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IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AN ORGANIZATION'S
STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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By

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ABSTRACT

The primary focus of this study was to examine possible mediating effects of interpersonal relations on the relationship between organization structure and organizational commitment for a sample of Saudi employees at different work environments by determining whether interpersonal relations as an outcome of organizational structure serve to increase or reduce commitment. The research questions dealt with how interpersonal relations differ with regard to structural characteristics of organizations (participation, centralization, and formalization) and what effects the resultant interpersonal relations have on employees' commitment to their employing organizations.

A basic theoretical model was developed, based on a synthesis of ideas from organizational theory and literature. Specific individual and organizational variables were included. A supplementary model of the mediating effects of job satisfaction on organization structure was also provided. The study attempted to establish a causal linkage between variables involved where appropriate although it is in large measure explanatory.

Although the findings of this study were not entirely conclusive, specific results suggest that the models may be a reasonable means of describing how organization structure is linked to organizational commitment. Specifically, the basic model best predicted that interpersonal relations mediate the relationship between participation and commitment and that such patterns of mediating effects increased as job-related interaction increased. These results do not hold true for the structural variables of centralization and formalization.

The supplementary model indicated that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between participation and organizational commitment, and the negative direct effects of centralization on commitment can be best explained by such mediating effects. However, the supplementary model yields no support for the mediating effect of job satisfaction on formalization. Individual characteristics diversely affected commitment. Alternative explanations of findings were given where possible, regardless of predicted direction.

The conservative conclusion of this study was that participation, in contrast to centralization, causes commitment by facilitating the development of interpersonal relations or job satisfaction, and interpersonal relations and job satisfaction explain how participation affects organizational commitment.

Limitations of the study were acknowledged, and suggestions for future research and implications of the study for organization theory were discussed.

DEDICATION

To my parents, Abdullah and Norah

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

ix

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The strength of an individual's identification with and extent
of involvement in an organization have been conceptualized as
organizational commitment. As such, relation to an organization is in
large part a matter of his/her relation to other organization members
(Patchen, 1970). Organizational theorists have expressed the belief
that in order to understand men and their behavior, as well as their
relationships with one another or to their organizations, one must
seek to understand the structure of their work and other
organizational activities (cf. Parsons, 1954; Porter & Lawler, 1965;
and James & Jones, 1976). However, there exists an apparent gap in
our knowledge concerning such a relationship, specifically in those
findings which attempt to link structure to organizational commitment.

We assume that the effect of organizational structure on
commitment can be observed by considering the effects on the
individual's work experience, particularly his/her interpersonal
relations with other members. In other words, the individual's
commitment to an organization may be affected by the quality of the
interpersonal relations he/she has with other members, produced under
certain types of organizational structure.

Further, in a work environment such as one encounters in Saudi
Arabia, people are highly concerned about their interpersonal

relations with others. At all levels, Saudis believe interpersonal relations are among the most important values, not only in the work environment, but in all aspects of social life, as well. At work, for example, although the Saudi employee may be dissatisfied with either his pay or work conditions, a highly positive relationship with his co-workers may serve to override such dissatisfaction in the decision to continue participating in the organization.

Keeping in mind such salient characteristics of Saudis in the work setting, it appears to be of practical importance to explore the mediating effects of interpersonal relations on the organization-attitudes link.

Purpose and Importance of the Research

This study was undertaken to answer questions about how interpersonal relations differ in regard to an organization's structure and what effects such relations have on employees' commitment to their organizations. The primary purpose of the study, therefore, was to examine the possible mediating effects of interpersonal relations between organizational structure and organizational commitment for Saudi employees.

By viewing the work experience, particularly interpersonal relations, as a possible link between the organization's structure and individual response, the study findings can contribute to an understanding of the ways in which organizational structure affects the individual's commitment. At the same time, the theoretical and practical implications derived from the study can direct attention to the ways in which firmly established behavior patterns may serve to

modify organizational structures. In this manner, the writer hopes to achieve a greater theoretical understanding of the processes involved and contribute to bridging the macro-micro gap in organizational theory by reconciling what appear to be conflicting results of prior research. This has been emphasized by several organizational scholars (Brass, 1979; Brass, 1981; James & Jones, 1976; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Porter & Lawler, 1965). To understand the relationship between organizational situations and individual attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, the structural aspects of organization (the macro approach) and the individual aspects (the micro approach) must be brought together. This dissertation attempts to do this.

Profile of Relevant Saudi Cultural Values

Understanding the Saudi culture is a key issue when studying Saudis' attitudes toward any phenomenon, regardless of whether it involves the work environment or not. "Saudi traditions influence behavioral attitudes toward the conduct of organization and attendant management practices" (Anastos, Bedos, & Seaman, 1980). Thus, it is necessary to be aware of and understand central influences in the Saudi culture before attempting to investigate Saudis' organizational commitment.

In Saudi Arabia, there are three major types of community living--nomadic, villages, and urban communities. Regardless of the type of community in which Saudis live, their predominant cultural values are characterized by a high degree of uniformity and homogeneity based on tribal, familial, and cultural heritages. "Tribal relations reinforce the rules [and] authority, therefore, they

reinforce the values of submission, obedience, dependency, and respect for others" (Ali & Al-Shakis, 1985:138).

Saudis tend to view each other as individuals within tribes, villages, families, and communities. However, the primary focus of organization in Saudi society has been the extended family, characterized by strong emphasis on family loyalty. Family relations are complex and sensitive. The father and mother are generally considered the primary authority figures. The intensity of emotional ties and mutual support among family members make the family setting well suited for establishing a relationship of dependency based on enduring trust and mutual respect.

Saudi Arabian employees may carry and apply these values to their work environment. In a certain analogic sense, the formal organization can be viewed as a family, with the employees as the children and the manager as the authoritarian father. Employees are evaluated more in terms of their relations with each other (cooperation, support, respect, trust, friendliness, and so on) than in terms of their performance as measured against some objective criteria. Further, the organization might be broken down into small subfamilies, with employees being extremely dependent on their immediate superiors. Such dependence in the superior-subordinate relationship is analogous to the father-son relationship.[1]

People who live in or spent their early lives in small towns tend to maintain close relations with their tribes and relatives and

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[1]Such an analogy was used by Norman Bradburn in his work, "Interpersonal relations within formal organizations in Turkey," Journal of Social Science, Vol. 19, 1963:61-67.

adhere to the tribal laws and norms (Ali & Al-Shakis, 1985:147). As they move to the cities and take jobs, they expect to establish similar interpersonal relations. They enter these jobs expecting to be rewarded for mutual trust, respect, obedience, and loyalty.

That is, Saudis' commitment to the preservation of interpersonal relations is extended to the organizational setting. "In public organizations, individuals might value social approval more than individual fame, and cooperation more than competition" (Ali & Al-Shakis, 1985:148). To a considerable extent, Saudis will find it difficult to work under conditions in which strictly univeralistic standards are applied. Therefore, "we find that despite geographic or functional definition of position, Saudi managers must be prepared to assume general responsibilities" (Anastos et al., 1980). This suggests that the lethargy of the Saudi organizational behavior is deeply rooted in Saudi society and that entrenched attitudes are not easily transformed by education, urbanization, or increased prosperity. That is to say, Saudi bureaucrats are very much a product of their social and cultural origins (Al-Nimir & Palmer, 1982:102).

In sum, social-culture values of Saudi society exert a powerful impact upon the individual attitudes and behaviors, as is the case in any society. It should be stressed, however, that our concern here is only with the relative magnitude and durability of some aspects of these cultural values as they influence the formal relationship at work and organizational outcomes. This does not imply an exclusion of the influence of other sociocultural aspects and institutions (e.g., religion and politics).

We believe that such cultural values discussed above shape the organization members' perception of authority and enhance their need for interpersonal relations at work characterized by trust, mutual respect and solidarity. In turn, these perceptions and needs play a role as an important influence on the extent to which members form psychological attachments with or commitment to organizations.

In addition to our expectation that interpersonal relations are important in stimulating commitment among Saudis to their employing organization, the study of interpersonal relations at work as it relates to organizational commitment may contribute to an understanding of what appears in one culture and may or may not appear in other cultures. Sociocultural values may contribute to the similarities and differences in the development of commitment.

The specific meanings of interpersonal relations and the resultant commitment with which we are concerned in this study will be discussed in Chapter III.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Large volumes of data appear on the subject of organizational commitment, employing different approaches and methods. The purpose of this chapter is to present a review of related literature on the concept of organizational commitment and its antecedents or correlates. Special emphasis, however, is given to the attitudinal approach to the concept and the empirical studies related to it.

