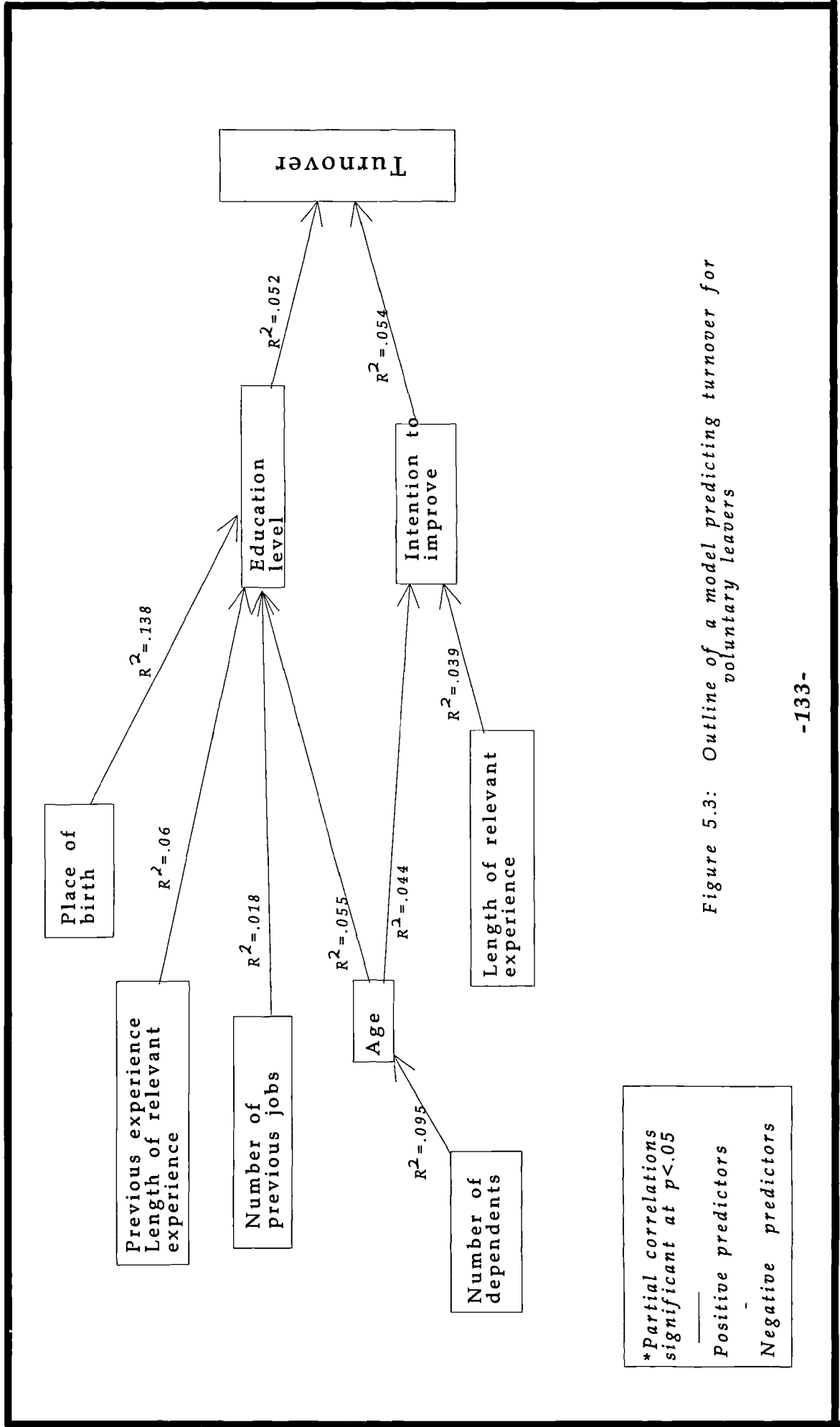


Figure 5.3: Outline of a model predicting turnover for voluntary leavers

previous experience with people with learning difficulties were entered as a group), and negatively predicted by age ($R^2 = .055$, $p < .0005$). *Intention to improve* was negatively predicted by age ($R^2 = .044$, $p < .004$), and relevant experience ($R^2 = .038$, $p < .006$).

Block two - Age is positively predicted by number of dependents ($R^2 = .094$, $p < .0001$).

5.3.7.3. Identification of blocks of variables: Involuntary leavers

From Table 5.4, previous tenure has a negative relationship with turnover for involuntary leavers ($r = -.48$, $p < .0001$) this is inconsistent with Hypothesis 8b. Previous tenure is not significantly correlated with any other demographic or organisational variable.

5.3.7.4. Results of the regression analysis

Previous tenure was regressed onto turnover. Previous tenure was a significant, negative predictor of organisational turnover for involuntary leavers ($R^2 = .228$, $p < .0001$)

Table 5.16: Involuntary leavers: Prediction of turnover

Dependent variable	Independent variable	d.f.	B	Partial R^2	Model R^2	F_{inc}	Prob
Turnover	Previous tenure	(1,98)	-2.64	.228	.228	28.90	.0001

5.4: Discussion

The results provide some support for direct relationships between organisational and demographic variables and tenure and turnover, offering some support for previous research in organisational behaviour. The relationships between demographic variables and tenure and turnover are discussed below, followed by a discussion of the relationships between demographic variables and reason for leaving.

5.4.1. Relationships of organisational and demographic variables with tenure and turnover

5.4.1.1. Voluntary leavers

The positive relationship between age and number of dependents is consistent with the suggestion of Baumeister & Zaharia (1987) and the work of Werbel & Gould (1984). No relationship was found between marital status and tenure and turnover, supporting Hypothesis 3b and the work of Arnold & Feldman (1982).

Tenure Organisational variables were found to be directly related to and predictive of tenure among voluntary leavers. Hypothesis 4 was supported in that there was no relationship found between tenure and gender, supporting previous findings (Distefano, 1988; Lakin et al., 1983; Mangione, 1973). Hypotheses 11, 12 and 14 were supported in that increased hours (from part- to full-time hours) and increased salary was associated with and predicted an increase in tenure. Salary is however, linked directly to tenure in the present organisation and thus, a positive relationship would be expected. Working full-time as opposed to part-time hours is positively correlated with tenure, yet hours worked is a negative predictor of tenure.

These results appear to give some support the exchange theory: that an employee assesses the current situation by the balance of the rewards and costs of the present job. The positive relationship between salary and tenure was supportive of previous work (Federico et al., 1976; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Mobley et al., 1979; Newman, 1974). The positive relationship between the increase in hours and

associated longer tenure is also supportive of previous work (Cavanagh, 1990; Landinsky, 1967; Lawler, 1971; Marsh & Mannari, 1977).

Organisational size is negatively correlated with and negatively predictive of tenure in the organisation, contradicting Hypothesis 15. Organisational size is also positively correlated with both voluntary and involuntary turnover. This indicates that organisational expansion in this type of organisation has a great destabilising effect on the organisation, with an increase in both voluntary and involuntary turnover and a decreased in tenure. Once the organisation has attained stability, organisational size may be a better predictor of tenure. Thus, no support was found for the work of Caldwell et al. (1990) in the present study.

Tenure was predicted by working full-time as opposed to part-time, a higher salary, and an increase in hours from part-to full-time. Organisational size was negatively predictive of tenure, the larger the organisation, the shorter the tenure. These organisational variables accounted for 37.6% of the variance in tenure. Demographic variables influenced tenure through these organisational variables.

Turnover Demographic variables were directly related to and predictive of turnover. Education had a positive relationship with turnover, partially supporting Hypothesis 5, and giving some support for previous work (Balfour & Neff, 1993; Breaugh & Dossett, 1989; Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Lakin & Bruininks, 1981; Lakin et al., 1983; Price & Mueller, 1981; Riediger & Baine, 1987; Zaharia & Baumeister, 1978b). Those expressing intention to improve had a higher turnover rate than those that did not, supporting Hypothesis 9 and the work of Lakin et al. (1983). Organisational variables did not appear to have any relationship with turnover.

Education level and intention to improve were significantly, positively predictive of turnover rate at $p < .05$. These two variables accounted for 10.6% of the variance in turnover rate. Other demographic and organisational variables influenced turnover rate only indirectly through education level and intention to improve.

5.4.1.2. *Involuntary leavers*

A positive relationship was found between age and number of dependents, supporting previous research (Baumeister & Zaharia, 1987; Werbel and Gould, 1984). No relationship was found between marital status and tenure supporting Hypothesis 3b, and Arnold & Feldman (1982).

Tenure Place of birth and ill health were negatively correlated with tenure and positively predicted tenure, giving some support for Hypotheses 6 and 10. Salary and career development were positively correlated with and predicted tenure giving support for Hypotheses 12 and 14. Organisational size was negatively correlated with tenure and negatively predicted tenure, contradicting Hypothesis 15b. This may be due to the instability of the organisation due to expansion.

Thus, the results gave some support for the exchange theory, with increased organisational rewards leading to increased organisational tenure. Tenure was directly predicted by place of birth, health, career development, salary and organisational size. 52% of the variance in tenure for involuntary leavers was accounted for by these variables.

Turnover Previous tenure was negatively correlated with and negatively predictive of turnover among involuntary leavers. Thus, those that had a longer tenure in their previous position, were less likely to leave their present position. However, a positive relationship between previous tenure and present tenure was not found. Previous tenure accounted for 22.8% of the variance in turnover.

The pattern of results suggests that tenure and turnover are not opposites as proposed, but are differentially related to demographic and organisational variables and, indeed, are not necessarily related to one another. The importance of distinguishing between type of turnover is highlighted by the results which suggest that there are different relationships between organisational and demographic variables for those who leave voluntarily and those who leave involuntarily.

5.4.2. *Relationships between organisational and demographic variables and reason for leaving*

Reason for leaving the organisation (voluntary or involuntary) was negatively correlated with and predicted by salary and tenure in the previous

position and positively correlated with and predicted by organisational size. Thus, those who leave voluntarily have a significantly greater salary in the present position and had a significantly longer tenure in their previous position. As organisational size increases, the number of involuntary leavers also increases. These three variables account for only 9% of the variance in reason for leaving. It would appear that there are other important variables to take into consideration when assessing reason for leaving. Campion (1991) suggested the voluntariness of leaving should be assessed using a continuous, rather than a dichotomous variable. With retrospective data however, there is little opportunity to assess the voluntariness or avoidability of leaving the organisation. There are two sides to employee separation, the employee's the organisation's side, both of which need to be taken into account to properly assess the reasons behind termination of the employment relationship.

5.4.3. Profiling the direct-care worker

From the results of the retrospective study, a number of tentative conclusions can be drawn about the criteria that are desirable among those looking for employment within the present type of organisation. Similarly, aspects of the organisation that enhance employee tenure and reduce turnover can be identified.

Prospective employees with a higher education level and those who do not express an intention to improve when applying have a higher turnover rate. Those who have a longer previous tenure are less likely to leave involuntarily. The organisation can improve retention of employees by increasing salary levels and offering opportunities for career development. In a stable organisation tenure may increase and voluntary turnover rates reduce, however, this requires further exploration.

5.4.4. Criticisms of the present study and suggestions for future research

The present study can be criticised on a number of points. Firstly, the study was retrospective, which has a number of implications for the data. Data was not verifiable and was obtained from organisational records, which may give a different point of view than interviewing the exiting employee in person. Secondly,

the measures of turnover were dichotomous, which obscures the extent to which the decision to terminate the employment was due to the individual, the organisation or interaction between the two. Thirdly, only personal demographic and organisational variables were measured, thus there was no assessment of the psychological measures of organisational affect which have an important impact on organisational behaviour.

Future research assessing reason for leaving needs to be prospective and to assess the voluntariness and avoidability of this decision from both the employees and the organisation's point of view. Assessing the organisation-employee 'fit' theories requires the measurement of more psychological variables such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and the effects of occupational stress. Complementary research would include the assessment of the impact of organisational attitudes and affective variables on turnover behaviour and turnover intentions. Giving a more complete picture of the antecedents of organisational behaviour and outcomes in this particular occupational group.

Finally, an area of research that needs to be included in the assessment of organisational behaviour is how demographic variables contribute to the formation of the individual's needs and values. The interaction of the individual's needs and values with the organisational values and rewards is the main antecedent to affective responses to the organisation and thus, organisational behaviour.

5.4.5. Summary

The present study has given an insight into predictors of tenure, turnover and reason for leaving among direct-care workers supporting people with learning difficulties. This is an occupational area that has lagged behind in organisational behaviour research. The study has brought out a number of important points that have not been addressed before for this occupational group. Firstly, predictors of different types of turnover were assessed. It was found that there were different predictors of tenure and turnover for those leaving voluntarily and those leaving involuntarily. Secondly, two measures of turnover were compared, both giving very different results. There was no relationship between any of the demographic and organisational variables and the basic attrition rate from the organisation,

whereas a number of the demographic and organisational variables were found to be predictive of turnover for both the voluntary and involuntary leavers. Finally, predictors of different types of leaving have not been studied previously, although this would enable the organisation to profile candidates prior to employment. The results of this analysis led to the conclusion that the variables measured in the present study, although predictive of type of turnover, did not explain sufficient variance in type of turnover. Variables assessing individual-organisational interaction may be better predictors of type of turnover.

Tenure for voluntary leavers was predicted by organisational based variables, in the form of rewards. Thus, the initial influence on tenure may be exchange based giving direct support for the exchange theory, that suggests the degree to which the individual positively evaluates his or her job, should be greater to the extent that the job offers a balance of rewards and costs (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983). Support for theories of organisational-employee fit are assessed indirectly in the present study. It would be assumed that those with previous experience of working with people with learning difficulties would be more aware of the present organisation's goal and values than those with no experience. The influence of experience on turnover and tenure was indirect through organisational rewards and education level.

Chapter Six: Job attitudes and affective variables as predictors of intention to quit and search for an alternative

6.1. Introduction

Chapter five was concerned with predicting type of turnover, tenure and actual turnover from demographic and organisational variables. The nature of the study was retrospective. The present study canvassed the attitudes and perceptions of a random sample of the employees within the service supporting people with learning difficulties, at various points in their tenure. Job attitudes, organisational perceptions and perceptions of occupational stress are studied with respect to their effect on turnover intention, turnover behaviour and ill health.

Favourable job attitudes and perceptions and lower the turnover intention would be expected if there was a good 'fit' or congruence between the individual and the organisation. Organisational and demographic variables are expected to have an impact on the individual-organisational 'fit', and influence turnover intention and behaviour through job attitudes and perceptions. Organisational variables indicate the organisational reward systems and values, whereas demographic variables indicate individual differences which affect an individual's values and needs. The effect of negative job attitudes and perceptions may have negative consequences for the organisation through their effect on mental and physical ill health and turnover.

Initially, the hypothesised relationships between demographic and organisational variables and attitude and perceptions are detailed, followed by the expected relationships between job attitudes and perceptions. Finally, the expected influence of attitudes on turnover intentions and behaviour and the expected relationships between attitudes and perceptions and ill health are detailed. The present study aims to assess whether existing models of organisational behaviour are relevant to the present occupational group under study. Secondly, the study assesses the ability of attitudinal variables to predict outcomes of interest to the organisation, namely turnover intentions, job search behaviour and ill health.

6.1.1. Expected relationships between demographic and organisational variables and job attitudes and perceptions

Demographic variables were found to be predictive of turnover rate in the previous study, whereas organisational rewards were predictive of tenure. Previous tenure and organisational rewards in the form of salary were positively predictive of type of turnover. It would be expected that these variables would influence turnover intention and behaviour through their effect on job attitudes and perceptions.

Organisational rewards A positive relationship would be expected between organisational rewards and job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Pay has suggested to be a covariate of job satisfaction (Staw, 1984). Judge (1993) found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and wage rate. Some support has been found for a positive relationship between job satisfaction and position (Jones, Glaman & Steele-Johnson, 1993; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). Finally, job satisfaction was positively predicted by opportunity in the job (Price & Mueller, 1981) and promotion (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Price & Mueller, 1981).

A positive relationship has been reported between organisational commitment and perceptions of personal importance (Salancik, 1977a; Steers, 1977), hierarchical position (Sheldon, 1971), power (Brown, 1969) and influence (Stumpf & Hartman, 1984). Organisational commitment also has a positive relationship with opportunity for development within the organisation (Aryee & Tan, 1992; Brown, 1969; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972), availability of regular promotion procedures and career satisfaction (Aryee & Tan, 1992; Marsden, Kalleberg & Cook, 1993).

Hypothesis 1a Job satisfaction will be positively correlated with salary, pay, position and career development

Hypothesis 1b Moral commitment will be positively correlated with salary, position and career development

Tenure would also be expected to have a positive relationship with hours worked, career development and salary.

Hypothesis 1c Tenure will have a positive relationship with hours worked, career development and salary.

Intention to improve Lakin, Hill, Bruininks, Hauber & Krantz (1983) found employees accepting their direct-care positions for reasons other than professional advancement or fulfilment were more stable, therefore, intention to advance professionally or striving for professional fulfilment may lead to greater turnover and lower tenure. As the influence of demographic variables is suggested to be through attitudes and perceptions, intention to improve would be expected to have a negative relationship with job satisfaction and commitment, and a positive relationships with perceived occupational stress.

Hypothesis 2a Intent to improve will have a negative relationship with job satisfaction

Hypothesis 2b Intent to improve will have a negative relationship with moral commitment

Hypothesis 2c Intent to improve will have a positive relationship with perceived stress

Education level A negative relationship between education level and job satisfaction has been supported by a number of researchers (Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Grau, Chandler, Burton & Kolditz, 1987; Miller, 1980). No relationship (Blegen, 1993) and a positive relationship have also been reported (Judge, 1993; Tharenou, 1993), the weight of evidence however, indicates a negative relationship. Education has also been found to be negatively correlated with and predictive of organisational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Koch & Steers, 1978; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Steers, 1977).

Hypothesis 3a Education level will have a negative relationship with job satisfaction

Hypothesis 3b Education level have a negative relationship with moral commitment

6.1.2. Relationships between job attitudes and perceptions

Perceived occupational stress has been found to have a negative relationship with job satisfaction (Blegen, 1993; Butler & Ehrlich, 1991; Fox, Dwyer & Ganster, 1993; Mathieu, 1991). Job satisfaction was also negatively correlated with role conflict (Butler & Ehrlich, 1991; Jones et al., 1993; Kemery, Mossholder & Bedeian, 1987; Lang, Wittig-Berman & Rizkalla, 1992), role ambiguity (Hendrix, Ovalle & Troxler, 1985; Jones et al., 1993; Kemery,

Bedeian, Mossholder & Touliatos, 1986; Kemery et al., 1987; Lang et al., 1992), somatic complaints (Fox et al., 1993; Lang et al., 1992) and physical symptoms (Kemery et al., 1987). There is evidence to suggest that perceived stress is a predictor of job satisfaction, although there may be a degree of reciprocity in the relationship.

Hypothesis 4a: Occupational stress will have a negative correlation with and negatively predict job satisfaction.

Organisational commitment has been shown to have a positive and a negative relationship with the negative effects of occupational stress. A negative relationship between occupational stress and organisational commitment however, has gained more support. The relationship between different facets of commitment and perceived stress may vary.

Hypothesis 4b: Occupational stress will have a negative relationship with moral commitment.

Hypothesis 4c: Occupational stress will have a positive relationship with alienative commitment.

Organisational commitment and job satisfaction Generally, a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has been reported (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Blau, 1993; Blegen, 1993; Becker & Billings, 1993; Harris, Hirschfeld, Field and Mossholder, 1993; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Ng, 1993; O'Driscoll, 1987; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990). When looking at the facets of satisfaction, DeCotiis & Summers (1987) found satisfaction with work, opportunity for professional development, co-workers, pay, and supervision were positively correlated with organisational commitment. A positive relationship is expected between job satisfaction and moral commitment, whilst a negative relationship is expected between job satisfaction and alienative commitment.

Hypothesis 5a: Moral commitment and job satisfaction will have a positive relationship.

Hypothesis 5b: Alienative commitment and job satisfaction will have a negative relationship.

6.1.3. Relationships between job attitudes and perceptions and turnover intentions and behaviour and ill health

Mental and physical ill health Perceived occupational stress is suggested to be predictive of ill health, thus the outcome of high levels of perceived occupational stress would be expected to be increased mental and physical ill health. Both physical and mental ill health are said to result from the experience of stress in the workplace (Kelloway & Barling, 1991; Tyler & Cushway, 1992; Warr, 1987).

Hypothesis 6: Occupational stress will be positively correlated with and predict physical and mental ill health.

Turnover intentions and behaviour A negative relationship between turnover intentions and behaviour and job satisfaction has been established. Job satisfaction has been shown to be positively correlated with intent to stay (Cavanagh & Coffin 1992; Grau et al., 1991; Hendrix et al., 1985; Steers & Mowday, 1981). Job satisfaction is a negative predictor of thinking of quitting (Bannister & Griffeth, 1986; Dalessio, Silverman & Schuck, 1986), intention to quit (Bannister & Griffeth, 1986; Blau, 1993; Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Dalessio et al., 1986; Hendrix et al., 1985; Kemery et al., 1987; Lang et al., 1992; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Price & Mueller, 1981; Summers & Hendrix, 1991; Razza, 1993) and intention to search for a job, (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Blau, 1993; Bannister & Griffeth, 1986; Lang et al., 1992; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Stumpf & Hartman, 1984; Razza, 1993).

A negative relationship has been found between job satisfaction and actual turnover (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Blau, 1993; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Decker, 1985; Judge, 1993; Kemery et al., 1986; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Lucas, Atwood & Hagaman, 1993; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979; Ng, 1993; Porter & Steers, 1973; Price, 1977; Saleh, Lee & Prien, 1965).

Hypothesis 7a: job satisfaction will be negatively correlated with and predict intention to quit, intention to search and search behaviour.

Organisational commitment is said to be positively correlated with intention to remain in the job (Becker & Billings, 1993; Farrell & Rushbult, 1981; Steers, 1977). Meyer, Allen & Smith (1993) found normative and affective organisational commitment negatively correlated with intent to leave the organisation.

Organisational commitment was directly predictive of desire to leave (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). Job search behaviour also had a negative relationship with organisational commitment (Stumpf & Hartman, 1984).

Organisational commitment was found to have a significant negative relationship with turnover, (Aryee & Tan, 1992; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Lee, Ashford, Walsh and Mowday, 1992; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Mowday, Porter & Dubin, 1974; Porter, Crampon, & Smith, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Steers, 1977), and is predictive of voluntary turnover (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987).

Hypothesis 7b: Organisational commitment will be negatively correlated with and predict intention to leave, job search intention and job search behaviour.

6.2. Method

6.2.1. Participants

Participants in the present study were direct-care workers working with people with learning difficulties in both community-based units and on a residential nursing home site. Particular tenure cohorts of employees were identified based on important points in an employees tenure with an organisation. Half the employees in each tenure group were randomly selected and invited to participate in the study. 91 employees were willing to take part with 56 completed questionnaires received, giving a response rate of 61.5%.

12 months later, those employees not selected in the first study were contacted, completing the questionnaire assessing job attitudes and perceptions as part of a further study. 90 employees were willing to participate, in this second study with 30 completed questionnaires received, giving a response rate of 33%.

The two groups were compared with regard to difference in organisational and demographic variables and only one significant difference was found. Intention to improve was significantly different between the two groups ($X^2=3.92$, $p=.048$), with a smaller number of employees expressing no intention to improve in the second than participants in the first group. The absence of differences between the two groups indicated that the results of the two groups may be combined to create a reliable model of organisational attitudes, perceptions and behaviour for the present group of employees. There were 86 participants who completed the questionnaires altogether. Mean age was 35.9 years and mean tenure was 2.12 years.

6.2.2. Design

The study had both between group and within group variables. All participants completed all measures, tenure however, was a between groups variable. The dependent variables were intention to leave and physical and mental ill health. The independent variables were demographic and organisational variables, job attitudes, perceptions of stress, type A behaviour, coping strategies and perceptions of control within the organisation.

6.2.3. Measures

6.2.3.1. Demographic variables

Tenure 5 tenure cohorts were examined: cohort one, 6 weeks to 5 months; cohort two, 6 months to 9 months; cohort three, 1 to 2 years; cohort four, 3 to 4 years; cohort five, 7 years or greater. Other demographic variables measures include: *Age* (in years at the time of the study); *Previous tenure* (tenure in the previous position); *Gender* (male 1, female 0); *Marital status* (single 0, divorced/separated 1, widowed 2 or married 3); *Number of dependents*; *Education level* (5 levels: no formal qualifications 1, GCSE/O'level grades less than C grade 2, GCSE/O'level grades A B C 3, A'levels, college training, BTec etc. 4, and finally professional qualifications or degree 5); *Status when applying* (unemployed 0, caring for dependents 1, studying 2 or employed 3); *Length of relevant experience* (months in employment similar to the one of direct-care worker, including nursing and care assistant work); *Previous experience with people with learning difficulties* (either voluntary or paid); and *Intention to improve* (Intent to improve 1, no intention 0).

6.2.3.2. Organisational variables

These include: *Salary* (Annual re-numeration, accounting for inflation), wages had not increased at the rate of inflation, so wages tend to have been overestimated; *Hours worked* (part time 0 or full time 1); *Position* (support worker 1, senior support worker 2 and professionally qualified staff 3, i.e. nurses); *Site worked* (community-based unit 1 or nursing home site 0); and *Career development* (No promotion 0, increasing hours from part- to full-time 1 or a promotion to a higher position 2).

6.2.3.3. Job attitudes and organisational perceptions

The Occupational Stress Inventory was used to assess a number of variables: *Type A* behaviour; *perception of control*; *coping strategies*; *job satisfaction* and *sources of pressure*. *Organisational commitment* was assessed using three scales developed by Penley & Gould (1988): *moral commitment*, *alienative commitment* and *calculative commitment*.

6.2.3.4. Outcome variables

Health Stress related *physical and mental health* symptoms were measured using scales from the OSI. *Turnover intentions and behaviour* was assessed by three scales: *intention to quit, intention to search and search behaviour*

The internal validity, calculated using Cronbach's alpha are shown in Appendix 6.1. For more detail on the measures used in the present study see Chapter 4.

6.2.4. Procedure

The address and telephone number of the place of work of each of the employees identified for participation in the study was obtained. A letter was sent to the employee's place of employment explaining that research was being carried out. The nature and requirements of the research were explained and assurances of confidentiality were given. During the week after receiving the letter, the employees were contacted at work and asked whether they would participate in the study. If agreeable, a set of questionnaires was delivered to the place of work by the researcher when the employee was on duty, and further questions about the research were answered. The questionnaires were left with the employee to complete in his/her own time. The researcher collected the completed questionnaires from the employees' at their place of work. Problems with completion of the questionnaire were addressed and any issues that the employee wished to raise were discussed. Feedback of results to all participants working with the organisation at the time of analysis was assured. The employee was contacted up to three times after taking the questionnaires, if the questionnaires were not completed by the third contact, they were not collected.

6.2.5. Screening Data

To ensure that the linear variables were normally distributed, the normality of the variables was assessed and appropriate transformations were carried out. Table 6.1 below, gives the values of skewedness and kurtosis of the variables.

Table 6.1: Skewedness and kurtosis of linear variables

Variables	Before transformation		After transformation	
	Skewedness	Kurtosis	Skewedness	Kurtosis
Tenure	2.63	7.57	1.53	2.31
Age	.37	-1.0	-	-
Salary	1.93	3.8	-	-
Relevant experience	3.15	11.45	-	-
Previous tenure	2.66	7.44	1.54	2.56

Length of relevant experience was split into no relevant experience and those with relevant experience as more than 50% of the employees in the sample had no previous relevant experience in a direct-care job. Tenure and tenure in the previous position were transformed using a square-root transformation due to the large value for kurtosis. Salary and age were not transformed.

6.2.6. Analysis

Correlational techniques were used to analyze the data. Point bi-serial correlations were conducted on dichotomous variables. Those categorical variables that consisted of more than two categories were collapsed into dichotomous variables.

Marital status was collapsed such that single and separated employees were given a value of 0, whilst married employees were given a values of 2. *Place of birth* was collapsed into those born within the locality of the organisation (0) and those born outside the locality of the organisation (1). *Position*, those in senior support worker positions and nursing positions were given a value of 2, whilst support workers were given a value of 1. *Site worked on* was collapsed into the residential site (0) and the community site (1). *Number of dependents* was collapsed into no dependents (0) and some dependents (1). *Career development* was collapsed into those that had no career development (0) and those that had their hours increased or promotion to a higher position (1). *Status at the time of*

applying was collapsed into unemployed or caring for dependents (0) and studying or working (1).

Hierarchical regression modelling was used to construct models discerning the relationships between demographic, organisational variables, job attitudes, perceptions and turnover intentions and behaviour.

6.3: Results

Initially, differences between the tenure cohorts, with regard to job attitudes, organisational perceptions, turnover intentions, job search behaviour and mental and physical ill health are studied. Secondly, correlational analysis identifies relationships between the variables measured in the study and assess the level of support for the hypotheses suggested in the introduction. Finally, hierarchical regression modelling techniques are used to construct models of organisational behaviour for the present occupational group.

6.3.1. Differences between the cohort groups with regard to the attitudinal and perceptual variables measured

Table 6.2. below show the mean values for each cohort on each of the job attitude and perceptual variables that were measured. Anova calculations were conducted to assess differences between the cohorts on these variables.

Table 6.2: Mean scores across cohorts: job attitudes, perceptions, Type A behaviour and use of coping strategies

Variables	Group 1 (3-5 months)		Group 2 (6-9 months)		Group 3 (1-2 years)		Group 4 (3-4 years)		Group 5 (7 + years)		Whole group	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Attitude	25.7	5	22	3.57	22.5	3.9	21.5	4.1	22.9	4.5	22.7	4.2
Ambition	15.2	2.9	15	4	14.9	4.3	14.8	2.6	17.2	3.5	15.1	3.7
Behaviour style	11.4	1.8	11.1	3.26	10.1	2.4	9.7	1.5	10.9	2	10.6	2.5
Broad Type A	24	3.6	22.7	3.68	21.2	3.6	20.7	3.9	22.9	3.1	22.1	3.7
O.F.	17.5	2.1	17.9	3.79	19.7	3.5	21.4	4.1	22	4.5	19.3	3.9
M.P	14	1.4	12.5	2	13.8	1.8	14.6	2.4	15.4	3.2	13.7	2.2
I.I	9.5	12.2	10.6	2.5	9.8	2.5	10.8	1.7	10.7	2.5	10.2	2.4
Broad control	16	2.4	18.8	3.2	16.7	2.4	17.7	3.8	19.6	2.7	17	3.0
Stress 1	25.8	9.95	29.8	7.97	29.3	7.	28.6	5.7	30.9	7.3	29	7.6
Stress 2	33	10.2	35.6	8.33	34.7	8.1	38.3	7.9	38.4	9.9	35.6	8.6
Stress 3	30.6	9.34	31.2	9.07	32.4	8.5	32.8	7.3	37	8	32.2	8.5
Stress 4	30.8	10.9	31.1	9.35	29.8	8.9	30.2	8.6	31.1	11	30.5	9.3
Stress 5	38.1	10.8	39.7	10.8	41.7	10.3	43.1	11	42.6	14	40.9	11
Stress 6	32	11.6	35.2	11.1	33.4	11.5	34.3	8.6	37.4	13	34.2	11

O.F - perception of control by organisational forces. M.P. - perception of managerial assessment being unfair and management being in control. I.I. - perception of a lack of individual influence in organisational decisions, processes and the work environment in general. Stress 1 - pressure from factors intrinsic to the job. Stress 2 indicates pressure from the managerial role. Stress 3 - stress from relationships with other people. Stress 4 - stress from career and achievement. Stress 5 - stress from the organisational structure and climate. Stress 6 - stress from the home/work interface.

The results indicate some significant differences between the cohort groups exist. Post-hoc Scheffe tests were conducted to assess where the differences lay across the cohort groups.

Perceptions of *organisational forces* controlling the work situation were significantly different across the cohorts ($F=3.85, p<.01$). Perceptions of unfair *management processes* were also significantly different across the cohorts. Cohort 5 perceived management processes were significantly more unfair than those in cohort 2.

Table 6.2(Contd): Mean scores across cohorts: job attitudes, perceptions, Type A behaviour and use of coping strategies

Variables	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Social support	17.4	1.9	17.3	4.2	17.4	3.1	16.5	2.8	17	4.5	17.2	3.4
Task strategies	25.2	5	25.8	5.6	24.5	4.5	25.2	4.1	30.7	4.5	25.6	5
Logic	13.4	1.6	12.2	2.27	12.3	2.3	11.9	2.2	13.1	2.3	12.4	2.2
Home and work	17.2	3.	16.2	3.64	15.7	3.9	13.2	2.4	18.7	3.5	15.9	3.7
Time	14	1.7	14.7	3.37	14.1	2.3	14.1	2.2	15.6	1.5	14.4	2.5
Involvement	25.5	3.9	26	8.57	26	3.7	24.8	2.4	27.4	2.7	25.8	5.4
Satisfaction 1	23.3	7.7	24.9	6.27	22.2	6.5	20.1	6	17.1	9.3	22.4	7
Satisfaction 2	17.2	4.7	19.2	2.9	17	3.3	17.4	4	15.6	5.4	17.6	3.8
Satisfaction 3	19.9	6.4	19.8	5.43	17.3	5.1	14.8	5.4	15.1	5.3	17.8	5.7
Satisfaction 4	16.8	5.5	16.8	4.21	16.2	4.2	14.4	4.9	13.7	4.2	16	4.5
Satisfaction 5	13.3	3.7	13.2	2.35	12.4	2.3	11.3	2.1	11.3	4.2	12.5	2.7
Satisfaction 6	22.3	5.3	22.4	4.64	20.5	4.6	19.1	5.5	18.1	6.5	20.9	5.1
Alien	11.3	5.6	10.4	4.51	12	5	16.9	7.3	16.4	7.4	12.5	5.9
Calc	15.3	6	14.1	5.49	14.7	5.7	13.7	6.4	15.7	7.7	14.5	5.8
Moral	22	5.3	20.2	5.03	18.3	5.7	15.1	5.5	21.6	4.4	19.2	5.6
Mental health	47.1	14	43.4	15	50	14.5	47.8	12.7	57	18	47.8	14.7
Physical health	26.8	9.4	25.9	9.46	29.3	10	29	10	35.7	11.7	28.5	10
IQ	7.1	3.1	7.9	3.82	6.6	2.9	7.9	4.5	7.7	4.5	7.3	3.6
IS	4.9	2.9	5	2.54	4.8	2.5	4.7	2.7	3	1.3	4.7	2.5
BEH	3.4	5.3	2.79	2.43	2	1.9	2.8	3	3.1	4	2.6	3

Satisfaction 1 - satisfaction with achievement, value and growth. Satisfaction 2 - satisfaction with the job itself. Satisfaction 3 - satisfaction with organisational structure and design. Satisfaction 4 - satisfaction with organisational processes. Satisfaction 5 - satisfaction with personal relationships. Satisfaction 6 - broad view of job satisfaction. Alien - alienative commitment. Calc - calculative commitment. Moral - moral commitment. IQ - intention to quit. IS - intention to search for another job. BEH - actual search behaviour.

Alienative commitment was significantly different across the cohorts ($F=4.07, p < .01$). Cohort 4 had significantly higher alienative commitment than those in cohort 2. Similarly, *moral commitment* differed significantly across the cohorts ($F=3.54, p < .05$). This is significantly higher among those in cohort 1 than those in cohort 4.

6.3.2. Relationships between demographic and organisational variables and job attitudes and perceptions

Salary, position and career development were expected to have a positive relationship with organisational commitment and job satisfaction, whereas, intention to improve and education level were expected to be negatively related to job attitudes. Tenure would be expected to influence turnover intention and behaviour through job satisfaction and organisational commitment and therefore have a positive relationship with satisfaction and commitment. The correlation matrix showing relationships between job attitudes and perceptions and demographic and organisational variable is shown in Table 6.3 below.

6.3.2.1. Organisational commitment Salary had a positive relationship with *alienative commitment* ($r = .34, p < .01$), as did tenure ($r = .34, p < .01$). In addition, *calculative commitment* was positively correlated with number of previous jobs ($r = .28, p < .01$). Position, career development, education level and intention to improve were not correlated with organisational commitment.

6.3.2.2. Job satisfaction Those with a longer tenure tended to be less satisfied with a number of aspects of the organisation. Tenure was negatively correlated with *satisfaction with achievement, values and growth* ($r = -.31, p < .01$), *satisfaction with organisational design and structure* ($r = -.32, p < .01$) and *Overall satisfaction* ($r = -.28, p < .01$). In addition, those who were employed when applying had significantly greater *satisfaction with achievement, value and growth* ($r = .3, p < .01$), and *satisfaction with organisational processes* ($r = .29, p < .01$). *Satisfaction with the job itself* was significantly lower among male employees ($r = -.31, p < .01$). Salary, position, career development, intention and education level did not correlate with any of the facets of job satisfaction at $p < .01$.

Table 6.3: Relationships between organisational and demographic variables, job attitudes and perceived occupational stress

Variables	Organisational commitment scales			Job satisfaction scales						Perceptions of stress scales						
	A	C	M	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tenure	.34	.04	-.1	-.31	-.16	-.32	-.21	-.25	-.28	.1	.16	.16	-.01	.11	.06	.11
Previous tenure	-.18	-.23	-.05	.03	.07	-.02	.11	-.04	.01	-.06	.00	-.06	-.07	-.1	-.07	-.07
Number of jobs	-.07	.28	.04	.17	.11	.17	.11	.15	.09	-.1	-.1	-.14	-.04	-.06	-.06	-.09
Age	-.18	-.11	.27	.21	.21	.07	.14	.09	.17	-.14	-.25	-.15	-.19	-.19	-.2	-.21
Gender	.08	.02	-.09	-.27	-.31	-.16	-.22	-.11	-.22	.06	.1	.03	.21	.15	.05	.11
Marital status	-.11	-.07	.07	.02	.02	-.04	.07	.05	.01	.00	-.16	-.11	-.06	-.06	-.04	-.08
Number of children	-.17	-.08	.2	.18	.17	.05	.17	.15	.18	-.19	-.26	-.13	-.2	-.17	-.15	-.2
Education level	.04	.22	.06	-.08	-.04	-.03	-.1	-.03	-.06	.02	-.03	-.01	-.07	-.1	-.01	-.04
Relevant experience	-.04	.05	.11	.2	.26	.16	.11	.23	.12	-.13	-.07	-.15	-.1	-.13	-.15	-.13
Previous experience	.05	.03	-.16	.03	.06	.01	-.07	-.03	-.03	-.15	-.14	-.21	-.21	-.17	-.27	-.22
Status when applying	-.11	-.11	.03	.3	.24	.17	.29	.15	.25	-.38	-.28	-.24	-.36	-.34	-.42	-.38
Intention to improve	.21	.15	-.14	-.21	-.26	-.2	-.22	-.22	-.22	.22	.18	.17	.19	.24	.3	.25
Site of work	-.14	-.09	-.11	.14	.08	.08	.16	-.02	.09	.06	-.17	-.17	.01	-.05	.01	-.05
Position	.19	.11	.004	-.03	-.01	-.13	.05	.08	-.06	-.15	-.02	-.07	-.08	-.06	-.21	-.11
Salary	.34	.11	.002	-.24	-.11	-.26	-.1	-.2	-.24	.03	.14	.09	-.03	.08	-.03	.05
Hours	.21	.03	-.11	-.13	-.06	-.12	.00	-.02	-.09	-.08	.02	-.07	-.06	-.06	-.1	-.07
Career development	-.05	-.05	-.17	-.12	-.03	-.15	-.09	-.09	-.09	-.01	-.1	-.05	-.09	-.01	-.07	-.06

If $r > .21$, $p < .05$; If $r > .28$, $p < .01$; If $r > .35$, $p < .001$; If $r > .40$, $p < .0001$. Organisational commitment: A - Alienative commitment; C - Calculative commitment; M - Moral commitment. Satisfaction: 1 - achievement, value and growth; 2 - the job itself; 3 - organisational design and structure; 4 - organisational processes; 5 - personal relationships; 6 - overall satisfaction. Stress: 1 - factors intrinsic to the job; 2 - managerial role; 3 - relationships with others; 4 - career and achievement; 5 - organisational structure and climate; 6 - home/work interface; 7 - stress from service-users; 7 - sum of perceptions of stress from the six facet measures.

6.3.2.3. *Perceived occupational stress* Those who were unemployed or caring for dependents when applying perceived significantly more *stress from factors intrinsic to the job* ($r=-.38, p<.001$), *stress from the managerial role* ($r=-.28, p<.01$), *stress from career and achievement* ($r=-.36, p<.001$), *stress from the organisational structure and design* ($r=-.34, p<.01$) and *stress from the home/work interface* ($r=-.42, p<.0001$). Those working in community based units perceived significantly greater *stress from the home/work interface* ($r=.3, p<.01$).

6.3.3. Relationships between job attitudes and perceptions

Table 6.4. Below, shows the relationships between job attitudes and perceptions, coping strategies used, perceptions of control and type A behaviour.

6.3.3.1. *Organisational commitment and job satisfaction* A positive relationship was expected between job satisfaction and moral commitment, whereas a negative relationship was expected between alienative commitment and job satisfaction. Indeed, *overall satisfaction* was negatively correlated with *alienative commitment* ($r=-.68, p<.0001$) and a positively correlated with *moral commitment* ($r=.62, p<.0001$). Alienative commitment was also negatively correlated with *satisfaction with achievement, value and growth* ($r=-.62, p<.0001$), *satisfaction with the job itself* ($r=-.57, p<.0001$), *satisfaction with organisational structure and design* ($r=-.72, p<.0001$), *satisfaction with organisational processes* ($r=-.54, p<.0001$) and *satisfaction with personal relationships* ($r=-.63, p<.0001$). Moral commitment was also positively correlated with *satisfaction with achievement, value and growth* ($r=.58, p<.0001$), *satisfaction with the job itself* ($r=.56, p<.0001$), *satisfaction with organisational structure and design* ($r=.62, p<.0001$), *satisfaction with organisational processes* ($r=.49, p<.0001$) and *satisfaction with personal relationships* ($r=.53, p<.0001$). Calculative commitment was not correlated with any of the facets of job satisfaction.

6.3.3.2. *Job satisfaction and perceived occupational stress* The relationship between perceived stress and job satisfaction was expected to be negative, indeed a negative relationship was observed between *overall satisfaction* and each facet of

Table 6.4: Relationships between job attitudes, perceptions and behaviour

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1 str 1																				
2 str 2	.81																			
3 str 3	.71	.83																		
4 str 4	.77	.8	.68																	
5 str 5	.7	.82	.79	.74																
6 str 6	.82	.75	.71	.72	.67															
7 str all	.89	.93	.88	.88	.89	.88														
8 sat1	-.37	-.39	-.33	-.39	-.46	-.30	-.42													
9 sat2	-.3	-.34	-.31	-.36	-.47	-.28	-.4	.79												
10 sat3	-.3	-.39	-.36	-.29	-.54	-.2	-.39	.8	.71											
11 sat4	-.34	-.4	-.43	-.34	-.48	-.25	-.42	.74	.58	.74										
12 sat5	-.36	-.44	-.43	-.33	-.52	-.32	-.45	.75	.72	.78	.73									
13 sat6	-.38	-.45	-.43	-.38	-.6	-.29	-.48	.86	.78	.86	.77	.82								
14 att.	-.16	-.2	-.18	-.08	-.1	-.17	-.16	.2	.06	.21	.32	.29	.26							
15 style	.19	.15	.07	.12	.18	.27	.19	-.32	-.36	-.3	-.08	-.24	-.32	.12						
16 amb	.17	.2	.1	.32	.15	.14	.2	-.12	-.08	.06	-.08	-.09	-.1	.22	.06					
17 type A	-.06	-.05	-.12	.05	-.04	-.06	-.05	.04	-.03	.16	.18	.12	.07	.68	.28	.48				
18 O.F.	.27	.34	.22	.21	.37	.28	.32	-.43	-.5	-.51	-.24	-.41	-.45	-.12	.34	-.12	-.1			
19 M.P.	-.04	-.02	.12	-.11	.01	.01	.00	-.22	-.16	-.24	-.12	-.07	-.18	.02	-.04	-.35	-.23	.25		
20 I.I.	.01	.08	.12	.03	.12	-.04	.06	-.23	-.01	-.16	-.39	-.21	-.18	-.36	-.29	.13	-.18	-.08	.16	
21 Con.	.14	.18	.14	.08	.14	.06	.13	-.36	-.24	-.34	-.35	-.28	-.37	-.2	-.07	.04	-.18	-.35	.53	.48

If $r > .21$, $p < .05$; if $r > .28$, $p < .01$; if $r > .35$, $p < .001$; if $r > .40$, $p < .0001$.

perceived occupational stress: stress from factors intrinsic to the job ($r=-.38$, $p<.001$), stress from the managerial role ($r=-.45$, $p<.0001$), stress from relationships with others ($r=-.43$, $p<.0001$), stress from career and achievement ($r=-.38$, $p<.001$), stress from the organisational structure and climate ($r=-.6$, $p<.0001$) and stress from the home/work interface ($r=-.29$, $p<.01$).