First, we briefly summarize the concept of organizational commitment. Then, we present four classes of variables which seem to emerge as antecedents of commitment. We will seek to identify those correlates of organizational commitment crucial for the proposed study and to show where our study fits. These classes of variables (particularly structure, job characteristics and work experience) are complicated and probably interactive in their effects on commitment. We discuss this possibility in the following section as it appears in the related literature, with a concluding statement about the present study as it relates to this assumption. At the end, a special section is devoted to cross-cultural studies on commitment in order to allow comparison of the findings of these studies with the findings of the proposed study. This is followed by a summary of the literature reviewed, delineating the concerns of our study.

Organizational Commitment:
Definition of Antecedents

Historically, there has been concern with the basis of commitment in general, and recently social scientists have expressed increased interest in the concept of organizational commitment in particular, and it has become a major focus of research (Bluedorn, 1982). This interest has been expressed both in theoretical efforts to explicate the construct and in empirical efforts to determine the antecedents and outcomes of commitment. Angle and Perry (1983) commented:

> Apart from its intrinsic appeal, the current popularity of this concept seems to reflect a recurrent theme in the research literature whereby organizational commitment has been identified as an important variable for understanding the work-relevant behavior of organizational members. (p. 23)

Consequently, organizational scholars have attempted to develop commitment models ranging from single-cause models to multiple-antecedent ones. Angle and Perry (1983) argued that the multiple-antecedent models, such as what Steers (1977a) offered, have been the exception rather than the rule. The most common are single-cause etiological models of two broad theoretical notions regarding the antecedents of organizational commitment:

1. The member-based model. This model holds that commitment originates in the actions and personal attributes of the organizational member. That is, the attributes and actions of the individual member are considered to be the locus of commitment. (See Kiesler, 1971, and Salancik, 1983 as proponents of this approach.) This social-psychological perspective is somewhat restrictive,

however, in that its adherents emphasize that "in order to be committing, such prior behaviors must have been public, explicit, irrevocable, and, above all, voluntary" (Angle & Perry, 1983:125).[1]

2. The organization-based model. This model is based on the premise that commitment reflects a member's reciprocation for the organization's having provided resources that satisfy important needs. That is, commitment is a function of the way the member has been treated by the organization. (See the work of Buchanan, 1974, as an example of this approach.)

Both models characterize the literature on organizational commitment, and a preference for one over the other depends greatly on the concern and interest of the researcher. However, the distinction between the two lies in "whether it is the member of the organization that is considered to be the initiator of actions that lead ultimately to an increase in the member's organizational commitment" (Angle & Perry, 1983:124).

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[1] A specific version of the member-based model is Johnson's (1973) concept of commitment. He perceived it as having two distinct meanings: (1) "personal commitment" refers to a strong personal dedication to a decision to carry out a line of action, or any set of behaviors which are organized around the attainment of a goal; (2) "behavioral commitment," which refers to those consequences of the initial pursuit of a line of action which constrain the actor to continue that line of action (Johnson, 1973:395-397).

A more general version of the member-based model is Becker's theory (Angle & Perry, 1983). Howard S. Becker, in 1960, took the first major steps toward the meaningful specification of the concept of commitment (Johnson, 1973). A coherent pattern of research has developed, based on Becker's (1960) theory of side bets (as it appears in the present review, e.g., Alutto, Hrebiniak & Alonso, 1973; Stevens, Bayer, & Trice, 1978). However, in Becker's theory, commitment is treated as a structural or accrual phenomenon, one in which a series of investments, or side bets, sometimes individually, rather trivially and incrementally, come to commit one to one's role (Hrebaniak & Alutto, 1972, cited in Angle & Perry, 1983).

A few studies have, at least implicitly, compared the two models. Angle and Perry (1983) extended this stream of research, concluding that:

> Although the latter [organizational-based] model received more support from the data, both models explained a significant amount of variance in commitment. Contrary to the preponderance of related research findings, extrinsic aspects of satisfaction were more strongly associated with organizational commitment than were intrinsic aspects. (p. 123)

In other words, there is more than one path to organizational commitment. Commitment can be influenced by what the individual brings to the organization by way of history and personal attributes such as age, tenure, education, and self-image (member-based model), and commitment can also be a result of how favorably individuals view the organization's treatment of them (organization-based model). The latter viewpoint has received more empirical support than the former (e.g., Angle & Perry, 1983; Buchanan, 1974; Morris & Steers, 1980; Steers, 1977a; Welsch & LeVan, 1981).

Definition of Organizational Commitment

Commitment, in general, has been studied from many different theoretical perspectives (Becker, 1960; Buchanan, 1974; Johnson, 1973; Kanter, 1968; Kiesler, 1971; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979; Staw & Salancik, 1977). For Kanter (1968), the term "commitment" refers to the willingness of social actors to give their energy and loyalty to social systems, whereas to Buchanan (1974), commitment refers to an affective attachment to an organization apart from the purely instrumental worth of the relationship.

Two major trends in defining the concept of organizational commitment can be drawn, based on the assumptions underlying the broad theoretical orientation of the two models discussed above.

First is the behavioral approach, focusing on commitment-related behaviors in which the organization member becomes "bound by his action" or his behavior exceeds formal and/or normative expectations and he chooses to link him/herself to the organization. In this regard, Kiesler and Sakamura (1966) defined commitment as the "pledging or binding of the individual to behavioral acts," and Salancik (1983) described it as "a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions" (p. 62). Thus, the highest levels of commitment are fostered by behaviors that are explicit, irrevocable, freely chosen, and public (Kiesler, 1971; Salancik, 1983).

The second trend in defining organizational commitment is the attitudinal approach, focusing on commitment in terms of attitude (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).[1] Although there is a general lack of agreement concerning the definition of organizational commitment or even its measurement, substantial attention has been directed toward organizational commitment as the attitudinal component of the relationship between employee attitudes and organizationally relevant behaviors (Angle & Perry, 1981).

Attitudinal commitment thus represents a state in which an individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals and

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[1]For a discussion of the different positions in defining commitment from an attitudinal approach, see Cook & Wall (1980).

wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate these goals (Mowday et al., 1979). "This process of accepting organizational goals and values and integrating them into a system of personal goals and values is viewed by all researchers as 'organizational identification'" (Wiener, 1982:418). It is to the attitudinal construct of commitment that the discussion now turns, and with which the review of related literature is primarily concerned.[1]

As an attitudinal construct, organizational commitment was described by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) as a global reflection of a general affective response to the organization as a whole. Commitment emphasizes attachment to the employing organization, including its goals and values. Organizational commitment should also be stable over time. Thus, day-to-day events in the workplace should

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[1]Other closely related commitment-like concepts observed in the literature are Patchen's (1970) concept of organizational identification and Hall and Schneider (1972) concept of organizational involvement. Patchen (1970) construes identification to be a composite of the following three phenomena: (1) a perception of shared characteristics with organization members--a similarity component, where an individual possesses shared interests and goals with other organization members; (2) a feeling of solidarity with the organization--a membership component, where an individual experiences a feeling of belongingness with the organization; and (3) support of the organization--a loyalty component, where an individual supports and defends organizational goals and policies. In their survey of organizational literature, Tompkins and Cheney (1985) pointed out that conceptualizations of identification and commitment overlap significantly. Moreover, they maintained that identification is a more descriptive term than commitment, which for them suggested the notion of a pledge or promise, because (a) identification suggests the relevance of "identity" and "self," and (b) identification is used in everyday language with such richness of meaning. Further, they maintained that "identification is more embracing than commitment because it can be applied more readily to process and product aspects than commitment. However, studying organizational commitment along with identification is found to be of great value, in that they fit together as do form and substance, respectively" (Tompkins & Cheney, 1985:209). This position was taken into account in reviewing the literature.

not cause an employee to seriously reevaluate his/her attachment to the overall organization. Further, commitment attitudes appear to develop slowly but consistently over time as individuals think about the relationship between themselves and their employer. This identification approach postulates commitment to be an attitudinal intervening construct, mediating between certain antecedents and outcomes, and views this attitudinal process as primarily affective, rather than cognitive-calculative (Wiener, 1982).

Accordingly, Mowday et al. (1979) defined organizational commitment as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (p. 226). Lately, this definition has become the basis of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday et al. (1979), and continues to be the most prevalent in guiding commitment research.

Although organizational commitment is attitudinally defined here, it includes some aspects of commitment-related behaviors. This selected definition of organizational commitment is characterized by three basic dimensions:

1. A strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values.

2. A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization.

3. A strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.[1]

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[1]Dimensions of the first and third components are held in common with other authors such as Buchanan (1974). The second component (a high level of effort in the job on behalf of the organization) is viewed in a broader way. Buchanan (1974) deals with

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This definition has often been used by students of organizational behavior. It is consistent with most sociological, psychological, and managerial conceptions of organizational commitment. Most scholars in these areas conceive commitment as involving some form of psychological bond between people and the organization.