Each of the facets of job satisfaction were negatively correlated with facets of perceived occupational stress. *Satisfaction with achievement, value and growth* was negatively correlated with stress from factors intrinsic to the job ($r=-.37$, $p<.001$), the managerial role ($r=-.39$, $p<.001$), relationships with others ($r=-.33$, $p<.01$), career and achievement ($r=-.39$, $p<.001$), organisational structure and climate ($r=-.46$, $p<.0001$) and the home/work interface ($r=-.30$, $p<.01$). *Satisfaction with the job itself* was negatively correlated with stress from factors intrinsic to the job ($r=-.3$, $p<.01$), the managerial role ($r=-.34$, $p<.01$), relationships with others ($r=-.31$, $p<.01$), career and achievement ($r=-.36$, $p<.001$), the organisational structure and design ($r=-.47$, $p<.0001$) and the home/work relationship ($r=-.28$, $p<.01$). *Satisfaction with organisational structure and design* was negatively correlated with stress from factors intrinsic to the job ($r=-.3$, $p<.01$), the managerial role ($r=-.39$, $p<.001$), relationships with others ($r=-.36$, $p<.001$), career and achievement ($r=-.29$, $p<.01$) and the organisational structure and climate ($r=-.54$, $p<.0001$). *Satisfaction with organisational processes* was negatively correlated with stress from factors intrinsic to the job ($r=-.34$, $p<.01$), the managerial role ($r=-.4$, $p<.0001$), relationships with others ($r=-.43$, $p<.0001$), career and achievement ($r=-.34$, $p<.01$) and the organisational structure and climate ($r=-.48$, $p<.0001$). *Satisfaction with personal relationships* was negatively correlated with stress from factors intrinsic to the job ($r=-.36$, $p<.001$), the managerial role ($r=-.44$, $p<.0001$), relationships with others ($r=-.43$, $p<.0001$), career and achievement ($r=-.33$, $p<.01$), the organisational structure and design ($r=-.52$, $p<.0001$) and the home/work relationship ($r=-.32$, $p<.01$). Stress from the organisational structure and climate has the highest consistent negative relationship with each facet of job satisfaction.

Table 6.4 (continued):

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22 social	.13	.12	.06	.11	.16	.24	.16	.1	.06	.17	.08	-.00	.01	-.09	-.03	.32	.03	-.01	-.4	-.08	-.1
23 task	.01	.05	.06	.09	.09	-.01	.05	-.01	-.02	-.00	.07	.05	-.06	.28	.24	.06	.29	.1	-.07	-.18	-.12
24 logic	-.09	.02	-.08	.05	-.08	-.05	-.04	.01	-.07	.1	.06	-.06	.06	.2	.13	.22	.36	.06	-.3	-.2	-.08
25 home	.18	.14	.2	.17	.17	.11	.18	-.08	-.1	-.02	-.13	-.14	-.21	-.13	.16	.1	.05	.1	-.24	-.08	-.1
26 time	.12	.27	.16	.18	.21	.2	.21	-.11	-.01	-.01	-.07	-.18	-.16	-.18	.17	.3	.05	-.04	-.29	.03	.04
27 involve	.03	.09	.03	.08	.003	.00	.04	-.04	.1	.14	-.03	-.09	-.03	-.03	-.04	.45	.2	-.13	-.3	.08	.12
28 alien	.12	.29	.3	.19	.46	.17	.29	-.62	-.57	-.72	-.54	-.63	-.68	-.22	.29	-.01	-.11	.54	.2	.14	.31
29 calc	.04	.1	.11	.13	.2	.16	.14	-.06	-.09	-.06	.01	.03	-.03	.27	.18	.01	.15	.12	-.05	-.19	-.06
30 moral	-.23	-.21	-.2	-.18	-.31	-.16	-.24	.58	.56	.62	.49	.53	.62	.34	-.22	.07	.13	-.4	-.16	-.31	-.24

Table 6.4 (continued):

Variable	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
22 social								
23 task	.08							
24 logic	.32	.27						
25 home	.34	.39	.2					
26 time	.5	.27	.33	.26				
27 involve	.47	.19	.45	.28	.67			
28 alien	.03	.08	.05	.11	.2	.04		
29 calc	.18	.34	.25	.07	.18	-.05	.23	
30 moral	.24	.18	.27	.03	.2	.2	-.46	.23

If $r > .21$, $p < .05$; if $r > .28$, $p < .01$; if $r > .35$, $p < .001$; if $r > .40$, $p < .0001$.

Sources of stress: str 1 - factors intrinsic to the job; str 2 - managerial role; str 3 - relationships with others; str 4 - career and achievement; str 5 - organisational structure and climate; str 6 - home/work interface; str all - overall perceived stress (sum of facets). Satisfaction: sat1 - achievement, value and growth; sat2 - job itself; sat3 - organisational structure and design; sat4 - organisational processes; sat5 - personal relationships; sat6 - overall job satisfaction. Type A: Att. - attitude to living; Amb. - ambition; Style - style of behaviour; Type A - overall Type A behaviour. Perception of control: O.F. - organisational forces; M.P. - management and unfair management processes; I.I. - lack of individual influence. Coping strategies: Social - use of social support; Task - use of task strategies as a coping strategy. Logic - use of logic; Home - use of the home and work relationship; Time - use of time; Involve - use of involvement; Alien - alienative commitment. Calc - calculative commitment. Moral - moral commitment.

6.3.3.3. *Organisational commitment and perceived occupational stress*

Perceived stress would be expected to have a negative relationship with moral commitment and a positive relationship with alienative commitment. This was partially supported by the results. *Alienative commitment* was positively correlated with stress from the managerial role ($r=.29, p<.01$), stress from relationships with others ($r=.3, p<.01$) and stress from the organisational structure and climate ($r=.46, p<.0001$). *Moral commitment* was negatively correlated with stress from the organisational structure and design ($r=-.31, p<.01$).

6.3.4. *Relationships between Type A behaviour, coping and control and perceived stress and job attitudes*

The correlation matrix in Table 6.4 shows the relationships between type A behaviour, coping strategies, control, perceived stress and job attitudes.

6.3.4.1. *Type A behaviour* was expected to have a positive relationship with perceived occupational stress. However, only *ambition* had a positive relationship with stress from career and achievement ($r=.32, p<.01$). In addition, *attitude to living* was positively correlated with satisfaction with organisational processes ($r=.32, p<.01$), personal relationships ($r=.29, p<.01$) and moral commitment ($r=.34, p<.01$) and negatively correlated with perceptions of individual influence ($r=-.36, p<.001$). *Style of behaviour* was negatively correlated with satisfaction with achievement, value and growth ($r=-.32, p<.01$), with the job itself ($r=-.36, p<.001$), the organisational structure and design ($r=-.3, p<.01$), overall satisfaction ($r=-.32, p<.01$) and perceptions of individual influence ($r=-.29, p<.01$) and positively correlated with alienative commitment ($r=.29, p<.01$) and organisational forces ($r=.34, p<.01$). *Ambition* is negatively correlated with poor management processes ($r=-.35, p<.001$).

6.3. 1.2. *Perceptions of control* Perceived lack of personal control was expected to be positively correlated with perceived stress. Indeed, a positive relationship was found between perception of *organisational forces* controlling the work situation and stress from the managerial role ($r=.43, p < .01$), from the organisational structure and design ($r=.37, p < .001$) and from the home/work interface ($r=.28, p < .01$). In addition, perceptions of *organisational forces* controlling the work situation had a negative relationship with satisfaction with achievement, value and growth ($r=-.43, p < .0001$), with the job itself ($r=-.5, p < .0001$), with organisational structure and design ($r=-.51, p < .0001$), with personal relationships ($r=-.41, p < .0001$), overall satisfaction ($r=-.45, p < .0001$), moral commitment ($r=-.4, p < .0001$) and positively correlated with alienative commitment ($r=.54, p < .0001$). Perceptions of a lack of *individual influence* is negatively correlated with satisfaction with organisational processes ($r=-.39, p < .001$) and moral commitment ($r=-.31, p < .01$).

6.3.4.3. *Use of coping strategies* was expected to be positively correlated with perceived occupational stress and negatively correlated with job satisfaction and organisational commitment. There were no significant correlations between any of the facets of perceived stress and the coping strategies. Similarly, the facets of satisfaction were not significantly related to any of the coping strategies. A positive relationship was found between *calculative commitment* and the use of *task strategies* ($r=.34, p < .01$). *Use of task strategies* is also positively correlated with attitude to living ($r=.28, p < .01$) and overall type A ($r=.29, p < .01$). *Use of social support* is positively correlated with ambition ($r=.32, p < .01$) and negatively correlated with perceptions of unfair management ($r=-.4, p < .0001$). *Use of time* is positively correlated with ambition ($r=.3, p < .01$) and negatively correlated with perceptions of poor management processes ($r=-.29, p < .01$). *Use of logic* is positively correlated with overall type A behaviour ($r=.36, p < .001$) and negatively correlated with perceptions of poor management ($r=-.3, p < .01$). *Use of involvement* is positively correlated with ambition ($r=.45, p < .0001$) and negatively correlated with perceptions of poor and unfair management processes ($r=-.3, p < .01$).

6.3.5. Relationships between demographic and organisational characteristics and turnover intentions and mental and physical ill health

The correlation matrix in Table 6.5 below shows the relationships between outcome variables and demographic and organisational variables.

6.3.5.1. *Intention to quit* was negatively correlated with number of dependents ($r=-.3, p<.01$). No other significant correlation was found between the demographic and organisational variables and intention to quit, intention to search and search behaviour.

6.3.5.2. *Ill health* None of the demographic or organisational variables were significantly correlated with mental or physical ill health at $p<.01$.

Table 6.5: Correlation analysis between demographic and organisational variables and outcome variables

Variable	Intention to Quit	Intention to search	Search behaviour	Mental Health	Physical health
Tenure	.06	-.18	.02	.16	.2
Previous tenure	-.07	-.1	-.03	-.18	-.11
Number of jobs	-.07	.15	.003	-.21	-.16
Age	-.1	-.23	.11	-.2	-.21
Gender	.07	.04	.02	.04	-.13
Marital status	-.16	-.19	.00	-.12	-.17
Number of children	-.3	-.23	-.21	-.08	-.11
Education level	.07	.18	.08	.02	.05
Relevant Experience	.01	.15	.00	-.13	-.1
Previous experience	.21	.17	-.01	-.04	-.12
Status when applying	-.16	-.06	-.18	-.16	-.09
Intention to improve	.09	-.04	.05	.23	.13
Site of work	-.04	.01	.03	-.13	-.15
Position	.05	.09	-.04	.04	.11
Salary	.12	-.11	.1	.19	.24
Hours	.07	.1	.00	.24	.25
Career Development	-.2	-.18	-.16	.14	.12

If $r>.21, p<.05$; If $r>.28, p<.01$; If $r>.35, p<.001$; If $r>.40, p<.0001$.

6.3.6. Relationships between job attitudes and perceptions and turnover intentions and mental and physical ill health

The relationships between job attitudes and perceptions and the outcome variables are shown in Table 6.6 below.

6.3.6.1. *Intention to quit* is expected to have a negative relationship with job satisfaction and moral commitment and a positive relationship with perceived occupational stress and alienative commitment. A negative relationship was found between overall satisfaction and intention to quit ($r = -.49, p < .0001$) and moral commitment and intention to quit ($r = -.43, p < .0001$) and a positive relationship between alienative commitment ($r = .48, p < .0001$) and stress from the managerial role ($r = .29, p < .01$). In addition, *intention to quit* was negatively correlated with satisfaction with achievement, value and growth ($r = -.46, p < .0001$), with the job itself ($r = -.42, p < .0001$), with the organisational structure and design ($r = -.44, p < .0001$), with organisational processes ($r = -.43, p < .0001$), with personal relationships ($r = -.53, p < .0001$) and attitude to living ($r = -.28, p < .01$) and positively correlated with style of behaviour ($r = .42, p < .0001$).

6.3.6.2. *Intention to search* again is expected to have a negative relationship with job satisfaction and moral commitment and a positive relationship with alienative commitment and perceived occupational stress. A negative relationship was found between intention to search and overall job satisfaction ($r = -.31, p < .001$) and moral commitment ($r = -.36, p < .001$). A positive relationship was found between intention to search and alienative commitment ($r = .36, p < .001$). In addition, *intention to search* was negatively correlated with satisfaction with achievement, value and growth ($r = -.35, p < .001$), with the organisational structure and design ($r = -.29, p < .01$), organisational processes ($r = -.39, p < .001$), with personal relationships ($r = -.37, p < .001$) and attitude to living ($r = -.29, p < .01$).

6.3.6.3. *Search behaviour* was expected to have a positive relationship with alienative commitment and perceived stress, and a negative relationship with job satisfaction and organisational commitment. A negative relationship was found between overall job satisfaction and search behaviour ($r = -.38, p < .001$) and a positive relationship between alienative commitment and search behaviour ($r = .43,$

Table 6.6: Correlation analysis between affective and behavioural variables and outcome variables

Variable	Intention to quit	Intention to search	Search behaviour	Mental health	Physical health
Type A 1	-.28	-.29	-.13	.003	-.12
Type A 2	.42	.27	.37	.19	.35
Type A 3	.16	.08	.08	.02	.22
Type A 4	.07	-.06	.07	.02	.05
Control 1	.27	.13	.14	.38	.28
Control 2	-.17	-.16	-.08	.2	-.03
Control 3	.17	.24	.07	.07	.07
Control 4	.16	.1	.01	.2	.18
Cope 1	.05	.01	-.05	-.04	.12
Cope 2	.03	-.09	-.03	.08	.002
Cope 3	.07	.005	.02	.05	.16
Cope 4	.16	.03	.14	.004	.14
Cope 5	.17	.05	.06	-.19	.17
Cope 6	.11	.02	-.05	-.2	.12
Satisfaction 1	-.46	-.35	-.35	-.31	-.31
Satisfaction 2	-.42	-.26	-.4	-.36	-.23
Satisfaction 3	-.44	-.29	-.34	-.27	-.22
Satisfaction 4	-.43	-.39	-.29	-.25	-.19
Satisfaction 5	-.53	-.37	-.47	-.25	-.29
Satisfaction 6	-.49	-.31	-.38	-.29	-.25
Alienative	.48	.36	.43	.21	.16
Calculative	-.01	.01	-.03	.19	-.01
Moral	-.43	-.36	-.25	-.18	-.14
Stress 1	.23	.13	.11	.42	.34
Stress 2	.29	.16	.16	.43	.46
Stress 3	.17	.17	.16	.48	.35
Stress 4	.24	.2	.13	.33	.3
Stress 5	.27	.17	.24	.34	.3
Stress 6	.23	.15	.1	.46	.41
Stress all	.27	.18	.17	.46	.4

If $r > .21$, $p < .05$; If $r > .28$, $p < .01$; If $r > .35$, $p < .001$; If $r > .40$, $p < .0001$. Type A: 1 - attitude to living; 2 - style of behaviour; 3 - ambition; 4 - broad view of Type A. Perception of control: 1 - organisational forces; 2 - management processes; 3 - individual influence; 4 - overall perceptions of control. Coping strategies: 1 - use of social support; 2 - use of task strategies; 3 - use of logic; 4 - use of the home and work relationship; 5 - use of time; 6 - use of involvement.

$p < .0001$). In addition, *search behaviour* was negatively correlated with satisfaction with achievement, value and growth ($r = -.35$, $p < .001$), with the job

itself ($r = -.4, p < .0001$), with the organisational structure and design ($r = -.34, p < .01$), with organisational processes ($r = -.29, p < .01$) and satisfaction with personal relationships ($r = -.47, p < .0001$) and positively correlated with style of behaviour ($r = .37, p < .001$).

6.3.6.4. *Mental ill health* is expected to have a positive relationship with perceived stress and a negative relationship with use of coping strategies. Mental ill health was indeed found to be positively correlated with perceived stress from factors intrinsic to the job ($r = .42, p < .0001$), the managerial role ($r = .43, p < .0001$), relationships with others ($r = .48, p < .0001$), career and achievement ($r = .33, p < .01$), the organisational structure and climate ($r = .34, p < .01$) and from the home/work interface ($r = .46, p < .0001$). There was no relationship between mental ill health and use of coping strategies. In addition, *mental ill health* was negatively correlated with satisfaction with achievement, value and growth ($r = -.31, p < .01$), with the job itself ($r = -.36, p < .001$) and with overall job satisfaction ($r = -.29, p < .01$) and positively correlated with perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation ($r = .38, p < .01$).

6.3.6.5. *Physical ill health* was again expected to have a positive relationship with perceived occupational stress and a positive relationship with use of coping strategies. Physical ill health was found to have a positive relationship with stress from factors intrinsic to the job ($r = .34, p < .01$), from the managerial role ($r = .46, p < .0001$), from personal relationships ($r = .35, p < .01$), from career and achievement ($r = .3, p < .01$), from the organisational structure and climate ($r = .3, p < .01$) and from the home/work interface ($r = .41, p < .0001$). In addition, *physical ill health* was also negatively correlated with satisfaction with achievement, value and growth ($r = -.31, p < .01$) and satisfaction with personal relationships ($r = -.29, p < .01$) and positively correlated with style of behaviour ($r = .35, p < .001$) and perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation ($r = .28, p < .01$).

6.3.7. *Hierarchical modelling: Predicting turnover and job search behaviour*

Early models of organisational behaviour would suggest that the influence of job attitudes and perceptions on search behaviour is through turnover intentions.

However, search behaviour also had a negative relationship with job satisfaction and a positive relationship with style of behaviour. Job satisfaction and style of behaviour may predict variance in search behaviour beyond that predicted by turnover intentions. Table 6.7 below, show the relationships between the outcome variables, Table 6.8 below, shows the relationships between demographic and organisational variables, whilst Table 6.9 below, shows the relationships between coping strategies, Type A behaviour, perceptions of control and demographic and organisational variables.

6.3.7.1. Identification of blocks: Predicting search behaviour

Outcome variable: Search behaviour was positively correlated with intention to quit, intention to search, style of behaviour, alienative commitment and negatively correlated with overall job satisfaction.

Table 6.7: Relationships between the outcome variables: Job attitudes, perceptions and ill health

Variable	1	2	3	4
1. Intention to quit				
2. Intention to search	.68			
3. Search behaviour	.66	.53		
4. Mental ill health	.13	.16	.04	
5. Physical ill health	.22	.25	.12	.56

If $r > .21$, $p < .05$; If $r > .28$, $p < .01$; If $r > .35$, $p < .001$; If $r > .40$, $p < .0001$.

Block one: Intention to quit is negatively correlated with attitude to living, moral commitment and number of dependents. *Intention to search* is negatively correlated with attitude to living and moral commitment. *Alienative commitment* is negatively correlated with moral commitment and positively correlated with overall perceived stress, tenure and salary. *Overall satisfaction* is negatively correlated with tenure, perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation, overall perceived stress and positively correlated with moral commitment. *Style of behaviour* is not correlated with any further causally antecedent variables.

Table 6.8: Relationships between the demographic and organisational variables

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.
1. Tenure																
2. Previous tenure	.05															
3. Number of jobs	-.31	-.08														
4. Age	.13	.24	-.28													
5. Gender	-.06	-.06	.003	-.06												
6. Marital status	.02	.23	-.1	.59	.01											
7. Number of dependents	-.06	.07	-.15	.52	-.07	.63										
8. Education level	-.13	-.18	.19	-.27	-.15	-.25	-.29									
9. Relevant experience	-.02	-.04	.3	.02	-.32	-.02	-.12	.1								
10. Previous experience	.002	-.02	.14	-.26	-.09	-.22	-.41	.24	.21							
11. Status when applying	.01	.26	.17	-.08	-.38	-.01	.02	.13	.23	.32						
12. Intention to improve	.1	-.09	-.25	-.08	.09	-.15	-.06	-.12	-.22	-.25	-.5					
13. Site of work	-.29	-.02	.1	.16	.00	.11	.002	-.14	-.12	.01	-.04	.1				
14. Position	.28	-.08	-.1	-.03	-.12	-.07	-.03	.2	.17	.19	.16	-.08	-.32			
15. Salary	.77	-.03	-.17	.08	.01	-.02	-.05	.02	.11	.09	.07	-.02	-.27	.46		
16. Hours worked	.39	-.09	-.02	-.16	-.08	-.18	-.13	.05	.18	.15	.13	.003	-.15	.69	.63	
17. Career development	.36	.03	.01	-.01	.09	.13	.01	-.14	-.05	.13	.14	-.05	.12	-.07	.17	.08

If $r > .21$, $p < .05$; if $r > .28$, $p < .01$; if $r > .35$, $p < .001$; if $r > .40$, $p < .0001$.

Table 6.9: Relationships between demographic variables and behavioural variables and coping strategies

Variable	Coping strategies						Type A behaviour				Perceptions of control			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Tenure	-.08	.24	.00	-.03	.08	.03	-.1	.11	-.11	-.09	.35	.27	.06	.27
Previous tenure	-.17	-.13	-.05	-.1	-.15	.00	.03	-.19	.004	.006	-.04	.06	-.1	-.1
Number of jobs	.1	-.04	-.14	.17	.08	.00	.02	.1	.08	.05	-.04	-.3	-.04	-.19
Age	-.19	.1	.03	-.1	-.15	-.08	.19	.01	-.04	.06	-.17	.04	-.17	-.05
Gender	-.06	-.01	.04	.01	-.04	-.08	.07	-.05	-.01	.04	.22	-.11	-.16	-.08
Marital status	-.23	.07	.003	-.11	-.15	-.07	.25	.05	-.08	.16	.00	.1	-.18	.04
Number of children	-.16	.11	.03	-.13	-.1	-.06	.08	.00	-.22	-.06	-.07	-.16	-.13	-.03
Education level	.01	-.03	-.07	.16	.16	-.04	-.04	.04	.1	.04	-.07	.04	-.07	.01
Relevant experience	.13	.005	-.17	-.07	.01	.03	.001	-.01	.11	-.01	-.14	.19	.04	.1
Previous experience	.05	.01	-.07	.00	-.03	.05	.04	-.09	.01	.13	-.12	-.21	.22	-.01
Status when applying	-.26	.04	-.13	-.06	-.16	-.09	.04	-.17	-.12	-.01	-.03	.08	.01	-.03
Intention to improve	.07	-.06	.14	.02	.13	.16	-.03	.18	-.11	.00	.12	.02	-.01	.05
Site worked at	.08	-.11	.01	-.05	.06	.08	.06	.04	.05	-.02	-.06	-.19	.00	-.12
Position	-.06	.17	-.04	.16	.09	-.01	.07	-.05	-.01	.04	.22	-.11	-.17	-.08
Salary	-.05	.28	.03	.14	.14	.05	-.08	.17	-.06	-.04	.29	.16	.04	.27
Hours worked	-.05	.14	.05	.08	.04	.01	-.2	.12	-.12	-.12	.19	.13	.17	.29
Career development	-.06	-.08	-.06	-.12	-.19	-.16	.09	-.01	-.03	.05	.25	.002	.1	.14

If $r > .21, p < .05$; If $r > .28, p < .01$; If $r > .35, p < .001$; If $r > .40, p < .0001$. Type A: 1 - attitude to living; 2 - style of behaviour; 3 - ambition; 4 - broad view of Type A. Perception of control: 1 - organisational forces; 2 - management processes; 3 - individual influence; 4 - overall perceptions of control. Coping strategies: 1 - use of social support; 2 - use of task strategies; 3 - use of logic; 4 - use of the home and work relationship; 5 - use of time; 6 - use of involvement.

Block two: Overall perceived stress is negatively correlated with status when applying. *Tenure* is negatively correlated with number of jobs held previously and site of work and positively correlated with position, salary, hours worked and career development. *Salary* was positively correlated with position and hours worked. *Number of dependents* is positively correlated with age and marital status. *Moral commitment* is negatively correlated with perceptions of a lack of individual influence in the work situation and in managerial decisions.

Block three: Status when applying is positively correlated with previous experience with people with learning difficulties and negatively correlated with intention to improve.

Table 6.10 below, gives a summary of the blocks of variables entered in the regression.

Table 6.10: Blocks of variables predicting search behaviour

Block four	Block three	Block two	Block one	Outcome variable
Previous experience Intention to improve	Status when applying Marital status Age Number of jobs Site worked on Position Hours Career development Individual influence	Attitude to living Organisational forces Moral commitment Overall perceived stress Tenure Salary Number of dependents	Intention to quit Intention to search Alienative commitment Style of behaviour Overall job satisfaction	Search behaviour

6.3.7.2. Results of the regression procedure

The results of the regression analysis predicting search behaviour are shown in Table 6.11 below. A model outlining the prediction of intentions to turnover and job search behaviour is shown in Figure 6.1 below.

Search behaviour was positively predicted by style of behaviour ($R^2 = .138$, $p = .0004$), alienative commitment and overall job satisfaction ($R^2 = .121$, $p = .0021$), and intention to quit and intention to search ($R^2 = .212$, $p = .0001$). The model accounted for 42.8% of the variance in search behaviour.

Block 1: Intention to quit was negatively predicted by number of dependents ($R^2 = .088$, $p = .006$), attitude to living ($R^2 = .066$, $p = .006$) and moral commitment ($R^2 = .1$, $p = .0014$). *Intention to search* was negatively predicted by

attitude to living ($R^2=.086$, $p=.0061$) and moral commitment ($R^2=.077$, $p=.0072$). *Alienative commitment* was positively predicted by tenure and salary ($R^2=.132$ $p=.0028$), perception of organisational forces controlling the work

Table 6.11: Results of the regression analysis predicting search behaviour

Dependent variable	Independent variable	d.f.	B	R	R ²	F	p
Search behaviour	Style of behaviour	(1,84)	.086	.371	.138	13.4	.0004
	GROUP 1 Commitment/Satisfaction	(2,82)		.347	.121	6.66	.0021
	Alienative		.074				
	Overall satisfaction		.011				
	GROUP 2	(2,80)		.446	.212	15.98	.0001
	Intention to quit		.39				
	Intention to search		.17				
Intention to quit	Number of dependents	(1,84)	-1.6	.297	.088	8.12	.006
	Attitude to living	(1,83)	-.13	.257	.066	6.46	.013
	Moral commitment	(1,82)	-.22	.316	.1	10.94	.0014
Intention to search	Attitude to living	(1,84)	-.12	.293	.086	7.9	.0061
	Moral commitment	(1,83)	-.13	.277	.077	7.6	.0072
Alienative commitment	GROUP 1	(2,83)		.363	.132	6.33	.0028
	Tenure		.069				
	Salary		.0003				
	Organisational forces	(1,82)	.54	.448	.201	25.74	.0001
	Overall stress	(1,81)	-	.134	.018	-	-*
	Moral commitment	(1,81)	-.34	.296	.088	12.28	.0007
Overall satisfaction	Tenure	(1,84)	-1.16	.279	.078	7.11	.0092
	Organisational forces	(1,83)	-.12	.371	.138	14.62	.0003
	Overall stress	(1,82)	-.03	.351	.126	15.66	.0002
	Moral commitment	(1,81)	.44	.447	.2	35.34	.0001
Overall stress	Status when applying	(1,84)	-18.95	.381	.145	14.27	.0003
Tenure	Number of jobs	(1,84)	-.171	.308	.095	8.83	.0039
	Site worked at	(1,83)	-.437	.261	.068	6.74	.0111
	GROUP 1	(2,81)		.363	.132	7.59	.001
	Position		-.121				
	Hours worked		.62				
	Career development	(1,80)	.54	.356	.127	17.51	.0001
Number of dependents	Age	(1,84)	.008	.52	.27	31.1	.0001
	Marital status	(1,83)	.23	.397	.157	22.82	.0001
Salary	GROUP 1	(2,83)		.635	.403	28.1	.0001
	Position		.583				
	Hours worked		.7495				
Moral commitment	Individual influence	(1,84)	-.744	.311	.097	8.99	.004
Status when applying	Previous experience	(1,84)	.412	.32	.102	9.57	.0027
	Intention to improve	(1,83)	-.971	.436	.19	22.29	.0001

* Non-significant predictor, removed before further variables are added to the regression equation

situation ($R^2=.201$, $p=.0001$) and negatively predicted by moral commitment ($R^2=.088$, $p=.0007$). *Overall job satisfaction* was negatively predicted by tenure

($R^2 = .078$, $p = .0092$), perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation ($R^2 = .138$, $p = .0003$) and overall perceived stress ($R^2 = .126$, $p = .0002$) and positively predicted by moral commitment ($R^2 = .2$, $p = .0001$).

Block 2: Overall perceived stress was negatively predicted by status when applying ($R^2 = .145$, $p = .0003$). *Tenure* was positively predicted by hours worked and negatively predicted by position ($R^2 = .132$, $p = .001$), positively predicted by career development ($R^2 = .127$, $p = .0001$) and negatively predicted by number of previous jobs ($R^2 = .095$, $p = .0039$) and site worked on ($R^2 = .068$, $p = .0111$). *Number of dependents* was positively predicted by age ($R^2 = .27$, $p = .0001$) and marital status ($R^2 = .157$, $p = .0001$). *Salary* was positively predicted by position and hours worked ($R^2 = .403$, $p < .0001$). *Moral commitment* was negatively predicted by perceptions of a lack of individual influence in the organisation ($R^2 = .097$, $p < .004$).

Block 3: Status when applying was positively predicted by previous experience with people with learning difficulties ($R^2 = .082$, $p = .0039$) and negatively predicted by gender ($R^2 = .142$, $p < .0003$) and intention to improve ($R^2 = .171$, $p = .0001$).

6.3.8. Hierarchical modelling: Predicting mental and physical ill health

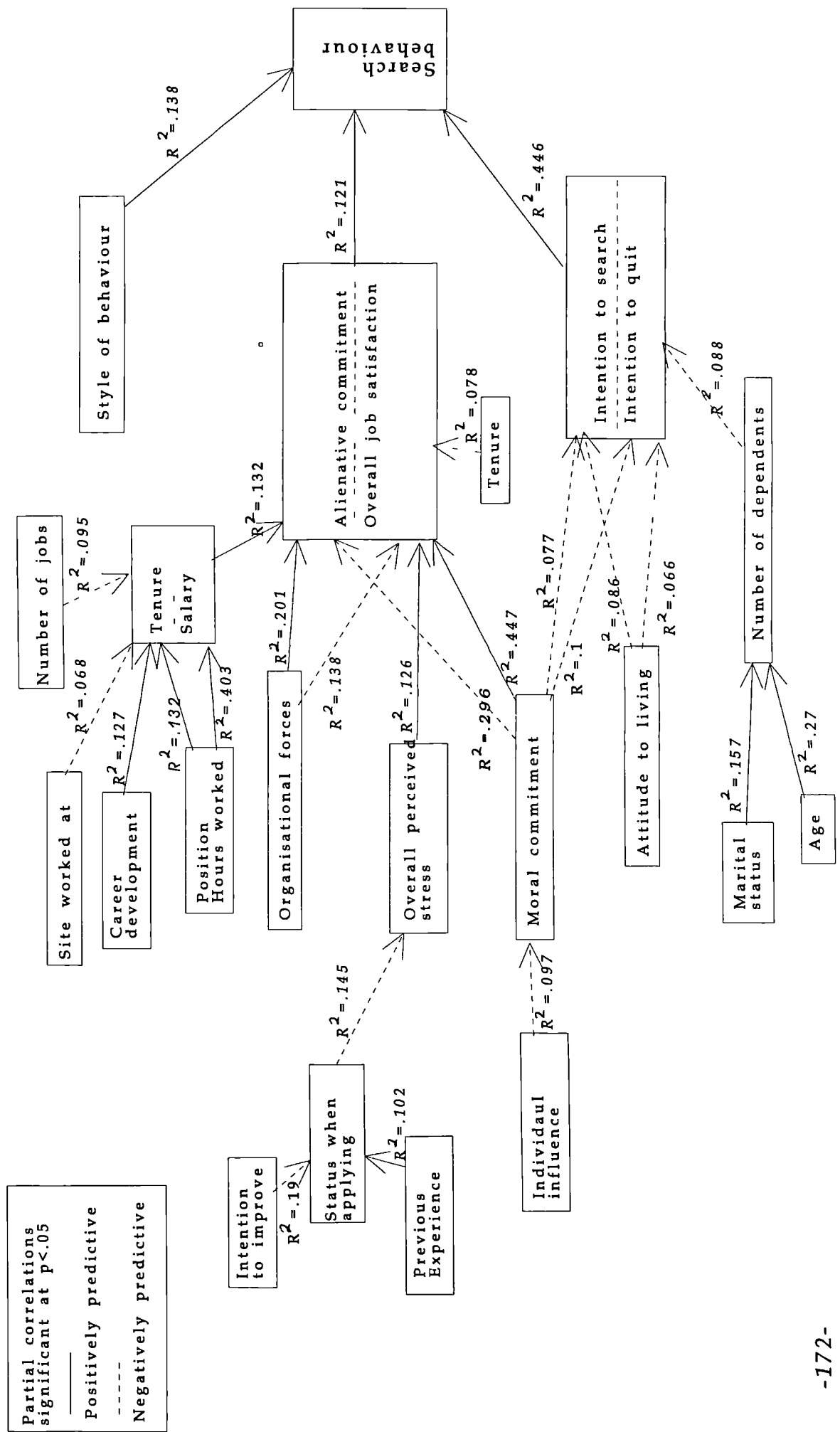
Mental and physical ill health would be expected to be positively predicted by perceived occupational stress, with job attitudes, organisational perceptions, organisational and demographic variables influencing ill health through perceived occupational stress.

6.3.8.1. Blocks of variables predicting mental ill health

The blocks of variables to be entered in the regression analysis are shown in Table 6.12 below.

Block 1: Mental ill health is positively correlated with perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation, stress from factors intrinsic to the job, from the managerial role, from relationships at work, from career and achievement, from the organisational structure and climate and from the home/work interface and negatively correlated with satisfaction with achievement, value and growth, with the job itself and with overall satisfaction.

Figure 61: Outlined of a model showing predictors of search behaviour



Block 2: Stress from factors intrinsic to the job is negatively correlated with status at the time of joining the organisation and satisfaction with the organisational structure and design and organisational processes. *Stress from the managerial role* is positively correlated with alienative commitment and negatively correlated with status at the time of applying and satisfaction with the organisational structure and design and with organisational processes. *Stress form relationships at work* is negatively correlated with satisfaction with the organisational structure and design and organisational processes. *Stress from career and achievement* is positively correlated with ambition and negatively correlated with status at the time of applying, satisfaction with the organisational structure and design and satisfaction with organisational processes. *Stress from the organisational structure and climate* is positively correlated with alienative commitment and negatively correlated with moral commitment, status at the time of applying and satisfaction with the organisational structure and design and with organisational processes. *Stress from the home/work interface* is positively correlated with intention to improve and negatively correlated with status at the time of applying.

Satisfaction with achievement, value and growth is positively correlated with status at the time of joining and moral commitment and negatively correlated with tenure and alienative commitment. *satisfaction with the job itself* is positively correlated with moral commitment and negatively correlated with gender and alienative commitment. Perception of *organisational forces* controlling the work situation was positively correlated with alienative commitment, tenure and salary, and negatively correlated with satisfaction with organisational structure and processes and moral commitment.

Block 3: Status when applying is positively correlated with previous experience with people with learning difficulties. *Satisfaction with organisational processes* is positively correlated with attitude to living and negatively correlated with perceptions of individual influence at work. *Alienative commitment* is negatively correlated with attitude to living. *Moral commitment* is negatively correlated with perceptions of individual influence and positively correlated with attitude to living. *Tenure* is positively correlated with position, hours worked and

career development and negatively correlated with number of jobs and site worked on. *Salary* is positively correlated with position and hours worked.

Table 6.12: Blocks of variables predicting mental ill health

Block 4	Block 3	Block 2	Block 1	Outcome Variable
Number of dependents	Gender Previous experience Intention to improve Individual influence Position Hours worked Career development	Status when applying Style of behaviour Tenure Salary Alienative commitment Moral commitment	Organisational forces Overall perceived stress Overall satisfaction	Mental ill health

6.3.8.2. Results of the regression procedure: Predicting mental ill health

The results of the regression analysis are summarised in Table 6.13 below.

Dependent variable: Mental ill health was positively predicted by perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation ($R^2=.146$, $p=.0003$) and by overall perceived stress ($R^2=.127$, $p=.0003$).

Block one: Overall perceived stress was negatively predicted by status when applying ($R^2=.145$, $p=.0003$), and positively predicted by alienative commitment ($R^2=.064$, $p=.0113$). Perceptions of control by *organisational forces* is positively predicted by style of behaviour ($R^2=.117$, $p=.0013$) and tenure and negatively predicted by salary ($R^2=.097$, $p=.0087$), and positively predicted by alienative commitment and negatively predicted by moral commitment ($R^2=.173$, $p=.0001$).

Block two: Moral commitment was negatively predicted by perceptions of a lack of individual influence in the work situation ($R^2=.097$, $p=.0036$). *Tenure* was negatively predicted by number of previous jobs ($R^2=.095$, $p=.0039$), site worked on ($R^2=.068$, $p=.0111$) and position and positively predicted by hours worked ($R^2=.132$, $p=.001$) and career development ($R^2=.127$, $p=.0001$). *Salary* was positively predicted by position and hours worked ($R^2=.403$, $p=.0001$).

Status when applying was positively predicted by previous experience with people with learning difficulties ($R^2=.082$, $p=.0039$) and negatively predicted by gender ($R^2=.142$, $p<.0003$) and intention to improve ($R^2=.171$, $p=.0001$).

Block three: Previous experience with people with learning difficulties was negatively predicted by number of dependents ($R^2=.171$, $p=.0001$).

Table 6.13: Results of the regression analysis predicting mental ill health

Dependent variable	Independent variable	d.f.	B	R	R ²	F _{inc}	p
Mental ill health	Organisational forces	(1,84)	.9999	.382	.146	14.3	.0003
	Overall satisfaction	(1,83)	-	.2	.04	-	-*
	Overall perceived stress	(1,83)	.112	.356	.127	14.5	.0003
Overall perceived stress	Status when applying	(1,84)	-17.58	.381	.145	14.27	.0003
	Alienative commitment	(1,83)	2.13	.253	.064	6.72	.0113
Organisational forces	Style of behaviour	(1,84)	.189	.421	.117	11.1	.0013
	GROUP 2	(2,82)		.311	.097	5.03	.0087
	Tenure		1.093				
	Salary		-.00002				
	GROUP 3	(2,80)		.416	.173	11.25	.0001
	Alienative commitment		.224				
	Moral commitment		-.122				
Moral commitment	Individual influence	(1,84)	-.74	.311	.097	8.99	.0036
Tenure	Number of jobs	(1,84)	-.171	.308	.095	8.83	.0039
	Site worked on	(1,83)	-.437	.261	.068	6.74	.0111
	GROUP 3	(2,81)		.363	.132	7.59	.001
	Position		-.121				
	Hours worked		.62				
	Career development	(1,80)	.54	.356	.127	17.51	.0001
Salary	GROUP 1	(2,83)		.635	.403	28.06	.0001
	Position		583				
	Hours worked		7495				
Status when applying	Gender	(1,84)	-.66	.377	.142	13.95	.0003
	Previous experience	(1,83)	.365	.286	.082	8.8	.0039
	Intention to improve	(1,82)	-.92	.414	.171	23.17	.0001
Previous experience	Number of dependents	(1,84)	-.42	.414	.171	17.3	.0001

* Non-significant predictor, removed before further variables were added to the regression equation.

6.3.8.3. Blocks of variables predicting physical ill health

The blocks of variables to be entered in the regression analysis are summarised in Table 6.14 below.

Physical ill health is positively correlated with style of behaviour, perception of organisational forces controlling the work situation, stress from factors intrinsic to the job, the managerial role, relationships with others, career and achievement, the organisational structure and climate and the home/work interface. Physical ill health is negatively correlated with satisfaction with achievement, value and growth and satisfaction with personal relationships.

Block 2: Stress from factors intrinsic to the job is negatively correlated with status at the time of joining the organisation and satisfaction with the organisational structure and design and organisational processes. *Stress from the managerial role* is positively correlated with alienative commitment and negatively correlated with status at the time of applying and satisfaction with the organisational structure and design and with organisational processes. *Stress from relationships at work* is negatively correlated with satisfaction with the organisational structure and design and organisational processes. *Stress from career and achievement* is positively correlated with ambition and negatively correlated with status at the time of applying, satisfaction with the organisational structure and design and satisfaction with organisational processes. *Stress from the organisational structure and climate* is positively correlated with alienative commitment and negatively correlated with moral commitment, status at the time of applying and satisfaction with the organisational structure and design and with organisational processes. *Stress from the home/work interface* is positively correlated with intention to improve and negatively correlated with status at the time of applying.

Satisfaction with achievement, value and growth is positively correlated with status at the time of joining and moral commitment and negatively correlated with tenure and alienative commitment. *Satisfaction with personal relationships* is positively correlated with moral commitment and negatively correlated with alienative commitment. Perception of *organisational forces* controlling the work situation was positively correlated with alienative commitment, tenure and salary, and negatively correlated with satisfaction with organisational structure and processes and moral commitment. *Style of behaviour* was positively correlated with alienative commitment and satisfaction with the organisational structure and processes.

Block 3: Status when applying is positively correlated with previous experience with people with learning difficulties. *Satisfaction with organisational processes* is positively correlated with attitude to living and negatively correlated with perceptions of individual influence at work. *Alienative commitment* is negatively correlated with attitude to living. *Moral commitment* is negatively

correlated with perceptions of individual influence and positively correlated with attitude to living. *Tenure* is positively correlated with position, hours worked and career development and negatively correlated with number of jobs and site worked on. *Salary* is positively correlated with position and hours worked.

Table 6.14: Blocks of variables predicting physical ill health

Block 4	Block 3	Block 2	Block 1	Outcome Variable
Number of dependents	Gender Previous experience Intention to improve Individual influence Position Hours worked Career development	Status when applying Tenure Salary Alienative commitment Moral commitment	Style of behaviour Organisational forces Overall perceived stress	Physical ill health

6.3.8.4. Results of the regression analysis: Predicting physical ill health

The results of the regression analysis, predicting physical ill health, are summarised in Table 6.15 below.

Table 6.15: Results of the regression analysis predicting physical ill health

Dependent variable	Independent variable	d.f.	B	R	R ²	F _{inc}	p
Physical ill health	Style of behaviour	(1,84)	.243	.348	.121	11.51	.0011
	Organisational forces	(1,83)	-	.176	.031	3.04	.085*
	Overall perceived stress	(1,83)	.066	.305	.093	10.19	.002
Overall perceived stress	Status at the time of applying	(1,84)	-13.79	.381	.145	14.27	.0003
	GROUP 2	(2,82)		.395	.156	9.18	.0003
	Alienative commitment		-.26				
	Overall satisfaction		-4.17				
Status when applying	Gender	(1,84)	-.66	.377	.142	13.95	.0003
	Previous experience	(1,83)	.365	.286	.082	8.8	.0039
	Intention to improve	(1,82)	-.92	.414	.171	23.17	.0001
Previous experience	Number of dependents	(1,84)	-.42	.414	.171	17.3	.0001

* Non-significant predictor, removed before further variables were added to the model

Dependent variable: Physical ill health is positively predicted by style of behaviour ($R^2 = .121$, $p = .0011$) and overall perceived stress ($R^2 = .093$, $p = .002$).

Block one: Overall perceived stress is negatively predicted by status at the time of applying ($R^2 = .145$, $p = .0003$), alienative commitment and overall job satisfaction ($R^2 = .156$, $p = .0003$).

Block two: Status when applying was positively predicted by previous experience with people with learning difficulties ($R^2=.082$, $p=.0039$) and negatively predicted by gender ($R^2=.142$, $p<.0003$) and intention to improve ($R^2=.171$, $p=.0001$).

Block three: Previous experience with people with learning difficulties was negatively predicted by number of dependents ($R^2=.171$, $p=.0001$).

Two models outlining predictors of mental ill health and physical ill health are shown in Figure 6.2 and Figure 6.3 respectively.

6.3 8.4a: Overall model of job attitudes, individual and organisational variables and outcomes

An overall model of the predictors of turnover intention and behaviour and ill health is suggested in Figure 6.4 below. The nature of the relationships between variables are indicated by positive and negative indicators.

The model is by no means comprehensive, but indicates possible relationships between attitudes, outcomes and demographic and organisational variables. Although an analysis to assess the correctness of the relationships given in this figure, was not conducted, the figure can be inferred from the analyses conducted in Chapter 6.

There are three individual outcomes of interest in the present chapter, job search behaviour, mental ill health and physical ill health. Search behaviour would be expected to be a primary predictor of actual turnover. A progression from intention to quit to intention to search behaviour and eventually to turnover itself has been documented in the literature. Thus, that search behaviour leads to turnover may be assumed. High physical and ill health may be assumed to be detrimental to the workforce in terms of absences, which may lead to turnover and general lack of well-being.

6.3.8.4b: Evaluation of Figure 6.4

Perceived stress was predicted by previous employment history and intention to improve when starting the present job. The main employment variable predicting perceptions of stress was status when applying, such that those who were unemployed when starting the present job were more likely to perceive greater

levels of stress than those who were employed directly before starting the present position.

Alienative commitment was a predictor of perceived stress, such that the greater the feelings of alienation, the greater the perceptions of stress. However, this negative relationship was masked when alienative commitment and job satisfaction were entered into the regression equation together, due to the strong negative relationship between job satisfaction and perceptions of occupational stress.

Job satisfaction and perceptions of stress appear to have a reciprocal relationship, what predicts what is unclear in the present analysis. In Figure 6.4, perceptions of stress have been indicated to be a stronger predictor of job satisfaction than job satisfaction is of perceived stress, although the exact nature of the relationship requires clarification.

Overall perceptions of stress are positive predictors of both physical and mental ill health, as would be suggested by the literature.

To summarise these relationships described, those unemployed immediately before starting the present job as a support-worker are more likely to perceive greater levels of stress from their job. Perceptions of stress will also increase among those feeling alienated from the organisation, and less satisfied with their jobs. The outcome of greater levels of perceived stress will be greater mental and physical ill health.

Mental ill health was positively predicted by perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation. Greater Type A behaviour was predictive of increased perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation, and greater levels of physical ill health as would be expected from the literature. Thus, Type A behaviour appears to have a direct effect on increased physical ill health, and an indirect effect on increased mental ill health through perceptions of organisational control over the work situation.

Job satisfaction and alienative commitment are two variables that would be expected to have a reciprocal negative relationship in the present research. They were both predicted by similar variables, tenure, moral commitment and perception of organisational forces controlling the work situation. Job satisfaction was

was positively predicted by tenure, perceptions of organisational forces and negatively predicted by moral commitment. Thus, those that had been with the organisation for longer, had greater perceptions of organisational control and lower moral commitment tended to have a lower job satisfaction overall and greater alienation from the organisation.

Job search behaviour was positively predicted by intention to quit, intention to search, overall job satisfaction, Type A style behaviour and alienation from the organisation. It is interesting that job satisfaction is a positive predictor of job search behaviour, it might be expected that those satisfied with their job would be more likely to stay with the present job. However, there are many reasons for leaving an organisation, not simply job dissatisfaction.

Greater family responsibilities and greater moral commitment were negatively predictive of intention to quit and intention to search, as might be expected.

The analyses of relationships studied in the present research has presented a few useful indications of the manifestation of attitudes, perceptions and intentions within the organisational situation. However, the work is clearly fairly limited both in terms of the population, and the numbers of participants taking part in the study. One question arising is: What interactions between the organisational and demographic attributes influence the formation of job attitudes, perceptions and outcomes? What processes lie behind the formation of attitudes, perceptions and behaviour? One major area within the organisational literature that has not been discussed to date in the present research is the culture of the organisation and its relationship with job attitudes, perceptions and behaviour.

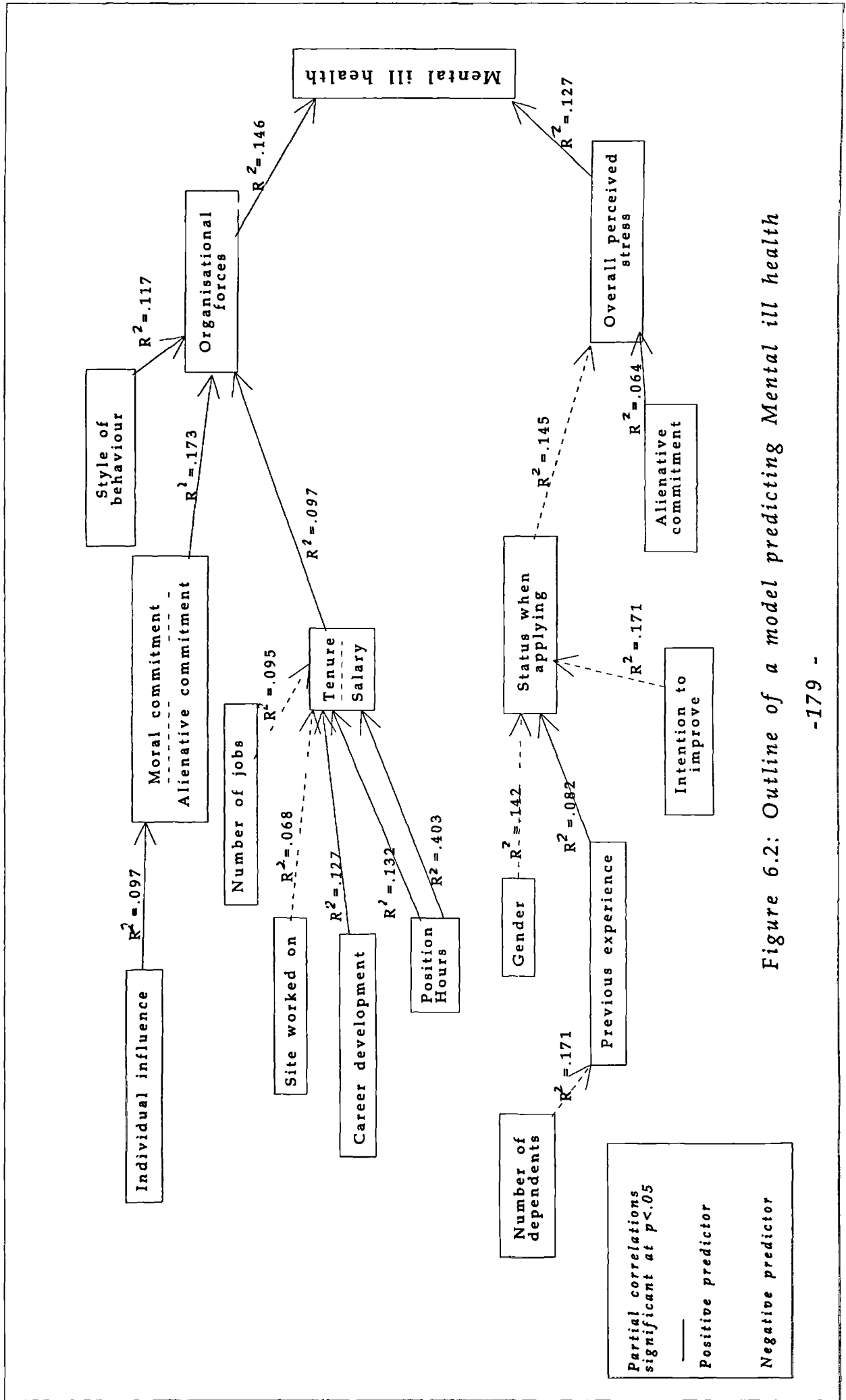


Figure 6.2: Outline of a model predicting Mental ill health

Predictors are significant at $p < .05$

— Positive predictor

- - - Negative predictor

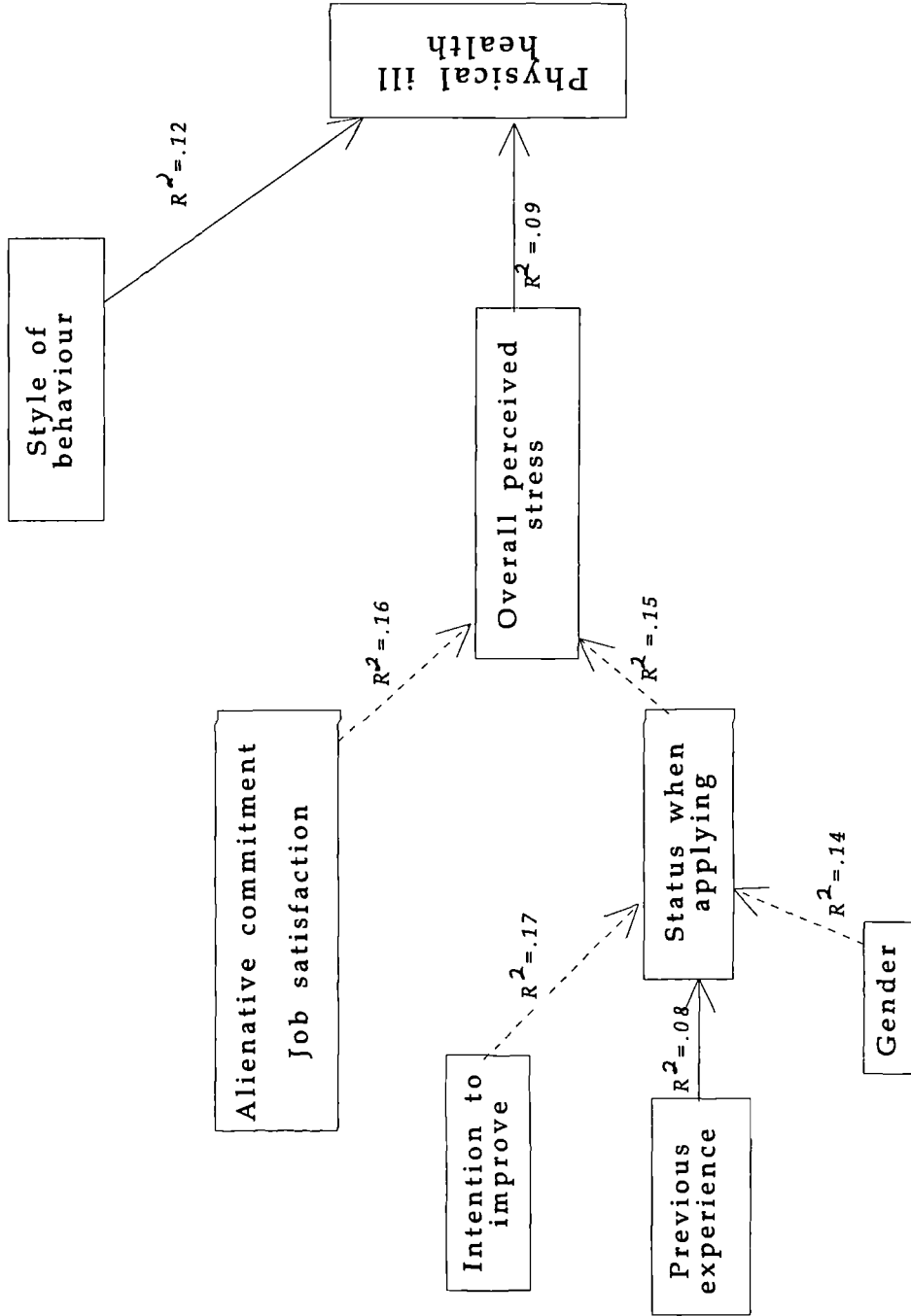
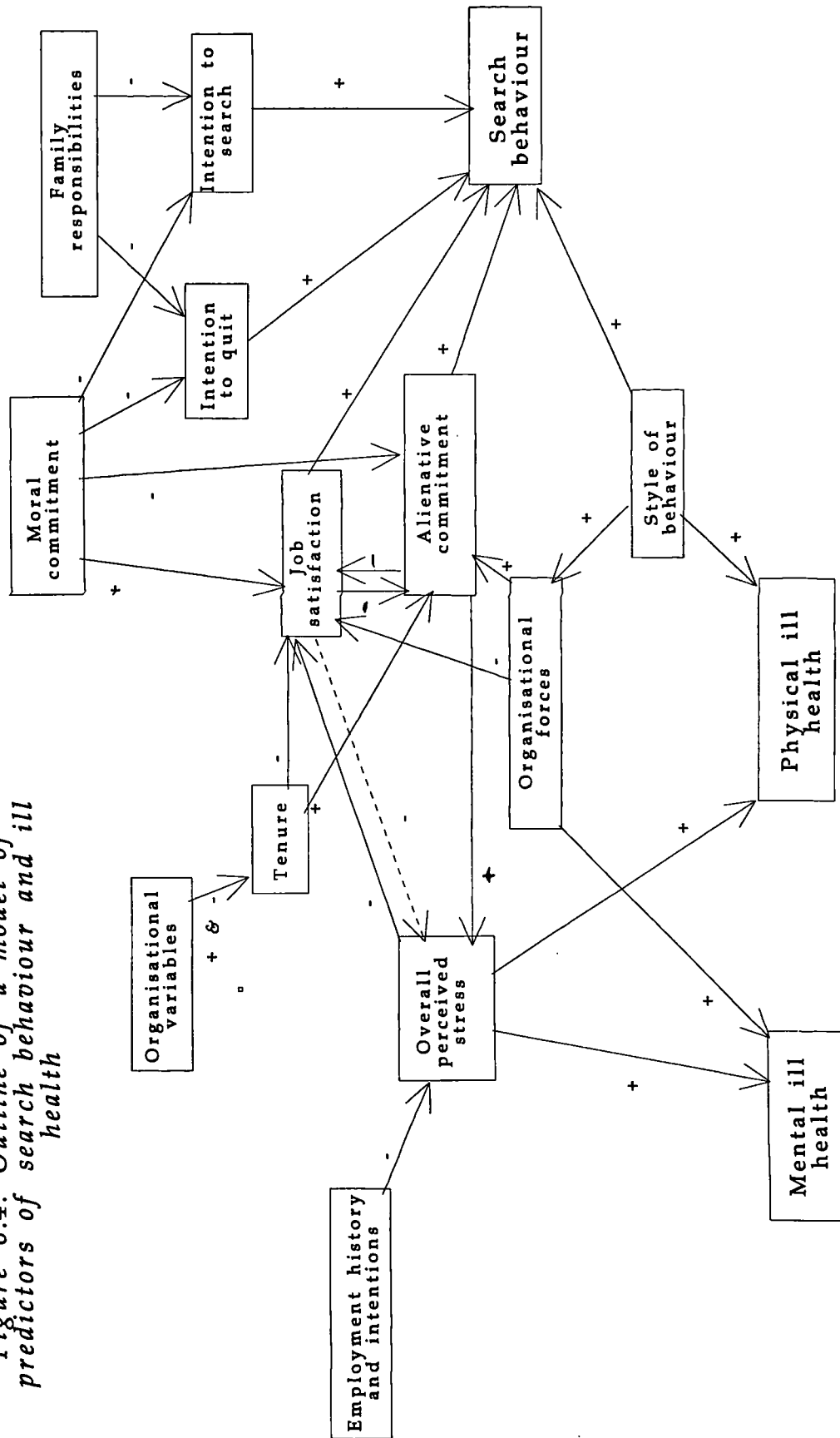


Figure 6.3: Outline of a model predicting physical ill health

Figure 6.4: Outline of a model of predictors of search behaviour and ill health



6.4 Discussion

Each of the results are discussed in turn: 1) differences between the tenure cohorts; 2) support for the hypotheses specified in the introduction; 3) predictors of turnover intention and job search behaviour and mental and physical ill health, and finally 4) methodological problems and measurement issues.

6.4.1. Differences across the tenure cohorts with regard to attitudes, perceptions and intentions measured in the study

The differences between the cohorts indicate that those who have been with the organisation for between 3 and 4 years, perceive management as being more unfair in their assessments of performance, as having little influence in management decisions, and perceiving management as lacking the personal skills necessary for the job.

Affective or moral commitment decreased over the tenure cohorts, such that moral commitment in those with 3-4 years tenure was significantly lower than in those of 6 weeks to 5 months tenure. Thus, personal identification with the organisation decreases with tenure. Moral commitment increased once again among those in the final cohort. Alienative commitment on the other hand, is significantly higher among those with 3-4 years tenure than among those in cohort 2 (6-9 months). Feelings of anger and a lack of ability to influence the organisation in any way increase with time in the organisation. Levels of alienative commitment tend to increase with tenure, remaining high among those in the final cohort.

6.4.2. Relationships between demographic and organisational variables and job attitudes

The first set of hypotheses suggested greater organisational rewards would be associated with positive job attitudes. There was no support for this relationship however, in fact a higher salary was associated with greater alienative commitment. Hypothesis 1c was supported in that a longer tenure was associated with greater organisational rewards.

Intention to improve was expected to impact on turnover behaviour through job attitudes, with greater intention to improve associated with negative job

attitudes. Intention to improve was not associated with job attitudes, however, expressing an intention to improve when applying was associated with greater perceived stress from home/work interface, partially supporting Hypothesis 2c. *Education level* was also expected to impact on turnover behaviour through job attitudes. However, there was no relationship between education level and job attitudes or perceptions, giving no support for Hypothesis 3a of 3b.

Additional relationships between demographic and organisational variables and job attitudes and perceptions were found. Female employees were significantly more satisfied with the job itself than male employees. Those who were employed or studying when applying for a position with the organisation were significantly more satisfied with achievement, value and growth and with organisational processes. This adds to the work of Razza (1993), who similarly found employment history influenced present job satisfaction. In addition, those who were employed when applying for a position perceived significantly less stress from the job, the managerial role, career and achievement, structure and climate and the home/work interface. Those who had a greater number of previous jobs tended to express higher levels calculative commitment. Thus, it would seem that those with more previous jobs were committed to the organisation to the extent that the organisation rewarded them. However, there was no relationship between calculative commitment and organisational rewards, so this, might be a spurious relationship.

A negative relationship was found between tenure and satisfaction with achievement, value and growth and organisational structure and design, and a positive relationship between tenure and alienative commitment. This indicates that those who have been with the organisation for longer are less satisfied with personal development and achievement and with communication, conflict resolution and the structure of the organisation.

6.4.3. Relationships between job attitudes and perceptions

Perceived occupational stress was expected to have a negative relationship with job satisfaction and moral commitment and a positive relationship with alienative commitment. A negative relationship was indeed found between nearly

all the facets of perceived stress and the facets of job satisfaction. Only perceived stress from the home/work interface was not significantly correlated with satisfaction with organisational structure and design and organisational processes. This gives considerable support to Hypothesis 4a. Moral commitment was negatively correlated with perceived stress from the organisational structure and climate, but not with other facets of perceived stress, partially supporting Hypothesis 4b. Perceived stress from relationships at work, inadequate guidance, staff shortages, favouritism, lack of communication and training are associated with greater alienative commitment, supporting Hypothesis 4c.

Greater perceived occupational stress was expected to be associated with greater Type A behaviour, perceptions of a lack of control in the work situation, and use of coping strategies. Greater ambition was associated with greater perceived stress from career and achievement. Perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation were associated with increased perceptions of stress from job ambiguity and conflicts, lack of power, risk taking, the organisational structure and climate and from the home/work interface. Use of coping strategies was not associated with perceived stress.

Perception of stress from the organisational structure and climate, namely, inadequate guidance, lack of communication, training and development, staff shortages, lack of feedback and resources and sharing work and responsibility evenly, was consistently that facet of perceived stress that correlated most highly with each facet of job satisfaction and overall satisfaction. This suggests that these aspects of the organisation may be creating the greatest amount of perceived stress that is impacting negatively on job attitudes and thus, turnover intentions and behaviour.

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment Moral commitment was found to have a positive relationship with each of the facets of job satisfaction, which supports Hypothesis 5a. Alienative commitment on the other hand, was negatively correlated with each facet of job satisfaction, supporting Hypothesis 5b.

Job satisfaction The greater the impatience, time consciousness and vigour of the individual, the lower the satisfaction with personal development and growth, with the job itself and the organisational structure and design. Those who are

confident and assertive and put work first are more satisfied with organisational processes and personal relationships. Perceptions of a lack of control were associated with lower job satisfaction. Specifically, the greater the perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation, the lower the satisfaction with achievement, value and growth, the job itself, organisational structure and design and personal relationships. Perceptions of a lack of individual influence were also associated with lower satisfaction with organisational processes. Use of coping strategies was not correlated with job satisfaction.

Organisational commitment Greater moral commitment was associated with putting work first, confidence and assertiveness. Lower moral commitment was associated with perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation, and a lack of individual influence.

Use of coping strategies The use of different coping strategies may depend on Type A behaviour and perceptions of control rather than levels of perceived stress. The different facets of Type A behaviour were associated with greater used of different coping strategies, giving some support to this idea. Greater levels of ambition are positively correlated with used of social support, time, and use of involvement. Greater dedication to work, confidence and assertiveness, is associated with use of task strategies. Perceptions of control are also related to use of coping strategies. Specifically, perceptions of an autocratic, unfair and poor management is associated with less use of social support, less use of time, less use of logic and involvement. Thus, the lower the perceptions of control in the work situation, the lower the use of coping strategies by the individual. The assessment of coping strategies by the present questionnaire requires further thought and development, however, measurement issues are discussed later.

6.4.4. Predicting turnover intentions and behaviour

Intention to quit was negatively correlated with each facet of job satisfaction and moral commitment, and positively correlated with alienative commitment and perceptions of stress from the managerial role. Greater impatience, time consciousness and vigour was associated with greater intention to quit, whereas, dedication to work, assertiveness and confidence, and having

dependents was associated with a lower intention to quit. Greater *intention to search* was associated with lower satisfaction with personal achievement and growth, structure and design, organisational processes and personal relationships, lower levels of dedication to work and assertiveness and higher levels of alienative commitment. More *search behaviour* was associated with greater alienative commitment, impatience, time consciousness and vigour and lower satisfaction with each of the job satisfaction facets.

Perceptions of stress did not appear to be consistently related to turnover intentions and behaviour, and were suggested to influence turnover through job attitudes. In addition, job satisfaction appears to have a stronger relationship with turnover intentions and behaviour than moral commitment. Thus, there is some support for the independent effects of job satisfaction and organisational commitment on turnover intentions and behaviour. Job satisfaction however, did appear to be a stronger predictor than organisational commitment, supporting the work of Tett & Meyer (1993). The nature of the relationship at different points in organisational tenure may change, however, the cohort sizes in the present research were too small to conclusively investigate the moderating effect of tenure, although exploratory analysis could be conducted. Use of coping strategies and perceptions of control did not moderate the influence of job attitudes on turnover intentions and behaviour. The results gave support for Hypothesis 7a, and only partial support for Hypothesis 7b.

The hierarchical regression procedure indicated a number of predictors of turnover intentions and behaviour. The results of the regression procedure are summarised in Table 6.14 and Figure 6.1. Intention to quit, intention to search, alienative commitment and style of behaviour were positive predictors of *search behaviour*. Overall satisfaction also emerged as a positive predictor, however, this could be a spurious result due to the high negative correlations between alienative commitment and job satisfaction. *Intention to quit* was negatively predicted by number of dependents, moral commitment and dedication to work and assertiveness. *Intention to search* was similarly, negatively predicted by dedication to work, assertiveness and confidence and moral commitment.

The positive relationship between tenure and salary and alienative commitment and the subsequent positive relationship between alienative commitment and intention to quit indicates that tenure and salary may have a positive relationship with turnover intentions and behaviour, mediated by alienative commitment.

6.4.5. Predicting mental and physical ill health

The results of the regression analyses studying predictors of mental and physical ill health are summarised in Tables 6.16 and 6.18 respectively, and diagrammatically in Figures 6.2 and 6.3 respectively. The results give substantial support to Hypothesis 6.

Greater levels of *mental ill health* were associated with greater perceived stress from each of the facets of occupational stress, greater perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation and lower levels of satisfaction with achievement, value and growth and the job itself. Mental ill health was positively predicted by perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation and overall perceptions of stress. Overall satisfaction was not a predictor of mental ill health.

Greater levels of *physical ill health* were associated with greater levels of perceived stress from the six facets of occupational stress, perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation, greater impatience, time consciousness and vigour and lower levels of satisfaction with achievement, value and growth and personal relationships. Physical ill health was positively predicted by style of behaviour and overall perceived stress.

An overall model of influences on turnover intention and behaviour is suggested in Figure 6.4 below. It has been suggested that the negative effects of job stress are moderated by organisational commitment (Kobasa, 1982; Jamal, 1984; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), further analysis could explore this relationship.

6.4.6. Methodological issues

The lack of influence of *coping strategies* on occupational stress, job satisfaction or organisational commitment and the outcomes of these variables

indicates that closer inspection of these scales may be warranted. The scales themselves do not show high internal reliability (Cronbach's Alpha) either in the present study or in work by Cooper, Sloane & Williams (1988). The items in each of the scales are all scored in the same direction, however, inspection of the items reveals that there are both functional and dysfunctional forms of coping included in the same scale. Thus, the scoring of the scale could be altered to improve the meaning of the scales. For example, the scale of 'use of time' as a coping strategy consists of the items:

1. Deal with the problems immediately as they occur.
2. 'Buy time' and stall the issue.
3. Effective time management
4. Force one's behaviour and lifestyle to slow down.

Items 1, 3 and 4 would appear to represent some positive use of time to increase problem-focused coping, whereas item 2 represents a negative use of time, avoiding the issue. This discrepancy can be seen in a second scale, 'use of logic' as a coping strategy:

1. Try to deal with the situation objectively in an unemotional way.
2. Suppress emotions and try not to let the stress show.
3. Try to 'stand aside' and think through the situation.

Again, items 1 and 3 appear to be positive coping strategies, whereas item 2 appears to be a negative use of logic to cope.

To remove the apparent problem with the coping scales, and make them more meaningful, the items should be scored as to whether they represent positive or negative coping strategies. There is sufficient literature to base the scales on either problem focused (functional) coping or emotion focused (dysfunctional) coping styles.

The *hierarchical modelling* procedure is not as robust as other modelling procedures that could have been carried out on a larger data set. There are a number of flaws, including: the assumption of no relationships between the variables within the individual blocks; the causality is based on theory rather than statistical techniques, which intend to be biased towards the perspective of the researcher; no reciprocity of relationships can be accounted for by the relationships.

6.4.7. Summary

There was considerable support for a number of previously defined relationships: a positive relationships between moral or affective commitment and job satisfaction; a negative relationship between job satisfaction and perceived stress; a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions and behaviour; a positive relationship between perceived stress and mental and physical ill health.

There were however, a number of differences between the results found in the present occupational group and previous findings. Use of coping strategies did not emerge as a moderator of the experience of stress. Intentions to quit and search for alternatives did not appear to mediate the relationship between job attitudes, perceptions and other variables and search behaviour.

Aspects of the organisational structure and climate appear to have the greatest negative impact on job attitudes and through them, turnover intentions and behaviour. Further investigation of the structure and climate of the organisation may highlight discrepancies that are contributing to the perceived stress.

Chapter Seven: Why do People leave? The Exit Interview

7.1: Introduction

The following review addresses why exit interviews are used and the difficulties with their use and interpretation. In addition, previous results from exit interview studies and different methods of conducting exit interviews are outlined.

7.1.1. The use of exit interviews

Exit interviews are often standard practice in organisations, as they may provide useful information for the organisation about why people are leaving. Other uses include creating better public relations, as a means of checking the initial selection system, uncovering poor personnel practices, finding out specific sources of job dissatisfaction, identifying what people look for in their jobs, uncovering unsatisfactory supervisors, and assessing the voluntariness and avoidability of the individuals decision to leave the organisation.

Important aspects of a job was found to differ depending on gender, previous work experience and whether employees were blue or white collar workers. Jurgensen (1978) found male employees rated 10 aspects of the job/organisation in order of importance as: 1) security, 2) advancement, 3) type of work, 4) company, 5) pay, 6) co-workers 7) supervisor, 8) benefits, 9) hours and finally, 10) working Conditions. For women the order was 1) type of work, 2) company, 3) security, 4) co-workers, 5) advancement, 6) supervisor, 7) pay, 8) working conditions, 9) hours and 10) benefits.

Previous work experience was also found to be related to the relative importance of job and organisational variables (Feldman & Arnold, 1978). The importance of aspects of the job and organisation were rated as 1) pay and fringe benefits, 2) use of skill and abilities, 3) responsibility and leadership, 4) autonomy and independence, 5) flexibility of working hours and 6) the type of service provided by the organisation.

Allen et al. (1979) found that for blue collar workers, the order of importance of job attributes was accomplishment (more important for part-time

compared to full-time workers), high income (more important for full- than part-time workers), advancement, security and short hours.

It is logical to assume that the importance of each aspect of the job and organisation in the individual's decision to leave may vary depending on the initial importance of the job aspect in the individual's job.

A relationship between the importance of job and organisational aspects and satisfaction with those aspects has been demonstrated in a number of studies. Those aspects that are rated as important but having low satisfaction ratings are suggested to be the best predictors of overall satisfaction (Froehlich & Wolins, 1960; Ewen, 1967). Borg (1991) simply suggested that those aspects of the job that were rated as more satisfactory were rated as more important. Locke (1984) on the other hand, suggested that it was high importance ratings of a job attribute that caused extreme satisfaction ratings. Satisfaction and importance ratings can be assessed in the exit interview and the relationship between these two aspects further examined. The relationship between satisfaction and importance in the decision to leave may be important in assessing the impact of job dissatisfaction on employee behaviour.

The exit interview can also be used to assess the extent to which the employee's leaving was the decision of the employee or the decision of the management. Typically, organisational turnover has been measured as a dichotomy, either voluntary or involuntary. However, the actual situation is not as clear as this measurement of turnover would suggest. Champion (1991) viewed the voluntariness and avoidability of the decision to leave as continuous variables, from voluntary to involuntary and from avoidable to unavoidable. He assessed employees' and supervisors' ratings on the avoidability and voluntariness of the decision to leave, and found that the employee and the supervisor measures correlated positively on voluntariness and avoidability.

7.1.2. Criticisms of the exit interview

A number of criticisms of exit interviews exist including 1) the accuracy of interviewee's comments, they may be a distortion of the true reasons for leaving; 2) employees may be unwilling to frankly discuss the reasons for their departure

(Lefkowitz & Katz, 1969). This may be because the interviewee is reliant on the organisation for future job references. The exit interview therefore, may give a falsely favourable impression of the organisation; 3) although the exit interview is standard practice, the organisation may pay little heed to the information gathered through the Interview. For example, Baumeister & Zaharia (1987) found the administrators of the questionnaires pay little heed to the information gathered. Garretson & Teel (1982) found that many organisations did use the exit interview as a symbolic gesture, because no actual use was made of the information. The waste of employee and employers time and resources adds to the lack of meaning and purpose in such a procedure.

Lefkowitz & Katz (1969) studied the validity of exit interviews using exit interview data and a follow-up questionnaire several months later. The correlation between the exit interview data and the follow-up questionnaire was significant at $r=0.42$ yet there were widespread discrepancies between the initial and follow-up reasons given for termination. Many resignations initially described as unavoidable were later described as avoidable. Zaharia & Baumeister (1978b) found the follow-up, six months after the employee had left the organisation, revealed more negative reasons for leaving, with a sense among ex-employees of having been unappreciated for performing a stressful job under difficult conditions.

Factors that may affect the employees' willingness to frankly discuss reasons for leaving the organisation may include affect towards the organisation. Those who felt positively about the organisation and issues around their leaving would not be apprehensive about a frank discussion, those who felt negatively may be apprehensive and have little intention to participate in the exit interview (Giacolone & Duhon, 1991). Willingness to discuss a topic was inversely related to feelings towards the topic. Honesty when discussing a number of topics depended on feelings towards that topic, this was the case for topics such as: 1) the job itself, 2) immediate supervisor, 3) training, 4) rules, constraints and policies of the organisation, 5) working conditions, 6) advancement opportunities and 7) relationships with peers. The position of the terminating employee was also had a moderating effect on the willingness of the employee to be honest those in managerial positions were less frank about the reasons why they left.

7.1.3. Different methods of conducting an exit interview

The approach to the process of the exit interview can take a number of routes. Research has identified different methods of conducting the interview, and suggestions for the 'best' or most valid technique can be made. The three methods of collecting exit interview data include i) conducting the exit interview by the company management; ii) recruiting an outside consultant to conduct the exit interview; iii) using a follow-up questionnaire to verify the original exit interview data.

Each of these techniques have advantages and disadvantages. The company conducting its own exit interviews may introduce bias into the questioning and reporting of the results, however, this method is probably the least expensive and the easiest. An outside consultant would be more objective, in questioning the departing employee and reporting the exit interview results. The interviewee, on the other hand, may feel more able to speak with an outside agency about negative issues within the organisation. This method would be more expensive and take more organisation. Finally, sending out a follow-up questionnaire would be recommended for both interview techniques, this would allow the organisation to validate the results of the initial exit interviews. The difficulties with this approach is that ex-employees may forget what the exact reasons were for leaving, or reasons may be distorted with time. This method would also require organisation.

Hinrichs (1975) compared the different methods of conducting the exit interview and found the follow-up data did not correlate with the information actually obtained at the exit interview. The interviews conducted by an outside agency obtained information that was more negative and reflected a greater dissatisfaction with the management and the job. The data collected by the outside agency was more compatible with that collected by the follow-up questionnaire. Thus, it appears that the independent interviewer received the most valid information, and that this, coupled with the follow-up questionnaire was the best method in collecting exit interview data.

7.1.4. The present study

There is a substantial argument verifying the dubiousness of the exit interview procedure. However, taking into account the work by Hinrichs (1975), the most valid method for conducting the interview was adopted. The organisation in question was undergoing a period of expansion and uncertainty, which led to a high turnover rate. Thus, the exit interview was thought to be an appropriate assessment of employee difficulties with the organisation.

The exit interview study was conducted to assess primarily the reasons as to why employees left the organisation in question. A number of other aspects of the employees relationship with the organisation were also assessed, such as the importance of aspects of the job and satisfaction with different aspects of the job. Finally, the study attempted to assess whether the action of leaving could be described as voluntary or involuntary, or whether there was a continuum of voluntariness and avoidability in the decision to leave.

The following hypotheses were suggested:

Hypothesis 1: There will be a relationship between job satisfaction ratings and ratings of the importance of aspects in the employee's decision to leave.

Hypothesis 2: There will be gender differences in ratings of importance of different aspects of the job.

Hypothesis 3: There will be a positive relationship between data from the exit interview and data from the follow-up questionnaire.

The nature of this study was exploratory rather than testing theory or models. The study was designed to establish the importance of certain factors to an employee and the importance of these factors in the individual's decision to leave.

7.2: Method

7.2.1. Subjects

All those individuals who left the organisation over two six month periods were included in the study sample. The time of the study was from July 1991 to December 1991, and from July 1992 to December 1992. There were 100 leavers during the 2 six months periods. 25 of those who left the organisation were willing to take part in the exit interview study, giving a response rate of 25%. Reasons given for not taking part were that the person was too upset to talk about their experience, due to the organisation the person was unable to get another job and did not want to talk about why they had left. Many of the leavers were not contactable on the phone and reasons for not taking part were not obtainable. Other leavers did not say why they did not want to take part. 56% of those who participated were female, the majority were in support worker positions (84%) and 75% worked in the community.

Only three participants responded to the follow-up questionnaire, therefore a short descriptive analysis of the findings was discussed.

7.2.2. Design

The study had a repeated measures design. Independent variables that were measured included demographic and organisational variables, job satisfaction, importance of job aspects and their importance in the decision to leave, and the voluntariness and avoidability of leaving. The outcome variable of interest was reason given for leaving the organisation.

7.2.3. Measures

Demographic variables measured include tenure, age, gender, education and health. *Organisational variables* include site of work (community or residential), career development, and time and distance taken to reach the work place.

The exit interview questionnaire assessed eight aspects of the job and organisation. Each aspect was rated according to the employees satisfaction with

that aspect, the importance of that aspect in the job and the importance of the aspect in the employee's decision to leave the organisation. The exit interview questionnaire is shown in Appendix 7.1. Three aspects of *salary* were assessed; basic wage, benefits and bonuses. *Hours of work*, including basic hours, extra hours and working shifts. *Working conditions* looked at initial training and available information when starting the job and the physical work environment. *The job itself* assessed variety, status, responsibility, autonomy, the social service provided by the job for the community, challenges, goals that are set and work pressures. *The management* included communication with the management, physical and emotional support from the management, clarity (knowing what the management expect from you), level of control the management have over you, feedback from the management, contribution to management decisions, decisions made by the management and perceptions of relationships with co-workers. *Opportunities for personal improvement* assessed perceived opportunities to become a full-time member of staff, experience gained through the job, on going training in the job and qualifications gained through the job. *Service-user characteristics* assessing the service-users level of mental and social ability, behaviour problems and physical ability. *Co-workers* looking at emotional and physical support from co-workers, available feedback from co-coworkers, social outings with co-workers and perceptions of relationship with co-workers.

Reason for leaving 16 reasons for leaving were compiled from personnel files were rated by the subjects as to their importance in their decision to leave. 10 reasons for leaving included travel difficulties, housing difficulties, moving from the area, family responsibilities, found another job, marriage, pregnancy, bereavement, ill-health and retirement. The final six reasons were organisation based and included work performance, time-keeping, absenteeism, unsatisfactory conduct, made redundant and end of temporary contract.

Voluntariness of leaving was assessed by seven items (see appendix 7.1) on a 5 point scale. The items were developed by Campion (1991). *Avoidability* of the decision to leave, was again assessed by 7 items developed by Campion (1991), and measured on a five point scale. The questionnaire is shown in Appendix 7.1.

Finally, the participants were asked what, with hind sight, they would have liked to know when they started in their job which would have helped with them with the job or would have affected their decision to take the job.

A different questionnaire was used for the follow-up study, which was shorter. The questionnaire is shown in Appendix 7.2. The aspects of the job that are measured are the same, however, the detail in the questions is omitted, and the demographic details are not included.

7.2.4. Procedure

Those employees who left the organisation during the two 6 month periods were contacted by a letter from the researchers to their home address explaining the reasons for the research, assuring confidentiality and that, unless otherwise indicated by the subject, a researcher would be in touch shortly to arrange an interview.

Those subjects who were on the phone were contacted and if willing to take part an interview was arranged either at the University or in their own homes. For those who were not on the phone a reply slip was included in the original letter on which they could indicate when and where they would be available for interview.

At the interview a questionnaire was administered to the subject and further discussion followed to explore attitudes towards the organisation and why the individual left their job.

3 months after the initial exit interview, the participants were sent a follow-up questionnaire with a return envelope, which consisted of a shortened version of the interview.

7.3. Results

The average ratings of satisfaction, importance and importance in the decision to leave for aspects of the job and organisation are examined. Secondly, the relationships between satisfaction, importance and importance in the decision to leave are considered. Thirdly, the relationships between satisfaction, importance in the job, importance of aspects of the job and organisation and demographic and organisational variables are studied. Fourthly, the relationship between voluntariness and avoidability of the decision to leave and ratings across satisfaction, importance in the job and importance in the decision to leave are outlined. Finally, the employees most often cited reason for leaving and the results of the follow-up are given.

7.3.1. Mean ratings of satisfaction, importance in the job and importance in the decision to leave

The average ratings of each aspect of the job and organisation on these three dimensions are given in Table 7.1 below.

Table 7.1: Mean ratings of satisfaction, importance and importance in the decision to leave for aspects of the job/organisation

Aspect of the job	Ratings		
	Satisfaction	Importance in the job	Importance in decision to leave
1. Pay	1.62	2.18	1.28
2. Hours	1.82	1.85	1.34
3. Working conditions	1.86	2.41	1.19
4. The job itself	1.88	2.04	1.24
5. Management	1.7	2.3	1.47
6. Opportunities for personal improvement	1.62	2.12	1.19
7. Client characteristics	2.09	1.82	1.18
8. Co-Workers	2.02	2.31	1.18

The most satisfactory aspect of the job and organisation was service-user characteristics, followed by co-workers. The least satisfactory aspect of the job

and organisation was pay and opportunities for improvement and promotion followed by aspects of the management. The most important aspect of the job in the decision to leave the organisation aspects of the management and hours worked.

Looking at the individual items that composed the hours scale, the importance of working shifts received the highest mean ratings (1.48) in the individuals's decision to leave the organisation. The aspects of management that were most importance in the individual's decision to leave the organisation were decisions made by the management (mean rating=1.56), communication with the management (mean rating=1.52) and emotional support, having someone to talk to in confidence (mean rating=1.52).

The mean values for males and females are given in Table 7.2 below. These suggest that aspects of the job that are most important for female employees were: working conditions; co-workers; salary; management; the job itself; hours worked and opportunities for personal development; and the least important

Table 7.2: *Mean values of satisfaction with job aspects, importance of job aspects and importance of job aspects in decision to leave for both males and females*

Job aspect	Female			Male		
	Sat.	Import.	Leaving	Sat.	Import	Leaving
Salary	1.69	2.29	1.18	1.54	2.05	1.41
Hours	1.74	2.01	1.24	1.93	1.65	1.47
Working conditions	1.9	2.48	1.14	1.82	2.32	1.24
The job itself	1.81	2.02	1.19	1.98	2.06	1.3
Management	1.67	2.26	1.35	1.74	2.35	1.63
Opportunities for personal development	1.6	2.01	1.08	1.65	2.25	1.34
Client characteristics	2.19	1.74	1.13	1.96	1.94	1.25
Co-workers	2.06	2.3	1.09	1.97	2.32	1.3

Sat. - satisfaction rating with the different aspects of the job; Import. - importance rating with different aspects of the job and organisation; leaving - importance of aspects of the job and organisation in the individual's decision to leave the organisation.

aspect is service-user characteristics. For male leavers, the order of importance of aspects of the job was: management; working conditions and co-workers;

opportunities for personal development; the job itself; pay; service-user characteristics and hours worked.

Looking at those aspects of the job that were important in the individual's decision to leave, female employees rated management, followed by hours as the most important aspect in their decision to leave. For the male leavers, management and hours worked were similarly rated, on average, as the most importance aspects of the job and organisation in their decision to leave.

7.3.2. Relationships between ratings of satisfaction and importance of organisational aspects and the importance of organisational aspects in the decision to leave

The ratings of satisfaction and importance were correlated with each other to establish the nature of the relationships between the ratings. The correlations are shown in Table 7.3 below. The results of the correlation analysis indicate that the relationship between satisfaction with an aspect of the job and importance of that aspect to the individual, is dependent on the aspect of the job and organisation that is being assessed. The results below indicate a positive relationship between satisfaction and importance, with this reaching significance at $p < .05$ for the job itself and for opportunities for personal improvement. The relationship between satisfaction with aspects of the job and the importance of aspects of the job in the decision to leave tends to be negative but weak. The relationship between importance of aspects of the job and their importance in the decision to leave is

Table 7.3: Relationships between ratings of satisfaction, importance and importance in the decision to leave the organisation.

Rating	Salary	Hours	Working conds.	The job itself	Man.	Opp.	Service-users	Co-workers
Satisfaction/ importance in the job	.29	.31	.39	.41*	.22	.66*	.13	.03
Satisfaction/ importance in the decision to leave	.06	-.15	.08	-.15	-.13	-.03	-.04	-.24
Importance in the job/ importance in the decision to leave	.05	.39	.18	.11	.02	.15	.57**	.03

* Significant at $p < .05$; ** Significant at $p < .01$; + Significant at $p < .001$

Man. - management; Opp. - opportunities for personal improvement; Working conds. - working conditions.

positive, but significant only for service-user characteristics ($r = .57, p < .01$).

Thus, the more importance this aspect is in the individual's job choice, the more importance this aspect is in the individual's decision to leave.

7.3.3. Relationship between demographic and organisational variables and ratings of satisfaction and importance of organisational aspects

The relationships between satisfaction, importance and importance in the decision to leave and demographic and organisational variables are shown in Table 7.4 below.

Tenure was positively correlated with satisfaction with pay ($r = .49, p < .05$), satisfaction with aspects of the management ($r = .55, p < .01$). Distance to the work place was positively correlated with satisfaction with working conditions ($r = .55, p < .01$), satisfaction with opportunities for personal improvement ($r = .55, p < .01$) and satisfaction with co-workers ($r = .41, p < .05$).

Position was negatively correlated with importance of working conditions in the job ($r = -.54, p < .01$). Distance to work was positively correlated with importance of the content of the job itself (variety, autonomy and service to the community) ($r = .54, p < .01$) and importance of opportunities for personal improvement ($r = .52, p < .01$).

Gender was positively correlated with importance of opportunity for improvement in the individuals decision to leave ($r = .46, p < .05$). Education level was positively correlated with importance of hours worked ($r = .55, p < .01$) and importance of the management ($r = .48, p < .05$) in the individual's decision to leave the organisation. Salary was positively correlated with the importance of management in the individual's decision to leave the organisation ($r = .55, p < .01$) and distance travelled to work was negatively correlated with importance of opportunity for personal improvement ($r = -.4, p < .05$) in the individual's decision to leave.

Table 7.4: Demographic and organisational variables and their relationships with satisfaction and importance of job aspects and the importance of job aspects in the decision to leave

Rating	Gender	Age	Education	Tenure	Position	Salary	Distance to work	Time to work	Place
S1	-.2	.22	-.08	.49*	.2	-.21	.13	-.05	-.31
S2	.02	.26	-.06	.34	.05	-.25	.13	.11	-.32
S3	-.21	-.08	-.16	.01	-.17	-.22	.55**	.16	.22
S4	.08	.25	-.15	.13	.11	.06	.37	.01	-.01
S5	-.01	.31	-.25	.55**	.26	-.02	.35	.05	-.03
S6	.06	-.05	-.17	.22	-.13	-.19	.55**	.23	.18
S7	-.16	.22	-.24	.12	.3	.11	.36	.05	-.13
S8	-.02	.35	-.25	.17	.39	.31	.41*	.01	-.09
I1	-.26	.30	-.17	.33	.19	-.06	.06	.16	-.42*
I2	-.26	.21	.03	.09	-.05	-.12	-.15	.07	-.27
I3	-.22	-.31	-.26	-.28	-.54**	-.34	.33	.39	.35
I4	.06	.02	-.18	.01	-.01	-.07	.54**	.17	.44*
I5	.12	.07	-.01	.15	.03	.12	.17	.24	.3
I6	.13	-.11	-.15	.12	-.1	-.02	.52**	.35	.24
I7	.13	.13	-.28	.27	-.12	-.32	.13	.08	.05
I8	.01	.14	-.2	.28	.02	-.06	.06	-.08	.26
L1	.13	-.23	.25	-.02	-.23	-.03	.03	.04	.2
L2	.18	-.15	.55**	-.09	-.08	.22	-.18	.01	.22
L3	.25	-.1	.11	-.04	-.2	-.05	-.33	-.05	.18
L4	.08	-.21	.32	-.04	-.01	.25	.17	.13	.19
L5	.39	-.2	.48*	-.12	.17	.55**	.14	.01	.30
L6	.46*	-.15	.1	-.01	-.19	-.01	-.4*	-.23	.32
L7	.08	-.06	.03	-.002	-.19	-.21	.21	.22	.25
L8	.24	-.27	.1	-.06	-.25	-.01	-.09	-.12	.23

* Significant at $p < .05$; ** Significant at $p < .01$; + Significant at $p < .001$

S1-S8 - satisfaction with the 8 job aspects; I1-I8 - importance of the 8 job aspects in the job; L1-L8 - importance of the 8 job aspects in the decision to leave

7.3.4. Relationship between ratings of satisfaction and importance and voluntariness and avoidability

Correlations between voluntariness and avoidability of the decision to leave and satisfaction, importance and importance in the decision to leave are shown in Table 7.5 below.