Organizational and Occupational Commitment

Ritzer and Trice (1969b) suggested that rather than being a structural phenomenon, organizational or occupational commitment are a psychological phenomena, based on the subjective meaningfulness of an occupation and an organization. Focusing on professional occupations, organizational commitment, from their perspective, may be an alternative to occupational commitment. They stated: "Commitment to an organization is primarily a psychological phenomenon which emerges after some realization that an occupation offers little to which a subject can commit himself" (pp. 475-79). Support for a different conception of the relation between organizational and occupational commitment was provided by Aranya and Jacobson (1975), who concluded that organizational commitment is highly positively correlated with occupational commitment. Especially where an occupation is partly bureaucratic and partly professional, there is a dual commitment to both occupation and organization. They also assert that

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this second component (involvement) as a form of satisfaction obtained from one's work and activities carried out in the job role. The difference between the two positions is whether or not a person's involvement with his work goes beyond the job itself such that he works hard for both his own satisfaction and for the sake of the organization (Cook & Wall, 1980:40).

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"organizational and occupational commitment is a psychological phenomenon" (p. 21).

In his analysis of professional and organizational commitment orientations among teachers and nurses, Hrebiniak (1971) found that there are common, underlying correlates or predictors of both types of commitment, which do not appear as unique to either of the professional roles considered. The most striking difference between the two orientations is that the professional is more complicated compared to the organizational. "In essence, this analysis seems to imply that some of the differences between professional and organizational commitment are, to an extent, differences in degree rather than kind" (p. 310).

Lawrence and Mortimer (1985) distinguished job involvement from both occupational and organizational commitment. For them, job involvement means the psychological attachment to a particular job, whereas occupational commitment denotes the preference for specific vocations, and organizational commitment means the preference for specific employers. (See also Alutto et al., 1973, and Ritzer & Trice, 1969a).

Importance of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has been identified as an important variable for understanding the work-relevant behavior of members of an organization. The literature contains growing evidence to suggest that encouraging employees to become more committed to their workplace can have positive consequences for the organization. Commitment is presumed to be related to a variety of organizational outcomes, such

as goal achievement, quality of performance, and job satisfaction (Tompkins & Cheney, 1985). An alternative explanation for satisfaction and turnover among employees may be seen in the process of commitment (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981; Pfeiffer & Lawler, 1973). For example, increases in commitment have been shown to be correlated with decreases in absenteeism (Steers, 1977a) and turnover (Porter, Crampon & Smith, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974) and to be a predictor of employee effort and performance (Mowday, Porter, & Dubin, 1974; Mowday et al., 1979; Steers, 1977a), but the relationship between performance and commitment was found to be mixed to modest (Wiener, 1982). Other writers have proposed that organizational commitment be used as one indicator of organizational effectiveness:

> It was hypothesized that organizations whose members were strongly committed would have both high participation and high production. Such organizations were therefore expected to show relatively low levels of absenteeism, tardiness and voluntary turnover, and high levels of operating efficiency. (Angle & Perry, 1981:10)

Further, organizational commitment appears to have important implications for the basic fabric of society. One of these implications is the fact that without members' commitment, some organizations simply would not work. The level of productivity and the quality of products and services in a society would be affected (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). And if these basic ingredients of survival are adversely affected, the survival of society will be threatened. (For further discussion, see Mowday et al., 1982.)

Selected Variables Affecting Organizational Commitment

Much research, particularly in the United States, has centered on determining the antecedents or predictors of organizational

commitment. According to Buchanan (1974), scholars have been expressing increased interest in the concept of commitment and in empirical assessment of its causes in varying organizational settings, ranging from the commitment of professionals as scientists, nurses, and teachers to the roots of commitment in utopian communities. Essentially, three classes of variables seem to emerge as antecedents of commitment. They are cited by Wiener (1982) as follows:

1. The first category includes personality-need variables and value orientation (Dubin, Champoux & Porter, 1975; Hall, Schneider & Nygren, 1970; Patchen, 1970; and Steers, 1977a). Thus, an important determinant of commitment seems to be person-organization fit.

2. The second category includes job characteristics and work experiences such as job challenge, feedback, opportunity for social interaction, task identity, group attitudes, and organizational dependability (Buchanan, 1974; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Lee, 1971; Porter & Steers, 1973; Steers, 1977a). A common theme linking many of these variables is their traditional role as antecedents and correlates of other affective motivational responses such as job satisfaction (Stone & Porter, 1975).

3. The third category inclues personal demographic variables, particularly age and tenure (Hall et al., 1970; Lee, 1971).

A relatively new area of investigation of correlates of organizational commitment has dealt with the influence of organizational structure (e.g., formalization, centralization, decentralization, participation and organization size) on commitment (Morris & Steers, 1980; Patchen, 1970; Stevens et al., 1978). However Steers (1977a) concluded that antecedents of organizational commitment

are diverse in their nature and origin. In the present literature review, studies on commitment are examined for the purpose of defining the important variables that influence organizational commitment and are crucial for the proposed study. The review of these variables is categorized under the following headings: a) Individual Characteristics and Commitment; b) The Organization's Structure and Commitment; c) Job-Characteristics and Commitment; d) Work Experience and Commitment; and e) Cross-Cultural Organizational Commitment.

First: Individual Characteristics and Commitment

In general, organizational commitment is, at least partly, a result of what an individual brings to the organization by way of history and personal attributes (Angle & Perry, 1983). In examining the various studies on the determinants of organizational commitment, those variables that define the individual were found to be related to such commitment.

In particular, such attributes as age, tenure, and education have been found to be linked to organizational commitment. For example, researchers have found that age is positively related to organizational commitment (Hrebiniak, 1971, 1974; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Lee, 1971; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Schneider, Hall & Nygren, 1971; Sheldon, 1971; Steers, 1977a; Welsh & LeVan, 1981). Tenure has also been found to be positively related to organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Grusky, 1966; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Hrebiniak, 1974; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Schneider et al., 1971; Stevens et al., 1978; Welsh & LeVan, 1981). These two variables--age and tenure-- have been the most frequently examined and have shown the most

consistent relationship to organizational commitment (Luthans, McCaul & Dodd, 1985). Presumably, the positive relationships of these variables with commitment reflect the process of growth and personal change involved in the development of identification (Buchanan, 1974; Hall et al., 1970). Level of education has been found to be inversely related to organizational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Morris & Steers, 1980; Steers, 1977a).

The argument often used to explain these relationships is that increasing age and lower levels of education tend to reduce the feasibility of obtaining desirable alternative education and therefore tend to restrict the individual to the present organization (Angle & Perry, 1981). Conversely, when employees have higher levels of education, it may be more difficult for an organization to provide them with sufficient rewards (as perceived by the individual). Hence, more highly educated people would be less committed to the organization and perhaps more committed to a profession or trade than would those with less education (Steers, 1977a).

Other personal characteristics that have been found to be related to organizational commitment are central life interest (Dubin, Champoux & Porter, 1975), skill, hierarchical position, and organizational status (Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Sheldon, 1971). However, no significant differences in commitment have been found across racial-ethnic subgroups or between employees whose incomes were were not the primary source of family support (Angle & Perry, 1981).

Finally, in examining the relationship between involvement in a -related communication network and organizational commitment,

Eisenberg, Monge and Miller (1983) concluded that the effect of involvement in communication networks on employee attitudes and behaviors may occur only for individuals with certain characteristics. These researchers explored the possibility that different commitment processes operate for different kinds of employees, with special emphasis on those for whom communication is a potent factor in determining attitudes.

Findings regarding the relationship of a variety of personal characteristics to organizational commitment have indicated that individual differences must be taken into account in any model of the commitment process in organizations (Mowday et al., 1982).

Second: The Organization's Structure and Commitment

Organizational Structure: Definition and Dimensions. The structure of an organization is its anatomy and the ways in which all the parts interrelate in pursuit of the organization's goals (Muchinsky, 1987). "It is what brings about or makes possible that quality of atmosphere, that sustained, routine purposiveness that distinguishes work in an organization from activities in a group: a mob, a society, and so forth. . . . It is a defining characteristic of an organization" (McPhee & Tompkins, 1985:150).

Historically, structure has referred to the patterns of relationships among organizational members, tasks, and activities. More specifically, organization structure is "the organization's official arrangement of rules, authority relationships, and communication patterns" (Connor, 1980:346).

For James and Jones (1976), the organizational structure can be defined as "the enduring characteristics of an organization reflected by the distribution of units and positions within the organization and their systematic relationships to each other" (James & Jones, 1976: 26). These structural arrangements or characteristics are usually conceived as consisting of several dimensions, specified by early writings as "the hierarchy of authority, the specified juridictions, and the formal rules and written records" (Weber, 1946:196-98), and lately as "the structuring of activities, concentration of authority, line control of flow, and supportive component" (Pugh, Hickson, Hinings, & Turner, 1968) or "size, differentiation, standardization-formalization and administrative component" (Blau & Schoenherr, 1971).