Voluntariness of the decision to leave is negatively correlated with importance of hours in the actual job ($r=-.4, p<.05$). Avoidability of the decision to leave is positively correlated with importance of the job itself ($r=.5, p<.05$), importance of the management ($r=.45, p<.05$) and importance of opportunities for personal improvement ($r=.42, p<.05$).

Voluntariness of the decision to leave was positively correlated with importance of the management in the decision to leave ($r=.49, p<.05$). Avoidability was positively correlated with importance of opportunities for personal improvement in the decision to leave ($r=.58, p<.05$).

Table 7.5: Relationship between voluntariness and avoidability of the decision to leave the organisation.

Rating	Vol.	Avoid.	Rating	Vol.	Avoid.	Rating	Vol.	Avoid.
S1	-.28	-.24	I1	-.13	-.09	L1	-.11	-.19
S2	-.27	-.19	I2	-.4*	-.34	L2	-.02	-.15
S3	-.29	-.31	I3	-.21	-.16	L3	-.05	.13
S4	-.01	.02	I4	.29	.5*	L4	.27	.13
S5	.05	.05	I5	.26	.45*	L5	.49*	.38
S6	-.04	.1	I6	.25	.42*	L6	.19	.58**
S7	-.19	-.07	I7	.26	.3	L7	.27	.16
S8	.18	.1	I8	.16	.28	L8	.11	.21

* Significant at $p<.05$; ** Significant at $p<.01$; + Significant at $p<.001$

Vol - voluntariness of the decision to leave; Avoid - avoidability of the decision to leave

7.3.5. Reasons for leaving

The explicit reasons given for leaving are shown in Table 7.6 below. From this Table, the most frequently given reasons are family responsibilities and another job. Only 7 leavers had another job to go to, 3 were going to continue studying and 14 did not go straight into employment or studying, 1 employee retired.

7.3.6. Results of the follow-up study

There were three responses to the follow-up questionnaire. All three respondents gave the same reasons for leaving as in their initial exit interview.

The ratings for voluntariness and avoidability of the decision to leave were similar however, they indicated that the employees, with hindsight felt their leaving the organisation was more voluntary and more avoidable than initially felt.

Table 7.6: Reasons given for individual's leaving the organisation

Reason	Number of times stated
Family responsibilities	7
Found another job	5
Travel difficulties	3
Pregnancy	3
Ill health	2
Relationships at work	2
Further education	2
Hours worked	2
Dismissal	2
Offered F-T employment elsewhere	1
Job related stress	1
Violence from other staff	1
Lack of management support	1
Retirement	1
Poor Performance	1

* Individual's sometimes rated more than one reason for leaving as equally important, thus, there are more than 25 responses.

7.4: Discussion

7.4.1. Relationship between satisfaction, importance and importance in the decision to leave the organisation

The results of the exit interview study suggest the relationship between satisfaction with a particular aspect of the job and the importance of that aspect to the individual in his/her job is positive. This gives support Hypothesis 1 and the work of Borg (1991). The relationship between satisfaction and importance however, was significant for only the job itself and opportunities for personal development. This suggests that the more important an aspect of a job organisation actually is to the individual, the more satisfied that individual is with the aspect in the current job. The relationship between satisfaction and importance in the decision to leave tends to be negative, indicating that the more satisfied an employee is with an aspect of the organisation, the less important this aspect is in the individual's decision to leave, this is expected. However, the relationship between satisfaction and importance in the decision to leave does not reach significance. The importance of aspects in the actual job to the individual and the importance of aspects in the individual's decision to leave has a positive relationship, again this would be expected. However, only the relationship between the importance of service-user characteristics in the job and their importance in the decision to leave reaches significance. Service-user characteristics were not perceived by employees as a reason for their leaving.

The difference in ratings of importance for aspects of the job and organisation between males and females is supportive of Hypothesis 2. However, both male and female employees rated management and hours as the two most important aspects in their decision to leave.

7.4.2. Avoidability and Voluntariness of the decision to leave

The voluntariness and avoidability of the decision to leave was not significantly correlated ratings of satisfaction with aspects of the organisation. However, ratings of importance and importance in the decision to leave were significantly correlated with voluntariness and avoidability.

Voluntariness of the decision to leave was positively correlated with the importance of the management in the decision to leave. For those that left more voluntarily the management was more importance in their decision to leave.

Avoidability of the decision to leave was positively correlated with importance of opportunities in the decision to leave. Thus, those that felt the choice to leave was avoidable felt that opportunities for personal improvement were important in their decision to leave the organisation.

This suggests that development of a fair career development structure may reduce the number of avoidable terminations. Voluntary terminations may be reduced by redressing difficulties identified within the management systems and processes of the organisation.

7.4.3. *Demographic variables and their relationship with ratings of aspects of the job and organisation*

Tenure in the organisation is positively correlated with satisfaction with pay, as salary is directly linked to tenure in the organisation, this relationship would be expected. The positive relationship between tenure and satisfaction with aspects of the management requires further investigation. The greater satisfaction expressed with available feedback, contribution to management decisions and decisions made by the management, could indicate either the existence of more participation in decisions and management feedback, or a change in the needs and outlook of the employee with tenure.

The distance that the individuals travelled to work was related to an increased satisfaction with some aspects of the job and organisation. This may indicate some cognitive re-appraisal of the work situation based on the effort the individual has to make to get to the place of work.

A number of demographic and organisational variables were significantly correlated with importance of aspects of the job and organisation in the individual's decision to leave. For example, opportunity for personal improvement was more important in the decision to leave for males compared to females. This may be due to the lack of opportunity for personal improvement in the organisation, and the greater importance that this aspect has in the job for male

employees compared to female employees. Similarly, the importance of hours worked and management in the individual's decision to leave, was greater among those with a higher education level. Those with a higher education may expect to be able to contribute more to management and have respect from management by virtue of their education. For those on a higher salary, the importance of management in the decision to leave was greater. A higher salary indicates a higher position within the organisation, and therefore would indicate the individuals greater expectations for respect from the management and contribution to the management.

7.4.4. *Important aspects in the decision to leave the organisation*

Aspects of the job and organisation that were the most important in the individual's decision to leave were the hours and the management. Analyzing the items composing the scale of hours individually, working shifts was rated the most important aspects in the decision to leave. For items assessing management, the most important items were decisions made by the management, followed by communication with the management and emotional support (having someone to talk to in confidence) from the management.

Further comments by participants concerning the items outlined above shed further light on the source of discontent. Some employees felt that they were required to work too many hours and that the hours worked were unsocial. New employees neither expected, nor wanted to work most weekends in a month. The solution suggested by an exiting employee was that the organisation should inform prospective employees more honestly about the hours worked. A more fair procedure of allocating cover of unsocial hours, rather than the 'last one in' situation may also address this aspect of the job.

Comments on the decisions taken by the management reflected a feeling of lack of consideration of direct-care employees by co-ordinators and managers of the service. For example, it was felt that psychologists working within the organisation were not in touch with the reality of the service-users' situation, one of the most useful sources of information, the senior support worker, was not consulted when discussing the progress or interventions surrounding the service-

user. Employees' felt that the organisation did not consider individual needs, wants or circumstances when implementing decisions, requesting individuals work in a particular unit or when requesting an employee to work overtime. One employee said she was moved into a community-based unit against her will. Others felt that the extra travel distance was not accounted for when moving them to a different unit. Employees felt that dissent or questioning the management structure and processes would bring about their dismissal. Finally, employees felt that there was little faith in the present management and management system, with no real confidentiality offered to employees needing support from the management.

Management did not give feedback, and procedures were seen as haphazard and poor. Co-ordinators were felt not to carry out house checks thoroughly. Selection procedures were not sufficient within the organisation, as often, unsuitable staff were employed. Promotions did not seem to be based on equal opportunities procedures.

7.4.5. *The follow-up*

The results of the follow-up questionnaire indicate that the responses to the initial exit-interview questionnaire were valid. A greater number of subjects would be needed to assess the validity with any substance, however, there is initial support for Hypothesis 3. The reasons for the validity in the present study may be due to the type of exit interview conducted, i.e. an independent researcher, rather than an employee of the organisation.

7.4.6. *Additional comments*

In addition, there were some basic difficulties highlighted by the comments made by participants, these could be roughly categorised into training and service-users. The majority of those interviewed felt that new employees with no experience were thrown in at the deep-end, given responsibility and no training. Some that had attended the induction course did not feel that they had learnt anything, working under supervision was also suggested. It was suggested that more information about working with people learning difficulties should be included in the job description. New employees simply wanted to know what was

expected of them on a day-to day basis. Individuals often found themselves working alone and without knowing the service-users they were working with.

The employees also felt that they should have more knowledge of the service-users they are working with. Violent tendencies, contagious diseases, abilities etc. Although these requests may be considered invalid in the light of recent practices in social role valorisation, when the employees is working alone, does not know the service-users involved and has had no prior experience, these are necessary requirements for both the service-users' and the employees' safety. The greater incidence of Hepatitis B among people with learning difficulties, especially older people, due to previous care policies and institutionalisation needs to be brought to prospective employees' attention where necessary, to allow them to take the necessary medical precautions before beginning employment. At the same time, some individuals' did not feel that service-users were receiving good care, and had lost alot of the facilities that were available to them previously.

Some employees were dissatisfied with the level of violence encountered within the organisation among the service-users

On the positive side, one employee stated that the organisation was an excellent one, and she would not hesitate to apply again. This particular individual was working on a fairly separate site that was fairly autonomous from the overall organisation. Others who found fault with the organisation did however, express intentions to continue in the field or were already working for a similar organisation.

7.4.7. Recommendations to the organisation

The study highlighted a number of areas of discontent, although among only a small group of individuals who were leaving, it was felt that given the general consensus among the diversity of leavers, there may be some validity in their argument.

Firstly, at the selection stage, the organisation needed to inform the individual's about what the job required and what the individuals' responsibilities were in an open and honest way. A more stringent assessment of the individual and their suitability to the job needed to be implemented.

The second point of change needed to be the introduction of a formalised training system especially for those with no previous experience. This training system needs to go beyond the simple physical aspects of the job, addressing some of the psychological theories relevant to the support of people with learning difficulties.

Thirdly, the management system needs to assess its procedures and be fair in administration of those procedures. This means a flexible but firm approach to each individual's circumstances. The management also needs to be aware of issues of confidentiality and put these into practice.

Fourthly, the staff are one of the major resources of the organisation, although many will not have professional training or qualifications, they have experience and first hand experience at an intimate level of each of the service-users they personally support. As such direct-care workers are an invaluable source of information about service-users, therefore, they should be included in the planning and assessment of service-users' individual program plans.

Fifthly, openness and honesty on the part of the organisation with regard to decisions made about service-users, employees, facilities and management procedures, will enhance the support given to changes within the organisation from direct-care workers and, enhance their feelings of inclusion in the service.

It is well to remember that homogeneity of thinking and acting within an organisation can lead to rigidity and strategic myopia, thus a management system should not be inflexible to change or unable to consider alternative suggestions even when proposed by an employee who is not a manager.

7.4.8. Summary

The exit interview used in the present study, being longer than most exit interviews and assessing aspects of the job and organisation with regard to satisfaction, importance and importance in the decision to leave the organisation, was much more informative than those used in previous studies. Including general comments and points from the interviewee and checking these with other sources of information within the organisation, gives a further insight into areas that need to be developed. Employees leaving the organisation may similarly, have some

practical advice on how development of different areas may take place. The use of the exit interview is thus, demonstrated.

The actual reasons given for leaving the organisation, bear little relationship to the employees' attitudes towards the organisation and importance of aspects of the organisation in the decision to leave. This, indicates that the reason for leaving per se is not very informative, and may not reflect the actual situation.

The present study has also combined two areas of study, that concerned with satisfaction and importance of various job aspects and that concerned with the importance of aspects in an individual's decision to leave.

The suggestion by Campion (1991) that voluntariness of turnover should be assessed by a continuous measure rather than a dichotomous one, also allows for a more valid measure of turnover and should be continued to be used in studies assessing turnover where possible. Unfortunately, this measure can only be used for those who have recently left, not being applicable to retrospective studies. The measure of avoidability indicates which aspects of the organisation could be developed to decrease the amount of avoidable turnover. Campion also assessed whether the turnover of employees was functional or dysfunctional for the organisation which would be an improvement to the design and measures used in the present study.

The present study was based on a very small and as such, not representative group from the organisation. More exit interviews would have had to be conducted to give more valid recommendations, although the research was informative.

Chapter Eight

Results concerning the present occupational group have been compared with previous research in the occupational literature. Chapters 8 and 9 are concerned with intervention strategies to improve person-organisational 'fit' or congruence. The first section of Chapter 8 is a literature review concerning the Realistic Job Preview and other pre-employment orientation strategies. The second section of Chapter 8 is concerned with the content of the job of the direct-care worker.

Section One: The Realistic Job Preview: Previous research and theories

The chapter begins with a review of the literature discussing the employment relationship from the perspective of the organisation and the individual. The interactionist perspective, combining both the individual and organisational perspective is then discussed. Secondly, organisational intervention strategies are discussed. Thirdly, the importance of addressing the effect of recruitment source effects on the success of the recruitment strategies is introduced. Fourthly, the Realistic Job Preview (RJP) and its congruence with employment relationship theories and other strategies of employee orientation is established. Finally, the content of the RJP and the processes behind the effectiveness of an RJP are discussed.

8.1.1. The employment relationship

Research on the employment relationship and the interaction between the organisation and the individual is reviewed in depth by Taylor & Giannantonio. They state that there are three important developments of the employment relationship, the formation of the relationship, the adaptation of the organisation to the individual as well as the individual to the organisation and the termination of the relationship. There are two frameworks from which the employment relationship and intervention processes can be viewed, a mechanistic or social systems approach (Colarelli & Stumpf, 1990). The mechanistic approach is reductionistic, it focuses on simple cause and effect relationships and assumes

that organisations' operate in a consistent machine-like manner. The focus is on a single outcome, that of immediate interest, and the various intervention strategies are expected to be complementary. A social systems approach, on the other hand, suggests organisational entry strategies may have multiple outcomes and conflict between outcomes may occur. In fact, any organisational strategy should be viewed as an interdependent part of the system in which it is embedded. As such, it is important to consider how the character and outcomes of a strategy are influenced by context. The most appropriate strategy to implement at the level of organisational entry depends on the goals of entry and the internal and external context of the organisational system. To date, Colarelli & Stumpf (1990) feel research has been concerned with the input rather than the processes or outcomes of organisational intervention strategies.

The present introductory review focuses on two areas, firstly, the processes behind the formation of the relationship between the individual and organisation. Secondly, the evaluation of pre-hire strategies, introduced with an intent to minimise dysfunctional outcomes in the employment relationship.

8.1.1.1. *Theories of individual-organisation selection*

There are three perspectives from which to view the employment relationship; the organisational perspective, the individual perspective and the interactionist perspective (Taylor & Giannantonio, 1993). The organisational perspective is concerned with pre-hire strategies the organisation should implement which would further the goals and maintain the values of the organisation. The *career system theory* (Sonnenfeld, 1990), suggests employment activities depend on the nature of the business strategy that the organisation is pursuing which are formulated to help the organisation achieve its goals in particular external environments. The chosen business strategy is assumed to drive organisations' staffing systems because its successful implementation will require particular types of employee skills and attitudes. Career systems, according to Sonnenfeld (1990), depend on whether the organisation is reliant on the external or internal labour market (supply flow) to staff positions above the entry level, and on the

basis on which assignments are made (assignment flow), on an individual or group basis.

Theories based on the individual perspective suggest the individual utilizes frameworks of choice to from which to assess alternatives, the frameworks maximize the outcomes for the individual and also the congruence between the individual's present situation and his/her goals. *Image theory* (Beach 1990) posits three knowledge structures or images that regulate an individuals' decisions: 1) the value image containing the principles, morals and perceptions that people feel define them as individuals; 2) the trajectory image including an agenda of goals that individuals wish to achieve in the future; and 3) the strategic image containing specific courses of action and individual behaviours that can be used for goal attainment. Image theory proposes that individuals form decision frames, elements of the three images believed relevant to the current decision that develop slowly as new information about the context is acquired and subsequently trigger recollections of successful choices used in similar situations. When options have been identified and investigated, the compatibility test, that serves to screen out options that are incompatible with existing principles, goals and plans, and the profitability test, which selects the best option from the set of alternatives passing the compatibility test, are applied. If no alternative passes the compatibility test, the status quo is maintained and the search for options continues.

Interactionist theories of the formation of the employment relationship emphasise the processes by which organisational goals and values are pursued whilst maximizing outcomes for the individual. An interactionist perspective is encompassed in the model of person-environment fit (Chatman, 1989). Within this model, behaviour is viewed as both a function of characteristics of the individual, the situation and the organisation. Person-organisation fit is defined as the congruence between the norms and values of organisations and the values of individuals. Fit would be influenced by individuals' selectivity during job search and choice; their attempts to change the organisation during adaptation; and the organisation's selection and socialising processes. Choice and selection procedures are suggested to be important in shaping fit during the early stages of organisational tenure, whilst adaptation and socialisation processes become more

important in later stages. The degree of person-organisation fit is hypothesised to determine the outcomes for individuals and organisations, including organisational norms and values, the individual's values, the individual's extra-role behaviours, and the individual's organisational tenure. Chatman (1989) proposes people seek out and choose organisations which have values and norms similar to their own. This is similar to the image theory, although the process through which matching is determined is not specified. Consistent with the career strategy theory, Chatman (1989) hypothesised the organisation's screening process and in particular the job interview works by screening out applicants who have incompatible values.

The Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA) (Lofquist & Dawis, 1969), is supportive of the person-organisation fit theory. Vandenberg & Scarpello (1990) developed this theory and suggested a match between individuals preferences for job rewards (needs) and perceptions of the available job rewards (rewards) results in job satisfaction and subsequent employee stability. The resulting *matching model*, although a coherent model for newcomer adjustment, may not adequately represent adjustment of more tenured employees to organisational changes.

Wanous (1993) suggests the entry of new employees into an organisation is a dual matching process between the individual and the organisation. One match-up concerns the individual's abilities or capabilities with the organisation's job requirements. The primary outcome of this match being job performance. A second match-up occurs between the individual's needs and values and the organisational climate and culture, this has primary consequences for job satisfaction, organisational commitment and, ultimately, retention.

It is important to consider the perspective from which a strategy to reduce voluntary turnover is developed, those developed along the interactionist perspective may have the most beneficial outcomes in terms of both the individual and the organisation.

8.1.2. Organisational intervention strategies

It is often assumed that a simple increase in salary will reduce voluntary turnover and increase the average tenure of employees. Zippo (1982) proposed, in order of effectiveness, that increasing salaries, introducing institutional orientation

and exit interview programs, increasing benefits, training supervisors and improving selection and placement would increase tenure and reduce turnover among human resource executives. Rynes (1993) found that consideration of salary for the new recruit is important, suggesting alternatives for the less profitable or non-profit making organisation may include trade-offs among compensation levels, variable compensation and indirect compensation or benefits. Non-monetary aspects include giving employees more responsible and challenging tasks. Barber & Giannantonio (1992) looked at job attributes about which individuals frequently seek information, they found students gave the highest priority ranking to pay and benefits, followed by job duties and opportunities for advancement. Osborn (1990), examining the job choice behaviour of college students, found job choices were more consistent with the matching of important individual criteria to corresponding job characteristics than with the use of a compensatory strategy that would maximise the absolute level of desired outcomes. Thus, management initiatives to improve individual-organisational congruence and staff management policies could be as effective as increasing the salary of the employee in the short term, but have greater benefits for the organisation and the individual in the long term.

Organisational entry is fraught with conflicts between individuals and organisations, occurring because the objectives of individuals and organisations in trying to attract and select each other are typically in opposition to one another, Wanous (1993). Organisations may present positively biased information to job candidates, and vice versa for the candidates themselves, which can lead to poor match-ups resulting in negative post-hire outcomes. The removal of the competitive character of the selection of situation would also remove the applicant-organisation conflicts that arise as a consequence. Porter, Lawler & Hackman (1975) wrote:

" The ideal situation would look quite different from the one which typically exists. The organisation would describe the job it has to offer in realistic terms, pointing out both the satisfactions and the frustrations that the job presents. It might present the results of job attitude surveys carried out with people in the job. If relevant, the individual might be given a chance to interview job holders. Tests would be administered and the

individual would be presented with the results to help him decide whether he wants the job. He would be told how likely people with his scores are to succeed on the job. The individual, in the other hand, would present as accurate a picture of himself as he could. He would talk openly about his strengths and weaknesses and he would respond to selection instruments as candidly as possible." (p.157)

Effective pre-hire orientation/selection strategies may result in the reduction of financial and manpower costs to the organisation as well as a reduction in financial and emotional cost to the applicant. Different strategies investigated include recruitment source effects and Realistic Job Previews (RJPs). Post-hire attitudinal and behavioral outcomes generally assessed include job satisfaction, organisational commitment, occupational stress, performance, attendance, tenure and turnover.

8.1.2.1. Recruitment source effects

It is suggested that different recruitment sources yield applicants with different pre-hire knowledge, education level and length of relevant experience (Williams, Labig & Stone, 1993), which have been validated as predictors of post-hire outcomes (Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Jacobs, (1980); McCloskey, 1983). Two hypotheses have been proposed suggesting why recruitment sources may affect employee behaviours, the *applicant population difference* hypothesis, supported by Williams et al (1993) and the *differential information* hypothesis which some sources have a more realistic concept of the job than others. Ullman (1966) states "friends of employees know more about the company in advance and are almost pre-sold on it if they decide to apply" (p.31). Thus, a better applicant-job match would be promoted, reducing turnover and improving job performance. Current employees would also pre-screen referrals to ensure that their own reputation was not affected by the quality of referrals. Schwab (1982) suggests focus on populations yielding the most satisfactory employees is necessary to reduce selection costs and improve post-hire outcomes.

Research on the reasons behind the effect of recruiting source and the effect of recruiting source differences has given equivocal findings. No effect on voluntary turnover and job performance was found by Williams et al. (1993). Yet

Breaugh & Mann (1984) found recruits from employee referrals had more realistic expectations than recruits from either newspaper advertisements or direct applications to the organisation. Employee referrals were significantly less likely to be terminated than recruits from newspaper advertisements. The study was retrospective and therefore, subject to memory failures and inaccuracies in recall of expectations. Support for the increased realism hypothesis was also found by Colella & Wanous (1989). The increased level of realism, measured pre- and post-entry accounted for the difference in intention to quit and turnover between bank tellers recruited from two informal sources, employee referral and direct application and those recruited from more formal sources. Kirman, Farley & Geisinger (1989) found applicants for agent positions in an insurance company recruited from informal recruitment sources were of higher quality as assessed by a company background questionnaire. This difference remained significant, although reduced, when new hires were examined with new hires from informal sources being better qualified and tending to survive longer than applicants recruited from formal sources, although performance was not improved. Increased job realism did not explain the differences found. Bank tellers recruited from the direct application source displayed higher job performance than did those recruited from newspaper ads or employee referrals even after one year on the job (Blau, 1990).

There appears to be support both for the increased realism hypothesis and the individual difference hypothesis. The individual differences hypothesis appears to receive stronger support as an explanation of performance differences than the increased realism hypothesis. Explanations of source difference effects on the behavioral and other post-hire outcomes may include several different factors in addition to realism and applicant differences in skills and abilities. Williams et al. (1993) believe it would be worthwhile to re-direct the focus of the research toward pre-hire outcomes, number of applicants, variability of applicant qualifications, rate of job acceptance.

8.1.3. The effect of the Realistic Job Preview

The RJP, as an organisational orientation strategy, acts as a tool for both selection and attraction of new employees, encouraging self-selection, whilst attracting employees through giving detailed, accurate and balanced information about the vacancy. Moderate effectiveness of the RJP on the tenure of employees has been widely demonstrated. Weitz as early as 1956 looking at the effects of an RJP booklet, found applicants to a life insurance company were significantly less likely to have terminated after a 6 month follow-up period when they receive the RJP. Other researchers have since demonstrated the effectiveness of the RJP booklet in reducing voluntary turnover (Colarelli & Stumpf, 1990; Ilgen & Seely, 1974). Zaharia & Baumeister (1981) found more employees given an RJP booklet were still employed after a 9 month follow-up period, although this difference was not significant. A significantly longer tenure among employees given an RJP booklet has also been supported in the research (Zaharia & Baumeister, 1981; Avner, Guastello & Aderman, 1982). Wanous (1973), comparing a traditional film preview, containing more positive job information, with an RJP film, found those receiving the RJP had significantly longer tenure. The success of the RJP in recruiting employees was compared to other typical job recruitment strategies giving more positively biased information (Weisner, Saks & Summers, 1991). The RJP was found to have no effect on applicant's job acceptance as long as they received no other offers. However, when given a choice between an RJP job and a Traditional Job Preview (TJP) job, students expressed a strong preference for the TJP job. From this Weisner et al. (1991) suggested the RJP be given after hiring rather than before.

Not all the research has supported the effectiveness of the RJP, for example, Reilly, Brown, Blood & Malatesta (1981) found no positive effect of the RJP on voluntary turnover rates. In general however, the reported results suggest that the RJP has positive effects on post-hire behaviours more often than not. A meta-analysis of RJP studies conducted by Premack & Wanous (1985) supports an overall modest influence of the RJP on new employees' perceptions, attitude and job behaviour. Initial levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction

were slightly increased, whilst tenure (job survival) and performance were among those criteria most strongly influenced by an RJP.

8.1.3.1. *The processes underlying the RJP*

The effect of the RJP is suggested to be through self-selection, and reduced unrealistic expectations about a job and organisation (Premack & Wanous, 1985), with lowered expectations indicating the message has been received (Colarelli, 1984). The positive effect of realistic expectations has received some support and gives weight to the reasoning of the processes behind the RJP. Those employees having a realistic job concept were more likely to survive than those whose job expectations were not as accurate (Weitz & Nuckols, 1955; Weitz, 1956).

Conducting a series of exit interviews, Zaharia & Baumeister (1978b) confirmed that a major source of dissonance arose from a misalignment of what the employee initially expected the job to be and what the actual demand characteristics were. More realistic expectations about a job and organisation have also been suggested to aid coping (Ilgen & Seely, 1974). Avner et al. (1982) found some support that those receiving the RJP had significantly greater, more realistic, pre-job expectations than the control. Greater met expectations of new employees who received the RJP compared with those who did not would indicate more realistic expectations were formed through receiving the RJP.

Met expectations are suggested to have some positive effects on post-hire attitudes and behaviours, again supporting the reasoning underlying the effectiveness of RJP. Wanous, Poland, Premack & Davis (1992) conducted a meta-analysis of the literature and found met expectations had a positive, significant but diminishing relationship with job satisfaction, organisational commitment, intent to remain, and job survival. The impact of met expectations weakens as one moves further away from job attitudes.

Work on the perceptions of stress prior to job entry suggests that it is under-estimation rather than mis-estimation that hampers the successful adjustment of organisational newcomers. Nelson & Sutton (1991) found under-estimators of job scope, work-home conflicts and time pressure reported significantly more

distress symptoms than did over-estimators. Under-estimators of career progress, job scope and supervisory style, all expressed significantly less job satisfaction than did over-estimators of those demands. Finally, those who overestimated job stressors of career progress, group pressure and job scope reported significantly more job involvement than did those who underestimated those stressors. The direction of the mis-estimation of other job aspects on post-hire outcomes may also be important.

There are a number of suggested moderators of the RJP effectiveness. These include task complexity, with the RJP being less effective at reducing turnover rates for less complex jobs (McEvoy & Cascio, 1985). Leader-member exchange and team member exchange (Major, Kozlowski, Chao & Gardiner, 1992), with the negative effects of unrealistic initial expectations on newcomers' organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions being offset by a favourable leader-member exchange relationship, and to a lesser extent, by a favourable team member exchange relationship. Education and pre-employment commitment are also suggested to moderate the effectiveness of RJPs (Meglino, DeNisi, Youngblood & Williams, 1988).

Work on self-selection has been less proliferate than that on increased realism as a process for explaining the effectiveness of the RJP. Indeed, Colarelli (1984) found no support for self-selection and commitment to choice as mediating processes in the RJP effectiveness. Premack & Wanous (1985), on the other hand, found RJP's tend to increase the number of candidates who drop out from further consideration for a job. More work on this aspect of the process of the RJP is necessary.

A number of points, questioning the underlying processes of the RJP were proposed by Reilly et al. (1982). They include; 1) RJPs are unlikely to have any beneficial effect on self-selection of job candidates, 2) there is no evidence that RJPs affect met expectations, 3) where organisational roles are simple and repetitive, RJPs are unlikely to be very effective, and 4) RJPs may lead to more positive attitudes either by communicating a favourable organisational "image" or through a social information processing of realistic information and choice behaviour. Although Reilly et al. (1982) concluded that as a pre-hire strategy, the

RJP appears to have beneficial effects on post-hire employee behaviours and attitudes.

Although work on the effect of RJP on met expectations has already been discussed and would contradict the suggestion of Reilly et al. (1982), there is a need for more analysis of the effect, if any, of the RJP on self-selection. The moderating effect of job complexity on the effectiveness of the RJP and the interpretation of realistic information in different contexts are areas which would profit understanding of the RJP by further investigation.

8.1.3.2. *RJPs and their congruency with employment relationship theories*

Image theory and the person-organisation fit hypothesis suggest that job choice would be affected by the match between the individuals' personal goals and values and those of the organisation. Beach & Strom (1989) supported the applicability of the image theory in job choice. Decisions to reject particular alternatives tended to occur when there were a large number of violations between the alternative attributes and those specified by the trajectory image (individual goals). Bretz, Ash & Dreher (1989) found weak support for the hypotheses that congruence between internal need states and external environments drive the individual's choice process although the hypothesis that those people attracted to particular organisations are more homogeneous in needs than others within the general labour pool was not supported. Judge & Bretz (1992) similarly found support for the hypothesis that job choice results from a perceived match between individuals' preferences and organisational attributes. Work values impacted individual's job choices whenever there was corresponding information about the value system of organisational alternatives. Higher levels of fit after hire tended to yield greater job satisfaction and an intention to remain in the organisation for a longer period of time.

The RJP, as a strategy for organisational orientation, is consistent with the image theory, career system theory and person-organisational fit theory. The career system theory would suggest use of the RJP, with the organisation tailoring the RJP to appeal to individuals that will contribute to further the organisation's

business strategy. Image theory suggests that the individual compares alternatives with respect to personal values, goals and how to attain those goals. When applying for a position within an organisation, the individual with a realistic idea of the demands of the job and the organisation will have well defined images with which to compare alternatives. Similarly, the person-organisation fit theory, espousing a match between individual values and needs and the organisation's values and goals, would suggest that the RJP would assist the individual in making the choice about working in a particular organisation, whilst allowing the organisation to educate the applicant about its values, goals and demands.

The RJP should increase the accuracy with which job applicants assess the degree of match between needs and the rewards provided by the job in question. A better match should be achieved between the needs of those who accept the job and the rewards of the job once the individual has received the RJP. The nature of the relationships in the matching model (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990) would be such that the degree of match between the applicant and the position available and comparison of present job to others, influences the level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment in turn, influence actions taken to secure another job and this affects voluntary turnover (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990). Vandenberg & Scarpello (1990) found the only non-significant path between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth (1978) demonstrated that job satisfaction is more strongly related to job search intentions than to turnover intentions. Thus, the RJP orientation strategy would be associated with positive post-hire outcomes, consistent with the Matching Model.

8.1.3.3. *Other recruitment strategies*

It is important to address whether the RJP is complementary or not to orientation procedures introduced when the individual begins employment with the organisation. Newcomer orientation programs (Wanous 1993) are focused on helping new employees cope with the organisational entry transition. They are designed to increase job survival and job performance and are finite in nature, occurring during the first day/week of employment. Wanous (1993) states that

newcomer orientation programs and the RJP are incompatible due to the fact that for newcomer orientation, the process is to help new recruits cope with entry stress, and the aim of the RJP is to encourage people to withdraw from the entry process. Presentation of negative information in the RJP may encourage self-selection, but it does not increase coping (Premack & Wanous, 1985). However, it is not recommended that the RJP present only negative information about the job and the aim of the RJP is not purely to encourage withdrawal from the selection process. There is little consistent evidence that the RJP achieves this aim, in fact the RJP appears to work by increasing the accuracy of recruits' expectations about a job (Taylor & Giannantonio, 1993).

The RJP may affect job satisfaction, organisational commitment and occupational stress. Therefore the incompatibility between the RJP and the newcomer orientation program suggested by Wanous (1993) is not upheld by reviewing research on the processes and outcomes of the RJP.

Job enrichment and job redesign programs were found to be twice as effective compared to RJP's in increasing the tenure of employees (McEvoy & Cascio, 1985). They suggested that Job enrichment programs should therefore be implemented in rather than RJP's. However, the populations upon which the RJP and job enrichment/redesign programs are inherently different. Those taking part in job enrichment/redesign programs are already employed by the organisation and therefore have investments within the organisation. Tenure in the organisation will reduce the difference between organisational goals and values and individual goals and values, those who's values differ from the organisation's will have left. It would be expected that tenure would moderate the effectiveness of the job enrichment/job redesign programs. The effects of the RJP on applicants and their behaviour if employed by the organisation are not comparable to the effects of the job enrichment/redesign programs that conducted on established employees. It would be more beneficial for the organisation to view the two procedures as complementary in reducing turnover rates.

8.1.4. What is a Realistic Job Preview?

The sort of information that should be contained in the RJP has been addressed by Meglino et al. (1988). They compared RJP's constructed to reduce overly optimistic expectations, the *reduction RJP*, and those intended to enhance overly pessimistic expectations, the *enhancement RJP*. The *reduction RJP* presented a number of problems and difficulties that the newcomer would not normally have anticipated about their new role, and also provided techniques for coping with these unexpected problems. The *enhancement* preview provided information to dispel commonly held negative impressions of the new role. Subjects in this study were either exposed to the reduction RJP, the enhancement RJP, both RJP's or no RJP. The group exposed to both previews had the least turnover due to receiving the most 'realistic' account of what the job entailed. Those receiving the enhancement RJP had the next least turnover, followed by those with no RJP. Those with the reduction RJP had the highest turnover which was contrary to predictions, as although they would be more apprehensive about starting the job, they would have more job satisfaction once working on the job. A model of RJP's presented by Meglino & DeNisi (1987) states that the beneficial effects of a reduction preview will be diminished or eliminated when the amount of unexpected negative information reaches a level that prompts a substantial number of individuals to refuse employment or to leave the organisation. Variables such as commitment moderate this relationship. For highly committed individuals the RJP will have beneficial effects even with enhanced negative material. There was some evidence that education level and pre-employment commitment moderated the effect of the RJP, with the RJP being more effective those for with a higher education level and greater pre-employment commitment. Those subjects shown both previews in the study had greater organisational commitment, job satisfaction and less role ambiguity than those in the other groups, these effects increased over time.

The study by Meglino et al. (1988) suggests that an effective RJP is one formulated to provide a complete and realistic picture of both the positive and negative aspects of the job. Presenting too honest a picture can have negative consequences. Rynes (1993) supported these findings, suggesting that applicants

want information that is detailed, specific and relevant, distinguishes one vacancy from another and includes some negative as well as positive information.

The RJP program is usually implemented as a reactive strategy, this has advantages such as it being easier to gain management approval and commitment to such a program, although commitment may only last until the crisis is over. The internal visibility of the program will be high with the utility of the RJP likely to be higher with higher turnover rates. However, delays in implementation of the RJP after turnover becomes a problem can reduce the utility of the RJP (Wanous, 1989).

Variance in the diagnostic method chosen, whether structured or unstructured does not appear or be related to RJP effectiveness. The structured method, using questionnaires, involves a complete organisational analysis, including information about organisational climate and culture. The unstructured approach involves interviews with selected members of staff and is more time and cost effective (Wanous, 1989). A combination of both methods of organisational diagnosis would be recommended if the resources are available.

The RJP is intended to reduce turnover and increase job survival, therefore, to be effective it needs to focus on those aspects of the job which cause turnover to be effective. Judgemental material is necessary for effectiveness and it may aid naive candidates, who would not be able to interpret the meaning of purely descriptive material. Descriptive material, on the other hand, is more accurate and unbiased by individual differences in what people find satisfying and is more likely to be acceptable to management. The best RJP would contain a combination of both descriptive and judgemental material.

What to include in the RJP depends on whether people have correct expectations about a particular factor and whether the factor is important enough to affect the job candidates decision to quit or stay. An intensive, focused and powerful RJP is recommended (Wanous, 1989). An extensive RJP will give a lot of information, but candidates may not be able to remember it. The degrees of negativity should reflect that found in the diagnosis of the organisation (Wanous, 1989). A medium degree of negative material also encourages a modest degree of self-selection.

Different mediums of presentation include in-person interviews, written RJP's (booklets, leaflets) and audio-visual presentations. The booklet form is lower in cost, easier to change and can be repeatedly referred to, one drawback is that the material may not be read. Audio-visual presentation may however, be easier to understand and strong feelings can be more easily communicated in the A-V format. Colarelli (1984) found presentation of the RJP booklet by employees in a face to face interview with applicants was much more effective at reducing turnover than presentation of the booklet alone. There were no differences between the groups with respect to job satisfaction and intention to quit although the employee RJP did reduce stress, with the personal relevance of the information having the strongest effect on reducing stress.

If RJP's do affect self-selection, the earlier the RJP the greater the reduction of costs at later stages in the selection process. An early presentation is suggested (Wanous, 1989), although this may be affected by management's worries about the proliferation of a negative image of the organisation.

It appears that it is not only the job attributes that are important to the applicant but also aspects of the recruitment practice, individual differences and the perceptions of the interviewer. Powell (1991) found recruiting practices affected applicants' reactions both indirectly, by changing their perceptions of job attributes, and directly, although the effects mediated through job attributes were much stronger. Research indicates applicants prefer warm and enthusiastic recruiters who are able to discuss how applicant desires and qualifications relate to job requirements and career opportunities (Rynes & Barber, 1990). Applicants like to have contact with potential peers and co-workers, and with current employees who have similar educational or work histories (Rynes, 1993). Thornton (1993) reviewing three studies on subjects perceptions of the interviewer noted that when the interviewer demonstrated behaviours reflecting warmth and thoughtfulness, the subjects saw the interviewer more favourably, had more positive perceptions of the job and organisations and expected better treatment from supervisors and co-workers although intentions to accept a job offer were usually not affected.

Individual differences that may play a role in newcomer expectations and adjustment to work include personality characteristics such as self-esteem and

negative affect, previous adjustment experiences and coping repertoire among others (Nelson & Sutton, 1991).

Binning, Goldstein, Garcia & Scattergia (1988) studying the effects of pre-interview impressions on questioning strategies in the employment interview, found interviewers asked more negative questions when applicants were of low suitability and more positive questions when applicants were highly suitable and were of the same sex. Recruiters also asked more positive questions of low suitability applicants of the opposite sex. Thus, interviewers form pre-interview impressions of applicants based on their credentials, and vary their questioning strategies as a function of these impressions.

Section Two: The job of the direct-care worker

8.2. Introduction

Job analysis is undertaken to fulfil a number of functions, primarily the content of the job. This can be to formulate formal job descriptions, design of training packages etc. The present study was undertaken primarily, to assess what the job of the direct-care worker was in different settings within the present organisation. The purpose of the study was to formulate an informal job description with the intention of implementing a pre-employment orientation package to the job and organisation. A second function of the study is to compare the activities of direct-care staff in two settings, the first, a residential nursing home site and the second in community based sites.

Much of the work studying what direct-care staff do has been from the perspective of the resulting engagement of service-users, researching the ways in which direct-care staff behaviour maximises service-user engagement. However, more recently, work has been carried out on observations of direct-care staff. The following review looks at the differences in direct-care staff activities between residential nursing home sites and community sites, and the effect of staff:service-user ratios on staff activity.

8.2.1. *Comparing staff activity between community based and nursing home/institutional sites*

The size of the residences offering support to people with learning difficulties has decreased in two main steps over the last 15 years. Initially, large institutions were responsible for the care, in a custodial manner, on people with learning difficulties. This large units initially decreased to purpose built units offering around 20-24 places on a residential site. The second phase of downsizing came with the closure of the residential sites with support moving to residential care within 'ordinary' houses offering between 2 and 8 places per unit (Felce, 1989). The move to the small community-based housing units was undertaken in the belief that the problems of low staff:service-user interaction and the resultant stagnation of service-user development was a feature of the institution, its structure

and regimes. What effect has the alteration in environment had on the behaviour of direct-care staff?

Hile & Walbran (1991) observed staff-resident interactions in terms of what staff actually do and what residents receive. Their observations were based in a large residential facility. They found that Direct-care workers were interacting with residents 52.1% of the time although 32.5% of this was supervisory activity. Staff spent 20% of their time in non-job related activity. This is consistent with Cullen et al. (1983) and Reuter et al. (1980) who found that desirable staff-resident interactions take place less than 25% of the time. Felce et al. (1980) compared the amount of time staff spent in contact with clients in 5 small locally based hospital units caring for people with learning difficulties and in a traditional residential institution. They found that although junior staff spent more time contacting the clients in the locally based hospital unit, the senior staff spent twice as much time contacting clients in the large institution than those in the locally based hospital units.

In a review of studies looking at the effects of de-institutionalisation (Emerson & Hatton, 1993), the mean engagement levels were higher in community-based staffed houses (47.7%), than either community-based hostels and hospital-based units (24.7%) or NHS mental handicap hospitals (13.7%). However, the range of engagement for community-based staffed houses was from 8-74%, indicating the amount of variation within different the staffed houses. Similarly, 29% of the studies comparing hospitals and community-based staffed houses reported no significant difference between levels of engagement.

Research in institutional settings has shown low rates of staff:service-user interaction and deficiencies in the character of staff:service-user interactions from the point of view of promoting resident engagement in functional, everyday activities which would enable further independence of service-users (Felce, de Kock & Repp, 1986; Landesman-Dwyer, Sackett & Kleinman, 1980; Moores & Grant, 1986). The research reviewed also indicates that a change in the environment does not automatically produce an improvement in staff:service-user interactions or service-user development. Moderating variables on the staff:service-user interactions include staff:service-user ratio, service-user

characteristics and training, performance feedback (Repp et al., 1987), working methods and staff orientation (Felcc, 1988; 1989).

8.2.1.1. *Staff:service-user ratios*

The work on staff:service-user ratios has concentrated on the effect of increased staffing numbers of service-user interaction. The findings suggest that an increase in staff:service-user ratio by increasing the number of staff does not result in a proportional increase in interaction between staff and service-users.

The more staff there were working in a particular location, the more likely they were to engage in leisure activities (Hile & Walbran, 1991), supporting Harris et al. (1974). Two explanations are put forward for this: there is more opportunity for engagement in non-work related interaction when more staff are around, and there is a diffusion of responsibility among the staff present. Increasing the staff:service-user ratio by decreasing the number of service-users in the group did increase positive staff behaviour (Harris, Veit, Allen & Chinsky, 1974). This was further supported by Felce et al. (1991) and Orlowska, McGill & Mansell (1991).

8.2.1.2. *Competence of the service-user*

Service-users do not all receive the same amount of staff-initiated interactions, a number of studies have identified characteristics of the service-users that affect staff:service-user interactions. Service-users with lower levels of maladaptive behaviour, higher levels of assessed independence and higher levels of adaptive behaviour received more positive interactions from staff (Grant & Moores, 1977); Service-users with more severe learning difficulties receive less informative speech (Pratt, Bumstead & Raynes, 1976). Reuter, Archer, Dunn & White (1980) similarly found that less competent residents are less likely than competent residents to be recipients of stimulating conversation; older and longer institutionalised service-users receive fewer verbal interactions (Paton & Stirling, 1974); Service-users perceived as attractive by staff received more attention (Dailey et al., 1974); and depressed, institutionalised, retarded adults are more

likely to receive directive than conversational speech that might be more educative or therapeutic (Schloss, 1982).

8.2.1.3. *Training*

Staff training can affect attitudes towards the service-users, job satisfaction, and staff - service-user interactions (Schinke & Wong, 1977). Training conducted by the supervisors is likely to have longer term effects, as the supervisors are in more close and frequent contact with the staff than the researchers. Practical training produces better specific teaching skills than academic training, although a balance between the two may be required.

8.2.1.4. *Performance feedback*

Different methods of feedback are assessed by Repp, Felce & De Kock (1987). They compared monetary feedback, self-recording, verbal feedback and publicly posted data. Monetary feedback even small amounts, did increase positive interactions and improve performance. Burgio, Whitman & Reid (1983) found self-monitoring, standard setting, self evaluation through graphing oneself and self-reinforcement through rating one's own performance resulted in increased staff:service-users interaction and reduced staff:staff interaction. With verbal feedback from supervisors, it was positive feedback, i.e. approval for correct behaviours from staff that maintained an increase in stimulation and social interactions. Public posting works best when data are on the specific response desired and perhaps when staff are named.