In an extensive review of structural dimensions and their conceptual relationships with individual attitudes and behavior, James and Jones (1976) suggested seven dimensions of organizational structure. These are: total size, centralization of decision making, span of control, pervasiveness of rules, specialization, standardization of process, and interdependence of organizational components.

An examination of the literature yields the impression that there are dozens of "basic" components of structure, which leads us to borrow the following, concluding statement of Ouchi and Harris (1974) to determine our position:

> This proliferation of labels sometimes reflects subtle differences in concepts but at other times reflects vagueness or disagreement concerning the precise nature of the phenomenon. Basically, the components of structure can be subsumed by four major variables; complexity, formalization, administrative intensity, and centralization. . . . size is very much interrelated with these four structural dimensions. (p. 110)

However, the structural dimensions or components that have most frequently been studied as properties of organizational structure having an impact on individual's reactions, are size, formalization, centralization or participation in decisions making (James & Jones, 1976), and span of control (Porter & Lawler, 1965).

Campbell, Brown, Peterson and Dunnette (1974) suggested a useful distinction between the definitions of these structural dimensions as being either structural or structuring characteristics of organizations. The structural qualities of an organization are its physical characteristics, such as size, span of control, and flat/tall hierarchy. In contrast, "structuring" refers to policies and activities occurring within the organization that prescribe or restrict the behavior of an organization's members, such as specialization, formalization/ standardization, and centralization, or the operational structure (Jones & James, 1979; see also Dalton, Todor, Spendolini, Fielding & Porter, 1980). The structuring characteristics or the operational structure's definition have concentrated on the "enduring and systematic characteristics of organization rather than on the relational component of the definitions (Brass, 1979:6-7; see also Brass, 1981, for summary). This definition is of primary concern in the present review of literature.

Effects of Organization Structure on Commitment. Hall (1982) suggested that structure has two basic functions, each of which is likely to affect individual behavior and organizational performance; structure is designed to minimize or at least regulate the influence of individual variations on the organization, and structure is the

setting in which power is exercised, decisions are made and the organization's activities are carried out.

Organizational scholars have studied the relationship between properties of the overall organizational structure and the psychological and behavioral reactions of individual members (see, for example, Cummings & Berger, 1976; Hall, 1977; James & Jones, 1976; Kohn & Schooler, 1983; Porter & Lawler, 1965; and Rousseau, 1978). Organizational structure has served as an independent variable in investigations of the work-related behaviors and attitudes of organization members. The role organizational structure plays in job attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, involvement, and identification) has long been of interest to sociologists, psychologists, and management scholars. (See Aiken & Hage, 1966; Hall, 1982; James & Jones, 1976; McPhee & Tompkins, 1985; and Porter & Lawler, 1965, for extended discussion and reviews.) In the area of job satisfaction, for example, the literature suggested that structural variations such as centralization or participation in decision making can affect job satisfaction and employee behavior. It is reasonable to expect that structural variations may affect other work-related attitudes, such as organizational commitment.

Stevens, Bayer, and Trice (1978) addressed this issue. They found four structural variables (organization size, union presence, span of control, and centralization of authority) to be unrelated to commitment. The researchers concluded that structural variables were of little consequence in determining organizational commitment. On the other hand, Pierce and Dunham (1976) found that formalization and centralization were significantly and negatively associated with

employees' descriptions of their degree of commitment. Likewise, the literature on perceived decentralization or participative decision making consistently pointed to increased employee involvement and attachment resulting from decentralization (Hall, 1977). Vroom (1964) suggested that greater participation in decision making leads to employees becoming more ego-involved in their work and work-related outcomes.

In studying organizational identification, Patchen (1970) found that overall participation in decision making had a marked effect on identification with the organization. The results of this study suggested that participation in decision making was likely to lead to a sense of solidarity with others in the organization. Yet such participation did not necessarily make organizational membership more important to the participants.

Morris and Steers (1980) examined the effects of organizational structure on the level of employee commitment. Their sample comprised 262 nonfaculty employees of a major American university. Six structural variables were considered in this study: decentralization, formalization, supervisory span of control, span of coordination, perceived functional dependence, and work-group size. The authors found that formalization, functional dependence, and decentralization were related to commitment. With greater decentralization, greater formality of written rules, and greater dependence on the work of others, there were high levels of commitment. In contrast, with more centralization, less formal written rules, and less dependence on others' work, there were low levels of commitment. Work-group size

and span of control were unrelated to commitment. Based on their findings, Morris and Steers (1980) suggested that:

> . . . increased formalization may influence commitment to some extent by facilitating both job and role clarity. The presence of written rules and procedures may help to ameliorate otherwise ambiguous situations and thereby provide means, for highly committed members, to achieve those goals. (p. 56)

Another potential effect of structure has to do with the type of organization to which individuals become attached. Hall and Schneider (1972) noted that Roman Catholic priests and members of the United States Forest Service typically spend their entire careers in one organization (the single-organization career pattern), whereas professionals in research and development laboratories usually are much more mobile (the multiorganizational career pattern).

Individuals who join an organization under duress are unlikely to commit as much of their personalities to the organization as those who enter voluntarily (Bluedorn, 1982). This explanation is congruent with Etzioni's (1975) compliance theory. Etzioni considered involvement the key motivator in certain types of organizations, i.e., "the structural-motivational relationship of compliance as the central classificatory variable" (Eldridge & Crombie, 1974:46). He distinguished three types of involvement, representing increasing degrees of commitment on the parts of members, existing within three types of organizations: (a) alienative involvement, in which the individual member is not psychologically involved but is coerced to remain as a member (e.g., inmates in prisons as coercive organizations); (b) calculative involvement, in which the individual is involved to the extent of doing a fair day's work for a fair day's

ay (e.g., members in utilitarian organizations, such as most blue-
nd white-collar industries); and (c) moral involvement, in which the
ndividual intrinsically values the mission of the organization and
is/her job and is personally involved in and identifies with the
rganization (e.g., members in normative organizations, such as
oluntary associations, mental health agencies, and religious
rganizations).

Etzioni's typology of organizations was based on a cross-
abulation of two dimensions: (a) the type of power that is used to
ake participants comply and (b) the type of involvement participants
xhibit toward the organization. In other words, "a relationship
onsisting of the power employed by superiors to control subordinates
nd the orientation of the subordinates to this power" (Eldridge &
rombie, 1974:46). A cross-tabulation of the power and the
nvolvement dimensions yields nine logically possible types of
ompliance, as illustrated in Figure 1.

nds of Power   Kinds of Involvement

	Alienative	Calculative	Moral
ercive	1	2	3
	(Coercive)		
munerative/ ilitarian	4	5	6
		(Utilitarian)	
rmative	7	8	9
			(Normative)

gure 1--Etzioni's typology based on compliance. (Source: Etzioni,
          1975)

In addition, Etzioni noted that in all organizations, the higher the organizational level of participants, the more likely that normative compliance predominates. Hence, the typology is to be applied by emphasizing the compliance modes that characterize lower-level participants in organizations (Scott, 1981)(see also Franklin, 1975b, and Mowday et al., 1982).

Structural variables, such as centralization, participation, and formalization, together might be thought of in terms of an organic-mechanistic continuum. Burns and Stalker (1961, 1962), Lawrence and Lorsch (1967, 1969), and Morse and Lorsch (1970) contrasted organizational characteristics in terms of an organic-mechanistic typology. According to this typology, organic organizations are characterized by implicit goals and directions, openness in communication, intergroup cooperation, low formalization, and task feedback systems. Personnel are often professionally rather than organizationally oriented. There exists a high degree of trust and openness, conflict resolution through confrontation and joint problem solving rather than internal politicing, and multidirectional, open communication. In contrast, mechanistic organizations have explicit policies and procedures, job descriptions, specific goals, high formalization, top-down communication, and departmentalization. Less communication may take place in mechanistic than in organic organizations. Managers are required to relate to one another in prescribed ways, regardless of variations in their individual personalities. Standardization is sought for the flow of influence and information, as much as for goods and raw materials. Primary loyalty and orientation of personnel are toward the organization, with

mutual trust among organization members. The essential
racteristics of organic and mechanistic organizational forms are
marized in Figure 2.