8.2.2. *The present study*

The present study is concerned with what the direct-care staff actually do in their jobs, and how this is affected by staff:service-user ratio and level of competence of service-users. There were two stages to the study, an initial observation period in which the main categories of behaviour were observed and identified, and secondly, a period when two observers recorded one member of staff's activity.

It was predicted that the greater the staff:service-user ratio (1 staff to a fewer number of service-users), the greater the number of interactions the staff would have with service-users. The more competent the service-users, the more staff:service-user interactions would be observed. There would be differences between the residential nursing home sites as a consequence of the differences in service-users.

Hypothesis 1: An increased staff:service-user ratio will result in greater staff:service-user interactions.

Hypothesis 2: The more severe the level of learning difficulties, the fewer staff-resident interactions will occur.

8.3. Method

8.3.2. Setting

There were three units where direct-care staff behaviour was observed, two sites were community based, one was based on a residential nursing home site. The three units were thought to be representative of the various units in the organisation.

Unit A Staffed house, community-based unit. Staff:service-user ratio 1:3. Service-users were classed as having moderate learning difficulties and had all been resident in the unit for over a year. All the service-users were ambulant and continent. The hours of staffing were from 7.00 am to 10.00 am and 4.00pm to 11.00 pm with full weekend staffing.

Unit B Staffed house, community-based unit. Staff:service-user ratio 1:3. The service-users were classed as having moderate learning difficulties, and had been resident in the unit for over a year. The service-users living in this unit were less likely to engage in conversation and less able to perform tasks un-supervised than those in unit A. All service-users were ambulant and continent. The hours of staffing were from 7.00 am to 10.00 am and 4.00pm to 11.00 pm with full weekend staffing.

Unit C Staffed house, nursing home based unit. Staff:service-user ratio 2:8. Service-users were classed as having moderate to severe learning difficulties, one was not ambulant, two were incontinent. Hours of staffing were from 8.00am to 2.00pm and from 4.00pm to 11.00pm with full weekend cover.

8.3.2. Participants

There were two senior support workers (unit a and unit c) and one support worker (unit b). There were 2 female and 1 male employee, organisational tenure ranged from 2.5 years to 6.6 years, age ranged from 26.5 years to 45 years.

8.3.3. Design

30 second momentary observations were made during 15 minutes in half hour periods. This compares with the 1 minute observations made in previous

work (Mansell, Jenkins, Felce & de Kock, 1984). The number of observation periods in each locations were: Unit A 16 observation periods, unit B 20 observation periods and unit C 20 observation periods. The observation periods were randomly assigned within each shift.

8.3.4. *Materials and apparatus*

The apparatus used to gather data was a Psion organiser which records previously programmed behaviours and allows space for notes simultaneously with recording behaviours.

8.3.5. *Procedure*

A pilot study was carried out with a researcher shadowing each of the three workers for a period of at least a week to obtain a list of the job activities in each of the three locations. The list of job activities is shown in Appendix 8.1. The job activities were then coded to allow for easier recording of activities. From these pilot observations a program was constructed for use with the Psion organiser.

The activities of the employees observed were divided into six categories, these are detailed below.

Administrative duties These included writing daily reports, sorting out the house budget and arranging staff duties.

Non-interactive activities These were activities that were mainly concerned with housework i.e cooking, cleaning, laundry, washing-up etc.

Un-coded activity This was activities such as looking out of the window, walking around, when there was no directive activity.

Personal care These activities were toileting service-users, washing, dressing and administration of medicines.

Socialising This group of activities includes watching T.V., eating together, serving meals, drinking tea/coffee together, counselling and talking.

Teaching This includes prompting service-users, physically teaching service users to perform tasks and verbal reprimands.

Two observers independently observed the same time periods for the three members of staff. The observers noted the behaviour that was occurring and with

whom the staff member was interacting (staff or client). Similar categories were used by Lowe, Beyer, Kilsby & Felce (1992), who categorised staff activity in terms of direct resident contact, handling resident related materials, staff to staff interaction and 'other'.

8.4: Results

The inter-rater reliability between the two independent observers suggests that the level agreement was reasonable. The mean correlation between raters was $r=.62$, with a range of $r=.51$ to $r=.65$.

8.4.1. Staff:service-user engagement

In unit A the time spent interacting was 51%, in unit B 38.3% and in unit C 41%. There was significantly more interaction overall between the member of staff and clients in unit A than in either unit B or in unit C, $X^2=6.78$ and 11.8 respectively, $X^2_{crit}=3.84$ ($df=1$, $\alpha=0.05$).

8.4.2. Activities which constitute the job of support worker

The average time spent on each of the 6 areas of the job was calculated across the three units. The results are given in Table 8.1 below.

Table 8.1: The average % of observations spent on each of the different work areas.

Area of work	Time spent in activity (%)
Administrative	7.2
Non-interactive	13.2
Non-directive	5.2
Personal care	5.0
Socialising	58.7
Teaching	10.7

There were differences in the activities of the workers in the three locations. The results of the chi-square calculations are given in Table 8.2 below. There was a significant difference in the amount of administration, i.e completing reports between the two community units with more administration in unit A.

However, the difference between the two community units and the residential unit was even greater. Significantly more time was spent doing non-interactive tasks such as housework in units B and C than in unit A. There was no difference between units A and C or A and B in the amount of non-directive behaviour by the staff members, there was however a significantly more non-directive activity in unit B than in unit C. There was significantly less time spent looking after the personal needs of the clients in unit A compared to units B and C and significantly less personal care activity in unit B than in unit C. There was no difference between the units in the amount of socialising behaviour of the person under observation. However, the data indicate that there is a difference between the units as to whom the social activity is directed at. There was significantly more teaching in unit A than in either units B or C and significantly more in B than in C.

Table 8.2: The results of the Chi-square analysis

Activity	Location		
	Unit A compared to Unit B	Unit B compared to Unit C	Unit A compared to Unit C
Administrative	6.7*	53**	83.2**
Non-interactive	10.6**	3.46	25.4**
Non-directive	0.54	4.86*	2.18
Personal care	5*	46.8**	68**
Socialising	0.24	0.44	1.32
Teaching	7.4*	11.6**	35.8**

$X^2_{crit} = 3.84$ (df=1) alpha=0.05 * = significant at 0.05
 $X^2_{crit} = 7.88$ alpha=0.005 ** = significant at 0.005

8.4.3. Differences in levels of social engagement between the Units

Chi-square calculations were used to assess the difference in the amount of socialising activity the clients were engaged in as there were differences between the units which were not highlighted by the previous analysis. In unit A the clients were engaged in significantly more social activity, mainly talking, with the member of staff under observation than other trainees/members of staff who were

present $X^2=11.56$ ($df=1$, $p<0.005$). In unit B the social engagement between the observed staff member and service-users and the social engagement between members of staff, $X^2=1.18$ ($df=1$, $p<0.005$). In unit C, the observed member of staff engaged in significantly more socialising activity with other members of staff present than with the service-users, $\chi^2=26.8$ ($df=1$, $p<0.005$).

Significant differences between the units in the amount of social engagement of service-users with the staff member under observation were found. Service-users in unit A were engaged in significantly more social behaviour than those in Unit B ($X^2=5.83$, $p<.05$) and those in Unit C ($X^2=22.5$, $p<.005$). Service-users in Unit B were engaged in significantly more social engagement than those in Unit C ($X^2=5.55$, $p<.05$).

8.5: *Discussion*

8.5.1. *Support for previous work*

The results of the observational study support previous research, in that there were different levels of interactions between the three units studied. Differences between the units in the levels of staff:service-user contact are due to service-user differences as well as differences in staffing levels in each of the units. There was some support for both Hypotheses 1 and 2. During one shift in unit A there were three members of staff present including the trainee, but the level of staff:client interaction remained significantly higher. It was found that more able clients received more socialisation, this is consistent with Reuter et al. (1980) and Hile et al. (1991). As the ability of the clients increased the level of personal care decreased, this is consistent with Hile et al (1991). The results suggest that as the service-user competence decreases, the level of social engagement decreases, as does the level of teaching behaviour. The level of care for personal requirement of service-users increased as competence of the service-users decreased.

In the present study the amount of time the staff spent interacting with clients was higher than that reported by Hile et al (1991), Reuter (1980) and Cullen et al. (1983). There needs to be some standardisation of categories for this to be directly comparable, but it would appear that in the present study there was a higher level of desirable interactions. This may have been due to the intimate nature of the living units, rather than the larger units that had been previously studied.

There was more administrative work in the community units, there was more written communication between work-places/training-centres and the community based units than between the residential site and its on-site training centre. The level of house work differed between the three units with the staff member in unit A doing the least. In unit A the clients took part in the housework as an opportunity for learning more-so than in unit B. In unit C the housework was not seen as an opportunity for learning. Staff in the community units spent

more of their time teaching in the community houses than on the residential site. The more able the clients the more they were engaged in teaching skills.

A senior support worker on the residential site spent more time doing non-interactive tasks, socialising with other staff and caring for the personal needs of the clients, whilst in the community the senior support-worker and the support-worker spent more time teaching, socialising with the clients, and writing reports.

There were significant differences between the Senior support-workers activities and the support-workers activities but different units were studied, and the clients were different in the different units. The Senior support-worker however, spent more time writing reports, interacting with the clients and teaching clients, whereas the support-worker spent more time caring for the personal needs of the clients. From the observation study it was clear that the location and the nature of the clients were important in determining what the job consisted of.

8.5.2. Criticisms and future directions

The difference in emphasis in the present study from previous studies assessing staff:service-user interactions has resulted in different results from the actual observations. This is because the activities of the staff rather than the meaning of the activities from the point of view of the service-users has been assessed. A more meaningful and thorough analysis would be achieved were the present categories to be maintained, but also a further delineation of the nature of the interactions that are occurring.

The accepted knowledge in organisations that define working methods, processes and staff training can undoubtedly, affect what the staff do in their jobs. Thus, the formal culture of the organisation and the training and maintaining of staff are relevant as potential influences on staff activity. These formal aspects of the organisation set expectations and constraints about what staff actually do. However, individual staff also bring their own values, motivations, abilities and interests to the workplace, and are influenced by work-related factors outside the formal culture and training of the organisation. Direct-care staff are also in contact with opinions and values of their friends, service-users' relatives and the public. The effects of both the formal workplace culture and training of staff, individual

differences in beliefs and values and the influence of those encountered at work outside the organisation needs to be acknowledged when considering the job if the direct-care worker and how the individual responds to the responsibilities and requirements of the job.

8.5.3. *The utility of the present study*

It was felt that it is important for people to know what the job is about before they begin, a Realistic Job Preview leaflet has been formulated from the present study. This will be implemented as part of an intervention study.

8.5.4. *Summary*

The study gives some insight into what the job of the direct-care worker is, and the effects that certain variables may have on the nature of the direct-care workers' job. The present study also supports previous work looking at staff:service-user interaction in both hospital based and community-based units. There are however, a number improvements to be made to the design and measures used in the present study, which would allow a more thorough investigation of the various influences on the job of the direct-care worker and what the nature of staff-staff and staff-service-user interactions actually are.

Chapter Nine: Implementation and Evaluation of a Realistic Job Preview

9.1: Introduction

The present study was based in an organisation that supported people with learning difficulties in community houses and on a residential site. A Realistic Job Preview was constructed, based on semi-participant observations and interviews with direct-care employees of the organisation. The RJP was presented in a leaflet form to prospective applicants for the position of support-worker with the organisation. A number of hypotheses with regard to the effects of the RJP can be proposed from the literature above.

There has been equivocal support for the effect of the RJP on the self-selection of candidates. A logical presumption would be that self-selection would be expected among those receiving the RJP.

Hypothesis 1 There will be greater self-selection among those applicants receiving the RJP leaflet compared to those not receiving the RJP leaflet.

The effect of the RJP on tenure and turnover has been supported in a number of studies such that tenure is increased and voluntary turnover is reduced.

Hypothesis 2 Tenure would be increased for those subjects that received the RJP prior to employment with the organisation.

Hypothesis 3 Intentions to quit and voluntary turnover would be reduced among those who received the RJP

The RJP has been shown to have positive effects on organisational attitudes. Meglino et al. (1988) found subjects shown a reduction and an enhancement preview had greater organisational commitment and job satisfaction than subjects in other groups, these effects increased over time. Premack & Wanous (1985) found a slight increase in job satisfaction and organisational commitment among subjects who received an RJP.

Hypothesis 4 Job satisfaction and organisational commitment would be increased among those who received the RJP

The RJP would be expected to reduce stress and enhance coping. Colarelli (1984) found an RJP delivered by a present organisational employee in the form of a face to face interview reduced stress, the personal relevance of the information

had the strongest effect on reducing stress. Correct estimation or over-estimation of stressors prior to entry would reduce perceived stress and increase job satisfaction, aiding successful adjustment of newcomers (Nelson & Sutton, 1991).

Hypothesis 5 Occupational stress would be reduced whilst the use of functional coping strategies would be increased among those who received the RJP.

The RJP is expected to reduce unrealistic expectations prior to employment (Premack & Wanous, 1985; Avner et al., 1982). A closer match between pre-and post-hire ratings would be expected.

Hypothesis 6 There would be a closer match between pre-hire expectations and assessment of post-hire reality post-hire among those who received the RJP.

There was some evidence that education level moderated the effect of the RJP, with the RJP being more effective those for with a higher education level (Meglino et al., 1988).

Hypothesis 7 The effectiveness of the RJP will be increased for those with a higher education level.

9.2: Method

9.2.1. Participants

The participants were those who applied for a position as a support worker with the organisation during the course of the study, October 1992 to January 1994 and those present at each of the subsequent stages of employment. There were four stages in the study: *stage 1* the application stage; *stage 2* the interview stage; *stage 3* successful candidates; *stage 4* assessment of met expectations, job attitudes and intention to leave three months after commencing employment. Subjects at each stage of the employment process are described below.

9.2.1.1. Applicants for the position of support worker There were 336 applicants for the position of support worker during the time of the study, 169 did not receive an RJP whilst 167 received the RJP leaflet in their application packs. 53% of the applicants were female, 42.6% were single, 59.5% had no dependents, 95.5% described themselves as white, 75.9% were between the ages of 18 and 45 and 59.5% of applicants described themselves as unemployed when completing the application form.

9.2.1.2. Interviewees There were 225 applicants invited for interview between October 1992 and January 1994, and 125 applicants invited for interview between October 1992 and October 1993, during which time the expectations questionnaire was administered. Of the 225 applicants invited for interview 59.5% were female, 49.1% were single, 62.9% had no dependents, 99.5% described themselves as white, 96.8% were between the ages of 18 and 45, 56.4% described themselves as unemployed.

Table 9.1: Numbers of applicants in RJP and non-RJP group throughout stages of selection - October 1992 to January 1994.

Group	Invited for interview	Did not attend	Not offered a job	Offered a job	Declined offer	Employed
RJP	94	7	45	42	7	35
NO RJP	131	16	64	51	12	39
Total	225	23	109	93	19	74

Table 9.1 above shows the numbers at each stage of the selection process for the organisation in both the RJP group and the non-RJP group. 64% of applicants for the position of support worker were invited for interview. 32.4% of those invited for interview were eventually employed with the organisation.

Of the 125 invited for interview between October 1992 and October 1993, 64.3% were female, 39.3% were single, 46.4% had no dependents and 50% were unemployed when joining the organisation. The numbers at each stage of the selection process for this period are shown below in Table 9.2. 49.6% of those invited for interview during this period were offered a position with the organisation, 42.4% of those invited for interview actually took up a position. The response rate for the expectations questionnaire was 36.8%.

Table 9.2: *Number of applicants in RJP and non-RJP group throughout the stages of selection - October 1992 to October 1993.*

	Group	Invited for interview	Did not attend	Not offered a job	Offered a job	Declined offer	Employed
	RJP	50	4	18	28	3	25
	Non-RJP	75	14	27	34	6	28
	Total	125	18	45	62	9	53
Completed questionnaire	RJP	16	0	7	9	2	7
	Non-RJP	30	1	7	22	1	21
	Total	46	1	14	31	3	28

9.2.1.3. Employees completing the three month follow-up questionnaire 5 of those who took up a position with the organisation left before the three month follow-up interview, leaving 23 employees who completed expectations questionnaire able to complete the follow-up questionnaire. 18 employees completed the second questionnaire, a response rate of 78%. None of those who had received the RJP leaflet left before the three month follow-up interview. In the final group, 6 subjects had received the RJP in their application pack, with 12 subjects in the non-RJP group. 12 of the follow-up group were female and 7 were single.

9.2.2. Design

The study was run over a course of 15 months from October 1992 to January 1994. The study was a between subjects design consisting of two groups: individuals who had received the Realistic Job Preview leaflet (RJP group) with the application pack, and those who had not (non-RJP group). There were four stages at which the groups were compared: *stage 1*, the application stage was a comparison of the two groups of applicants; *stage 2* the interview stage, whether the candidates' were successful or not; *stage 3* looked at the tenure of successful candidates, and expectations before starting the job; and *stage 4* at this point, met expectations, job attitudes and intention to leave were measured three months after commencing employment. The dependent variables studied were applicant attrition, job acceptance, tenure, withdrawal intentions and behaviour and turnover. Independent variables included demographic and organisational variables, individual attitudes to the organisation and coping strategies. The questionnaire addressing expectations was administered to interviewees between October 1992 to October 1993, this allowed for the three month follow-up period.

9.2.3. Materials

Applicant data From the application forms, gender, race, number of dependents, marital status, the age bracket, employed status were recorded.

Demographic variables For those who took up employment with the organisation, age, gender, education level, marital status, number of children, previous tenure, status when joining, number of jobs held over the last five year period, previous experience with people with learning difficulties, length of relevant experience, health when joining and society membership were measured.

Organisational variables these were hours worked, salary level, position, site worked at and career development.

The Realistic Job Preview (RJP) this consisted of a four sided A5 leaflet which gave an informal description of the job of support worker. As the largest location for employment of support workers was the community houses, the leaflet focused on the community support worker role, with a section for the residential support worker role. The two jobs, although similar, had some important

differences which could not be ignored. The Realistic Job Preview leaflet is shown in Appendix 9.1.

Work expectations questionnaire This was composed of a number of subscales. Expectations about *intrinsic* and *extrinsic rewards* were assessed. A scale developed from the RJP leaflet, asked the applicant about expectations which were answered in the RJP leaflet. This scale was called the *RJP scale*. Finally two scales from the Work Environment Scales developed by Moos (1986) were included. The choice of the two scales reflected two important aspects of the job which were not covered by the other scales, and were consistent with the nature of the RJP leaflet. The two scales used were *Involvement*, the extent to which employees are concerned about and committed to their jobs, and *Task Orientation*, the degree of emphasis on good planning, efficiency and getting the job done.

Cronbachs' alpha calculations were carried out on the scales used in the questionnaire to assess their reliability. The results of the calculations suggested that the RJP scale was made up of two components, as three items correlated ('There will be regular paper work on the job', 'I will often have to fill in for other staff' and 'I may have to work in different houses to my normal one') were negatively with the total score. The 7 items that were positively correlated with the overall score were concerned mainly with service-users and training, this scale was named 'service- users'. The 3 item scale was seen as consisting of administration tasks and cover for other staff, and was named 'cover'. *The Cronbachs' alpha* values for the scales in the expectations questionnaire are given in Appendix 9.2.

Work environment questionnaire The follow-up questionnaire looking at the actual work environment, used the same scales as the above expectations questionnaire with different wording to ask what the job is actually like.

Job satisfaction Satisfaction scales from the Occupational Stress Indicator (OSI) developed by Cooper, Sloan & Williams (1988) were used to assess job satisfaction. The scales were satisfaction with achievement, value and growth, satisfaction with the job itself, satisfaction with the organisational design and structure, satisfaction with organisational processes, satisfaction with personal relationships and broad view of job satisfaction.

Organisational commitment: This was measured using a questionnaire developed by Penley & Gould (1988). Subscales of the questionnaire were alienative commitment, calculative commitment and moral commitment.

Occupational stress measured using the sources of pressure scales from the OSI. Subscales include stress from factors intrinsic to the job itself, from the managerial role, from career and achievement, from organisational structure and climate, from relationships with others and from the home/work interface.

Coping strategies Again, the coping scales taken from the OSI were used, strategies included use of social support, use of task strategies, use of Logic, use of involvement, use of time and finally use of the home and work relationship.

Withdrawal intentions and behaviour There were three subscales measuring the intentions of the employees to leave the organisation. Intention to quit looked at thoughts of quitting, intention to search looked at the employees intention to search for another job, and likelihood of taking another job if it came up. Finally, actual search behaviour was assessed.

9.2.4. Procedure

The RJP leaflets were distributed randomly with the application forms. All the application forms were numbered, and were distributed from one personnel administrator. It was assumed that the application forms were distributed on a random basis to individuals making enquiries for employment with the organisation. The leaflets were therefore put in each application form which had *an odd number*.

9.2.4.1. Applicants details Certain information from each of the application forms returned remained recorded with the organisation. From this information details about the applicants was obtained.

9.2.4.2. Interviewees For each interview that was arranged throughout the period of the study, the names and addresses of the potential interviewees was obtained. A letter informing the applicant of the study and the expectations questionnaire were sent to the applicants. The completed questionnaires were then handed in at the interview.

9.2.4.3. Follow-up Whether the employee had completed the three month period between starting employment and the follow-up questionnaire was ascertained from personnel records. A letter was sent to employees still with the organisation, informing them that the researcher would be in contact within the next 7 days to arrange a convenient time and place to administer the second questionnaire.

Each employee was interviewed either at their place of work or at their home. The employee completed the questionnaire in the presence of the researcher who was able to answer any queries with regard to the study.

The organisational and demographic variables, interview attrition and job acceptance rates were obtained from personnel records.

9.3: Results

9.3.1. Analysis

The analysis conducted at the various stages of the study was dependent on the type of data collected and the number of participants. The RJP and non-RJP groups were compared at application and interview level using chi-square analysis. Participants who were employed by the organisation during the study and those who completed the initial expectations questionnaire in the RJP and non-RJP groups were compared using descriptive data, correlation analysis and t-tests. The data from the follow-up group was analyzed using descriptive statistics and t-tests.

9.3.2. Applicants

Table 9.3: Comparing RJP and non-RJP groups at the application level

Characteristic		Non-RJP group (%) (N=178)	RJP group (%) (N=175)
Gender	Male	46.7	47.3
	Female	53.3	52.7
Race	White UK	79.8	78.9
	White other	18.5	20.5
	Black UK	0	0.6
	Black other	1.8	0
Marital status	Single	48.9	57.7
	Married	41.7	30.0
	Sep'd/Div'd	7.9	11.5
	Widowed	1.4	0.8
Dependents	0	67.9	57.5
	1	11.9	16.3
	2 or more	20.2	26.2
Age (years)	Less than 18	0.6	0
	18-25	24.6	32.1
	26-35	37.7	31.5
	36-45	26.3	21.8
	46-55	9.6	11.5
	56-65	1.2	2.4
	65+	0	0.6
Status	Employed	40.7	38
	Unemployed	59.3	62

Table 9.3 indicates the composition of the RJP and Non-RJP groups of applicants for the job of support worker. It would appear that there is little

difference between the RJP and non-RJP group in age, status when applying (employed or unemployed), gender, race, number of dependents and marital status. This was confirmed by the analysis which compared the frequency counts for each variable across the RJP groups. Chi-square analysis showed no significant differences between the RJP and non-RJP group. There were significantly more employees in the non-RJP group invited for interview than those in the RJP group ($X^2_{\text{obs}} = 16.11, p < .0001$).

9.3.3. Applicants invited for interview

Comparing the RJP and Non-RJP groups at the interview stage, there were significantly more single applicants in the RJP group than in the Non-RJP group ($X^2_{\text{obs}} = 8.857, p = .003$). No further significant differences occurred between the groups in age, number of dependents, status when applying, race and gender.

Chi-square analysis was conducted to assess whether the RJP had any effect on whether the individual attended the interview, was successful at the interview stage, and whether he/she took-up the position offered. The result of the chi-square analysis assessing drop out before the interview was not significant ($X^2_{\text{obs}} = 1.02, p = .31$). There was no significant difference between the two groups in the numbers offered a position with the organisation ($X^2_{\text{obs}} = 0.046, p = .83$). Finally, there was no significant difference between the RJP groups in the number of applicants who accepted the job offered ($X^2_{\text{obs}} = 0.41, p = .52$).

Looking at the attrition of the two groups descriptively may give some insights into the effect of the RJP. There were slightly more applicants not turning up for the interview in the non-RJP group compared to the RJP group, 12% and 7.4% respectively. More applicants in the RJP group were offered a position with the organisation at the interview stage, 48% compared with 44% in the non-RJP group. Similarly, more applicants in the RJP group accepted the position offered than those in the non-RJP group, 83% compared to 76%.

9.3.4. Employees in the RJP and non-RJP groups

Those who were employed during the 15 months of the study were compared with those who completed the expectations questionnaire. Table 9.4

below compares the RJP and non-RJP group across age, tenure in the organisation, education, length of relevant experience and salary.

Table 9.4: *Comparing means on demographic variables for those employed between October 1992 and January 1994 with those who completed expectations questionnaire*

Variable	Employed during course of study		Completed expectations questionnaire	
	RJP	Non-RJP	RJP	Non-RJP
Age (years)	33.12	32	30.14	32.5
Tenure or those who left (years)	0.22	0.25	0.12	0.28
Tenure of stayers (years)	1.12	0.89	1.25	1.05
Education	2.69	2.66	2.43	2.7
Length of relevant experience (months)	27.6	25.1	10.71	31.7
Salary (£)	4482	3525	4249	3346

A t-test analysis was carried out to assess whether there were any differences between those who completed the initial questionnaire and those who did not. The results suggested that there was a significant difference in salary ($T=2.02$, $p < .05$), with those that did not complete the questionnaire having a higher mean salary than those who completed the questionnaire.

The differences between the RJP and non-RJP group were also analyzed for the two groups of employees. Tenure was assessed by comparing tenure of those employees who had left during the course of the study in the two RJP groups, and tenure of those who stayed during the study in the two groups. For those who *did not complete* the questionnaire, there were no significant differences between the RJP and the non-RJP groups. Similarly, no significant difference in tenure were found for those *who completed* the initial questionnaire. There were no significant differences between the RJP and non-RJP group for the employees who *did not complete* the initial questionnaire on any other of the variables shown in Table 9.4. For those *who completed* the initial questionnaire, those in the RJP group had a significantly higher salary ($T=-.253$, $p < .023$). There were no significant differences between the RJP and non-RJP group in age, education level or length of relevant experience.

Table 9.5 below gives the frequency distribution of demographic and organisational variables across the RJP and non-RJP groups for those who completed the expectations questionnaire and those who did not. Chi-square

Table 9.5: Comparing those employed between October 1992 and January 1994 with those who completed the expectations questionnaire

Variable		Employed during the course of the study		Completed the expectations questionnaire	
		RJP	Non-RJP	RJP	Non-RJP
Gender	Female	18	28	3	15
	Male	14	14	4	6
Position	S.W	32	42	7	21
Site	Residential	9	10	3	5
	Community	23	32	4	16
Marital status	Single	14	17	4	7
	Sep/Div'd	0	2	0	2
	Widowed	0	0	1	0
	Married	11	19	2	10
Number of dependents	0	19	21	4	9
	1	5	7	1	3
	2 or more	8	11	1	4
Number of jobs in last five years	0	1	2	0	1
	1	10	18	4	9
	2 or more	21	22	3	11
Status when joining	Unemployed	18	22	4	10
	Caring for dependents	0	0	0	0
	Studying	1	0	0	0
	Employed	13	20	3	11
Previous experience	yes	8	17	2	8
	no	24	25	5	13
Hours worked	PT	26	40	7	21
	FT	6	2		
Intention to improve	yes	23	31	5	15
	no	9	11	2	6
Society/club member	yes	12	9	3	4
	no	20	33	4	17
Health	no problems	27	34	7	16
	some illness	5	8	0	5
Reason for leaving	Voluntary	3	8	0	3
	Involuntary	4	2	1	1
Career development	None	31	40	7	21
	Inc. hours	1	2	0	0
	Promotion	0	0	0	0

analysis was again carried out, comparing the RJP and non-RJP group for the demographic and organisational variables shown in Table 9.5 above. The chi-square analysis could not be conducted on those who completed the initial questionnaire as the frequencies were too small. Results of the analysis on those who started employment during the course of the study shows no significant differences between the RJP and the non-RJP group for those who were employed between October 1992 and January 1994.

Looking at the reasons for leaving of employees who started during the course of the study, it appears that those in the RJP group were less likely to leave voluntarily (43% of leavers), than those in the non-RJP group (80% of the leavers). Of those who completed the initial questionnaire, there were no voluntary terminations in the first three months compared to one involuntary termination, in the non-RJP group, there were 3 voluntary terminations (75%) and one involuntary termination. 14% of the starters in the RJP group left during the three month follow-up period. This compares to the 19% of those in the non-RJP group who left during the three month follow-up period. 23% of the total number employed left during the course of the study, 17.9% of those who completed the initial questionnaire left during the course of the study.

9.3.5. Correlation analysis of employees in the RJP and non-RJP groups

9.3.5.1. Screening the data

Table 9.6: Transformations performed on the linear variables

Variable	No transformation	After transformation
Tenure		
Skewedness	4.07	-1.4
Kurtosis	20.48	3.23
Age		No transformation was carried out
Skewedness	0.72	
Kurtosis	-.008	
Length of relevant experience		
Skewedness	4.03	0.37
Kurtosis	20.46	-1.29
Salary		
Skewedness	2.56	2.0
Kurtosis	12.65	6.31

The distributions of linear variables, tenure, age, relevant experience and salary were studied to assess skewedness and kurtosis. Table 9.6 above, shows the values of skewedness and kurtosis before and after transformation. A \log_{10} transformation was performed on tenure to reduce the severe positive kurtosis and positive skewedness. Age was not skewed and did not have a large kurtosis value, therefore, no transformation was carried out. Length of relevant experience had a large positive value for kurtosis and was positively skewed. A constant of 1 was added to the variable of relevant experience as there was a large frequency of employees with no previous relevant experience, a \log_{10} transformation was then carried out on this variable. Salary was slightly positively skewed and had positive kurtosis. A square root transformation reduced the kurtosis of the distribution.

9.3.5.2. *Correlation analysis*

Linear and ordinal variables were correlated to assess the relationships between demographic and organisational variables among the starters for the period October 1992 and January 1994. Separate analyses were carried out for the RJP and non-RJP groups.

Non-RJP group The correlation matrix for those in the non-RJP group is shown in Table 9.7a below. Tenure was negatively correlated with education level ($r = -.41, p < .01$). Dividing the group into those who stayed and those who left during the course of the study, leavers had a mean education level of 3.07, for stayers mean education was 2.52. This suggests that those who left did have, on average, a higher education level.

Age was positively correlated with number of dependents ($r = .45, p < .01$), negatively correlated with number of jobs held previously ($r = -.48, p < .01$), and previous experience with people with learning difficulties ($r = -.35, p < .05$).

Number of dependents was negatively correlated with education level ($r = -.39, p < .05$). Education may be less readily available to those who have dependents to support, due to financial difficulties and time. Thus, a negative correlation between education and number of dependents may be expected however, age may inflate the correlation, as there is a negative correlation between age and education level, and a positive correlation between age and

number of dependents. A partial correlation, removing the influence of age from the correlation between number of dependents and education level, resulted in a correlation of $r = -.284$, which was not significant at $p < .05$. The correlation between education level and age, although not significant at the $p < .05$ level, was reduced when the influence of number of dependents was removed. This suggests that to some extent number of dependents and age code for one another.

Education level was positively correlated with salary ($r = -.304$, $p < .05$) as was previous experience with people with learning difficulties ($r = .42$, $p < .05$). To assess whether education or previous experience accounted for a greater salary, partial correlation analysis was conducted. The correlation between education level

Table 9.7a: Non RJP group: relationships between demographic and organisational variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Tenure								
2. Age	.14							
3. Number of dependents	.19	<u>.45</u>						
4. Education level	<u>-.41</u>	-.27	<u>-.39</u>					
5. Number of jobs	.13	<u>-.48</u>	-.30	.02				
6. Length of relevant experience	.07	.13	-.11	-.03	.27			
7. Experience with people with learning difficulties	-.08	<u>-.35</u>	-.26	.13	.16	.02		
8. Salary	-.2	-.15	-.17	<u>.304</u>	-.16	-.13	<u>.42</u>	
9. Hours	.05	.01	-.004	.17	.02	-.02	.27	<u>.75</u>

If $r > .304$, $p < .05$. If $r > .4$, $p < .01$.
If $r > .744$, $p < .0001$.

and salary was reduced after the influence of previous experience with people with learning difficulties was partialled out, $r = .127$. The correlation between previous experience with people with learning difficulties and salary remained after the influence of education level was removed, $r = .413$. Thus, it appears that it is previous experience with people with learning difficulties that has a consistent relationship with salary.

Correlations between demographic and organisational variables for the RJP group, shown in Table 9.7b below, indicate some differences compared with the relationships observed between demographic and organisational variables for the non-RJP group.

RJP group Salary was negatively correlated with tenure ($r=-.41, p<.05$). Those who stayed and those who left were looked at separately, mean salary for leavers was £5183, for those who stayed, mean salary was £4061. Those who left therefore, had a higher mean salary.

Table 9.7b: *RJP group: relationships between demographic and organisational variables*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Tenure								
2. Age	.01							
3. Number of dependents	-.01	.22						
4. Education level	-.34	-.22	-.13					
5. Number of jobs	.16	<u>-.361</u>	.05	.24				
6. Length of relevant experience	.1	.13	.07	<u>.464</u>	-.16			
7. Experience with people with learning difficulties	-.11	.05	.2	<u>.4</u>	.12	.1		
8. Salary	<u>-.41</u>	.27	-.03	<u>.584</u>	-.03	<u>.37</u>	.21	
9. Hours	-.19	.12	-.03	<u>.464</u>	-.07	<u>.42</u>	.09	<u>.85</u>

If $r>.361, p<.05$. If $r>.464 p<.01$.

If $r>.584, p<.001$. If $r>.85, p<.0001$.

Number of jobs held previously was negatively correlated with age ($r=-.361, p<.05$), this is consistent with those in the non-RJP group and may reflect the instability of younger employees.

Education level was positively correlated with length of relevant experience ($r=.464, p<.01$), previous experience with people with learning difficulties ($r=.4, p<.05$), salary ($r=.584, p<.001$) and hours ($r=.464 p<.01$). Length of previous relevant experience was positively correlated with salary ($r=.37, p<.05$), and hours ($r=.42, p<.05$). Hours and salary were positively correlated ($r=.85, p<.0001$).

Partial correlation analysis was carried out to see whether education level or relevant experience accounted for the increase in salary and hours. Removing education level 1) from the relationship between salary level and relevant experience increased the correlation coefficient, $r=.825$, and 2) from the relationship between hours and relevant experience, the correlation was reduced somewhat, $r=.23$. Taking relevant experience out of 1) the relationship between salary and education, $r=.19$, and 2) from hours and education, $r=.365$. This

further analysis suggests that education level deflates the correlation between relevant experience and salary and hours, whilst relevant experience inflates the correlations between education and salary and hours. Thus, as in the non-RJP group, experience appears to have a more stable relationship with salary than education level.

9.3.6. Participants who completed the initial questionnaire (RJP and non-RJP groups)

9.3.6.1. Screening the data

The distribution of the linear variables was studied to assess skewedness and kurtosis.

Values for skewedness and kurtosis are given in Table 9.8. Tenure was positively skewed and had positive kurtosis, a square root transformation was carried out, improving the distribution. A square root transformation was also carried out on the length of relevant experience. No transformation was carried out on the variables of salary and age.

Table 9.8: Transformations performed on the linear variables

Variable	No transformation	After transformation
Tenure		
Skewedness	2.77	0.83
Kurtosis	10.19	2.5
Age		No transformation was carried out
Skewedness	0.34	
Kurtosis	-1.04	
Length of relevant experience		
Skewedness	2.53	0.98
Kurtosis	7.26	0.45
Salary		
Skewedness	-0.45	No transformation was carried out
Kurtosis	0.9	

9.3.6.2. Correlation analysis

A correlation analysis was carried out separately for those in the RJP and non-RJP groups to study relationships between demographic, organisational and expectations among those who completed the initial questionnaire. All the new starters in this group worker only part-time hours, therefore hours worked was not included in the analysis.

Non-RJP group The correlation coefficients shown in Table 9.9a below indicate that the relationships between the demographic and organisation variables are similar in the non-RJP group that did not complete the expectations questionnaire to those that did complete the initial questionnaire.

A positive correlation was found between involvement and length of relevant experience ($r=.45, p < .05$). An employee with longer relevant experience would expect greater challenge, group spirit, organisational pride, employee effort, lively work environment and interesting work.

Table 9.9a: Non-RJP group: relationships between demographic, organisational variables and expectations scales

Variables	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.
1. Tenure (years)													
2. Age (years)	.198												
3. Dependents	.25	0.5+											
4. Education	-	-.43	-.468										
	.48+												
5. Number of jobs	-.07	-.47+	-.34	.26									
6. Length of relevant experience (months)	-.12	.33	-.08	-.09	-.03								
7. Previous experience	-.16	-.46+	-.25	.14	.11	.03							
8. Salary (£)	-.72*	-.17	-.18	.3	-.11	.02	.35						
9. Involvement	-.32	.04	.24	.21	-.3	.45+	.13	.35					
10. Cover	-.2	0.1	-.05	-.07	-.16	.11	-.1	.49+	.08				
11. Service users	-.003	-.24	-.17	-.08	-.11	.10	.30	.06	.15	-.27			
12. Task orientation	.24	.33	.21	-.28	-.06	.03	-.27	-.09	.11	.25	-.22		
13. Intrinsic satisfaction	.03	-.07	-.28	-.09	-.05	.23	.29	-.004	.28	-.15	.51+	-.16	
14. Extrinsic satisfaction	.005	-.28	.09	.01	.36	-.09	-.01	-.11	.29	-.4	.48+	.12	0.1

+ significant at $p < .05$, ++ significant at $p < .01$,

* significant at $p < .001$.

A positive correlation was found between expectations of paperwork and having to cover for other staff on the job and salary ($r=.49, p < .05$). Expectations of involvement with service-users and expectations for organisation based training

were positively correlated with expectations of both intrinsic satisfaction ($r=.51$, $p<.05$) and extrinsic satisfaction ($r=.48$, $p<.05$)

RJP group The RJP group who completed the initial questionnaire, had only 8 participants. Therefore, the relationships which evolve from the correlation analysis are likely to be unstable between different groups of employees. Stable relationships between the variables in the RJP group completing the initial questionnaire which reflect those between variables for the RJP group employed by the organisation, are those between education and age, age and number of dependents and education and number of jobs held previously. The correlation matrix for this group is shown in Table 9.9b below.

Expectations of having to do regular paperwork and cover for other employees were negatively correlated with age ($r=-.74$, $p<.05$) and number of dependents ($r=-.79$, $p<.05$), and positively correlated with salary ($r=.69$).

Table 9.9b: RJP group: relationships between demographic, organisational and expectations scales

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.
1. Tenure													
2. Age	-.41												
3. dependents	-.28	.64											
4. Education	.17	<u>-.79</u>	-.13										
5. Number of jobs	-.27	-.49	-.16	.64									
6. Length of relevant experience	.44	-.15	.08	.16	-.46								
7. Previous experience	-.15	.19	.31	0.0	-.17	-.43							
8. Salary	<u>.73</u>	-.69	-.31	.55	-.07	.55	-.14						
9. Involvement	-.31	.23	.01	-.5	-.02	-.56	.19	-.4					
10. Cover	.33	<u>-.74</u>	<u>-.79</u>	.44	.06	.21	-.12	.69	-.36				
11. Service users	-.32	<u>.71</u>	.65	-.59	-.17	-.15	-.02	-.64	.57	<u>-.94</u>			
12. Task orientation	-.19	-.19	-.04	.13	.15	-.32	.49	-.28	.44	-.17	.17		
13. Intrinsic rewards	-.12	.03	.23	-.07	-.27	.64	-.43	.16	.15	-.1	.31	-.06	
14. Extrinsic rewards	-.03	.03	-.07	-.27	.11	.11	-.65	-.29	.42	-.39	.58	.19	.48

If $r = .71$ or $r > .71$ then $p < .05$. If $r = .94$ then $p < .001$

Expectations of involvement with service-users and organisation based training were positively correlated with age ($r=.71$, $p<.05$) and number of

dependents ($r=.65$), and negatively correlated with salary level ($r=-.64$).

Expectations of having to do regular paperwork and cover for other staff was significantly, negatively correlated with expectations of involvement with the service-users and organisation based training ($r=-.94$, $p < .001$).

Expectations of intrinsic rewards was positively correlated with length of previous relevant experience ($r=.64$). Extrinsic rewards were associated with previous experience with people with learning difficulties. Suggesting those with previous experience with people with learning difficulties were aware that extrinsic rewards for the job were not high.

9.3.7. Analysis of the follow-up group

There were 18 participants who completed the follow-up questionnaire, who were in the RJP group and 12 in the non-RJP group. The mean values of the demographic and organisational variables are given in Table 9.10. Significant differences between the RJP and non-RJP group were assessed using t-test analysis. The results of the t-tests are also given in Table 9.10.

Table 9.10: Mean values across demographic and organisational variables for those completing follow-up questionnaire

Variable	Non-RJP group		RJP group	
	Mean	Mean	T value	Prob
Tenure	1.07	0.63	1.8	0.08
Age	34.9	31.9	0.56	0.58
Number of dependents	1.5	0.67	1.12	0.28
Education level	2.2	2.3	-.31	0.76
Number of jobs	1.67	1.67	0.00	1.0
Length of relevant experience	39.3	6.3	1.32	0.21
Salary	2840	3920	-2.25	0.039

The only significant difference between the two groups was that the RJP group had a significantly larger salary ($T=-2.25$, $p=.039$) than the Non-RJP group. Tenure between the two groups was significant at $p < .1$. Thus, it appears that there is a trend for those in the Non-RJP group to have longer tenure.

Table 9.11a: Mean values of expectations and reality in the RJP and non-RJP groups

Variable	Non-RJP group		RJP group	
	Expectations (mean)	Reality (mean)	Expectations (mean)	Reality (mean)
Involvement	29.8	25.1	28.8	25.8
Cover	5.42	8.58	6.00	8.67
Service users	21.91	20.17	22.8	20.3
Task orientation	27.9	24.4	26.8	25.3
Intrinsic rewards	16.8	14.9	15.7	14.8
Extrinsic rewards	8.75	7.75	8.3	8.3

Table 9.11a above shows the mean expectations and actual work environment scores for involvement, cover, involvement with service-users, task orientation, extrinsic and intrinsic rewards for those in the RJP and non-RJP groups.

Table 9.11b shows the results of the t-test analysis of the difference between the two groups. T-tests were performed on the difference between the scores within each group and the significance of the difference between expectations and reality between the two groups was also assessed. The results suggest that the difference between the expectations and the reality was greater for those in the Non-RJP group as expected. Those in the non-RJP group expected

Table 9.11b: Differences between expectations and reality for the RJP groups: Results of the t-test

Variable	Non-RJP group		RJP group	
	T value	Prob	T value	Prob
Involvement	3.82	.0009	2.43	.035
Cover	-4.78	.0001	-4.34	.002
Service users	.64	.53	1.59	.14
Task orientation	2.82	.01	1.04	.32
Intrinsic rewards	2.48	.02	.69	.51
Extrinsic rewards	1.62	.12	0.00	1.00

significantly more involvement, task orientation and intrinsic rewards from the job than they actually received, and less paperwork and staff cover. For RJP group subjects there was less involvement than expected and more paperwork and staff cover than expected.

Table 9.11c below gives the results of the t-test looking at the differences between the RJP and non-RJP group in expectations and reality. There were no significant differences between the two groups.

Differences in job attitudes between the group The mean scores on job satisfaction, occupational stress, coping strategies used, organisational commitment, intention to leave and search for another job and actual search behaviour for the RJP and the Non-RJP groups are given in Table 9.12 below. T-test analysis was carried out to see whether there were any significant differences between the RJP and the non-RJP groups on any of the variables measured. There were no significant differences between the groups on any of the variables. This would indicate that the realistic job preview used in the present study does not affect attitudes towards the organisation, and search behaviour.