Evidence that is relevant to the present study and supports such
ypology was provided by Smith, Moscow, Berger, and Cooper (1969) in
ir study of the relations between managers and their work
ociates in organic versus mechanistic organizations. They
cluded:

> The expected differences between mechanistic and organic
> environments do indeed appear. In organic environments,
> relations with superiors tend to be excellent or else poor,
> rather than intermediate. In mechanistic environments, on
> the other hand, very few managers had excellent relations
> with their superiors and relations with subordinates
> correlated linearly with relations with superiors. (p. 343)

s, the experience of organization members in such environments can
viewed as a major socializing force and as such is an important
luence on the extent to which workers form psychological
ichments with organizations.

In summary, the aspects of an organization's structure seem to
potentially important dimensions of influence on organizational
itment, since the structural variables (such as formalization,
ralization, and decentralization/participation) can be experienced
rganization members in a comparatively direct and operationally
ingful way. However, the research results are somewhat mixed.
ough there are few studies concerning the relationship of
itural variables to organizational commitment, these findings
st that: a) the inconclusive results obtained in these prior
iure-commitment studies may be attributable, in part, to the use
fferent scales to measure structure; or, b) that the discrepancy

Mechanistic		Organic
Tasks are broken into very specialized abstract units	1.	Tasks are broken into subunits, but relation to total task of organization is much clearer
Tasks remain rigidly defined	2.	There is adjustment and continued redefinition of tasks through interaction of organizational members
Specific definition of responsibility that is attached to individual's functional role only	3.	Broader acceptance of responsibility and commitment to organization that goes beyond individual's functional role
Strict hierarchy of control and authority	4.	Less hierarchy of control and authority sanctions derive more from presumed community of interest
Formal leader assumed to be omniscient in knowledge concerning all matters	5.	Formal leader not assumed to be omniscient in knowledge concerning all matters
Communication is simply vertical between superiors and subordinates	6.	Communication is lateral between people of different ranks and resembles consultation rather than command
Content of communication is instructions and decisions issued by superiors	7.	Content of communication is information and advice
Loyalty and obedience to organization and superiors is highly valued	8.	Commitment to tasks and progress and expansion of the firm is highly valued
Importance and prestige attached to identification with organization itself	9.	Importance and prestige attached to affiliations and expertise in larger environment

re 2--Mechanistic and Organic Organizational Forms (Adapted from R.L. Daft, "Bureaucratic Versus Nonbureaucratic Structure and the Process of Innovation and Change." Research in the Sociology of Organization, Vol. 1, 1982, pp. 129-166.

n the findings may result from the fact that there are other specific

spects of the organization of work which may contribute to the

ffects of structure on commitment. These specific aspects include

ob characteristics and work experience, which might be influenced by

rganizational structure. We will look at the effects of each of them

a commitment separately, and then discuss briefly their role as

ediating variables for the structure-attitudes relationship.

ird: Job Characteristics and
ganizational Commitment

Job characteristics theory was first explicated by Hackman and

dham (1976). It identifies five characteristics of the job, their

terrelationships, and their impact on employee motivation,

tisfaction and productivity.

The most common characteristics that have been found empirically

influence members' reactions to their employing organization, in

ms of their satisfaction with, or their affective responses to, a

ticular job or organization, include:

1 - The amount of freedom and discretion at work, autonomy,

dback and variety (Brass, 1979, 1981; Oldham & Hackman, 1981;

'ce & Dunham, 1976; Sutton & Rousseau, 1979; Welsch & LeVan, 1981).

2 - The nature and frequency of interaction and interpersonal

nunication among organization members (Eisenberg et al., 1983;

ss & Bass, 1982; Penley & Hawkins, 1985; Welsch & LeVan, 1981).

Other job characteristics that may potentially influence

itment, in particular, include related aspects of the work role,

as:

1 - job scope or challenge and autonomy (Buchanan, 1974; Hall et al., 1970; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Schneider et al., 1971; Steers, 1977a; Stevens et al., 1978).

2 - role conflict and role ambiguity (Hrebiniak, 1971, and Welsch & LeVan, 1981).

3 - task interdependence (Morris & Steers, 1980, and Salancik, 1983).

4 - opportunities for social interaction, job-related interaction and feedback provided on the job (Eisenberg et al., 1983; Sheldon, 1971; Steers, 1977a; Stone & Porter, 1975).

Schneider et al. (1971) theorized that

> As a career development framework, the link between job challenge, psychological success and career is accomplished through the sense of competence or self-esteem the individual derives from his successful performance. To the extent that his success and failures are tied to a particular career and/or organization, it is hypothesized that his sense of esteem and his self-image will also become related to the career and/or the organization. (p. 400)

The theory was generally supported by this research.

In addition, job characteristics such as autonomy, challenge, and task interdependence may increase the behavioral involvement of employees in their job and thus increase their felt responsibility (Mowday et al., 1982). Any characteristic of a person's job situation which increases his felt responsibility will increase his commitment (Salancik, 1983). However, Steers (1977a) suggests that job characteristics may influence commitment to some degree, although the influence is probably more pronounced for other affective responses like job satisfaction.

In addition, Hackman and Lawler (1971) and Hackman and Oldham
(1976) suggested that the fundamental characteristics of jobs can
establish conditions so that it is possible for workers to obtain
personally rewarding experiences by doing well in their jobs. Based
on this assumption, it is reasonable to conclude that it is the
effects of the variations in job characteristics which organization
members experience that may potentially affect work-related attitudes,
including organizational commitment.

Now we turn to the effects of these work experiences on
organizational commitment.

Fourth: Work Experience and Organizational Commitment

Steers (1977a) suggested that commitment is influenced by the
nature and quality of an employee's work experience during his/her
tenure in an organization, or what Buchanan (1974) termed
organizational experience. According to Steers, work experiences are
a major socializing force and as such greatly influence the extent to
which psychological attachments are formed with the organization.
Although all three antecedents of organizational commitment (personal
characteristics, job characteristics, and work experiences) that
Steers investigated appeared to be important, work experiences were
found to be more closely related to commitment than were personal or
job characteristics.

The most striking experiences that have been found to influence
commitment include:

1. Social involvement with co-workers: the greater the social
interaction, the more socially tied the individual becomes with the

organization. As a result, the individual becomes further linked with the organization (Buchanan, 1974; Maehr & Braskamp, 1986; Sheldon, 971; Steers, 1977a).

2. Interpersonal relations such as influence, trust, respect, olidarity, group cohesion, and organizational dependability or the xtent to which employees believe the organization can be counted on o promote their interests (Buchanan, 1974; Cook & Wall, 1980; rebiniak, 1971, 1974; Maehr & Braskamp, 1986; Martin & O'Laughlin,)84; Patchen, 1970; Steers, 1977a; Welsch & LeVan, 1981).

3. Perception of personal investment and personal importance to organization (Buchanan, 1974; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Sheldon, 1971; eers, 1977a and the realization of expectations (Buchanan, 1974; usky, 1966; Schneider et al., 1971; Steers, 1977a).

4. Group attitudes toward the organization: the extent to which ployees sense that their co-workers maintain positive attitudes ʋard the organization (Buchanan, 1974; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; chen, 1970; Steers, 1977a).

In their work entitled The Motivation Factor: A Theory of sonal Investment, Maehr and Braskamp (1986) found that commitment associated with interpersonal relations. Workers who can assist ers in their work feel a greater loyalty to and express a greater ιe of ownership in the organization.[1] Further, they found that satisfaction is closely aligned with task and power dimensions,

[1]According to the authors, although the two opportunities of uence and affiliation are sometimes viewed as contradictory, this not be the case. The two orientations may, in fact, be viewed as lementary. Those with the greatest formal authority often are in ɔest position to assist and to be supportive and at the same time .rect others toward the organizational goals.

whereas commitment is closely associated with the interpersonal dimensions of social concern and affiliation. They wrote: "Looking at these results more closely, a strong and positive stress on supportive social relationships in the workplace apparently is important in eliciting workers' commitment to the organization" (p. 148).

For Hrebiniak (1971), the level of interpersonal trust is fairly significant in understanding organizational commitment. He speculates that

> The existence of a high level of trust, then, must indicate previous favorable individual-organizational interactions, the result of which quite naturally is a greater organizational attachment than could be expected when interactions have been unfavorable, unrewarding or affectively negative, as under conditions surrounding lower levels of trust. (p. 247)

Treating organizational commitment as one outcome of formal and informal organizational socialization, Buchanan (1974) speculated that gratifying the individual's needs for guidance, reassurance, and ultimately for respect, trust, and affection probably exerts a lasting influence on individuals' attitudes toward the organization. At the same time, individuals who believe themselves to be making significant contributions and who sense that their contributions are appreciated (the degree of attraction they have for the group) are likely to be attached to the organization. Warren (1966) stated:

> Once an individual has his own social acceptance and participates fully in the socializing of the group, this very interaction converts the behavioral conformity to attitudinal conformity, i.e., a change from compliance to inner acceptance, i.e., commitment. (p. 450)

Other types of experiences have also been found to be related to organizational commitment (Hrebiniak, 1971). Hrebiniak and Alutto

(1972), for example, found that the best predictors of commitment for their sample were role tension, years of organizational service, and dissatisfaction with the bases of organizational advancement.

Additional factors relating to commitment, which may themselves be a result of status in the organization, are job satisfaction,[1] job challenge, job achievement, and cohesiveness with fellow employees (Marsh & Mannari, 1977). All of these factors have been found to be positively related to organizational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1983; Brief & Aldag, 1980; Buchanan, 1974; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Hrebiniak Alutto, 1972; Martin & O'Laughlin, 1984; Steers, 1977a). Lee (1971) found organizational identification to be determined in part by a sense of work accomplishment, relations with supervisors, and length of organizational service.

Several of Buchanan's (1974) organizational-experience categories (e.g., realization of expectations, first-year job challenge, self-image reinforcement) seem clearly to be aspects of employees' satisfaction with how they have been treated by the organization. Buchanan (1974) concluded that the desire for achievement and for the recognition that goes with it are the factors most likely to influence commitment. Most influential are those

[1] Job-satisfaction theorists have cited a number of characteristics that are important to work satisfaction. Those characteristics can be categorized as: (a) working conditions or the personal circumstances of the job (e.g., pay, physical working conditions, organizational structure, and environmental variables; and (b) interpersonal relations (e.g., with supervisor, superior, and co-workers). However, Porter et al. (1974), and Mowday et al. (1979) demonstrated that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are distinct concepts. One of the most striking distinctions between the two is that commitment is presumed to be a relatively stable attribute. (For further discussion, see Chapter VI, p. 159).

experiences that reinforce the individual's sense that he is making a real contribution and carrying his own weight, i.e., the reinforcement of personal significance or importance. Thus, experiences that reinforce the worker's occupational self-image may well contribute to the growth of organizational commitment. These might include interaction with a supportive peer group, which anchors favorable attitudes toward the organization, or reassurance from superiors.

Marsh and Mannari (1977) reported that the most important variables influencing commitment were job satisfaction, employee cohesiveness, perceived job autonomy, and organizational status. The authors noted that social interaction with peers and superiors corresponded to peer group cohesion and group attitudes toward the organization. Seashore (1954) found length of service to be related to cohesiveness, suggesting that the duration of social interaction as well as its frequency formed a basis for significant group influence (cited in Pheysey, Payne & Pugh, 1971:67).

Finally, researchers have empirically identified positive relationships between the following aspects of work experience and organizational commitment:

1. The cooperative relationships which are developed among employees teamwork serve as an important attachment mechanism (Tannenbaum, 1969; Welsch & LeVan, 1981).

2. Leadership style and consideration behavior (Brief, Aldag & Wallen, 1976; Penley & Hawkins, 1985; Tannenbaum, 1969; Welsch & LeVan, 1981).

3. Organizational climate conducive to the positive reinforcement of role-related activities, interaction, lack of

tension/ambiguity, and overall job satisfaction (Goldhaber, Porter, Yates & Lesenia, 1978; Hrebiniak, 1971; Welsch & LeVan, 1981).

4. Power relationship and overall patterns of participation (Antonovsky & Antonovsky, 1974; Etizioni, 1975; Franklin, 1975a; Pheysey et al., 1971; Sheldon, 1971; Welsch & LeVan, 1981).

According to Pheysey et al. (1971), organization members who must carry out decisions in which they have not participated are not likely to have a "high sense of involvement in the group's activities and goals and therefore are not likely to take great satisfaction in this work" (p. 62).

In summary, the studies reviewed in this section suggested that various work experiences encountered by organization members may explain considerable variance in the dependent variable of organizational commitment. The implication of these studies is that interpersonal relations are important in facilitating organizational commitment. Positive interpersonal relations lead the individual member to associate social satisfaction with organization membership (Patchen, 1970).

Structure, Job Characteristics/ Work Experience and Commitment Link

The idea that organizational context may affect job characterisitcs and work experience is clearly present in organizational theory and literature.[1] Several scholars have noted

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[1]Jones and James (1979) summarized writers' concerns in terms of three broad categories: 1) writers' concerns with the relationship between technologies and job characteristics, 2) writers' concerns with the relationship between "anatomical" structure and job characteristics, and 3) writers' concerns with the relationships between operational structure or the structuring characteristics of organization and job characteristics.

mpirically the links between organizational attributes and job

haracteristics and some have attempted to explain these relationships

heoretically (e.g., Hall, 1982; Hall, Haas & Johnson, 1967a, 1967b;

ndik, 1963; O'Reilly & Roberts, 1977).

For example, Hall, Haas and Johnson (1967a, 1967b) pointed out

hat formalization (e.g., many written rules and well-defined

ocedures) can severely limit the amount of individual freedom and

scretion at work. Thus, the organization's structure limits

ssible interaction among group members (O'Reilly & Roberts, 1977).

ll (1982) indicated that considering structural variables such as

ntralization and formalization is important in predicting

ganizational performance. He reasoned that highly centralized

ganizations often limit the contribution that employees can make in

rying out their work.

Several of these theoretical relationships have received support

m empirical studies (Aiken & Hage, 1968; Pheysey, Payne & Pugh,

1). For example, recent studies by Pierce and Dunham (1976),

ton and Rousseau (1979), and Oldham and Hackman (1981) showed that

tralization and formalization relate significantly and negatively

n job characteristics such as the amount of autonomy, identity,

iback, and variety as they are described by employees of the

nization.

On the other hand, Aiken and Hage (1966) examined the

tionship between two types of alienation--alienation from work and

nation from expressive relations--and two structural properties of

nization--centralization and formalization--in a comparative study

6 welfare organizations. They found that both alienation from

work and alienation from expressive relations were more prominent in highly centralized and highly formalized organizations than in less centralized and formalized ones.[1] Further, the French bureaucracy is described by Crozier (1963) as having almost obsessive reliance on routines and procedures (high degree of formalization). This organization is characterized not only by workers' dissatisfaction with the conditions of employment, but also by little worker solidarity (Aiken & Hage, 1966:499).

The Mediating Effect: Concluding Statement

Only recently have scholars begun to view characteristics of the job and work experience as possible links between organizational structure and individual responses (Brass, 1979, 1981; Oldham & Hackman, 1981). The common theme in these studies has been that structural properties of the organization influence employees' reactions by shaping job characteristics. For example, Oldham and Hackman (1981) argued that the structural properties of organizations influence employees' reactions by shaping the characteristics of their jobs. Their explanation of this effect had two dimensions:

1. Organization structure was viewed as significantly affecting the overall amount of challenge and complexity (autonomy, skill

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[1]In some research, alienation has been seen as a consequence of commitment, and in others it has been viewed as an antecedent of commitment. According to Etzioni's (1975) compliance theory, compliance achieved through the use of coercive power will produce an alienative form of involvement by organizational participants. However, sociologists have focused on alienation and psychologists on job involvement when studying organizational phenomena such as commitment. Kanungo (1982), though, considered these two psychological constructs to be at opposite poles of the same continuum.

variety, task identity, task significance, feedback) in the employees' jobs.

2. Job challenge and complexity were seen as directly influencing employees' reactions to the work and the organization.

In his investigation of the role of job characteristics and interpersonal variables as possible _mediating_ variables in the relationships between the organization's structural context and the attitudes and behaviors of individual employees, Brass (1979, 1981) found that job characteristics did, in fact, mediate the relationship between structure and individual responses.[1] The basic assumption underlying these findings was that individual reactions or responses are a function of the mediating effects of job characteristics.

On the other hand, Wiener (1982) suggests that it is possible that job satisfaction serves as an intervening variable in the job characteristics-commitment relationship. Some support for this possibility was found by Hall and Schneider (1972)(Wiener, 1982:49).

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[1]Structural content is defined here as "the arrangement of task positions into an integrated workflow, and into differentiated subunits" (p. 12). That is, a relational approach to structure or a network analysis in which structure is considered "as resulting from both the strategic decisions made by the formal organization and from the informal interactions, or patterns of behavior of the individual workers. In short, each is viewed as affected by the other (p. 13). In this research, four structural relationships were investigated: 1) centrality, the degree to which a task position is central to the workflow; 2) criticality, the extent to which there are alternative routes through which the work may flow; 3) transaction alternatives, the extent to which a focal position has alternative sources for the acquisition of inputs or distribution of outputs; and 4) boundaries crossed, the extent to which workflow transactions cross unit boundaries. These structural relationships are viewed as relational rather than as constant attributes of objects (Brass, 1981:333; see also Brass, 1979:13-14).