Table 9.11c: Differences between expectations and reality: Comparing the RJP and non-RJP groups

Variable	Expectations		Reality	
	T value	Probability	T value	Probability
Involvement	.90	.38	-.46	.65
Cover	-1.3	.21	-.1	.92
Service users	-.57	.58	-.13	.9
Task orientation	.87	.398	-.58	.57
Intrinsic rewards	.126	.23	.08	.94
Extrinsic rewards	.84	.41	-.67	.52

The effect of education To investigate the suggestion proposed by Meglino et al. (1988) that the effectiveness of the RJP would be moderated by education level, correlation analysis was carried out on the difference between pre-and post-hire ratings for those in the RJP group and those in the non-RJP group. The results of the correlation analysis are given in Table 9.13 below. The results

indicate that for those in the non-RJP group, a higher education level was associated with, less involvement than expected, more paper work and cover duties

Table 9.12: Mean values of organisational attitudes, commitment and withdrawal intent and behaviour

Variable	Non-RJP group		RJP group	
	Mean	Mean	T value	Probability
Sat 1	26.6	24.2	.73	.48
Sat 2	19.5	19.7	-.09	.93
Sat 3	21.8	19	1.17	.26
Sat 4	18.8	17.3	.75	.46
Sat 5	14.6	13.5	.82	.43
Sat 6	24	23	.37	.72
Str 1	29.4	28.8	.17	.87
Str 2	35.3	30.8	1.08	.3
Str 3	30.3	29.7	.145	.89
Str 4	28.8	24.7	1.04	.31
Str 5	34.1	34.7	-.12	.91
Str 6	35.2	29.5	1.22	.24
Cope 1	15.7	16.8	-.6	.58
Cope 2	24.8	22.5	1.4	.19
Cope 3	11	13.3	-1.47	.2
Cope 4	14.5	13.8	.35	.73
Cope 5	14.4	13.5	.75	.46
Cope 6	22.5	21.2	1.05	.31
Moral	21.3	22	-.25	.8
Calc	17.9	16.7	.38	.71
Alien	11.2	12	-.43	.67
IQ	6.2	6.0	.13	.9
IS	3.4	3.3	.07	.94
BEH	1.5	1.3	.33	.75

Sat 1 - satisfaction with achievement, value and growth; Sat 2 - satisfaction with the job itself; Sat 3 - satisfaction with the organisational design and structure; Sat 4 - satisfaction with organisational processes; Sat 5 - satisfaction with personal relationships; Sat 6 - Broad view of job satisfaction. Str 1 - stress from factors intrinsic to the job; Str 2 - stress from the managerial role; Str 3 - stress from career and achievement; Str 4 - stress from organisational structure and climate; Str 5 - stress from relationships with others; Str 6 - stress from the home/work interface. Cope 1 - use of social support; Cope 2 - use of task strategies; Cope 3 - use of logic; Cope 4 - use of involvement; Cope 5 - use of time; Cope 6 - use of the home and work relationship. Moral - moral commitment; Calc - calculative commitment; Alien - alienative commitment. IQ - intention to quit; IS - intention to search, BEH - search behaviour.

in the actual job than was expected, less good planning and efficiency than was expected and less extrinsic satisfaction than was expected. For those in the RJP group, those with a higher education level found less cover duties and paperwork on the job than was expected, greater involvement with the service-users and less efficiency and good planning. Only those correlations above $r=.3$ were commented on.

Table 9.13: Relationship between education level and the difference between expected and actual ratings of the job environment.

Variable	Education level (Non-RJP group)	Education level (RJP group)
Involvement	-.4	.112
Cover	.703	-.8
Service-users	-.16	.63
Task orientation	-.4	-.62
Intrinsic satisfaction	.06	.03
Extrinsic satisfaction	-.34	-.24

9.4: Discussion

The results of the study gave some support for the hypotheses suggested in the introduction. Each of the hypotheses and relevant results will be discussed in turn below. The discussion assesses the difficulties with the present research and possible directions for future research in this area. Finally, a chapter summary is presented.

9.4.1. Evaluation of the hypotheses

The self-selection hypothesis suggests an initial influence of the RJP before the applicant has either reached the interview stage or the initial employment period. The present study however, found no support for this hypothesis, there were no significant differences between the group receiving the RJP and the group not receiving the RJP in the number of applicants attending interview, being successful at the interview stage and accepting the job offer. As many people applied for a position from both the RJP and the non-RJP group, this would not be expected if the RJP influenced self-selection among applicants. A descriptive analysis of the data suggests there is no support for the self-selection hypothesis, in fact there appears to be some influence in the opposite direction. A greater proportion of those who had received the RJP *and* were invited for interview, attended the interview, were offered a position and took up that position with the organisation.

A consistent influence of the RJP on self-selection has not been upheld previous to the present study and the results are not totally unexpected. Studies reporting lack of evidence for self-selection include, Colarelli (1984), Wanous (1973) and Zaharia & Baumeister (1981). Evidence for self-selection was found in a meta-analysis of RJP studies by Premack & Wanous (1985). Investigation of pre-employment commitment may give some insight into these results. Colarelli (1984) however, found no difference between those in the RJP group and those not in the RJP group in commitment to choice. It is interesting to find that a greater number of individuals in the non-RJP group were invited for interview. The reasons are not clear.

To increase the clarity of the effect of the RJP on self-selection and pre-employment commitment to the organisation and the job choice a number of issues need to be addressed in future studies. The number of applicants for a position and ensuing number of applicants at each stage of the employment process need to be recorded to look at attrition throughout the selection process. Pre-employment commitment needs to be assessed, although this is not easily achieved by self-report measures. The prospective employee may not want to jeopardise the chances of a job and therefore may not be as open about other possible employment choices, or about a lack of commitment as this will not be attractive to the organisation. Collection of pre-employment self-report data by an independent researcher may lead to more honest responses.

The second hypothesis postulated was that tenure would be increased for those subjects that received the RJP prior to employment with the organisation. A significant difference between the RJP and non-RJP groups was not upheld looking separately at the tenure of those who left during the study and those who stayed. A glance at the mean tenure for those who were employed during the course of the study suggests that employees who received the RJP left more quickly on average than those in the non-RJP group. Subjects in the RJP group who were still with the organisation had a longer tenure than those in the non-RJP group. Similarly with those who completed the initial expectations questionnaire, this pattern of tenure among those who left and those who stayed was also present.

The findings suggest the RJP had an effect on tenure such that those who were going to leave left sooner, whilst those remaining stayed with the organisation for longer. This is a functional effect in that those who leave more quickly reduce the investment of organisational resources in them. Voluntary turnover may be due to the fact that the newcomer has built up a detailed picture of what to expect, if the organisation does not meet the individuals expectations initially, they may feel severely let down, and therefore leave. The majority of terminations were involuntary in the RJP group, The mechanism may be through the individual not exhibiting the correct behaviour for the position, due to having a set of expectations that the organisation does not share. One way to assess the reasons why the individuals in the RJP group leave is to implement exit

interviews, both with the departing employee and the supervisor of that employee. Taylor & Giannantonio (1993) similarly suggest research into the determinants of organisations termination decisions about individual employees.

The third hypothesis states that intentions to quit and voluntary turnover would be reduced among those who received the RJP. From the frequency of leavers in the RJP group compared to the non-RJP group, a greater proportion of the non-RJP group left in the three-month follow-up period. Similarly, a greater proportion of terminations in the non-RJP group were voluntary compared to the RJP group. There was also a smaller proportion of leavers in the group who completed the initial questionnaire, compared to the larger sample of employees. These results would suggest tentative support for the hypothesis, and interestingly that the completion of the questionnaire, i.e. participation in organisational intervention studies may enhance commitment and reduce likelihood of turnover, it may also increase the employee's perceptions of the organisational commitment to him/her as an individual. Looking at withdrawal intentions, there was no significant difference between the RJP and the non-RJP group in intention to quit, intention to search and actual search behaviour. Effects of the RJP on turnover may be greatly reduced as this is a distant rather than proximal variable to the RJP and there are a great many reasons why people leave their jobs. Interactions between effects need to be assessed (Premack & Wanous, 1985).

Investigation of the fourth hypothesis gave no support for the idea that those in the RJP group would have increased job satisfaction and organisational commitment. None of the mean satisfaction or mean commitment levels were significantly different between the two groups. The differences between the two groups in terms of mean job satisfaction and organisation commitment are very slight. The greatest source of satisfaction for the two groups was satisfaction from the job itself, similarly both groups had greater moral commitment to the compared to calculative and alienative commitment.

Some support for the fifth hypothesis concerning the level of occupational stress and use of coping strategies was found. Those in the non-RJP group tended to have slightly higher mean stress scores for stress from the managerial role, the organisational structure and climate and the home/work interface was greater on

average among those who were in the non-RJP group. There was no difference in mean stress from relationships with other people, from the job itself and career and achievement. This suggests that the RJP had a slight impact on reducing stress from the managerial role, the organisational structure and climate and the home/work interface. The greatest sources of stress for the non-RJP group were stress from the home and work relationship, stress from personal relationships, and stress from the managerial role. For the RJP group, the greatest source of stress was stress from relationships with others. With respect to coping strategies, again there were no significant differences between the two groups, both groups however, made the most use of the home and work interface and task strategies to cope.

It was expected that those in the RJP group would give more similar pre- and post-hire ratings on aspects of the job than those in the non-RJP group. Some support for the hypothesis is gained. Those in the non-RJP group expected significantly greater involvement, task orientation and intrinsic rewards from the job, and significantly less staff cover duties and paperwork than they assessed the actual job required. For those in the RJP group there were some significant differences in expectations, subjects again expected greater involvement and less staff cover duties and paperwork than was actually received. Suggestions include, that the RJP did not emphasise these negative aspects of the job sufficiently. Partial support is gained for the hypothesis concerning reduction of unrealistic expectations. There were no significant differences between those in the RJP group and those in the non-RJP group and their level of expectations and assessment of the actual job when the follow-up was administered. Not all the unrealistic expectations concerning the job were removed by the RJP, therefore it would seem beneficial to assess what impact on turnover those facets not addressed by the RJP actually had, and whether information on these aspects can be incorporated into the RJP.

The seventh hypothesis suggesting a moderating effect of education level, was supported to some extent, for those in the non-RJP group, there are only small correlations between education and each of the scales measured in the initial expectations questionnaire. However, for those in the RJP group, subjects with a

higher education expect less involvement ($r=-.5$), less cover duties and paperwork ($r=-.44$) and less involvement with the service-users ($r=-.59$). A greater education level does not appear increase the effectiveness of the RJP. There was no correlation between education and tenure for the RJP group. For those in the non-RJP group a higher education level was associated with less involvement, more paper work and cover duties, less good planning and lower efficiency and less extrinsic satisfaction than expected. For those in the RJP group, those with a higher education level found less cover duties and paperwork on the job, greater involvement with the service-users and lower efficiency and less good planning. Some beneficial effects of education on expectations in the RJP group appear to be supported. The relationship of education to the outcomes of the RJP is complicated and requires further exploration.

The correlation analysis of the demographic and organisational variables for the employees sample reflected expectations. Age and number of dependents appear to code for each other to some extent. It appears that the better predictor of increased hours and salary at the initial stage was previous experience, either with people with learning difficulties or in a relevant job. Assessing the correlation coefficients between organisational and demographic variables and expectations gives some interesting results. For those in the non-RJP group, greater expectations of cover duties and paperwork were associated with a higher salary. Expectations of involvement with service-users and organisation based training were positively correlated with expectations of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. Those with more relevant experience expected a greater involvement in the job. For those in the RJP group, expectations of more cover-duties and paperwork was associated with a higher salary, being younger, less involvement with service-users and less organisation based training. Employees who expected more organisation based training and involvement with service-users tended to have lower salaries and tended to be older. Length of previous relevant experience was positively associated with expected intrinsic rewards however, particular experience with people with learning difficulties leads to lower expectations of extrinsic rewards.

9.4.2. Difficulties encountered and future directions

It is important to emphasise once, again, that the major difficulty with studies of this type and this study itself is the small sample size available to research. A combination of attrition at the various stages of organisational selection and lack of survival of employees at the time of follow-up date contribute to the difficulties. The reliance on an organisation's recruitment rate which is unstable and often reflective of the external and internal labour market, resources and company policies creates difficulties for research in this area. Thus, small sample sizes are a feature of many studies. Combination of data sets has been suggested to enable causal linkages to be established using multivariate techniques of data analysis. The small sample size has not allowed empirical analysis of interesting relationships in the present study. Reilly et al (1981) suggested combining the results of studies to create larger sample sizes. Some positive indications about the effects of RJPs have come out of the study. There are a number of points, some from the present study, which are applicable to future studies of this nature.

The presentation medium of the RJP has not been suggested to moderate the outcomes, despite the claim by Colarelli (1984) that the incumbent delivered RJP is more effective. Yet the idea that interviewees attend more to information divulged by the interviewer if he/she is perceived as a future work colleague (Thornton, 1993; Harris, 1989) would seem to support the suggestion that an incumbent RJP would be effective. To address this lack of agreement, a further study, comparing the effectiveness of the RJP delivered by the incumbent and as a leaflet, would be necessary. For the organisation without a research interest in this area implementation of both forms of the RJP would not have negative consequences.

Research into mediators of the effect of the RJP is needed both from a practical point of view and a theoretical perspective. Establishing mediators and moderators and their effects on post-hire outcomes will enable a more accurate picture of the processes by which the RJP affects post-hire outcomes. A more effective RJP design can be tailored to different groups of people if knowledge of moderators is available. An example of a moderator is education. In this study it

appeared to lower expectations of involvement, cover duties and paperwork, involvement with the service-users. A RJP tailored to this group would give clearer details concerning these three aspects of the job. The moderating effect of job complexity (Reilly et al., 1981) on the RJP effectiveness, has to be quantified. It is suggested that the RJP will be more effective for more complex jobs than for more simple ones. This would seem to arise from there being a greater scope for ambiguity in a more complex job. Thus, a method of quantification of the complexity of a job could be the level of ambiguity new employees experience when they start a job prior to implementing an RJP intervention. Other possible moderating variables include perceived company honesty, Avner et al. (1982), the effect of labour market conditions, Thornton (1993), the selection procedure used (Schuler et al. 1993), and how expectations form (Nelson & Sutton, 1991).

Possibly the most important aspect of future RJP research that has been tentatively suggested in previous work is the content of the RJP. Reilly et al (1981) similarly suggested that it should be possible to use consistent guidelines in developing RJP. RJP are so varied in their content, length, medium of presentation and population that is being assessed, that it is unlikely that consistent results will be obtained to allow a generalised model to be defined. All variables need to have consistent operational definitions if results are to be similar across different RJP studies, Premack and Wanous (1985).

The effect of unrealistic expectations for different aspects of the job on post-hire outcomes need to be established, an RJP which does not improve the accuracy with which these aspects are assessed will not be as effective as one which does. Assessing the impact of the RJP on expectations of different job aspects allows the RJP to be reviewed.

As pointed out so aptly by Colarelli & Stumpf (1984), increasing the efficiency of one part of a system may not increase the efficiency of the system as a whole. Thus creating the most effective RJP, whilst neglecting other orientation programs and management initiatives will not improve the rate of newcomer attrition. The use of the RJP needs to be complemented with newcomer orientation and management training programs (McEvoy & Cascio, 1985). Similarly, Zaharia & Baumeister (1981) suggest multiple methods of intervention may be required

during the initial employment period with supportive counselling and sophisticated methods of job training. Wanous (1993) suggests the use of newcomer orientation programs, which should occur within the first week of formal employment.

Four areas of organisational-individual selection research exist. The organisation selecting the individual, the organisation attracting the individual, the individual selecting the organisation and the individual attracting the organisation. The area of that has been intensively researched is that of the organisation selecting the individual. The other three areas and the conflicts among their interactions and the conflicts among them have not been researched to the same extent if at all, Schuler et al. (1993). Therefore, there is scope for a greater depth of research into the three areas outlined above.

9.4.3. Summary

This chapter has discussed employment relationship theories and the congruence of the RJP with these theories. The importance of the RJP is highlighted throughout the chapter, however, the results of the study were disappointing in two ways. Primarily, the RJP intervention was not as effective as hoped, there are a number of reasons for this as discussed above. Secondly, where effects were found, the small sample sizes did not allow solid conclusions to be drawn. However, the study has emphasised the importance of employee-organisation congruence, both theoretically and practically, as an important consideration in the recruitment processes.

Chapter Ten: Organisational culture

The 'culture' of an organisation as an important aspect of describing and analyzing organisational behaviour, has been of increased interest to industrial and organisational psychologists for the past two decades. The reasoning behind the importance of organisational culture is that the values of the organisation have a direct impact on the individuals that the organisation employs. Therefore, it would be expected that those employees possessing values more congruent with those of the organisation would be more satisfied with and committed to the organisation (O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991). The following introduction initially discusses what organisational culture is conceived to be, the types of organisational culture that have been identified, and ways of looking at organisational culture. Secondly, the way in which organisational culture affects both the organisation and the employees of that organisation is discussed, this followed by a discussion of the methods of assessment of organisational culture and the hypotheses for the present study.

10.1.1.: What is organisational culture?

Schein (1985) suggests that culture should be viewed as a property of an independently defined stable social unit. He suggests that culture is the learned product of group experience and is therefore to be found only where there is a definable group with a significant history. Organisations are therefore, assumed to have distinguishable cultures with their own values, goals and assumptions. The word culture can be applied to any size of social unit that has had the opportunity to learn and stabilise its view of itself and the environment around it - its basic assumptions. The following definition of culture is given by Schein (1985):

"Culture : a pattern of basic assumptions-invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration-that has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems, (p.9)."

There are two views of culture; the more popular one of culture as a variable to be managed in organisations, and secondly, the view that culture is a

metaphor or fundamental means for conceptualising organisations. The second view assumes that culture is not something that an organisation has but something that an organisation is and management cannot control culture because management is culture (Sinclair, 1993).

The model developed by Schein (1985) appears to suggest the former more popular position is the more realistic, stating that the leaders create and manage culture. However, he then describes organisational culture as having three levels, the term 'culture' should be reserved for the deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by an organisations' members, that operate unconsciously and that define in a basic 'taken - for - granted' fashion an organisation's view of itself and its environment. This deeper level of assumptions is to be distinguished from the 'values' and the surface 'artifacts' which are manifestations of the culture but not the essence of the culture. Although Schein proposes that the culture of the organisation is managed and changed by the leaders of the organisation, his qualification of the nature of culture is more congruent with the view of Sinclair who suggests that there is some doubt that an organisation can influence the substantive content of its own culture, because the underlying values of any organisational culture are deeply rooted in broader national, racial and religious cultures. More amenable to moulding by management are the outer layers of culture, the rituals, symbols, heroes and other artifacts. Hatch (1993) explicitly requires that the recognition of the organisational culture in terms of its symbols and processes also be considered.

The three cultural levels distinguished by Schein (1985) are however, seen as ultimately interactive and reciprocal. The successful practical application of new techniques and ideas in an organisation lead the innovations, in time, to become part of the implicit assumptions that compose the deeper levels of the organisational culture. The deep levels of culture can therefore, be changed slowly through changing the outer layers of culture.

Arguments against conceptual models of organisational culture suggest they oversimplify complex phenomena, despite this oversimplification, these models serve an important role in guiding empirical research and generating theory (Hatch, 1993).

10.1.2. *Different organisational types*

A number of researchers in the field of organisational culture have distinguished organisational 'types'. One of the earlier researchers was Roger Harrison, whose early work, published in the 1970's, outlines four organisational characters or types. These are based on the management structure, processes and function of the organisation. Firstly, the *power orientated organisation* seeks to dominate its particular market, having a centralised, hierarchical management structure, with crucial decisions being made by the top executives. It is suited to swift decision making and rapid follow through under high risk of threat, though not well adapted to flexible response and effective information processing in rapidly changing and complex environments. Secondly, the *role orientated organisation* aspires to be rational and orderly, having a preoccupation with legality, legitimacy and responsibility. The strong emphasis on hierarchy and status, is moderated by the commitment to legitimacy and legality. The correct response tends to be more highly valued than the effective one. The system is too preoccupied with rules and regulations to be sufficiently flexible to easily adapt to rapid external changes, or threatening situations. The power and role orientated organisations are suited to hostile and threatening environments, however, they do not provide for the development and utilisation of internal commitment, initiative and independent judgment on the part of members at other than the highest levels.

Thirdly, the *task orientated organisation*, seeks to achieve a superordinate goal. The organisations's structure function and activities are all evaluated in terms of their contribution to this goal. Authority is legitimate only if based on appropriate knowledge and competence. There is little hesitation in breaking the rules and regulations if task accomplishment is furthered by doing so. This organisation's greatest strength is dealing with complex and changing environments. Decentralised control shortens communication channels and reduces time lags, distortion and attenuation of messages. The response to threat is more likely to be based on adequate data and planning. Finally, the *person orientated organisation* exists as a device through which members can meet needs that they could not otherwise achieve on their own. Authority is discouraged, individuals are expected to help each other through example, helpfulness and caring with

consensus methods of decision making preferred. This organisation is well adapted to dealing with complexity and change, having a fluid structure and short lines of communication and control. However, in threatening situations the organisation has difficulty directing its members efforts in unison until it may be too late. Harrison's organisational types are not rigid, organisations rarely conform to one type of structure but, are more likely to lie between the extremes of different organisational types.

Work by Sonnenfeld and Peiperl (1988) similarly suggests four types of firms based on marketing and management strategies. *Prospectors* are innovative, new market creators, needing creative experts as staff. This type is similar to the task orientated outline suggested by Harrison. *Defenders* emphasise reliability and continuity, requiring loyalty and commitment. This type corresponds to the power and role orientated organisations previously described. The *analyzers* lie between prospectors and defenders, taking moderate risks and striving for new ideas, with commitment to maintaining the organisation. The fourth type are *reactors* which have little control over critical resources or fail to change in response to competitive pressures in the market place, fighting for survival, not pursuing a single consistent strategy.

Harrison describes organisations in terms of their underlying goals, whilst Sonnenfeld and Peiperl (1988) describe organisations in terms of their strategies. There are important consequences of the various structures that are adopted by organisations, these include the ethical behaviour of the organisation, both within the organisation in the interactions with the outside community. De Leon (1993) presents some of the virtues and dangers each of four ethical structures, which pertain to the organisational structures described above. The hierarchical pyramid, which the role and power orientated organisations are based on where a set of formal rules is achieved through control of each level by the one above it, offers efficient operation and close control. This, in turn introduces rigidity, circumspection of individual freedom and therefore, alienation of participants. The task oriented structure represents groups in competition, with each group existing independently and competing for available resources. One benefit is that excesses are avoided and the structure is responsive to the groups that compose it, but the

structure serves only those groups sufficiently powerful to obtain entry into the political economic arena, with the weak and inarticulate being overlooked. Thirdly, in the egalitarian community, corresponding to the person orientated organisation, power is highly decentralised and relations are egalitarian, accountability is accomplished through processes that ensure broad participation in decision making. Virtues include the sense of belonging this structure engenders in participants, their capacity for flexibility and their potential ability to call forth the human potential of each group member. One danger is that they may exert a tyrannical pressure to conform. The fourth structure described, is one where acts occurring may have no clear explanation in terms of the group's mission but rather are expressive gestures that serve to buttress or confirm the network of shared meanings that underlie the group's activity. The benefits of this structure is the flexibility and creativity that the absence of restraint makes possible. The model's associated dangers are anarchy and alienation. Each of these political structure described may contribute to the overall culture of an organisation.

10.1.3. Ways of looking at organisational culture

There are two models of organisational culture, either a unitary holistic culture that pertains throughout the organisation or as a series of subcultures that interact within the organisation.

The first model examined, the unitary culture, is perceived as a method of enhancing the ethical behaviour of an organisation (Sinclair, 1993). In this situation the commitment of the senior management team to an ethical culture is critical (Mathews, 1988). A strong organisational culture however, tends to uphold conformity and drive out dissension producing 'strategic myopia' and 'rigidity', thus inhibiting the organisation's capacity to scan its environment, to anticipate and respond to the rapidly changing needs of customers and other stakeholders. Berthon (1993) suggested that certain psychological types predominate in certain cultures, with strong unitary cultures leading to type homogeneity in top management teams. One positive consequence may be team harmony and cohesion. In addition to the negative consequences outlined above, unfairness in promotion and difficulty of culture change may result.

As within any social system, at its worst, organisational culture can be seen as propaganda with organisational training as the indoctrination. This, according to Sinclair (1993) can lead the organisation to become an island of complacency with self-reinforcing norms. A corporate culture has been argued to be the antithesis of individual ethics that such a culture demands that an individual leaves his or her individual integrity outside the workplace.

The second model holds that organisations are nothing more than shifting coalitions of subcultures with the very porousness of the subcultures providing a catalyst for the scrutiny and critique of norms and practices. Van Maanen and Barley (1985) define a subculture as:

"a subset of an organisation's members who interact regularly with one another, identify themselves as a distinct group within the organisation, share a set of problems commonly defined to be the problems of all and routinely take action on the basis of collective understandings unique to the group" (p.38).

Management should try to understand the value differences of subcultures and the terrain of controversy within the organisation, instead of trying to create a unitary culture. Organisations can tolerate many cultures, and also benefit from the discourse about values that they inevitably spawn.

By relinquishing power to subcultures, communally mediated control is effectively increased; by sponsoring autonomy, commitment can be nourished; by encouraging connections between organisational subcultures and wider community groups, the organisation's reserves are enhanced, not undermined.

Similarly, Peiro, Gonzalez-Roma & Ramos (1992), look at work team climates, suggesting these are important aspects of an organisation that can affect outcome variables of employees such as satisfaction, commitment, stress and turnover intentions. The work team climate is affected by psychological and organisational processes, and as such, they could be identified as subunits of organisational culture, or subcultures within the organisation.

The subculture approach has advantages, for example in a highly volatile environment it is essential that the members of the strategic decision making team have highly differentiated perspectives. A diversity of professional norms and styles is also crucial to team performance and creativity. Secondly, subcultures can

act as a source of surveillance and critique over other groupings in the organisation, who may enjoy a privileged position. Yet with the recognition of sub cultures within an organisation, there remains a need for strong, but not autocratic, central core of management.

Voicing dissent and staying with an organisation are manifestations of intra-organisational politics. Unless an individual belongs to the organisational elite, voicing of their opinions politically may lead to vulnerability to either manipulation or outright coercion by management. political engagement offers a high risk of forced exit. The group or subculture is, therefore, the political voice of individuals within the organisation. Bacharach & Lawler (1980) suggest a political approach to understanding the culture of the organisation. Political analysis needs to be primarily concerned with the nature of power across groupings in the organisation and the specification of tactics and counter-tactics that groups employ.

Thus, as well as the organisational employees being part of a system of rewards and approval, they are implicitly part of a political economic system within the organisation. There is a need for organisational and industrial psychologists to become concerned with issues of cooperation and control of workers, recognising the political nature of organisations (Bacharach & Lawler, 1980).

10.1.4. *The impact of an organisation's culture*

The culture of an organisation has far reaching effects on the organisation and the employees. Harrison (1975) suggests the following functions of an organisation's culture:

- 1) Specifies the goals and values towards which the organisation should be directed and by which its success and worth should be measured.
- 2) Prescribes the appropriate relationships between individuals and the organisation.
- 3) Indicates how behaviours should be controlled in the organisation and what kinds of control are legitimate and illegitimate.

- 4) Depicts which qualities and characteristics of organisation members should be valued or vilified, as well as how these should be rewarded or punished.
- 5) Shows members how they should treat one another - competitively or collaboratively, etc.
- 6) Establishes appropriate methods of dealing with the external environment -aggressive exploitation, responsible negotiation, proactive exploration.

The internal viability of an organisation is achieved when the organisation and the employees within it have similar values, and the people want and need the prescribed incentives and satisfactions (Harrison, 1975). The processes, symbols and rewards of the organisation, which reflect the values of the organisation must similarly correspond to the needs of the individuals within the organisation.

10.1.5. *The effect of organisational culture on employees attitudes and organisational behaviour*

The importance of organisational culture suggests a major influence on attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment as well as perceived stress experienced by employees and organisational behaviours such as performance and withdrawal intentions. There is evidence that the compatibility between the employees' values and those of the organisation have an effect these variables. Cox & Howarth (1990) argue that staff function more effectively when they have a coherent and positive perception of the organisation and that this perception is largely congruent with organisational reality. Rousseau (1988) suggests that:

" essentially, climate is individual descriptions of the social setting or context of which the person is a part" (p.140).

Climate therefore, has to be considered as an intervening variable between input and output variables in organisational models (De Witte & De Cock, 1985). It is thought that climate is influenced by and influences organisational processes (Peiro et al., 1992). Moorman (1991) suggests that the more equitable an organisation is seen to be by its employees, the more they will exhibit

organisational citizenship behaviours that go beyond the formal requirements of the individual.

The person-environment fit approach to experience of occupational stress states that misfit between the person and the environment may produce psychological, physiological and behavioural strains that ultimately increase morbidity and mortality (Edwards & Van Harrison, 1993). People and environments are co-responsive (Hesketh, 1993), as such satisfaction (on the part of the employers and employees) provides a test of the extent to which behaviour requirements (that employers have for skills and abilities and that individuals have in terms of needs, interests and values) are met by behaviour capabilities in both the person (skills and abilities) and the environment (occupational reinforcers). Indeed, individuals may be attracted to organisations they perceive as having values similar to their own and organisations attempt to select recruits who are likely to share their values. New entrants are then further socialised and assimilated, those that do not fit leave (Schneider, 1987). This was supported by Tom (1971) who found the greater the similarity between an individual's self concept and his or her image of an organisation, the more that individual preferred that organisation.

Chatman (1991) found support for hypotheses that recruits whose values matched those of the firm most closely on entry subsequently adjusted to it more quickly. This was supported by O'Reilly et al. (1991). As predicted, vigorous organisational socialisation tactics subsequently yielded a better fit between the individual's values and those of the firm. Recruits whose values most closely matched those of the firm expressed more satisfaction and stronger intentions to remain after two and one half years on the job.

Peiro et al. (1992) identified climate profiles among a sample of health care teams, to determine whether there were significant differences in perceived role conflict and clarity, job related tension, job satisfaction and perceived leadership behaviour among the different climate profiles. Although there were no significant differences between the outcome variables and the five profiles, the balance between expected autonomy and autonomy furnished by the job was moderately positive. As a consequence professionals were moderately more satisfied with this

job dimension. Friedlander & Margulies (1969) found that climate had the greatest impact on satisfaction with interpersonal relationships on a job, a moderate impact upon satisfaction with recognizable advancement in the organisation, and relatively less impact upon self realisation from task involvement.

Lyon & Ivanevich (1974) studied four aspects of the organisational climate: i) individual autonomy, ii) structure, iii) rewards and iv) consideration. They found for nurses, self actualization and esteem influenced job satisfaction, for administrators, self-actualization, autonomy and esteem were similarly positively correlated with job satisfaction. The degree of impact of climate on satisfaction varies with the climate dimension and facet of job satisfaction that is measured. Analyzing the various climate dimensions by occupational group, clarified the magnitude and direction of the climate impact on satisfaction.

Individual variations in preferences for different organisational cultures are associated with interpretable difference in personality characteristics (O'Reilly et al., 1991). Results suggest that congruence between individuals' personalities and the demands of their occupations are associated with positive affect (Mount & Muchinsky, 1978; Spokane, 1985), and a high likelihood of them staying in their jobs (Meir & Hasson, 1982).

Relationships have been demonstrated between climate and job satisfaction (Jackovsky & Slocum, 1988; Joyce & Slocum, 1984; Kozlowski & Hulst, 1987; Lawler, Hall & Oldham, 1974; Litwin & Stringer, 1968; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973), organisational commitment (O'Reilly et al., 1991) staff turnover (Marrow, Bower and Seashore, 1967) and intention to quit (Jackovsky & Slocum, 1988). Similarly, Perio et al. (1992) found perceived climate is related to job satisfaction, with satisfaction with pay being one of the most poorly linked with climate.

10.1.6. *How to assess the culture of an organisation*

Schein proposes that deeper understanding of cultural issues in organisations is necessary not only to decipher what goes on in them but, even

more important, to identify what may be the priority issues for the leaders and leadership.

There are many different approaches to the study of organisational culture: political, structural, assessment of climate, assessment of values. Each method can be conducted at a micro or macro level of analysis. At the micro level, Peiro et al. (1992) studied the work-team climate. This questionnaire based method, assessed aspects of the work team such as support - the extent to which relationships among work team members were kindly and supportive; the respect for rules within a work-team; goal oriented information flow - the extent to which work-team activities and communications are oriented towards the attainment of previously established objectives; innovation - the extent to which there is openness to new ideas. This analysis therefore focused very much on the micro-level of analysis of the culture of the organisation.

On the other hand, Schein (1985) was interested in how to uncover the implicit organisational assumptions that represented the underlying cultural values of the organisation. Thus, he suggested a clinical interview - a series of encounters and joint explorations between the investigator and various motivated informants who live in the organisation and embody its culture. It was suggested that the exploration is a joint effort between insider and outsider to avoid subjectivity bias and to overcome internal invisibility, and the interview a historical reconstruction of how the group solved its major problems and internal integration and which kinds of solutions worked repeatedly and became embedded in the organisation. Another source of information is the structure of the organisation, this can give an insight into the purpose and processes the organisation. Myths, legends, stories and charters may be an important way of checking one's basic assumptions about the culture of an organisation.

The goals of the organisation provide direction to the organisation, and the organisation must attract, select and retain people who act and interact in ways that direct the organisation's activities in accordance with these goals. Therefore, as well as focusing on the organisation's central value system, O'Reilly et al (1991), it seems pertinent to assess the values important to an individual's self-concept or identity. Ostroff (1993) measured person - environment congruence

using items derived from the NASSP Climate Survey (Kelley, Glover, Keefe, Halderson, Sorensen & Speth, 1986). This involves comparing the organisational profile and the personal profile, with higher correlational congruence scores indicating a greater degree of congruence between person and environment.

Similarly, O'Reilly et al. (1991) compared the individual and the organisation in terms of their values, and assessed the congruency between the two. However, the difference with the measures deployed by O'Reilly et al. (1991) is that both the organisational values and the individual values were assessed using the same measure. This, allowed for direct comparison between the organisational and the individual values.

10.1.7. *The present study*

The present study is concerned with analyzing the culture of the organisation and how this relates to outcome variables such as satisfaction, stress, commitment and turnover intentions. The second level of interest in this study is whether the organisation is recruiting members that actually have the same values and ideas as the organisation. A macro analysis of the culture of the organisation was undertaken, i.e. looking at the goals, values and processes of the organisation as a whole, rather than individual units. O'Reilly et al. (1991) assessed organisation - person fit by profiling the organisation using 54 descriptive statements, and profiling the individual using the same statements and assessing the correlations between the two. The logic of person -culture fit suggests that aspects of individuals, such as values, expectations etc, interact with facets of situations, such as incentive systems and norms, to affect the individuals' attitudinal and behavioural responses. Results of a series of studies have shown that person-job fit predicts performance, satisfaction and turnover across a variety of jobs.

O'Reilly et al. (1991) were interested in the extent to which longevity in an organisation was associated with person-culture fit. Person-organisation fit was found to be significant predictor of normative commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to leave independent of age, gender and tenure.

The present study is explicitly concerned with the relationship between perceptions of the organisational values and the individual employee's preferred values, and how this affects the individual's job attitudes and organisational behaviour.

Hypothesis 1: The greater the similarity between the individual's values and the organisational values, the greater the job satisfaction of the employee.

Hypothesis 2: The greater the similarity between the individual's values and those of the organisation, the greater the organisational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: The greater the similarity between the individual and the organisation, the lower the perceived stress

Hypothesis 4: The greater the similarity between the individual's values and those of the organisation the lower the intention to quit, search and actual search behaviour.

Hypothesis 5: The greater the similarity between the individual's values and those of the organisation, a lower level of ill health will be experienced by the individual.

10.2: Method

10.2.1. Participants

The study took part in two stages, initially the participants were requested to profile both the organisation and themselves in terms of its values and processes. Secondly the participants were required to complete a questionnaire. 103 employees were contacted overall, of whom 91 were direct care workers, and 12 were co-ordinators, managers and directors of the service. 53 direct-care workers agreed to take part in the study, giving a response rate of 58% for those who profiled the organisation and their personal values. The mean tenure of the direct care workers was 2.69 year and mean age was 30.2 years. The majority were female (65%), most were single (58%), and most had no children (56%). 11 of the managers/co-ordinators agreed to participate. The response rate for the management was 92% for those who profiled the organisation and their own values. The mean tenure of the managerial group was 7.42 years and mean age was 27.2 years. The majority were male (55%), most were married (64%), and most had no children (73%).

In the second part of the study, 36 direct care workers completed the questionnaire, giving a response rate of 68%. The mean age was 34.24 years, mean tenure was 3.28 years. The majority of the participants were female (61.9%), 46.4% were married, 53.6% were single. The majority had no children (55.6%). 6 of the managerial group returned the completed questionnaire, a response rate of 55%.

10.2.2. Method

There was one between groups variable, that was whether the individual was a member of the managerial group or the direct-care workers group. Other independent variables that were studied were repeated measures variables, including job satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceived stress, individual values and organisational values. There were two sets of dependent variables turnover intentions and job search behaviour and mental and physical ill health.

10.2.3. Measures

The measures used included demographic, organisational and attitudinal variables and in addition, a measure developed by O'Reilly et al. (1991) to assess the values of the organisation as perceived by the employees and the values that are of personal importance to the employees in their job.

Demographic variables include age, tenure, gender, marital status, number of dependents, education level, number of previous jobs, status when applying, relevant experience in a similar field, previous experience with people with learning difficulties and intention to improve. *Organisational variables* included hours worked, position held, place of work and career development.

Attitudinal variables included job satisfaction scales, perceived sources of pressure, perceptions of personal control, type A behaviour and coping as measured by the OSI. In addition organisational commitment was measured by the organisational commitment scale.

Outcome variables These included mental and physical ill health as assessed by the OSI, and withdrawal cognitions and behaviour.

Individual and organisational profile assessment was carried out using a measure developed by O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991). The values assessed by this measure are shown in Table 10.1 below. A definition of each of the values is given in Appendix 10.1.

10.2.4. Procedure

A sample of those direct-care employees who had not previously participated in the research was taken, using tenure in the organisation as a criteria. The managers of the organisation were contacted for the first time. A letter was sent to the employee's work unit explaining that research was being carried out, the nature and requirements of the research and assurances of confidentiality should the employee volunteer to take part. During the week after receiving the letter, the employees were contacted at work and asked whether they would participate in the study. If the participant was agreeable, an appointment was made to administer the profiling measure and hand the employee the questionnaire.

Each employee was studied individually, usually at their place of work. The profiling measure consisted of a 54 item card sort. The first question that the participant was asked was: 'How characteristic of your organisation are each of

Table 10.1: Values in organisational and individual profiling set

Organisational culture profile item set	
1. Flexibility	28. Action orientation
2. Adaptability	29. Taking initiative
3. Stability	30. Being reflective
4. Predictability	31. Achievement orientation
5. Being innovative	32. Being demanding
6. Being quick to take advantage of opportunities	33. Taking individual responsibility
7. A willingness to experiment	34. Having high expectations for performance
8. Risk taking	35. Opportunities for professional growth
9. Being careful	36. High pay for good performance
10. Autonomy	37. Security of employment
11. Being rule orientated	38. Offers praise for good performance
12. Being analytical	39. Low level of conflict
13. Paying attention to detail	40. Confronting conflict directly
14. Being precise	41. Developing friends at work
15. Being team orientated	42. Fitting in
16. Sharing information freely	43. Working in collaboration with others
17. Emphasizing a single culture throughout the organisation	44. Enthusiasm for the job
18. Being people orientated	45. Working long hours
19. Fairness	46. Not being constrained by many rules
20. Respect for the individual's right	47. An emphasis on quality
21. Tolerance	48. Being distinctive-different from others
22. Informality	49. Having a good reputation
23. Being easy going	50. Being socially responsible
24. Being calm	51. Being results orientated
25. Being supportive	52. Having a clear guiding philosophy
26. Being aggressive	53. Being competitive
27. Decisiveness	54. Being highly organised

the following statements?' Each card was rated from least to most characteristic on a 9 item rating scale. After completing this first card sort, the cards were shuffled three times and the participant asked to rate once again, each item using the following question: 'In your ideal organisation, how important would each of these values be to you?' Following the second card sort, the participants were given the questionnaire to complete. The researcher talked the participants through how to complete the questionnaire, and provided a stamped addressed envelope for the completed questionnaire to be returned. The participant was thanked for his/her time and feedback about the results of the study was assured.

If the questionnaire was not completed within one month, a reminder letter, and second copy of the questionnaire was sent out with a return envelope.

10.3. Results

The analysis of the results is in two main sections, the first section looks at differences between the managerial group and the direct-care employees in their perceptions of the characteristic values of the organisation. The differences between the personal preferences for important values in the organisation and the characteristic values, as assessed by the managerial group, are also studied. The values factors constituting the organisational characteristics are described along with factors identified from the employee preferences. Differences between the ratings of actual and desired values constituting the preferred factors are identified using analysis of variance procedures.

The second section is an analysis of the relationships between agreement between individual preferences and organisational values and attitudes to the job, perceptions of pressure and control and outcome variables.

10.3.1. Differences between managerial and direct-care worker perceptions

The differences between the two groups' ratings or characteristic values of the organisation were analyzed using one way analysis of variance. Firstly, the differences between the managerial and direct care worker perceptions of the characteristic values of the organisation were assessed. Secondly, the personal preferences for each of the variables given by the direct-care workers were compared to the management assessment as to how characteristic each of the values are of the organisation.

10.3.1.1. Differences in ratings of characteristic values of the organisation

By taking the management assessment of the organisations values as that which is stable, a standard measure by which to assess the individual preferences of direct-care employees was obtained. One drawback is that the management group of an organisation would be more positive about the socially acceptable organisational values than the direct care staff, however, as the results below show, the management did not necessarily rate socially desirable values as characteristic of the organisation.

Table 10.2 below gives the mean ratings of the two groups of employees for each of the values in the profile set where the difference between the means

was statistically significant. The mean ratings for all the items can be seen in appendix 10.2. There are only a few items where the managerial team perceive values to be more characteristic of the organisation than the direct-care employees and the differences are not significant. These items include risk taking, being supportive, high pay for good performance, fitting in and being distinctive-different from others.

Table 10.2: Comparing managers and direct-care workers with respects to perceptions of organisational values

Item	Managerial group	Direct-care group	F	P
Flexibility	4.55	6.17	4.41	.04
Being innovative	4.82	6.47	7.32	.009
Autonomy	4.82	6.83	7.21	.009
Being Team orientated	4.09	6.28	7.76	.007
Taking Initiative	4.91	6.68	6.74	.012
Individual Responsibility	5.09	7.3	11.69	.001
Confronting conflict directly	4.18	6.47	8.84	.004

10.3.1.2. Differences between organisational reality and personal preferences of direct-care employees

The difference between the reality ratings by the managerial group and the personal preferences as rated by the direct-care workers was assessed. A significant difference between the reality rating and the personal preference rating for the majority of the values studied was found. The values which differed significantly between the groups are shown in Table 10.3 below. Direct-care employees rate their personal preference for the majority of items as significantly greater than the item is presently characteristic within the organisation as rated by the managerial group. The only item that the direct-care employees rate as less preferred than is at present characteristic of the organisation, is working long hours. Therefore, the results suggest that the direct-care staff would prefer each of the values in Table 10.3 below, to be more characteristic of the organisation than they are at present. The mean preferred ratings of direct care staff for all the values are given in appendix 10.3.

Table 10.3: Comparing managers perceptions' of organisational reality with employees preferred organisational values.

Items	Managerial group	Direct-care group	F	P
Flexibility	4.54	7.81	39.94	.0001
Adaptability	5.55	7.77	17.92	.0001
Stability	4.45	7.96	44.93	.0001
Innovation	4.82	7.81	27.84	.0001
Opportunities	5.55	7.83	26.75	.0001
Experiment	5.27	7.64	23.24	.0001
Careful	5.72	7.6	11.78	.0011
Autonomy	4.82	6.6	5.35	.024
Analytical	4.36	6.91	16.51	.0001
Attention to detail	5.18	7.66	28.55	.0001
Precision	4.91	7.92	50.05	.0001
Team orientation	4.09	8.55	175.13	.0001
Sharing information	5.18	7.98	31.93	.0001
Single culture	3.18	5.06	4.72	.0336
People orientation	5.45	8.32	43.66	.0001
Fairness	5.45	8.11	25.91	.0001
Respect for individual	6.64	8.81	42.64	.0001
Tolerance	5.82	7.34	5.8	.019
Easy going	5.27	6.54	8.25	.0056
Being calm	5.45	8.06	25.92	.0001
Being supportive	5.82	8.62	54.11	.0001
Decisiveness	4.55	7.89	40.41	.0001
Action oriented	4.91	7.51	18.35	.0001
Taking initiative	4.91	7.91	35.36	.0001
Being reflective	5.55	7.57	14.43	.0003
Achievement orientation	5.36	7.77	20.27	.0001
Individual responsibility	5.09	7.98	38.08	.0001
Professional growth	5.36	7.92	18.31	.0001
High pay	3.45	7.47	30.59	.0001
Security	6.09	7.96	9.95	.0025
Praise	4.55	8.43	49.72	.0001
Low conflict	4.27	7.43	23.02	.0001
Confronting conflict	4.18	8.04	70.23	.0001
Developing friends	5.91	7.38	7.02	.0102
Collaboration	4.91	7.94	36.18	.0001
Enthusiasm	5.36	8.45	84.64	.0001
Long hours	6.73	3.74	15.67	.0002
Not constrained by rules	4.55	5.91	4.6	.0359
Emphasis on quality	6.0	8.45	39.0	.0001
Good reputation	5.73	8.17	15.77	.0002
Social responsibility	6.82	7.96	5.62	.0209
Clear philosophy	6.45	8.23	16.73	.0001
Highly organised	4.45	8.13	80.57	.0001

10.3.2a. Factor Analysis procedure

Factor Analysis (FA) was performed on the characteristic value ratings of the organisation and, similarly, on the preferred value ratings by the employees. Principal Factors was the method used to extract the factors from the data set. This method is orthogonal and widely used. The method of rotation of variables in the FA procedure used to describe factors present in the organisational culture profile was orthogonal rotation. This rotation procedure makes the factors that are extracted as simple as possible. With orthogonal rotation procedures, the factors that are extracted have low correlations with other factors, the shared variance between the factors is minimal. Thus, the interpretation of the factors that identified with this type of rotation is comparatively easy. This is not to say that the factors may not be correlated with each other. The four factors extracted for both the organisational profile and the preferred profile do however, appear to reflect four relatively independent constructs underlying the present and preferred organisation culture. Thus, the use of orthogonal rotation of factors would seem justified in the present case.

The criteria for an item loading on one of the identified factors in both the existing organisational profile and the employees preferred organisational profile, was a correlation of $r=.4$. This replicated the cut off point that was used by O'Reilly et al. (1991), upon which the present organisational culture profile measure and methodology was based.

10.3.2a.1. Factors identified in the organisational profile

Four factors were identified for the ratings of characteristic values of the organisation. The eigenvalues of the four factors were: *Factor 1*, 14.91; *Factor 2*, 3.52; *Factor 3*, 2.77; and *Factor 4*, 2.62.

10.3.2a.2. Factors identified in the employees' preferred organisational profile

Four factors were again identified in the employees' preferred organisational profile. The eigenvalues of the four factors identified were: *Factor 1*, 10.72; *Factor 2*, 5.06; *Factor 3*, 3.27; *Factor 4*, 2.86.

Although the cut off point for choice of factors can be when the eigenvalue of the factor is greater than 1, from the scree-plots, it can be seen that there are four clear factors emerging for both the organisational profile and the employee's preferred organisation profile (see Figures 10.1 and 10.2 below).

10.3.2a.3. Practical issues

The recommendation is that if there are strong, reliable correlations and a few distinct factors a sample size of 50 may even be adequate, as long as there are notably more cases than factors. There were 53 direct-care workers participating in the profiling of the organisation's values and their preferred organisational values. As four factors were identified for the direct-care workers profiles, giving a case:factor ratio of 13.3:1 it can be assumed that this was a reasonable analysis.

Figure 10.1: Scree plot of Eigenvalues for the profile of the actual organisation

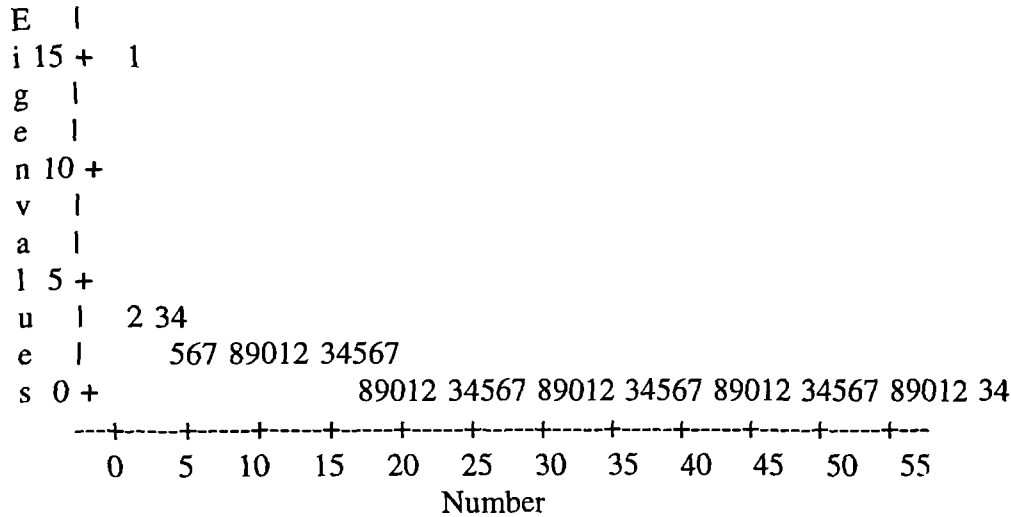
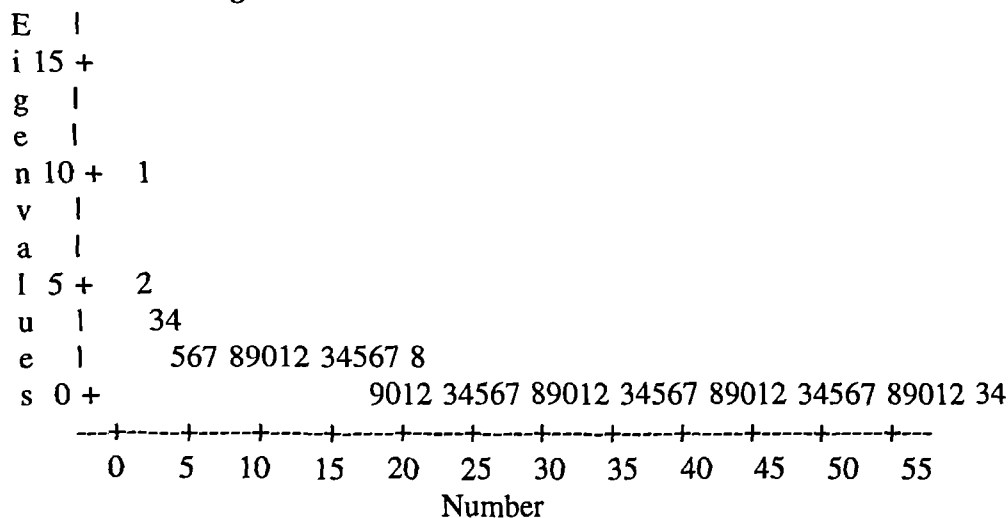


Figure 10.2: Scree plot of Eigenvalues for the profile of the preferred organisation



10.3.2. Factors identified in the organisational profile

The factor analysis yielded four factors for the ratings of characteristic values of the organisation. The loadings of each value on the four factors for the values most characteristic of the organisation are given in Table 10.4 below.

Table 10.4: Factor loadings of the values describing the organisation

Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Informality	0.70121	-0.01163	0.08201	0.16865
Being supportive	0.69884	0.29369	0.18066	0.06366
Emphasis on quality	0.67674	0.25079	0.17629	0.23094
Easy going	0.67191	0.20685	-0.19804	-0.17946
Praise	0.66187	0.20978	0.24477	-0.08296
Security	0.58987	-0.25044	-0.24787	0.23550
Social responsibility	0.58415	-0.18734	0.26641	0.18222
Good reputation	0.58317	0.23403	0.12846	0.37849
Fairness	0.57289	0.07577	0.21612	0.04692
Autonomy	0.57123	0.50792	0.00515	0.23409
Stability	0.56010	0.16964	0.20201	0.22141
Sharing information	0.55733	0.50873	-0.18041	-0.15520
Precision	0.55608	0.30785	0.22956	0.27207
People orientation	0.54074	0.32504	0.19224	0.16620
High pay	0.50742	0.18663	0.17361	-0.23233
Team orientation	0.50021	0.31030	0.34910	0.26938
Highly organised	0.48413	0.14000	0.13989	0.15097
Not constrained by rules	0.49692	0.32960	0.37751	0.10256
Collaboration	0.48052	0.27569	0.20868	0.20193
Being aggressive	-0.47619	0.14167	0.24011	-0.01037
Low conflict	0.47595	0.25962	0.21908	0.13598
Professional growth	0.45089	0.13058	0.25020	0.24860
Respect for individual	0.44664	0.34410	0.03572	0.09699
Experiment	0.43183	0.20062	0.40928	-0.00673
Being calm	0.41889	0.11794	0.21485	0.36156
Taking initiative	0.10880	0.67708	0.40729	0.05999
Adaptability	0.30375	0.67385	0.12374	0.05004
Attention to detail	0.14650	0.62737	0.11529	0.17177
Achievement orientation	0.18769	0.59814	0.22762	0.31867
Flexibility	0.23745	0.59795	0.07762	0.23847
Being reflective	0.24980	0.59204	0.08256	0.09695
Individual responsibility	0.37887	0.57961	-0.03620	0.30908
Confronting conflict	0.02242	0.56435	0.19053	0.35680
Tolerance	0.37579	0.55701	-0.12701	0.15995
Single culture	-0.01626	0.51907	0.04097	-0.36534
Decisiveness	0.21780	0.50165	0.29990	-0.30072
Being competitive	-0.15510	0.48292	0.25525	0.01173
Clear philosophy	0.13380	0.13016	0.72135	0.06506
Innovation	0.31498	0.02600	0.60887	0.03099
Analytical	0.40807	0.13789	0.57267	0.10618
Enthusiasm	0.34587	0.24356	0.45756	0.18464
Opportunities	0.10332	0.14836	0.41517	0.18019
High expectations	0.09881	0.11134	0.32386	0.72561
Results orientated	0.12027	0.18019	0.24127	0.54843
Being demanding	-0.11833	0.40412	-0.13668	0.51822
Careful	0.27151	0.27106	0.41345	0.50394
Action oriented	0.18187	0.28404	0.32399	0.48673
Developing friends	0.26795	0.10799	0.02318	0.42561

All loadings above .4 are highlighted and taken as a cut-off point for values loading on a factor.

For values that load significantly on more than one factor, the factor on which the variable loads the highest is taken as the factor to which the value best fits. A loading of .4 was chosen, as this cut-off point allows a fairly descriptive assessment of the factors present in both the real organisation and preferred the organisation.

From the loadings of the values on each of the four factors, each of the factors is described below. The mean ratings of the values for factors 1 to 4 were 5.64, 6.02, 6.29 and 6.1 respectively. The variance accounted for by each factor is 9.14%, 6.44%, 4.28% and 3.94% respectively.

Factor 1: Values loading highest on this factor, which represented those values perceived on the whole as least characteristic of the organisation appeared to represent the employees perceptions of the organisation providing a supportive, easy going, informal environment with praise for good performance and an emphasis on quality of the service provided by the organisation. The necessity for aggression within the organisation loaded negatively on this factor. The perception of the organisation providing extrinsic rewards for the employees also loaded on this factor.

Factor 2: Values loading on this factor represented the emphasis on individuality within the organisation in terms of using initiative, achievement orientation, being reflective, taking individual responsibility, adaptability, flexibility. Attention to detail, tolerance and confrontation of conflict directly similarly loaded positively on this factor.

Factor 3: This factor consisted of values relating to the organisational philosophy and innovation. The organisation possessing a clear guiding philosophy loaded highest on this factor, followed by innovation, being analytical and enthusiasm for the job.

Factor 4: This final factor was performance and achievement related, with the highest loading value being high expectations for performance. Following this were values for results orientation, the organisation being demanding, being careful and action orientation.

10.3.3. Factors present in preferred organisational profile

For the preferred characteristics, four factors were again discriminated. The loadings of each of the values on the four factors are shown in Table 10.5 below. Loadings of greater than .4 on any factor are highlighted in bold text.

Table 10.5: Factor loadings of values describing the preferred organisation

Value	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Innovation	0.72387	0.00719	0.02909	0.08672
Adaptability	0.71320	0.14437	0.10005	-0.09322
Action oriented	0.68611	0.12240	-0.03697	0.00990
Being reflective	0.68526	0.05903	0.20989	0.22624
People orientation	0.67700	0.16026	0.05798	0.03045
Collaboration	0.65103	0.05535	-0.07742	0.01831
Opportunities	0.63748	0.13416	0.06684	0.14777
Clear philosophy	0.62909	0.05074	-0.04635	0.19757
Careful	0.62123	0.10214	-0.20842	0.18787
Enthusiasm	0.59906	0.18779	-0.08544	-0.07284
Stability	0.57526	0.21552	-0.09421	0.08868
Precision	0.57132	0.13480	-0.25577	0.13774
Being supportive	0.55965	0.10077	0.03873	0.02768
Social responsibility	0.54701	-0.02644	0.27268	0.09978
Decisiveness	0.53775	0.08390	0.01302	0.05598
Taking initiative	0.50542	0.06338	0.14641	0.32564
Respect for individual	0.49316	0.09376	0.23456	-0.14652
Experiment	0.48643	0.02112	0.11052	-0.01380
Analytical	0.46845	-0.10932	0.22220	0.33818
Team orientation	0.45899	-0.01314	0.00056	-0.30525
Sharing information	0.45295	0.22938	-0.02197	0.13823
Attention to detail	0.43718	0.03125	-0.29878	-0.17740
Confronting conflict	0.40835	0.21359	-0.22055	0.38532
Fairness	0.06119	0.77367	0.06343	0.05541
Flexibility	0.11618	0.74104	0.04892	-0.04919
Good reputation	-0.13438	0.72005	-0.10839	0.08279
Tolerance	0.05946	0.70931	0.09171	0.17052
Praise	-0.06571	0.70395	0.06859	-0.16801
Easy going	0.23333	0.70004	0.15743	0.15482
Developing friends	0.25243	0.65641	0.03094	0.01888
Professional growth	0.22927	0.64346	0.00336	-0.09427
Security	0.04243	0.60229	-0.08566	-0.14366
Low conflict	0.34591	0.56715	-0.00620	-0.28796
Fitting in	0.20530	0.55237	0.04979	0.18735
Results orientated	0.20293	0.42885	-0.12772	0.03655
Autonomy	0.05686	0.08332	0.63676	-0.10910
Risk taking	0.16875	0.28111	0.53375	0.09680
Highly organised	0.25419	0.24425	-0.52741	0.15237
Individual responsibility	0.31079	-0.12803	0.51274	-0.11622
Informality	0.22803	0.44795	0.49144	-0.16405
Single culture	-0.01353	0.06846	0.45373	0.26651
Predictability	-0.03679	0.31757	0.44724	0.33255
Long hours	-0.08229	0.01879	0.40463	0.14578
High expectations	0.23304	0.16597	-0.44152	0.55260
Rule oriented	-0.05122	-0.13400	0.02338	0.53601
Being competitive	0.07194	-0.00779	-0.08817	0.49322
Distinctive-different	-0.19197	0.40009	0.22283	0.47217
Being aggressive	0.13999	-0.33610	0.34543	0.43850
Being demanding	0.07798	-0.17902	0.15810	0.41352

Some values loaded greater than .4 on more than one factor, in these cases, the value was taken to load on that factor on which it had the highest loading. Again, the mean ratings of the values on each of the factors and the variance accounted for by each factor were calculated. Mean values for factors 1 to 4 were 7.9, 7.4, 6.05 and 5.6 respectively. Variance accounted for by factors 1 to 4 was 8.91%, 6.63%, 3.29% and 3.08% respectively.

Factor 1: The mean rating of values for this factor indicate that this was, on average the most important preferred factor. The highest loading values on this factor were adaptability and innovation within the organisation, action and people orientation. Being reflective, taking advantage of opportunities, having a clear guiding philosophy, working in collaboration with others similarly loaded positively on this factor.

Factor 2: Fairness and flexibility are the highest loading values on this factor, followed by tolerance, easy going, praise for good performance and the organisation having a good reputation. Secondly, opportunities for professional growth, security, low conflict and the importance of fitting in and developing friends at work load on this factor.

Factor 3: This factor is composed of factor reflecting the values that emphasise the individual responsibilities at work. Values include risk taking, autonomy, emphasis on individual responsibility, and emphasising a single work culture throughout the organisation.

Factor 4: This factor receives the lowest mean ratings across the values, the highest loaders are rule orientation and high expectations for performance, being competitive, and being distinctive-different from other organisations in the same field. Also loading on this factor are being aggressive and the organisation being demanding.

10.3.4. *Differences between actual and desired ratings of values for those factors identified for the preferred characteristics of the organisation.*

The differences between the ratings of values in each of the preferred factors for employees and the managerial ratings of values for how characteristic

these factors are perceived to be assessed using analysis of variance procedures.

The results of the analysis of variance looking at value ratings for each factor are given in Table 10.6 below. The results of the Analysis of Variance indicate that the factors identified by factor analyzing the preferred values of employees have significantly different mean ratings of values for three of the four factors, with mean ratings of the values characteristic of the organisation at present being significantly lower than mean ratings of preferred levels of values. The reality of values loading on Factor 4 was not significantly different from the loading of the preferred level of values loading on Factor 4. Therefore, this factor was not analysed further.

Table 10.6: *Analysis of variance comparing the real and ideal values in each of the four factors*

Factor	Mean rating of values characteristic of organisation	Mean ratings of values preferred by employees	F	P
Factor 1	5.24	7.95	82.63	.0001
Factor 2	5.39	7.55	31.02	.0001
Factor 3	5.18	6.04	5.0	.029
Factor 4	5.74	5.7	.01	.921

10.3.5. Relationships between organisational values, personal preference and job attitudes, perceptions, behaviour and ill health

There have been methodological difficulties with the assessment of profile differences that were recognised 40 years ago (Cronbach & Glesser, 1953), when the profiling of personality was a major concern within psychological research.

The difficulty which frequently complicates interpretation of profile similarity is the failure to recognise that the magnitude of the similarity index has no meaning in itself. Any estimate of the similarity of particular profiles must be evaluated relative to the similarity of people in general on the measures in question (Cronbach & Glesser, 1953).

combining profiles from two entities. These entities are distinct either because they represent different constructs or are drawn from different sources (Edwards, 1993).

In the present study, multiple employees are compared to a single organisational profile. This removes some of the difficulties inherent in assessing the profile similarity scores from two independent sources or about two separated entities. The Profile Similarity Indices (PSIs) used in the present study simply represent variance attributable to one entity, and hence, are not interpretable as measures of congruence. However, recommendations suggested by Edwards (1993) are that 1) hypotheses need to be stated in terms of conceptually distinct dimensions, 2) single item assessment of profile elements should be abandoned in favour of multi-item measures, 3) Q-sorts and rankings should be used and finally, 4) congruence should be analyzed using polynomial regression equations containing separate measures of both entities. Despite the fact that the present study was not assessing profile congruence as such, the factors composing the 54 value checklist need to be identified and described.

For each of the emerging factors two difference scores were then calculated: D^2 , and $|DI|$ (Edwards, 1993). These are commonly used as assessments of difference between profiles, and the equations are given below.

$$D^2 = (X_i - Y_j)^2$$

$$|DI| = |X_i - Y_j|$$

10.3.5.1. Relationships between difference scores and job attitudes and perceptions

Difference scores were calculated between the median ratings of the characteristic values as described by the managerial group and the preferred value ratings as described by the direct care employees. The difference scores calculated were D^2 and $|DI|$. The difference scores were calculated for each of the four factors identified in the factor analysis of preferred variables.

The relationships between difference scores and job satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceptions of stress and control, type A behaviour and coping strategies are given in Table 10.7 below.

From Table 10.7, it can be seen that the two difference indices have very relationships with the attitudinal and perceptual variables. Each of the factors and their relationship with each of the attitudinal variables will be described below.

Job satisfaction The indices of difference are negatively correlated with job satisfaction. Factor 1 is negatively correlated with satisfaction with the job itself at $p < .05$. Factor 2 is negatively correlated with satisfaction with the job itself at $p < .01$, and satisfaction with personal relationships and overall job satisfaction at $p < .05$. Factor 3 is negatively correlated with each facet of job satisfaction at $p < .01$.

Type A behaviour On the whole there is little indication of a relationship between type A behaviour and the difference indices.

Perceptions of control Perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation has the strongest overall relationship with the difference indices. Factors 1 and 3 have a significant and positive relationship with this facet of perceived control at $p < .01$.

Perceptions of pressure Relationships between difference indices for factors 1 and 2 have small positive but not significant relationships with perceptions of pressure. Factors 1 and 2 have a positive, significant relationship with perceptions of stress from relationships with other people at $p < .05$.

Coping strategies do not have consistent relationships with the difference scores across the four factors. Factor 2 has a negative positive relationship with use of task strategies to cope, significant at $p < .05$.

Organisational commitment moral and calculative commitment do not have significant relationships with the difference indices for any of the four factors described. Alienation however, has a positive relationship with each of the difference indices of the four factors. Factor 1 has a significant positive relationship with alienative commitment at $p < .01$. Factor 2 has a significant positive relationship with alienative commitment at $p < .05$.

Table 10.7: Relationships between difference scores and job attitudes, perceptions, turnover intentions and job search behaviour

Variable	Factor 1		Factor 2		Factor 3		Factor 4	
	D ²	D	D ²	D	D ²	D	D ²	D
Sat 1	-.31	-.31	-.28	-.29	-.48	-.45	-.44	-.46
Sat 2	-.36	-.36	-.47	-.48	-.52	-.47	-.50	-.51
Sat 3	-.12	-.12	-.23	-.21	-.44	-.38	-.25	-.31
Sat 4	-.27	-.27	-.2	-.17	-.44	-.45	-.2	-.24
Sat 5	-.28	-.25	-.38	-.36	-.55	-.5	-.42	-.43
Sat 6	-.28	-.27	-.37	-.35	-.56	-.52	-.35	-.39
Attitude to living	-.11	-.11	.01	.04	-.23	-.23	-.04	-.04
Style of behaviour	.08	.07	.24	.26	.27	.15	.07	.09
Ambition	-.08	-.04	.03	.08	-.12	-.21	.11	.1
Control by org. forces	.46	.44	.28	.31	.5	.45	.5	.46
Management processes	.09	.07	.23	.13	.11	.15	.1	.18
Individual influence	-.14	-.16	.02	-.08	-.09	-.07	.03	.11
Stress 1	.07	.05	.03	.09	-.1	-.16	.08	.13
Stress 2	.13	.12	.01	.06	-.1	-.15	.21	.2
Stress 3	.36	.35	.31	.34	.17	.14	.47	.49
Stress 4	.16	.18	.02	.1	-.02	-.08	.1	.12
Stress 5	.14	.11	.22	.24	.16	.08	.37	.44
Stress 6	.13	.11	-.06	.02	-.07	-.15	.19	.2
Use of social support	.14	.11	-.04	-.04	.11	.04	.25	.18
Use of task strategies	-.17	-.15	-.37	-.27	-.23	-.29	.1	.08
Use of logic	.11	.1	-.05	.02	-.1	-.04	.27	.16
Home and work relationship	.16	.14	.18	.22	.16	.16	.42	.37
Use of time	.03	.06	-.1	-.03	.14	.07	.12	.13
Use of involvement	.28	.27	.2	.27	.03	.03	.32	.37
Moral commitment	-.01	.02	-.14	-.1	-.18	-.16	-.19	-.21
Calculative commitment	-.13	-.13	-.29	-.26	-.08	-.06	.17	.14
Alienative commitment	.46	.45	.42	-.42	.61	.57	.45	.47

If $r > .33$, then $p < .05$; If $r > .43$, then $p < .01$; If $r > .54$, then $p < .001$; If $r > .61$, then $p < .0001$. Sat 1 - achievement, value and growth; Sat 2 - with the job itself; Sat 3 - with organisational structure and design; Sat 4 - organisational processes; Sat 5 - with personal relationships; Sat 6 - overall job satisfaction. Stress 1 - from factors intrinsic to the job; Stress 2 - from management processes; Stress 3 from relationships with others; Stress 4 - From career and achievement; Stress 5 - from organisational climate and structure; Stress 6 - from the home/work interface.

10.3.5.2. Relationships between difference scores and turnover intentions and job search behaviours

Table 10.8 below, shows the relationships between the two difference scores and withdrawal cognitions, behaviour and ill health.

Intention to quit is positively correlated with the difference indices for Factors 2 and 3. Factor 2 is significant and positively correlated with intention to quit at $p < .05$, Factor 3 is positively correlated with intention to quit at $p < .01$.

Intention to search is positively correlated with each of the difference indices across the factors, however, only Factor 3 is significantly correlated with search intention at $p < .05$.

Search behaviour is strongly and positively correlated with the difference indices for each of the factors studied. Factor 1 and Factor 2 are significantly correlated at $p < .01$, whereas Factor 3 is significantly correlated at $p < .001$.

Physical and mental ill health are not significantly correlated with any of the difference indices across any of the four factors.

Table 10.8: Relationships between difference scores and turnover intention, job search behaviour and ill health

Variable	Factor 1		Factor 2		Factor 3		Factor 4	
	D ²	D	D ²	D	D ²	D	D ²	D
Intention to quit	.32	.31	.41	.42	.54	.49	.43	.45
Intention to search	.29	.29	.2	.16	.34	.32	.09	.13
Search behaviour	.45	.42	.46	.49	.65	.58	.43	.46
Mental ill health	-.08	-.1	.04	-.01	.07	.02	.16	.13
Physical ill health	.08	.08	.19	.18	.12	.07	.13	.08

If $r > .33$, then $p < .05$; If $r > .43$, then $p < .01$; If $r > .54$, then $p < .001$; If $r > .61$, then $p < .0001$.

10.4. Discussion

The hypotheses stated in the introduction received some support from the results as discussed below. The factors emerging from the analysis of the preferred values of employees are described with reference to the factors that are currently descriptive of the organisation. The previous work, particularly that of O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell (1991) is discussed with reference to the present results.

10.4.1. Relationships between job attitudes, perceptions of pressure, control, type A behaviour and coping strategies and differences between actual and preferred organisational characteristics

The results of the present study are consistent with much of the previous work studying person-organisation fit. There was substantial support for Hypothesis 1 and partial support for Hypotheses 2 and 3 stated in the introduction, in that a negative relationship existed between job satisfaction and difference between the preferred and the actual organisational values. The factor analysis identified particular clusters of the organisational values and differences on these values had different relationships with the different facets of the attitudinal, perceptual and outcome variables.

Greater differences between the actual and preferred levels of adaptability, innovation, collaboration, direction and supportiveness, were associated with lowered satisfaction with the job itself, increased perception of control of the work situation by organisational forces, increased perceived pressure from relationship with others and increased perceptions of alienation.

Greater differences between the actual and preferred levels of fairness, flexibility, tolerance, praise, opportunities for growth and developing friends, were associated with lower satisfaction with the job itself, satisfaction with personal relationships, overall job satisfaction, less use of task strategies to cope and increased perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation, overall perceived lack of control, and alienation from the organisation.

Greater differences between actual and preferred levels of risk taking, individual responsibility and autonomy were associated with lower satisfaction with achievement, value and growth, satisfaction with the job itself, satisfaction with organisational design and structure, satisfaction with organisational processes, satisfaction with personal relationships and overall satisfaction, and increased

perceptions of organisational forces controlling the work situation, and feelings alienation from the work situation.

The results of the present study supports previous work finding a relationship between job satisfaction and value preferences and organisational climate (Lyon & Ivanevich, 1974; Mount & Muchinsky, 1978; Spokane, 1985; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973; Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Kozlowski & Hults, 1987; Joyce & Slocum, 1984, Jackovsky & Slocum, 1988; Lawler, Hall & Oldham, 1974; Perio, Gonsalez-Roma & Ramos, 1992). There was however no significant relationship found between value preferences and organisational climate and moral and calculative commitment, which did not support the work of O'Reilly et al. (1991). However, the facet of commitment that assessed alienation was significantly and positively correlated with the discrepancy between organisational characteristics and employee preferences.

10.4. 2. *Relationships between actual and preferred organisational characteristics and withdrawal cognitions, behaviour and ill health*

The perceptions of managers and co-ordinators were taken as the assessment of organisational reality. There are a number of reasons why this was the case. Firstly, there are conceptual difficulties with Profile Similarity Indices which suggest that difference scores are not the appropriate statistical interpretation to conduct on ratings of two separate entities. Using difference scores when there is only one source of variance is suggested to be conceptually acceptable. Secondly, it was felt that the managers and co-ordinators of the service would have a more holistic perspective of the organisation and therefore, be able to give a fairly objective analysis of the procedures and processes that were characteristic of the organisation. However, future comparisons of the discrepancy between perceptions and reality might look into the congruence between what an employee perceives and what and employee prefers, this would possibly be more strongly related to individual outcomes such as job attitudes and perceptions of stress. Assessing the difference between what employees' perceives and what employees' prefer would require the use of polynomial regression equations containing separate measures of the ratings of reality and preferences.

There was considerable support for Hypothesis 4 stating that the better the organisational-individual fit, the lower the intentions to quit and search behaviour would be. However there was little support for Hypothesis 5 stating an expected relationship between organisational - individual differences and ill health.

Greater differences between actual and preferred values constituting Factor 1 were associated with increased search behaviour. Greater differences between actual and preferred levels of values loading on Factor 2 were associated with greater intention to quit and greater search behaviour. Greater differences between actual and preferred levels of values loading on Factor 3 were also associated with increased intention to quit, intention to search and search behaviour.

Mental and physical ill health were not significantly correlated with differences between actual and preferred values on any of the four factors identified.

These results are supportive of work which found a negative relationship between employee preferences and organisational similarity (Marrow, Bower & Seashore, 1967; Jackovsky & Slocum, 1988; Meir & Hasson, 1982).

10.4.3. *The Factor analysis results*

In the study by O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell (1991) seven factors emerged when analyzing organisational characteristics; innovation, stability, respect for people, outcome orientation, attention to detail, team orientation and aggressiveness. Similarly eight, factors emerged when analyzing organisational preferences; innovation, attention to detail outcome orientation, aggressiveness, supportiveness, emphasis on rewards, team orientation and decisiveness. In the present study, four factors were identified in both the analysis of personal preferences and the analysis of the organisational characteristics.

Differences between the present results and those of O'Reilly et al. (1991) may be due to the different occupational sample studied. O'Reilly et al. (1991) applied their measure to a sample of business students, junior, senior and public accountants.

Factors comprising the actual organisation The factors describing the organisation are roughly outlined. *Factor 1* is described primarily by values of

informality, support and quality. Values of social responsibility and reputation, for career development and security, people and team orientation, organisation and aggression also load on this factor. The mean ratings of the values on this factor are the lowest mean ratings for any factor. This indicates that the values described as constituting factor one are seen as less characteristic of the organisation. *Factor 2* is described by values of adaptability, taking initiative and attention to detail. Also loading on this factor are values of individual responsibility, tolerance, confrontation of conflict, competitiveness and emphasising a single organisational culture. These values are seen as more characteristic of the organisation on average. *Factor 3* is described by values of innovation and enthusiasm with a clear guiding philosophy and analytical approach. *Factor 4* is characterised by outcome orientation, being demanding and careful.

Factors describing the preferred organisation The factors describing employee preferences are described. *Factor 1* is described by values of innovation, a clear guiding philosophy, attention to detail, stability, team and people orientation, enthusiasm for the job and social responsibility. This appears to indicate individuals would prefer a stable organisation with a clear philosophy, the organisation would be preferred to be adaptable and innovative, taking action and advantage of available opportunities, at the same time being analytical, paying attention to detail and being socially responsible, orientated towards people, and having a supportive, collaborative environment. The mean rating of the actual levels of the values constituting this factor in organisation were significantly lower than the mean preferred ratings of these values.

Factor 2 is described by adaptability, respect for people, providing opportunity for professional growth, outcome orientated and having a good reputation in the community. Again, the mean rating for values loading on this factor is significantly lower in the organisation than would be preferred by the employees. *Factor 3* is described by individual autonomy, responsibility and informality, risk taking, being highly organised, working long hours and emphasising a single organisational culture. These values were rated on average, lower in the organisation than preferred by employees at $p < .05$. *Factor 4* is described by values of aggressiveness, lack of individual freedom and high

expectations. These values are not significantly difference in the actual organisation than rated as preferred by the employees.

Reasons for the preferences of employees within organisations are suggested by Harrison (1975). He states that in wealthier, more secure societies, people begin to look for deeper satisfactions in their work. When trends towards task orientation and person orientation begin to develop in the wider society, internal pressures for change develop within the power and role orientated structures previously described.

There were significant differences between the reality and preferred ratings on the values constituting these factors. The mean preferred ratings of the values constituting factor 1, 2 and 3 are significantly greater than the mean reality ratings of values on these factors.

10.4.4. Criticisms of the present study

An analysis of employees' perceived value differences rather than comparing the employees preferred ratings to the actual ratings provided by the management may have yielded different results. The lower ratings given by managers when assessing the reality of the organisation, may have inflated the difference scores and increased the effects of differences on attitudes, perceptions, and outcomes.

Some qualitative analysis of the comments made by employees whilst participating in the study would have given further insight into difficulties within the organisation, positive aspects of the organisation, and the diversity of staff views.

The factor analysis would have been more conservative if a higher cut-off point had been used to determine those values that are significantly loaded on the factors. The small sample size and high number of values in the value set would warrant this in a future study, or re-analysis.

10.4.5. Summary

The results of the study indicate the importance of agreement between individual preferences and organisational values for job satisfaction and lowered withdrawal intentions and behaviour. Also the results emphasise the increased feelings of alienation and the increased pressure from relationships with others with the lack of similarity between individual values and the organisational values. The results of the study offer strong support for the validity of assessment of person-organisation fit on the basis of value congruency, which supports the work of O'Reilly et al. (1991). Indeed the importance of values to an individual's job attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment and organisational behaviour is underlined. Thus, organisational and personal values are important to consider in future studies of organisational behaviour.

Chapter Eleven:

11.1 General Discussion

The research appears to have presented more questions to the organisation under study than were actually answered. Thus, the research is descriptive and evaluative rather than conclusive. Some of the areas of concern have been assessed and guidelines for future study outlined.

11.1.1. Chapter five

The results of the first study, looking at demographic and organisational predictors of tenure and turnover strongly support the idea that tenure and turnover are indeed qualitatively different variables. Tenure is predicted by organisational variables, whereas turnover is predicted by demographic and personal variables. Thus, these two variables are measuring different aspects of organisational behaviour, and should not be confused in the occupational literature. A profile of variables suggesting the type of individual who would stay with the organisation for a longer time was proposed.

11.1.2. Chapter Six

The results of second study give strong support to the idea that lowered job satisfaction and lowered moral commitment increases intentions to leave and turnover behaviour. Perceived stress was not as strong a predictor of intentions to leave and turnover behaviour as job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The different relationships between the different facets of organisational commitment and job attitudes, perceptions and turnover indicates that the components of organisational commitment should no longer be assessed as a unitary dimension, the separate facets should be studied separately. This will clarify relationships and indeed, the whole picture of organisational behaviour. The measurement of the different facets still requires some re-assessment.

The results of the first and second study lend some support for the models of turnover intentions and turnover behaviour that have been previously described in the occupational literature. There are however, a number of points to be

considered before conclusions are drawn about the nature of relationships between the variables measured. The variables studied in traditional models of organisational behaviour are viewed as having recursive relationships with each other. However, simple dichotomous relationships between variables obscures the picture of reciprocity that actually exists. There is a high degree of interdependence among the variables that are generally included in models of organisational behaviour with only tentative suggestions of causal directions.

Further research is required assessing: 1) the moderating effects of tenure on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and their subsequent relationship with turnover intentions and behaviour; 2) the moderating relationship of organisational commitment on the outcomes of perceived stress is a further area for investigation; 3) individual differences and how they impact on organisational behaviour. Controlling for aspects of the individual such as predisposition to be satisfaction/dissatisfied in general and how individuals perceive different potential stressors may again clarify the picture of the influence of job attitudes and perceptions on organisational behaviour and turnover behaviour in particular; 4) The measurement of use of coping strategies is an area that requires further investigation as previously discussed in Chapter 6, and the impact on self-perceived efficacy of coping on actual use of coping behaviour assessed.

It is worth considering how the models of organisational behaviour accommodate the theories of organisational behaviour. The theory of reasoned action suggests that turnover is dependent affect towards performing the behaviour and normative pressure. Therefore, in an organisation where turnover is high and the morale of the staff is low. Leaving the organisation may be seen as a normal action to take and there would be little pressure from co-workers to stay. From this theory, it could be assumed that personal morale will be influenced by job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Low satisfaction and low commitment especially may lead to low personal morale and therefore higher turnover cognitions. A high turnover rate may therefore be self-perpetuating according to this theory, with job satisfaction and organisational commitment important variable that may be focused upon to change the attitudes within the organisation.

11.1.3. Chapter Nine

The evaluation of the Realistic Job Preview indicated that there was some influence of the preview on the expectations and subsequent job attitudes and organisational behaviour of those employees who were in the RJP group. However, the sample size, especially for the follow-up group was very small and more research would be needed on the effectiveness of the RJP in this type organisation before conclusions could be drawn. An RJP in the form of a video presented to applicants may be more effective as it is probably more accessible to applicants than a typed leaflet, which may, or may not have been read.

11.1.4. Chapter Ten

The results of the final study suggested that the area of individual-organisational 'fit' or congruence is an important area for further investigation. Although the idea of organisational climate and indeed organisational cultures is not a new one, there has been a lack of recent research in this service area despite the huge changes that services for people with learning difficulties have undergone. The lack of work in this area is surprising in light of the fact that services for people with learning difficulties are strongly value laden. The image theory emphasises the influence of personal value systems on organisational behaviour. Similarly, the theory of work adjustment suggests that the job satisfaction and performance of individuals depends on the match between the individual's values and needs and the reinforcements available in the environment. Values are becoming more recognised as important underlying aspects of the individual's affect and behaviour within the organisation. Indeed, recent models of organisational behaviour emphasise the importance of values.

Management structures would seem of utmost importance considering theories of the employment relationship. Research has suggested matching the management structure to the goals and structures of the organisation. This match would mean that the appropriate levels of training and development are implemented, the correct procedures for appraisal and communication were in place and so on. The career systems theory indeed suggests that the organisations' business strategy determines the organisational reward system and the promotional

opportunities within the organisation. The organisation needs to explicitly advise prospective employees of the career structure within the organisation and the reward system in operation.

The employees in the organisation under study felt that the organisational appraisal system was very negative, with very little positive appraisal, which the employees indicated they would appreciate. The attribution and achievement motivation theory suggests that external attributions are made when negative feedback is given, whilst positive feedback has a negative relationship with turnover (Parsons et al., 1985). Positive feedback is also positively correlated with internal attributions, therefore, making the individual feel competent and successful.

The exchange theory suggests the results of the evaluation of the rewards from the organisation and the costs incurred by the individual are dependent to a certain extent on the individual's perceptions of fairness and ability of the organisation to offer as good rewards as a similar job in another organisation. Employees would prefer fairness to be significantly more characteristic of the organisation than it was perceived to be in the present organisation.

Finally, the environment external to the work place needs assessment and important non-work commitments need to be addressed when defining communications and structures within the organisation. For example, the high incidence of women within the health service industries as a whole, the increase in single parent families, and the increase in the number of fathers as single parents would suggest that some within service provision for child-care may be a possibility that would benefit the organisation as a whole.

11.2. Difficulties encountered within the present research

There are both advantages and disadvantages to conducting organisational research whilst remaining outside the structure of the organisation. The advantages include: i) having a more objective viewpoint from which to assess the organisation, ii) being seen as an independent body by employees within the organisation and iii) general autonomy from the organisation. However,

disadvantages include i) not being updated of changes within the organisation, ii) not being personally aware of the structures and processes within the organisation, and iii) soliciting support from people within the organisation for the research that is being conducted.

The majority of the studies are cross-sectional in design, given the speed of changes within services for people with learning difficulties, longitudinal research designs are even more necessary. Comparisons between cross sectional data may be invalid as the actual organisation may have changed as well as the individuals working within that organisation.

One of the main omissions is the service-users themselves. What impact do employee attitudes and behaviours have on their welfare and quality of care? This would have been too great an area to include in depth in the present thesis. However, in retrospect, greater inclusion of the service-users in each of the studies mentioned above would have given a more holistic picture of the unique job of the direct-care worker.

11.3. Conclusions and recommendations.

The main conclusions of the research are that there is a need for a refocus of the research, away from outcomes and observable behaviours to a focus on individual propensity, values and more objective measures of the outcomes. For example, the outcomes of perceived stress are exactly that, perceptions of stress, whereas a more objective measure of stress would enable the impact of various perceived stressors on the individual to be more accurately assessed.

An interactionist perspective on the development of individual-organisational relationships would give a more balanced and applicable to a greater variety of situations. Each party, both the organisation and the individual need to be assessed Taylor and Giannantonio (1993), an assessment which the interactionist approach provides. Future research should be on investigations of existing models that attempt to explain the nature of the pre- and post-employment interactions between individuals and organisations.

The present occupational group does mirror some of the general findings reported in previous research in the occupational literature thus, some

generalisations may be made about the employment relationship. Individual interventions within organisations however, cannot be based on general models, requiring individual organisational analysis to be reflective of that organisation.

The work force of any organisation is an asset to that organisation. The potential input of individuals employed by the organisation should be recognised. The employment relationship should be characterised by respect both for the individual by the organisation and for the organisation by the individual.

To improve the congruence of individual and organisational values, a number of interventions can be recommended. The first begins at the selection stage: 1) a Realistic Job Preview, informing applicants of both the positive and negative aspects of the organisation and the reality of the job and 2) a chance for the applicant to discuss the position informally with a present employee of the organisation in a similar position to that applied for.

Further intervention is required in the form of training and development of staff. The career structure within services providing support for people with learning difficulties is decidedly flat, however, this does not remove the importance of training and development for direct-care staff.

Training that enhances self-efficacy and motivation should improve subsequent performance and reduce the time it takes for employees to perform well (Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 1991). Training that enhances organisational commitment should improve the organisations ability to retain employees as commitment has demonstrated negative relationships with withdrawal processes. Training fulfilment may moderate the effectiveness of training.

Hatton & Emerson (1993b) similarly, identified four direct points for intervention, firstly improving organisational democracy. Secondly, ensuring that the aims and attitudes of staff members agree with those of the organisation. Thirdly, although staff training per se appears to be a weak predictor of actual staff behaviour, training may have a general influence on job satisfaction and propensity to leave. Finally, a low income has been documented to have an influence on staff turnover, although the issue of pay differentials, i.e. distributive

justice perceptions, may be a more reasonable issue at the present time than pay increases.

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Appendix 4.1: Results of the Kappa calculations

Table 4.1 *Inter-rater reliability for demographic and organisational variables*

Variable	R1*R2	R1*R3	R1*R4
Date of leaving	.68	.85	.87
Date of starting	.65	.65	.65
Date of applying	.64	.64	.54
Date of most recent position	.71	.44	.52
Date of birth	1	1	1
Gender	1	1	1
Marital status	.92	.76	.92
Number of dependents	.88	.75	.88
Place of birth	1	.67	1
Education level	.69	.69	.88
Number of previous jobs	.74	.54	.75
Status when applying	.79	.37	.71
Length of relevant experience	.38	.37	.42
Experience with people with learning difficulties	.64	.02	.77
Position held in the organisation	.91	.7	.92
Site of work	.64	.54	.39
Salary	.62	.9	.67
Hours worked	.69	.66	.89
Intention to improve	.45	.5	.55
Health	1	.84	1
Presently employed	.54	.64	.64
Reason for leaving	.89	.53	.81
Career development	.74	.54	.75

R1 - rater 1; R2 - rater 2; R3 - rater 3; R4 - rater 4.

Appendix 4.2: Measures of job attitudes, perceptions, use of coping strategies, Type A behaviour and outcome variables.

4.1. Scales assessing job satisfaction

These items are scored on a 6 point likert type scale from very much satisfaction to very much dissatisfaction.

Satisfaction with achievement, value and growth

- 1) The feeling you have about the way you and your efforts are valued.
- 2) Current career opportunities.
- 3) The degree to which you feel that you can personally develop or grow in your job.
- 4) The scope your job provides to help you achieve your aspirations and ambitions.
- 5) The degree to which your job taps the range of skills you feel you possess.
- 6) Your level of salary relative to your expectations.

Satisfaction with the job itself

- 1) The actual job itself.
- 2) The level of job security in your present job.
- 3) The kind of work or tasks that you are required to perform.
- 4) The amount of work you are given to do whether too much or too little.

Satisfaction with organisational design and structure

- 1) Communication and the way information flows around your organisation.
- 2) The way changes and innovations are implemented.
- 3) The way in which conflicts are resolved in your company.
- 4) The design or shape of your organisation's structure.
- 5) The degree to which you feel extended in your job.

Satisfaction with organisational processes

- 1) The degree to which you feel 'motivated' by your job.
- 2) The style of supervision your superiors use.
- 3) The amount of participation you are given in important decision-making.
- 4) The amount of flexibility and freedom you feel you have in your job.

Satisfaction with personal relationships

- 1) Relationships you have with other people at work.
- 2) The extent to which you may identify with the public image or goals of your organisation.
- 3) The psychological 'feel' or climate that dominates your organisation.

Broad view of job satisfaction

- 1) The relationship you have with other people at work.
- 2) The actual job itself.
- 3) The style of supervision that your superiors use.

- 4) The scope your job provides to help you achieve your aspirations and ambitions.
- 5) The design or shape of your organisation's structure.

4.2. Scales assessing organisational commitment

Items are scored on a 6 point likert type scale assessing extent of agreement with each of the items in the scale. The extremes of the scale are 'agree' and 'disagree'.

Moral commitment

- 1) I am dedicated to this organisation.
- 2) I feel it is my duty to support this organisation.
- 3) Whenever I am in public, I think of myself as an employee of this organisation.
- 4) It is my personal responsibility to help this organisation achieve success.
- 5) I get upset when people say bad things about this organisation.

Calculative commitment

- 1) I will give my best effort when I know it will be seen by the 'right' people in this organisation.
- 2) I get most involved in my work when I know I'll receive recognition for it.
- 3) I am motivated by thoughts of getting greater personal rewards from this organisation.
- 4) I put effort into this company to the extent I get something in return for it.
- 5) I support this organisation to the extent that it supports me.

Alienative commitment

- 1) Sometimes I would like to walk out of this organisation and never come back.
- 2) I often feel like I want to 'get even' with this company.
- 3) I get angry when I think about this organisation.
- 4) I feel trapped here.
- 5) No matter what I do around here, this organisation remains unchanged.

4.3. Scales assessing sources of pressure in the job

Each item is assessed using a 6 point likert type scale from very definitely is a source of pressure to very definitely is not a source of pressure.