The studies reviewed and discussed above lead to the conclusion that structural properties of an organization influence employees reactions or attitudes by shaping the characteristics of their jobs. Consequently, the kind of work experience they have will be molded by the structural characteristics of the organization. Therefore, one could argue that interpersonal relations, which may be the focal employee experience with significant others in the organization, might potentially determine when job characteristics will have their most substantial effect on organizational commitment. In other words, the presence of satisfactory interpersonal relations allows other independent variables (structural variables) in the commitment relationship to flourish. In this sense, good interpersonal relations are necessary for high commitment. Thus, the crucial assumption underlying the proposed study will be that interpersonal relations at work is an outcome of organization structure or of other more specific characteristics of the job such as job-related interaction which is itself an outcome of structure, an argument we pursue in the following chapter.

Fourth: Organizational Commitment Cross-Culturally

Considerable attention has been given to studying the antecedents of organizational commitment cross-culturally. Most of these studies have been undertaken to explore the differences between American and Japanese workers, in an effort to explain the widening gap between the productivity growth rates of the two countries (Luthans, McCaul, & Dodd, 1985).

In contextual comparisons between the West and the East, "one
[fam]iliar account holds that, with industrialization, the
[orga]nizational attachment of Western workers has become instrumental
[and] role-specific while the employment relationships of the Japanese
[have] remained particularistic and diffuse" (Lincoln, Hanada, & Olsen,
[1981:]93). Japanese management fosters close and cooperative relations
[betw]een supervisors and workers (Cole, 1971). In addition, the
[Japa]nese have been found to evidence a taste for personal, inclusive
[invo]lvement with superiors and the company as a whole (Dore, 1973).

According to Lincoln, Hanada and Olson (1981), the data do not
[refu]se this interpretation, even though they hardly confirm all its
[detailed] implications. Cole (1979) concluded that "Japanese employees
[genera]lly have a strong identification with the company but not
[nece]ssarily high job satisfaction or strong commitment to the
[perf]ormance of specific job tasks" (p. 241).

[In] Marsh and Mannari (1977) found that job satisfaction, employee
[cohes]iveness, perceived job autonomy, and organizational status "as
[antec]edents of commitment" were universal, not distinctively Japanese.
[In a] similar study with a sample of Chinese workers, Mobely and Hwang
[(1982]) found that the strongest predictors of organizational
[commi]tment were age and gender. Tenure was found not to be
[signi]ficantly related to organizational commitment. However, the
[overa]ll results supported the findings of Marsh and Mannari's study,
[in wh]ich the relationship between commitment and its antecedents was
[found] to be universalistic rather than culturally bound.

[In their study of work organization of plants and work force
[attach]ment of employees in the United States and Japan, Lincoln and

Kalleberg (1985) concluded that "participatory work structures and employee services are more typical of Japanese plants yet function in both countries to raise commitment and morale" (p. 738).

Further, Luthans et al. (1985) found differences in levels of organizational commitment among American, Japanese, and Korean employees; Japanese and Koreans both seemed to be less organizationally committed than Americans, although the differences were not statistically significant. Their findings verified the positive relationship of organizational commitment to age and tenure. They also discovered that organizational commitment was not based on culture-specific norms and values, a finding consistent with a number of previous studies.

Cultural variables and attitudinal or behavioral outcomes as consequences cannot be overlooked. Both similarities and differences among cultures do exist. And it is important not to be fascinated solely by differences in behaviors among cultures, but to consider both similarities and differences simultaneously. Thus, it is questionable, for example, to generalize findings from the most americanized Japanese factories to other kinds of Japanese industry (Roberts, 1970). Hence, considerable effort needs to be devoted to devising reliable, sophisticated techniques for assessing the universalistic notion of organizational commitment or other related concepts cross-culturally. In such assessments, culture would be viewed as an intervening variable, modifying and being modified by other phenomena. As Roberts (1970) concluded from his evaluation of cross-cultural research related to organizations, "more effort [should] be invested in understanding behavior in a single culture,

developing middle-level theories to guide explorations, and seeking the relevant questions to ask across cultures" (p. 347).[1]

Summary

Studies reviewed in this chapter present a rich collection of findings with respect to the antecedents of organizational commitment. Various variables have been identified as being related in some way to organizational commitment. These variables can be grouped into four categories: (a) characteristics of individual members of the organization; (b) structural aspects of the organization; (c) various job characteristics; and (d) various work experiences encountered by organization members.

Whereas the literature contained many clues as to the nature of commitment-relevant experience, few writers have addressed the relative importance of particular experiences in influencing organizational commitment. However, a common theme emerging from the review was the important role of interpersonal relations in the workplace as a commitment-related work experience (e.g., interaction with supportive peers, trust, and respect).

Because close interpersonal relations are considered a major cultural characteristic of Saudi people and society, it is reasonable to expect that such relations will be important in stimulating commitment among Saudis in relation to the type of organization for which they work. However, if just the major individual and job

[1]Roberts (1970) suggested some resources that may offer new approaches to investigating organizational phenomena cross-culturally. See also the work of Kiggundu, Jorgensen, & Hafsi, 1983, on administrative theory and practice in developing countries, which provides useful guidelines.)

haracteristics were considered, this would severely limit an

nderstanding of the relationship between workers and their

nvironment. To reflect more accurately the actual organizational

ork experiences, organizations' structural characteristics should

so be incorporated in this type of investigation. An attempt was

de to do so in this study.

CHAPTER III

THEORY AND ARGUMENT

The Basic Model

A basic conceptual model is developed for this study based on a synthesis of ideas from organizational theory and literature. It provides a way of systematically exploring a person's attitudes within a formal organizational context: his attitude toward others with whom he associates at work, and the resultant attitude toward the working organization to which he belongs. Specific individual and organizational variables are included in the accounting. However, the model heavily emphasizes interpersonal relations as critical variables. A discussion of the theoretical argument which is represented by the basic model follows.

Basic Assumption

The primary concern in this study, as stated earlier, is the relationship between organization structure, interpersonal relations and organizational commitment. It attempts to extend and refine the line of research on the organization structure—commitment link by investigating the possible role of interpersonal relations in a work setting as a mediating variable in the relationship between an organization's structure and an individual's commitment. Our point of departure is that knowledge of the ways in which organizational

uctures differ from one organization to another could usefully be

lied to the study of organizational commitment, assuming that each

e of organization has its own unique structural properties which

facilitate or impede the development of desired interpersonal

ations for its members. If this is so, then we could propose that

lity of interpersonal relations would mediate the relationship

veen the organization's structure and commitment to that particular

anization. The general implication here is that interpersonal

ations are initial preconditions that influence the extent to which

organization's structure will be able to bring about positive

tudes toward the organization on the part of its members.

nization Structure and
rpersonal Relations

Our argument regarding these effects is twofold. The first part

s on the work of Burns and Stalker (1961, 1962), Lawrence and

ch (1967, 1969), and Morse and Lorsch (1970) concerning the

nic-mechanist typology of organizations. For the individual, the

rtant part of the difference between the mechanist and the

nistic is in the degree of his commitment to the working

nization (Burns & Stalker, 1966). In a mechanist environment,

ty and obedience to organization and superiors is highly valued,

eas in an organic one commitment to tasks and progress and

sion of the firm is highly valued (see Figure 2, page 29). It is

luded, however, that organic organizations tend to have an

izational structure that is less formalized (Burns & Stalker,

966; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967, 1969; Morse & Lorsch, 1970).[1]

.ccording to Burns (1983:49):

> In organic systems, the individual is expected to regard
> himself as fully implicated in the discharge of any task
> appearing over his horizon. He has not merely to exercise a
> special competence, but to commit himself to the success of
> the concern's undertakings as a whole.

The interpersonal orientation of these organizations also shows

.rong tendencies to be less task- and more relationship-oriented.

.at is, in these organizations tasks are not distributed among

.ecialists' roles within a clearly defined hierarchy, but duties and

.sponsibilities are redefined continually by interaction with others

.rticipating in tasks (Milne, 1970). Hence, an individual's

.sponsibilities are more diffuse and usually extend beyond the

.rson's formally assigned task (Westrum & Samaha, 1984). However,

.ere exists a high degree of trust and openness; conflict resolution

.rough confrontation and joint problem solving and open

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[1] a)Burns and Stalker (1961) studied twenty industrial firms
.ated in Scotland and England. These firms were classified along a
.tinuum ranging from "mechanistic" to "organic" (Wexley & Yukl,
.7:40). In 1962 they published their book entitled The Management
. Innovation, in which they set out the differences between organic
. mechanistic organizations. They suggested, however, that the
.hanistic form might be adequate for organizations with a stable
.ironment, while the organic one is more adequate for a rapidly
.nging environment or technology.
    b)Lawrence and Lorsch (1969), in their work entitled
.anization and Environment, described two major forms of conflict
.olution (differentiation and integration) in organic and
.hanistic organizations. Woodward (1980) confirmed the importance
.the mechanic/organic dichotomy.
    c)Morse and Lorsch (1970) studied the effective fit between the
.units' internal structure and their functionally specialized tasks.
.y found essential differences between the effective organization
. the ineffective ones. The effective organization had a
.chanistic" structure, with centralized authority and precisely
.ined rules, procedures, and performance standards. The ineffective
.nterparts had a low degree of centralization and formalization and
. "inorganic" in character (Morse & Lorsch, 1970).

unication (House & Rizzo, 1972), as a dominant pattern of

rpersonal communication.