Stress from factors intrinsic to the job

- 1) Having far too much work to do.
- 2) Rate of pay (including perks and fringe benefits).
- 3) Keeping up with new techniques, ideas, technology or innovations of new challenges.

- 4) Having to work very long hours.
- 5) Too much or too little variety in work.
- 6) Business travel and having to live in hotels.
- 7) The accumulative effects of minor tasks.
- 8) Factors not under your direct control.
- 9) Making important decisions.

Stress from the managerial role

- 1) Lack of power and influence.
- 2) Personal beliefs conflicting with those of the organisation.
- 3) Ambiguity in the nature of job role.
- 4) Conflicting job tasks and demands in the role I play.
- 5) Inability to delegate.
- 6) Having to take risks.
- 7) Simply being seen as 'boss'.
- 7) Changes in the way you are asked to do your job.
- 10) Simply being 'visible' or 'available'.
- 11) Having to adopt a negative role (such as sacking someone).
- 12) Implications of mistakes you make.

Stress from relationships with other people

- 1) Managing or supervising the work of other people.
- 2) Coping with office politics.
- 3) Attending meetings.
- 4) Lack of social support by people at work.
- 5) Feeling isolated.
- 6) A lack of encouragement from superiors.
- 7) Working with those of the opposite sex.
- 8) Misuses of time by other people.
- 9) Dealing with ambiguous or 'delicate' situations.
- 10) 'Personality' clashes with others.

Stress from career and achievement

- 1) Over-promotion - being promoted beyond my level of ability.
- 2) Under-promotion - working at a level below my level of ability.
- 3) Threat of impending redundancy or early retirement.
- 4) Being undervalued.
- 5) Changing jobs to progress with career.
- 6) Unclear promotion prospects.
- 7) An absence of any potential career advancement.
- 8) Attaining your own personal levels of performance.
- 9) Opportunities for personal development.

Stress from the organisational structure and climate

- 1) Inadequate guidance and back-up from superiors.
- 2) Lack of consultation and communication.
- 3) Inadequate or poor quality of training/management development.
- 4) Covert discrimination and favouritism.
- 5) Mundane administrative tasks or 'paperwork'.
- 6) Staff shortages and unsettling turnover rates.

- 7) Inadequate feedback about my own performance.
- 8) Insufficient finance or resources to work with.
- 9) Sharing of work and responsibility evenly.
- 10) Morale and organisational climate.
- 11) Characteristics of the organisation's structure and design.

Stress from the home/work interface

- 1) Not having enough work to do.
- 2) Taking my work home.
- 3) Not being able to 'switch-off' at home.
- 4) My spouse's attitude toward my job and career.
- 5) Demands my work makes on my relationship with my spouse/children.
- 6) Absence of emotional support from others outside work.
- 7) Demands that work makes on my private/social life.
- 8) Lack of practical support from others outside work.
- 9) Home life with a partner who is also pursuing a career.
- 10) Absence of stability or dependability in home life.
- 11) Pursuing a career at the expense of home life.

4.4. Scales assessing Type A behaviour

Items are scored on a 6 point likert type scale from very strongly agree to very strongly disagree.

Attitude to living

- 1) Because I am satisfied with life I am not an especially ambitious person who has a need to succeed or progress in their career.
- 2) I am a fairly confident and forceful individual who has no qualms about expressing feelings or opinions in an authoritative and assertive manner.
- 3) When I am doing something, I concentrate on only one activity and am fully committed in giving it 100% of my effort.
- 4) When I compare myself with others I know, I would say that I was more responsible, serious, conscientious and competitive than they are.
- 5) Even though I take my job seriously I could not be described as being completely and absolutely dedicated to it.
- 6) When I am establishing priorities, work does not *always* come first because although it is important, I have other outside interests which I also regard as important.

Style of behaviour

- 1) My impatience with slowness means, for example, that when talking with other people my mind tends to race on ahead and I anticipate what the person is going to say.
- 2) I would describe the manner of my behaviour as being quite vigorous.
- 3) I have a heightened pace of living in that I do things quickly such as eating, talking, walking and so on.
- 4) I am a very impatient sort of person who finds waiting around difficult, especially for other people.
- 5) I am time conscious and lead my life on a 'time is money and can't be wasted' principle.

Ambition

- 1) I am not an especially achievement orientated person who continually behaves in a competitive way or who has a need to win or excel in whatever I do.
- 2) I am usually quite concerned to learn about other people's opinions of me, particularly recognition others give me.
- 3) I am a fairly easy-going individual, who takes life as it comes and who is not especially action-oriented.

Broad view of Type A

- 1) Because I am satisfied with life I am not an especially ambitious person who has a need to succeed or progress in their career.
- 2) My impatience with slowness means, for example, that when talking with other people my mind tends to race on ahead and I anticipate what the person is going to say.
- 3) I am a fairly confident and forceful individual who has no qualms about expressing feelings or opinions in an authoritative and assertive manner.
- 4) I am not an especially achievement orientated person who continually behaves in a competitive way or who has a need to win or excel in whatever I do.
- 5) When I am doing something, I concentrate on only one activity and am fully committed in giving it 100% of my effort.
- 6) I would describe the manner of my behaviour as being quite vigorous.

4.5. Scales assessing perceptions of control

These items are scored on a 6 point likert type scale from very strongly agree to very strongly disagree.

Organisational forces

- 1) The trouble with workers nowadays is that they are subject to too many constraints and punishments.
- 2) It is not possible to draw up plans too far ahead because so many things can occur that make the plans unworkable.
- 3) Even though some people try to control company politics by taking part in social affairs or office politics, most of us are subject to influences we can neither comprehend nor control.
- 4) Management can be unfair when appraising subordinates since their performance is often influenced by accidental events.
- 5) It is upper management rather than ordinary employees who are responsible for poor company performance at an overall level.

Management processes

- 1) Assessments of performance do not reflect the way and how hard individual's work.
- 2) Socialising is an excellent way to develop oneself and emphasis on such things is important.
- 3) Being an effective leader is more often a function of the personal skills than it is if taking advantage of every available opportunity.

- 4) In organisations that are run by a few people who hold the power, the average individual can have little influence over organisational decisions.

Individual influence

- 1) With enough effort it is possible for employees generally to have some effect on top management and the way they behave.
- 2) Being successful and getting to be 'boss' depends on ability - being in the right place at the right time or luck having little to do with it.
- 3) The things that happen to people are more under their control than function of luck or chance.

Broad view of control

- 1) The trouble with workers nowadays is that they are subject to too many constraints and punishments.
- 2) Socialising is an excellent way to develop oneself and emphasis on such things is important.
- 3) Being successful and getting to be 'boss' depends on ability - being in the right place at the right time or luck having little to do with it.
- 4) It is upper management rather than ordinary employees who are responsible for poor company performance at an overall level.
- 5) In organisations that are run by a few people who hold the power, the average individual can have little influence over organisational decisions.

4.6. *Items comprising scales assessing use of different coping strategies*

Items are scored on a likert type scale assessing use of the coping strategy.

The extremes of the scale are 'very extensively used by me' to 'never used by me'.

Social support

- 1) Seek support and advice from my superiors.
- 2) Talk to understanding friends.
- 3) Have stable relationships.
- 4) Seek as much social support as possible.

Task strategies

- 1) Reorganise my work.
- 2) Plan ahead.
- 3) Use distractions (to take your mind off things).
- 4) Set priorities and deal with problems accordingly.
- 5) Resort to rules and regulations.
- 6) Delegation.
- 7) Try to avoid the situation.

Logic

- 1) Try to deal with the situation objectively in an unemotional way.
- 2) Suppress emotions and try not to let the stress show.
- 3) Try to 'stand aside' and think through the situation.

Home and work relationship

- 1) Resort to hobbies and pastimes.
- 2) Having a home that is a 'refuge'.
- 3) Deliberately separate 'home' and 'work'.
- 4) Expand interests and activities outside work.

Time

- 1) Deal with the problems immediately as they occur.
- 2) Buy time and stall the issue.
- 3) Effective time management.
- 4) Force one's behaviour and lifestyle to slow down.

Involvement

- 1) Try to recognise my own limitations.
- 2) Look for ways to make the work more interesting.
- 3) 'Stay busy'.
- 4) Not 'bottling things up' and being able to release energy.
- 5) Accept the situation and learn to live with it.

4.7. Scales assessing withdrawal cognitions and behaviour

Intention to quit

- 1) Estimate how much longer you intent to work for this organisation? (Measured on a five point scale from one month (5) to 5 years; 1)
- 2) How often do you seriously consider quitting your job? (Measured on a five point scale from never (5) to all the time; 1)
- 3) Are you actually planning to quit? *yes/no*
- 4) Do you want to quit? *yes/no*
- 5) How likely is it that you will be with this organisation 2 years from now?. (Measured on a five point scale from not at all likely (1) to very likely; 5)

Intention to search

- 1) If you happened to learn that a good job was open in another organisation, how likely is it that you would actively pursue it? (Measured on a five point scale from not at all actively (5) to very actively; 1)
- 2) How likely is it that you will actually look for a different organisation in the next year? (Measured on a five point scale from not at all likely (5) to very likely; 1)

Search behaviour

- 1) How actively have you searched for a job with another organisation in the last 3 months? (Measured on a five point scale from not at all actively (5) to very actively; 1)
- 2) How many jobs outside of the organisation have you applied for in the last 3 months.

4.8. Scales assessing ill health

Mental ill health

These items are measured on a six point likert scale, each item has different extremes on the scale.

- 1) Would you say that you tended to be a rather overconscientious person who worried about mistakes or actions that you may have taken in the past, such as decisions? *Very true (6)/Very untrue (1)*
- 2) During an ordinary working day are there times when you feel unsettled and upset though the reasons for this might not always be clearly obvious? *Frequently (6)/Never (1)*
- 3) When you consider your level and quality of job performance recently, do you think that your contribution has been significantly useful? *Very useful (6)/Not really (1)*
- 4) As difficult problems occur at work that require your attention, do you find that you can think as clearly and concisely as you used to or do you find your thoughts becoming 'muddled'? *Definitely think not as clearly (6)/Definitely think as clearly (1)*
- 5) When the pressure starts to mount at work, can you find a sufficient store of reserve energy which you can call upon at times when you need it that spurs you on into action? *Lots of energy (6)/Not much energy (1)*
- 6) Are there times at work when you feel so exasperated that you sit back and think to yourself that 'life is all really just too much effort'? *Often (6)/Never (1)*
- 7) As you do your job, have you noticed yourself questioning your own ability and judgement and a decrease in the overall confidence you have in yourself? *No noticeable decrease (6)/Noticeable decrease (1)*
- 8) Generally and at work, do you usually feel relaxed and at ease or do you tend to feel restless, tense and find it difficult to 'settle down'? *Relaxed (6)/Tense (1)*
- 9) If colleagues and friends behave in an aloof way towards you, do you tend to worry about what you may have done to offend them as opposed to just dismissing it? *Definitely worry (6)/Definitely do not worry (1)*
- 10) If the tasks you have implemented, or jobs you are doing, start to go wrong, do you sometimes feel a lack of confidence, and panicky, as though events were getting out of control? *Often (6)/Never (1)*
- 11) Do you feel confident that you have properly identified and efficiently tackled your work or domestic problems recently? *Have 'faced up' properly (6)/Have not 'faced up' properly (1)*
- 12) Concerning work and life in general, would you describe yourself as someone who is bothered by their troubles or as a worrier? *Definitely yes (6)/Definitely no (1)*
- 13) When trying to do work do you find yourself disproportionately irritated by relatively minor distractions such as answering the telephone or being interrupted? *Very irritated (6)/Not irritated at all (1)*

14) As time goes by, do you find yourself experiencing fairly long periods in which you feel rather miserable or melancholy for reasons that you simply 'cannot put a finger on'? *Often (6)/Never(1)*

15) Would you say you had a positive frame of mind in which you feel capable of overcoming your present or any future difficulties and problems you might face such as resolving dilemmas or making difficult decisions?

Definitely yes (6)/Definitely no (1)

16) When you think about you past events do you feel regretful about what has happened, the way you have acted, decisions you have taken? *No regrets (6)/Lots of regrets (1)*

Definitely yes (6)/Definitely no (1)

17) Would you describe yourself as being a rather 'moody' sort of person who can become unreasonable and bad tempered quickly? *Definitely yes (6)/Definitely no (1)*

Definitely yes (6)/Definitely no (1)

18) Are there times at work when the things you have got to deal with simply become too much and you feel so overtaxed that you think you are 'cracking-up'? *Definitely yes (6)/Definitely no (1)*

Physical ill health

Items assessed on a six point likert type scale from very frequently to never.

- 1) Inability to get to sleep or to stay asleep.
- 2) Headaches and pains in your head.
- 3) Indigestion or sickness.
- 4) Feeling unaccountably tired or exhausted.
- 5) Tendency to eat, drink or smoke more than usual.
- 6) Decrease in sexual interest.
- 7) Shortness of breath or feeling dizzy.
- 8) Decrease in appetite.
- 9) Muscles trembling (e.g eye-twitch).
- 10) Pricking sensations or twinges in parts of your body.
- 11) Feeling as though you do not want to get up in the morning.
- 12) Tendency to sweat or a feeling of your heart beating hard.

Appendix 6.1: Validity of questionnaire measures assessing job attitudes and perceptions

Cronbach's alpha calculations were conducted to assess the validity of the measures. The results of the calculations are shown in Table 6.3 below.

Table 6.1a: Internal validity of questionnaire scales: Cronbach's alpha

Scales from the Occupational Stress Indicator	Cronbach's Alpha
How you feel about your job	
Satisfaction with achievement and growth	.901
Satisfaction with the job itself	.78
Satisfaction with organisational design and structure	.88
Satisfaction with organisational processes	.78
Satisfaction with personal relationships	.64
Broad view of satisfaction	.83
How you assess your current state of health	
Mental health	.316
Physical health	.86
The way you behave generally	
Attitude to living	.063
Style of behaviour	.548
Ambition	.373
Broad view of type A	.397
How you interpret events around you	
Organisational forces	.655
Management processes	.422
Individual influences	.309
Broad view of control	.406
Sources of pressure	
Factors intrinsic to the job	.809
The managerial role	.828
Relationships with other people	.834
Career and achievement	.842
Organisational structure and climate	.896
Home/work interface	.849
How you cope with stress you experience	
Social support	.412
Task strategies	.672
Logic	-.01
Home and work relationship	.597
Time	.108
Involvement	.294
Scales from the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire	
Calculative commitment	.775
Alienative commitment	.712
Moral commitment	.772

These reliability coefficients are based on correlation coefficients. Thus, a reliability coefficient of .7 or above can be considered as a strong reliability

coefficient. A reliability coefficient of .5 can be considered as a moderate reliability coefficient. A reliability coefficient of .3 indicates that the scale has poor reliability, with a reliability of less than .3, the reliability of the scale is very poor. The implications for scales of low reliability is that the result with regards to the scales are not very meaningful, as the scales themselves may not assess one dimension. It may be recommendable that the items on the scales are analysed to assess what the discrepant variables are.

The majority of scales have acceptable internal validity. Measures of Type A and perceived control have low internal validities, a pattern similar to that found by Cooper, Sloan and Williams (1988) in the development of the OSI. They note that these characteristics are difficult ones to access and suggest ordering effects of the sections of the questionnaire may be partly responsible. Further development of these scales may be warranted. In addition, some of the scales assessing coping strategies, namely, the use of logic, time and involvement have low internal reliabilities. Further analysis of these subscales may also be required. The mental health measures also yielded a low alpha level, although this was not reflective of Cooper et al's (1988) findings. The low reliability may have been a reflection of the difference between management responses and the present population completing the questionnaire. The comprehension of the questions that were being asked, and the relevance and meaning of the questions to the two populations.

EXIT INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

The Exit Interview is a commonly used way of finding out why people leave their jobs. If there is part of the job or the organisation which has influenced your decision to leave then the organisation may be able to review this area and improve the service it provides both for staff and service-users alike. If there is something you particularly enjoyed about the job then it is important to let the organisation know this too.

If you were not satisfied with an aspect of the job then please say why.

The questionnaires are completely confidential, participation is voluntary.

Name.....	Department.....
Age.....	Date of Birth.....
Date of Starting.....	Date of Leaving.....
Job title on joining.....	Salary on Joining.....
Present job title.....	Present Salary.....
Distance Travelled to work (in miles approx).....	Time taken to get to work.....

Highest Level of Education Achieved:

- 1 No formal qualifications
- 2 CSE other grades, GCSE other grades/Commercial qualifications and apprenticeships.
- 3 GCE O'level or equivalent, CSE grade 1, GCSE=ABC, technical college.
- 4 A'level or equivalent/Diploma or higher education below degree level, Diploma/advanced level.
- 5 Professional qualifications not achieved through University/Polytechnic: Teacher training college, nursing, 2-3 year courses etc or University Polytechnic degree.

What does the term 'challenging behaviour' mean to you?

What do you wish you had known when you started the job, which would have helped you in your job?

Overall, how did you get on with your manager?	Not very well
	Quite well
	Very well

Overall, how did you get on with your Co-workers?	Not very well
	Quite well
	Very well

Please rate the following aspects of the job with regard to how satisfied you were with them, how important each aspect of the job given below, was to you and how important each aspect of the job was in your decision to leave your last employer. Please circle the response that applies to you.

Satisfaction Scale: 1 = Not at all satisfied
 2 = Quite satisfied
 3 = Very satisfied

Importance in the job: 1 = Not at all important
 2 = Quite important
 3 = Very important

Importance in the decision to leave: 1 = Not at all important
 2 = Quite important
 3 = Very important

ASPECTS OF THE JOB	Satisfaction	Imp.	Imp. in decision to leave
Salary:			
Basic wage	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Benefits	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Bonuses	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Hours of work:			
Basic Hours	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Extra Hours	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Shifts	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Co-workers			
Emotional support from Co-workers	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Physical support from Co-workers (in terms of swapping duties, helping with tasks etc.)	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Available feedback from Co-workers	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Social outings with co-workers	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Working conditions			
Initial training when starting the job	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Information available to you about the job and organisation when you started	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Physical environment in which you work	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Satisfaction with the job itself			
Variety	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Status	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3

Satisfaction and importance of various aspects of the job (Contd)

Satisfaction Scale: 1 = Not at all satisfied
 2 = Quite satisfied
 3 = Very satisfied

Importance in the job: 1 = Not at all important
 2 = Quite important
 3 = Very important

Importance in the decision to leave: 1 = Not at all important
 2 = Quite important
 3 = Very important

ASPECTS OF THE JOB	Satisfaction	Importance	Importance in decision to leave
Satisfaction with the job itself (contd)			
Responsibility	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Independence	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Social service provided by the job for the community	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Challenges you come across at work	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Goals that are set for you	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Work pressures	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Satisfaction with the management			
Communication with the management	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Physical support (having transport available, covering shifts you are unable to work etc).	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Emotional support (someone there to talk to in confidence).	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Clarity (you know what they expect from you).	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Control (the level of control they have over you)	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Available feedback from the management about how you are doing.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Your contribution to management decisions	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Decisions made by the management	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Opportunities for personal improvement			
Opportunity to become a full-time member of staff	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Experience gained through the job	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
On going training			
Qualifications gained through the job	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3

Satisfaction and importance of various aspects of the job (Continued)

**Satisfaction Scale: 1 = Not at all satisfied
 2 = Quite satisfied
 3 = Very satisfied**

**Importance in the job: 1 = Not at all important
 2 = Quite important
 3 = Very important**

**Importance in the decision to leave: 1 = Not at all important
 2 = Quite important
 3 = Very important**

ASPECTS OF THE JOB	Satisfaction	Importance	Importance in decision to leave
Client Characteristics:			
Level of mental ability	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Level of social ability	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Behaviour problems	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
Physical ability	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3

REASONS FOR LEAVING

Please rate the following in terms of how important they were in your decision to leave your job.
Circle the answer that applies to you

Importance in the decision to leave: 1 = Not at all important
2 = Quite important
3 = Very important

Travel difficulties	1 2 3
Housing Difficulties	1 2 3
Moving from the area	1 2 3
Family Responsibilities	1 2 3
Found another job	1 2 3
Marriage	1 2 3
Pregnancy	1 2 3
Retirement	1 2 3
Ill Health	1 2 3
Bereavement	1 2 3
Other (give reason).....	1 2 3

If you were dismissed, please tick the reason why you think you were dismissed:

-
- Work Performance
 - Time Keeping
 - Absenteeism
 - Unsatisfactory conduct
 - Made redundant
 - End of temporary contract
 - Other (please specify).....
-

Do you have another job to go to?
If yes, what is the nature of the job?

What is the title of the new job?

What will the salary be in the new job?

Voluntariness of the decision to leave the organisation:

Please rate the following statements in terms of how much you agree with them on the following scale:

Strongly disagree	1
Disagree	2
Neutral	3
Agree	4
Strongly agree	5

1) It was entirely my decision to leave the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
2) It was at least partly the organisation's decision that I leave	5	4	3	2	1
3) Informally I was encouraged to leave the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
4) I am certain that the organisation wanted me to stay	5	4	3	2	1
5) The decision to leave was primarily made by the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
6) The organisation no longer needed me	5	4	3	2	1
7) The decision to leave was mostly mine	5	4	3	2	1

Avoidability of the decision to leave:

Please rate the following statements in terms of how much you agree with them on the following scale:

Strongly Disagree	1
Disagree	2
Neutral	3
Agree	4
Strongly Agree	5

1) The decision to leave could not have been avoided by the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
2) The organisation could have made changes which would have led me to stay	5	4	3	2	1
3) The reasons why I left have nothing to do with the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
4) The organisation could have convinced me to stay	5	4	3	2	1
5) The factors influencing my decision to leave were beyond the organisation's control	5	4	3	2	1
6) I would have stayed if things were better at the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
7) The reasons I left do not concern my career at the organisation	5	4	3	2	1

Appendix 7.2: Follow-up questionnaire for the Exit Interview study

NAME:

Satisfaction with and importance of various aspects of the job

Please rate the following aspects of the job with regard to how satisfied you were with them whilst working with the Organisation. In the second column, could you please rate how important each aspects of the job, given below, would be to your ideal job

Satisfaction scale:

- 1 = Not at all satisfied
 - 2 = Quite satisfied
 - 3 = Very satisfied
-

Importance scale:

- 1 = Not at all important
 - 2 = Quite important
 - 3 = Very important
-

ASPECTS OF THE JOB	SATISFACTION	IMPORTANCE
Salary	1 2 3	1 2 3
Hours of work	1 2 3	1 2 3
Working conditions	1 2 3	1 2 3
Co-workers	1 2 3	1 2 3
The management	1 2 3	1 2 3
Opportunities for professional improvement	1 2 3	1 2 3
Client characteristics	1 2 3	1 2 3
The content of the job	1 2 3	1 2 3
On the job training	1 2 3	1 2 3
Experience gained	1 2 3	1 2 3

REASONS FOR LEAVING

Please rate the following in terms of how important they were in your decision to leave your job.
Circle the answer that applies to you

Importance in the decision to leave: 1 = Not at all important
2 = Quite important
3 = Very important

Travel difficulties	1	2	3
Housing Difficulties	1	2	3
Moving from the area	1	2	3
Family Responsibilities	1	2	3
Found another job	1	2	3
Marriage	1	2	3
Pregnancy	1	2	3
Retirement	1	2	3
Ill Health	1	2	3
Bereavement	1	2	3
Other (give reason).....	1	2	3

If you were dismissed, please tick the reason why you think you were dismissed:

-
- Work Performance
Time Keeping
Absenteeism
Unsatisfactory conduct
Made redundant
End of temporary contract
Other (please specify).....
-

Do you have another job to go to?
If yes, what is the nature of the job?

What is the title of the new job?

What will the salary be in the new job?

Voluntariness of the decision to leave the organisation:

Please rate the following statements in terms of how much you agree with them on the following scale:

Strongly disagree 1
Disagree 2
Neutral 3
Agree 4
Strongly agree 5

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1) It was entirely my decision to leave the organisation | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2) It was at least partly the organisation's decision that I leave | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3) Informally I was encouraged to leave the organisation | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4) I am certain that the organisation wanted me to stay | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 5) The decision to leave was primarily made by the organisation | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6) The organisation no longer needed me | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 7) The decision to leave was mostly mine | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
-

Avoidability of the decision to leave:

Please rate the following statements in terms of how much you agree with them on the following scale:

Strongly Disagree 1
Disagree 2
Neutral 3
Agree 4
Strongly Agree 5

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1) The decision to leave could not have been avoided by the organisation | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2) The organisation could have made changes which would have led me to stay | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3) The reasons why I left have nothing to do with the organisation | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4) The organisation could have convinced me to stay | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 5) The factors influencing my decision to leave were beyond the organisation's control | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6) I would have stayed if things were better at the organisation | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 7) The reasons I left do not concern my career at the organisation | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
-

Appendix 8.1: List of activities that were identified during the pilot observation study

The list of activities were programmed into the Psion organisers that the two observers used for their observation periods.

CODE	ACTIVITIES
M	Medical
MF	Administer first-aid
MM	Give out medicines
HW	Housework
HWCl	Cleaning
HWL	Laundry
HWW	Washing-up
HWC	Cooking
HWS	Shopping
HWSO	Sorting clothes and belongings to be labelled etc.
I	Individual activities
ID	Drinking tea etc with an individual client.
IP	Prompting individuals to complete jobs, washing, dressing etc.
IPP	Individual program plan meeting
ITe	Teaching e.g Makaton, or how to do a task etc.
IC	Counselling i.e talking to one of the clients about something that is bothering them.
ITa	Chatting to one of the clients generally
IR	Reading to one of the clients
IPu	Punishing individual client verbally
ITo	Toileting individual
IDr	Helping individual to dress and/or wash
IW	Taking individual to work
IO	Individual outing
ITv	Watching Tv with individual
G	Group activities
GTv	Watching the Tv with one or more of the clients
GTa	Chatting generally with more than one client present.
GE	Eating a meal together
GP	Prompting clients to complete a task together
GT	Teaching the clients as a group to perform a task
GC	Counselling the clients as a group for example, to overcome some difficulty within the house.
GO	Group outing

GD	Drinking tea etc as a group
GS	Serving meals to the clients
GDr	Helping more than one client at once to wash/dress.
GW	Taking the group to and from work
S	Staff
SP	Talking with the previous duty member of staff at the change over of duties
SSM	Staff Support Meetings arranged to discuss difficulties within the house.
SC	Consulting other members of staff about how to cope with a particular difficulty or perform a particular duty.
ST	Staff Training
SOcl	Staff outing to fetch client
SLM	Large staff meeting
SCc	Case conference
SGP	Goal Planning meeting for individual client
A	Administration
AA	Arranging staff duties
AD	Daily reports on each man in the house
ACS	Communication reports between staff
ACT	Communication reports between training workshops
AF	Filling in this time sheet with daily activities
B	In bed!
L	Staff leisure time (not actually interacting with the clients, having a break)

The service users on the residential site tend to have more severe learning difficulties and behavioural problems than those in the community. The job of the residential support worker is therefore different to that of the residential support worker. The differences are outlined below

THE RESIDENTIAL SUPPORT WORKER - WHAT WILL YOU BE DOING EVERYDAY?

PRACTICAL TASKS

Service-users should be encouraged as far as possible to help with practical tasks such as housework and cooking.

ACTIVITIES WITH SERVICE-USERS

On the residential site the service-users live in bungalows, mostly attend the on site resource centre or work places and attend the on-site church. Visits into the local community tend to be in groups, for short periods at a time and in the minibuses provided for the residential site.

CARING FOR THE PHYSICAL NEEDS OF THE SERVICE-USERS

- Service users on the residential site may need more physical help in terms of washing, dressing and toileting than those in the community.
- Service-users on the residential site are more likely to be on medication which you may have to give out

WHAT ARE YOUR WORKING CONDITIONS?

- There are two shifts for day staff, morning-afternoon, starting at 8.00am and afternoon-evening shifts which end at 10.00pm. For the night staff the shifts are from 10pm to 8am
- You will be required to work some weekends as part of the job
- On the residential site there are between 6 and 12 service-users in a bungalow
- On the residential site some units have two staff working all the time, on others there is only one member of staff working at any one time
- You can claim for travel costs while at work

WHAT WILL YOU FIND HARD?

- The level of difficulties presented by the service-users on the residential site could be difficult to cope with

WHAT SUPPORT IS AVAILABLE TO HELP ME COPE?

- There is a leisure team for the residential site which helps with outings for service-users
- Support from other staff in you bungalow and other bungalows on the residential site

BROTHERS OF CHARITY SERVICES

Good staff are our major investment

So you're thinking of working with people with Learning Difficulties (Mental Handicap)?

- It's a hard but challenging job
- The job is supporting people with learning problems and helps them to reach their potential
- You will be gaining valuable professional experience
- You will be forming relationships with people, both other staff and people with Learning Difficulties
- The job requires commitment, which many applicants find they cannot give, so our turnover is high

We want you to read this leaflet and consider carefully whether this is the right job for you

WHO ARE THE PEOPLE YOU WILL BE WORKING WITH?

Learning difficulties is a term used to describe people with permanent problems in learning to cope with everyday life. Some may not be able to speak, some may have difficulty dressing, moving around or feeding and some need to be toileted. Within the Brothers of Charity services, the term 'service-user' is used to describe people with learning difficulties.

But not being able to speak doesn't mean our service-users cannot communicate and make their wishes known, having permanent problems does not mean people do not develop and enjoy life with suitable support.

WHY ARE YOU DOING THE JOB?

- To give service-users the opportunity to learn about and practice caring for themselves
- To help service-users live as independently as possible
- To help service-users live as normal a life as possible

HOW DO YOU DO THIS?

- Allow service-users to take risks in order to learn
- Allow service-users to take responsibility for their care, whilst still offering assistance
- Allow service-users the opportunity of choice
- Prompting and encouraging service-users to complete tasks and learn new skills

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THE COMMUNITY SUPPORT WORKER - WHAT WILL YOU BE DOING EVERYDAY?

PRACTICAL TASKS

- The house work is shared between the staff and the service-users in the house
- Helping service-users to prepare and serve meals for themselves
- Writing reports on the service-users
- Keeping house accounts in order
- Doing the shopping for the house with the service-users

All these tasks give you an opportunity to teach the service-users how to take care of themselves, although the level of independence achieved is restricted by the level of difficulties the service users present.

ACTIVITIES WITH SERVICE-USERS

- Drinking tea with the service-users
- Watching Television
- Teaching service-users new skills and reinforcing old ones
- Talking with service-users
- Outings with service-users. These include going for meals, going to church, going to local clubs, going for walks etc.

In the community homes the service-users have a valuable opportunity to become part of the community.

CARING FOR THE PHYSICAL NEEDS OF THE SERVICE-USERS

The level of care required by the service-users depends on their ability to care for and learn to care for themselves.

- Service-users may need help with toileting
- Service-users may need help with washing and dressing
- Service-users might be on medication which you will have to give out during your shift

WHAT ARE YOUR WORKING CONDITIONS?

- The hours of the community support worker are long and demanding. There are 3 shifts: 1) The sleep in duty - from 4.00pm to 10.00 am. The support worker is officially on duty from 4.00pm to 11.00pm, and again from 7.00am to 10.00am. There is a room for the staff to sleep in in each house.
- 2) The evening shift - from 4.00pm to 10.00pm. 3) Weekend day shifts - from 9.30am to 4.30pm.
- You will be required to work weekends as part of the job
- There are usually 3 service-users in a community house although there are exceptions
- There is usually only one member of staff on at any one time. Sometimes there may be two staff working the same evening shift.
- You can claim for travel costs while at work

WHAT ARE THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE COMMUNITY SUPPORT WORKER

- Staff members have to be reliable and punctual
- The staff on duty are responsible for the welfare of the service-users during that time.
- Each member of the staff is a key worker for at least one of the service-users in the house. This means working with the service-user to achieve personal goals

WHAT WILL YOU FIND HARD?

Different people find different things hard about the job i.e

- Working shift-work and weekends
- Caring for the physical needs of the service-users
- Meeting and working with new people
- Working on your own

WHAT WILL YOU FIND REWARDING?

- Friendships that you make within the organisation
- Meeting new people, staff and service-users alike
- Learning new skills
- Helping people achieve self-fulfilment and maximise their independence in the community

WHAT KIND OF QUALITIES WILL YOU NEED?

- An ability to get on with other people at all levels, whether they are as able as yourself or not
- Patience - in abundance
- An ability to listen, some people find it harder than others to express their views, so you need to give them time to communicate
- You need to be fairly calm and able to cope with a crisis without panicking
- You need to be physically mobile
- Initiative - you have to be able to work on your own, make decisions and take responsibility for them

WHAT KIND OF DAILY CONFLICTS WILL YOU FACE?

RISKS

There is a conflict between encouraging people to learn and therefore, take some responsibility for themselves and providing a caring environment and service for people with learning difficulties. You need to consider:

- The level of risk; i.e. is it life threatening
- The ability of the client
- The time you have available
- The risk to other service-users whilst you are supervising one and the others are on their own
- Your responsibility for the service-users' welfare and also their development

STRESSFUL ASPECTS OF THE JOB

- Caring for people with learning difficulties in itself can be stressful
- The frustration if service-users do not learn as quickly as you would like
- The responsibility
- The hours and the shifts
- Staff shortages, sickness or holidays may cause you to have to work extra hours

WHAT KIND OF SUPPORT IS AVAILABLE TO HELP ME COPE?

- There is an on-call manager available at all times
- Support from other staff in your house
- Attendance at staff meetings gives you further opportunities to voice your needs
- Training days are provided by the Brothers of Charity services which help you to further your ability and expertise in this field
- Evaluation during your first three months of employment
- Support from professional staff at the Brothers of Charity
- Each house is paired with another, this can be a helpful source of support especially if they are close together.

WHAT WILL I BE ASSESSED ON?

The first three months of employment are a trial period during which you will be assessed on

- Time keeping
- Absence due to sickness
- Absence for other reasons
- Performance

Appendix 9.1: Results of the Cronbach's alpha calculations.

Cronbach's alpha calculations for the job expectations questionnaire are shown below in Table 9.1a

Table 9.1a: Cronbach's alpha for the scales used in the expectations questionnaire

Scale	Cronbach's alpha value
Service users	.67
Cover	.44
Intrinsic rewards	.6
Extrinsic rewards	.49
Involvement	.49
Task Orientation	.65

Appendix 10.1: Definitions of the values in the organisational culture profile item set

1. Flexibility

This item refers to the ability of the organisation to be flexible in approaching both internal and external situations.

2. Adaptability

This item refers to the adaptability of the organisation to a changing internal/external environment

3. Stability

This refers to the stability of the organisation, in terms of structure, policies and processes.

4. Predictability

Predictability of how the organisation reacts to certain situations internally and external to the organisation.

5. Being innovative

Is the organisation innovative, i.e. does it think of original ideas, and keep up with new ideas in its field?

6. Being quick to take advantage of opportunities

Is the organisation quick or slow in its reactions to opportunities to expand or improve its services?

7. A willingness to experiment

Is the organisation willing to try out with new ideas?

8. Risk Taking

Does the organisation take risks in achieving the necessities and goals of the service?

9. Being Careful

Is the organisation careful in its application of procedures and processes within the organisation?

10. Autonomy

Does the organisation foster autonomy among its workers, or is autonomy discouraged?

11. Being Rule Oriented

Is the working of the organisation very formalised and 'by the book'?

12. Being analytical

Does the organisation analyse the application of its processes, and analyse the utility of new processes and ideas before implementing them in the organisation?

13. Paying attention to detail

Is the organisation preoccupied with attention to detail

14. Being precise

Is it important to the organisation for things to be precise?

15. Being team oriented

Does the organisation emphasise team-work and allow these teams to work effectively?

16. Sharing information freely

Is there a freedom of information (except confidential information) throughout the organisation?

17. Emphasizing a single culture throughout the organisation

Is one way of doing things emphasised throughout the organisation or are individual styles allowed to develop within different teams.

18. Being people orientated

Are people the primary concern of the organisation?

19. Fairness

Do you perceive the organisation as fair?

20. Respect for the individual's right

Are individual's rights respected within the organisation?

21. Tolerance

Is the organisation tolerant of mistakes and differences between people?

22. Informality

Would you describe the organisation as informal i.e. uniform dress, etc.?

23. Being easy going

Is the organisation relaxed about its approach to people and situations both internally and externally?

24. Being calm

Is the organisation calm?

25. Being supportive

Is the organisation supportive to its staff members and service-users?

26. Being aggressive

Does the organisation have an assertive image, internally in its employment processes, i.e. dismissals etc. and externally?

27. Decisiveness

Is the organisation decisive when a decision has to be made?

28. Action oriented

When a decision is made, does the organisation act to implement this decision? **29. Taking initiative**

Does the organisation emphasise taking initiative in its employees?

30. *Being reflective*

Does the organisation reflect on past disasters/triumphs, on policies that work and those that don't?

31. *Achievement orientation*

Is achievement of goals and philosophy the most important aim in the organisation?

32. *Being demanding*

Is the organisation demanding on employees that work for the organisation or on people outside the organisation that support it?

33. *Taking individual responsibility*

Does the organisation emphasise individuals are responsible for their actions or is there a structured hierarchy down which the buck passes?

34. *Having high expectations for performance*

Are employees expected to perform highly?

35. *Opportunities for professional growth*

Does the organisation supply the employees with opportunities for professional growth in terms of training or promotions?

36. *High pay for good performance*

Is pay linked to performance ratings?

37. *Security of employment*

Is the employment with the organisation secure or is there a constant risk of redundancy or dismissal?

38. *Offers praise for good performance*

Does the organisation give positive feedback to employees who perform well?

39. *Low level of conflict*

Are there high or low levels of conflict within the organisation.

40. *Confronting conflict directly*

When conflict arises is it dealt with directly?

41. *Developing friends at work*

Does the organisation facilitate or encourage socialisation between employees? 42. *Fitting in*

Is it important to fit in with the organisation or are diversities tolerated?

43. *Working in collaboration with others*

Are individuals encouraged to work together, consult one another etc? Does the organisation work in collaboration with other organisations?

44. *Enthusiasm for the job*

Is the organisation enthusiastic about the job?

45. Working long hours

Are employees expected to work long hours?

46. Not being constrained by many rules

Do you feel that rule restrain your capacity to do your job?

47. An emphasis on quality

Does the organisation emphasise quality of work?

48. Being distinctive-different from others

Is it important to the organisation to be different to other organisations in the same field?

49. Having a good reputation

Is it important to the organisation to have a good reputation?

50. Being socially responsible

Is the organisation socially responsible?

51. Being results oriented

Is the emphasis mainly on the results?

52. Having a clear guiding philosophy

Does the organisation base its actions on a clear philosophy?

53. Being competitive

Is competition within the organisation encouraged? Does the organisation compete with others in the same field?

54. Being highly organised

Is the organisation highly organised?

Appendix 10.2: Mean ratings of managerial and direct-care group for values characteristic of the organisation

Table 1a: Variables characteristic of the organisation - mean ratings by the managerial and the direct-care group

Items	Managerial group	Direct-care group	F	P
1. Flexibility	4.54	6.17	4.41	.02 ^{**}
2. Adaptability	5.55	5.94	.28	.599
3. Stability	4.45	5.72	2.58	.114
4. Predictability	5.09	6.09	1.54	.219
5. Innovation	4.82	6.47	7.32	.009
6. Opportunities	5.55	5.94	.33	.57
7. Experiment	5.27	5.87	.6	.441
8. Risk taking	5.72	4.77	1.42	.238
9. Careful	5.72	6.51	1.15	.287
10. Autonomy	4.82	6.83	7.21	.009
11. Rule oriented	5.73	6.0	.13	.721
12. Analytical	4.36	5.47	2.46	.122
13. Attention to detail	5.18	6.17	1.86	.178
14. Precision	4.91	5.64	.84	.362
15. Team orientation	4.09	6.28	7.76	.007
16. Sharing information	5.18	5.38	.04	.835
17. Single culture	3.18	4.55	3.65	.061
18. People orientation	5.45	6.11	.65	.424
19. Fairness	5.45	5.83	.22	.638
20. Respect for individual	6.64	6.83	.06	.812
21. Tolerance	5.82	6.55	1.09	.30
22. Informality	6.36	6.6	.11	.74
23. Easy going	5.27	6.13	1.58	.214
24. Being calm	5.45	6.32	1.38	.244
25. Being supportive	5.82	5.75	.01	.94
26. Being aggressive	4.0	4.25	.10	.758
27. Decisiveness	4.55	5.77	2.71	.105
28. Action oriented	4.91	5.75	1.38	.245
29. Taking initiative	4.91	6.68	6.74	.012
30. Being reflective	5.55	6.0	.41	.524
31. Achievement orientation	5.36	6.68	3.24	.077
32. Being demanding	6.36	6.66	.16	.688
33. Individual responsibility	5.09	7.3	11.69	.001
34. High expectations	6.55	6.77	.10	.755
35. Professional growth	5.36	5.68	.13	.721
36. High pay	3.45	3.26	.07	.793
37. Security	6.09	6.08	.00	.984
38. Praise	4.55	4.7	.03	.87
39. Low conflict	4.27	5.34	1.66	.203
40. Confronting conflict	4.18	6.47	8.84	.004
41. Developing friends	5.91	6.0	.01	.914
42. Fitting in	6.09	5.98	.02	.881
43. Collaboration	4.91	5.91	1.41	.239
44. Enthusiasm	5.36	6.79	3.8	.056
45. Long hours	6.73	6.96	.09	.768

Table 10.1a (continued):

Items	Managerial group	Direct-care group	F	P
46. Not constrained by rules	4.55	4.64	.02	.899
47. Emphasis on quality	6.0	6.4	.23	.636
48. Distinctive-different	6.64	5.64	2.56	.155
49. Good reputation	5.73	6.57	.97	.329
50. Social responsibility	6.82	7.25	.46	.502
51. Results orientated	5.55	6.17	.71	.403
52. Clear philosophy	6.45	6.45	.00	.998
53. Being competitive	5.18	6.02	1.19	.28
54. Highly organised	4.45	4.83	.24	.623

Appendix 10.3: Differences between the mean preference ratings of values of employees and the mean organisational ratings of the managerial group

Table 10.2a: Variables characteristic of the organisation - mean reality ratings by the managerial group and ideal ratings from the direct-care group

Items	Managerial group	Direct-care group	F	P
1. Flexibility	4.54	7.81	39.94	.0001
2. Adaptability	5.55	7.77	17.92	.0001
3. Stability	4.45	7.96	44.93	.0001
4. Predictability	5.09	4.98	.02	.893
5. Innovation	4.82	7.81	27.84	.0001
6. Opportunities	5.55	7.83	26.75	.0001
7. Experiment	5.27	7.64	23.24	.0001
8. Risk taking	5.72	4.96	.79	.377
9. Careful	5.72	7.6	11.78	.0011
10. Autonomy	4.82	6.6	5.35	.024
11. Rule oriented	5.73	5.02	1.13	.292
12. Analytical	4.36	6.91	16.51	.0001
13. Attention to detail	5.18	7.66	28.55	.0001
14. Precision	4.91	7.92	50.05	.0001
15. Team orientation	4.09	8.55	175.13	.0001
16. Sharing information	5.18	7.98	31.93	.0001
17. Single culture	3.18	5.06	4.72	.0336
18. People orientation	5.45	8.32	43.66	.0001
19. Fairness	5.45	8.11	25.91	.0001
20. Respect for individual	6.64	8.81	42.64	.0001
21. Tolerance	5.82	7.34	5.8	.019
22. Informality	6.36	6.91	.63	.432
23. Easy going	5.27	6.54	8.25	.0056
24. Being calm	5.45	8.06	25.92	.0001
25. Being supportive	5.82	8.62	54.11	.0001
26. Being aggressive	4.0	3.98	.00	.982
27. Decisiveness	4.55	7.89	40.41	.0001
28. Action oriented	4.91	7.51	18.35	.0001
29. Taking initiative	4.91	7.91	35.36	.0001
30. Being reflective	5.55	7.57	14.43	.0003
31. Achievement orientation	5.36	7.77	20.27	.0001
32. Being demanding	6.36	5.21	2.21	.142
33. Individual responsibility	5.09	7.98	38.08	.0001
34. High expectations	6.55	7.55	3.34	.0726
35. Professional growth	5.36	7.92	18.31	.0001
36. High pay	3.45	7.47	30.59	.000
37. Security	6.09	7.96	9.95	.0025
38. Praise	4.55	8.43	49.72	.0001
39. Low conflict	4.27	7.43	23.02	.0001
40. Confronting conflict	4.18	8.04	70.23	.0001
41. Developing friends	5.91	7.38	7.02	.0102
42. Fittin in	6.09	6.68	.79	.377
43. Collaboration	4.91	7.94	36.18	.0001
44. Enthusiasm	5.36	8.45	84.64	.0001

Table 10.2a (continued):

Items	Managerial group	Direct-care group	F	P
45. Long hours	6.73	3.74	15.67	.0002
46. Not constrained by rules	4.55	5.91	4.6	.0359
47. Emphasis on quality	6.0	8.45	39.0	.0001
48. Distinctive-different	6.64	5.92	1.11	.2966
49. Good reputation	5.73	8.17	15.77	.0002
50. Social responsibility	6.82	7.96	5.62	.0209
51. Results orientated	5.55	6.36	1.33	.253
52. Clear philosophy	6.45	8.23	16.73	.0001
53. Being competitive	5.18	6.53	2.67	.107
54. Highly organised	4.45	8.13	80.57	.0001