One major implication drawn from the organic organization is

less formalization, and high decentralization, participation,

ral communication and other organic characteristics are conducive

favorable interpersonal work relations since these characteristics

facilitate more considerate behavior[1] (Likert, 1967; Argyris,

), and such socio-emotional behavior facilitates the development

trust, mutual respect for work-group members' ideas, and feelings

support and closeness among work-group members.

It can be argued, then, that in such organizations the quality

interpersonal relations experienced by organization members (e.g.,

degree of trust, mutual respect and solidarity they have for their

orkers) would be positively related to structural variables (e.g.,

nalization, centralization, and participation). Burns and Stalker

1, 1962), Lawrence and Lorsch (1967, 1969), and Morse and Lorsch

0) have shown that mechanistic types of organizations tend to have

eater formalization of structure. According to Burns and Stalker

6), the ideology of formal bureaucracy seemed deeply ingrained in

anistic organizations. Burns (1983), for example, wrote that:

---

[1]Consideration is often used to define a style of supervision
as treating all employees alike, knowing each man's problems, and
g reasonable in expectations. Consideration is associated with
vior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth
he relation between superiors and subordinates (see Tannenbaum,
:72). Consideration is operationalized in terms of an
vidual's interpersonal concern and emphasis on human relations,
of which have often been associated with communication behavior
lin, 1979; see also Penley & Hawkins, 1985).

> Mechanistic systems tell him—the individual—what he has to
> attend to, and how, and also tell him what he does not have
> to bother with, what is not his affair, what is not expected
> of him—what he can post elsewhere as the responsibility of
> others. (p. 49)

a result, greater emphasis is placed on accomplishment.[1]

oblems and tasks are broken down into specialist roles; each

dividual pursues his task as something distinct from the tasks of

e organization as a whole (Milne, 1970). Hence, the individual

nds to consider only the interests of his segment of the

ganization (Westrum & Samaha, 1984). There may be low mutual trust

ong members. Conflict resolution is based on win-lose bargaining

rategies, and communication is predominately top-down (House &

zzo, 1972).

Another major implication here is that high formalization,

ntralization of authority, type of participation in an

ganization's task, vertical communication and other mechanist

aracteristics are conducive to unfavorable interpersonal work

ations, since these characteristics may not lead to more

nsiderate behavior which facilitates the development of

erpersonal relations desired by organization members. Following

s line of reasoning, one could also argue that the quality of

---

[1]Mechanistic organization is bureaucratic in character as
sed to organic organization (Westrum & Samaha, 1984:23). In other
s, mechanistic organizations have a structure like that prescribed
he classical organization theories, where, for achieving internal
nization efficiency, tasks are divided into specialized roles,
e are detailed rules and procedures, and there is an established
archy of authority with elaborate controls to insure that the
s and procedures are followed. In contrast, organic organization
onsistent with the humanistic organization theory, where there are
ible roles, open communication, coordination by committees, and
 features (Wexley & Yukl, 1977:40).

erpersonal relations (e.g., the degree of mutual respect, trust,

idarity) experienced by members of these organizations would be

gatively associated with some structural variables (e.g.,

malization and centralization) and positively associated with

ers (e.g., participation).[1]

anization Structure and Communication

Structure generally is used to describe the formal or required

archical and lateral linkages between organizational positions.

includes the bureaucratic constraints on communications required or

mitted between occupants of the positions in the organization

uss & Bass, 1982).

Hage, Aiken and Marrett (1975) investigated the effect of such

anizational factors as formalization and centralization on

unication. Generally, they discovered that in less formal and

decentralized organizations, communication was greater than in

al, centralized organizations. The concentration of authority was

to diminish the participation of actors in the decision- making

ss, thereby decreasing their communication.

The effects of structure and control of communication have been

ubject of much laboratory investigation. In their review of such

[1]An argument similar in its general point to the first part of
rgument is that of Peter Nicholson, Jr. and Swee Goh (1983) in
work entitled "The relationship of organization structure and
personal attitudes to role conflict and ambiguity in different
environments." Their work drew on the contingency theories of
and Stalker (1961) and Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) outlined
. But it seems to differ from our own position in several ways:
tically and methodologically, the scope of the study and the
ional procedures are quite different from ours. However, we
ledge that their work was a great deal of help for us in
ting our project.

vestigations, Klauss and Bass (1982) concluded that high morale and
atisfaction were usually associated with unrestricted, open
mmunication. The implication for ongoing work organizations is that
eating structures to increase communication flow is likely to
hance satisfaction as well as performance (p. 33).

Thus, it is reasonable to suppose that organization structure
t only constrains the process of interpersonal relations but also
ovides substance to interaction. That is, in mechanist
ganizations, interaction within management tends to be vertical
tween superior and subordinates (Milne, 1970). Mechanist
anization (where positions and interrelationships among positions
fixed and unchanging) is characterized by vertical communication
terns with decisions centered at top levels (Burns & Stalker,
6). Therefore, relatively brief and limited exchanges within a
ited network of co-workers and superiors exist; exchanges between
atively isolated workers and relatively overloaded superiors, each
different communication patterns.

In contrast, interaction occurs laterally as well as vertically
ne, 1970) in organic organizations. Organic organization with
s rigidly defined positions tended more toward lateral
unication patterns (Burns & Stalker, 1966). Therefore, extended
anges occur over a wider range of topics within a broad network of
orkers and superiors.

Keeping in mind this assumption and the fact that the basic data
nterpersonal relations are face-to-face interactions (Blau, 1974;
rro, 1979, 1987; Jablin, 1979; Kahn et al., 1964; Klauss & Bass,
Penley & Hawkins, 1985; Zaleznik, 1965), the differences in

interaction patterns at these types of organizations will influence the amount of opportunities given to their members. Each individual member tacitly or explicitly tests and explores the ways and limits in which he could trust, respect or even cooperate with others.

Applying this perspective to the problem of commitment to the organization, we would think that organizational commitment is much higher in flexible/organic organization than it is in formalized/ mechanistic ones. Through the characteristics of flexibility, decentralization, and absence of rigid bureaucratic structure, organic organization facilitates the development of greater commitment by creating norms of trust, mutual respect, and solidarity among its members based on an accumulation of interactions, since these experiences have been shown to be antecedents of organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Martin & O'Laughlin, 1984; Patchen, 1970; Steers, 1977a).

In contrast, a mechanist organization may not facilitate such a level of commitment, since its structure and the resultant kind of learning experiences tend to lead to somewhat superficial working interpersonal relations. In short, organization structure shapes the perception each member has of other members in terms of interpersonal relations, and this percpetion in turn mediates the extent to which the organization's member commits himself to the work organization.

Modification of the Content of Interaction and the Resultant Interpersonal Relations

We can extend our argument a step further to look for other of the mediating effects of interpersonal relations. Until now, discussion of the context of interpersonal relations has focused

n the structuring characteristics or properties of an organization

hat may constrain or influence interpersonal relations, with little

mphasis on the role of the content, the amount of interaction in the

ork setting, and the resultant interpersonal relations in the

evelopment of organizational commitment. It has been emphasized that

he rigidity of organizational structure results in a deterioration of

iterpersonal bonds. We should also expect such bonds to be strongest

en the parties talk with each other frequently (Kahn et al., 1964).

is is particularly true given that the basic elements of

iterpersonal relations are face-to-face interactions (Zaleznik,

65:575; Blau, 1974; Gabarro, 1979, 1987; Goldhaber, Porter, Yates,

d Lesenia, 1978; Jablin, 1979; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Klauss & Bass,

82; Penley & Hawkins, 1985).

Interpersonal variables such as shared trust, mutual respect and

derstanding are influenced by the opportunity for interaction

garding common problems and outcomes over a period of time (Gabarro,

'9; Goldhaber et al., 1978; see also Kahn et al., 1964). In his

cription of the development of interpersonal relationships as a

ult of routine interaction in everyday life, Gabarro (1979) states:

> In an important sense, these everyday incidents provided
> opportunities in which each person tacitly or explicitly
> tested and explored the ways and limits in which he could
> trust the other. When this kind of learning and tacit
> testing had not taken place, the relationship tended to be
> somewhat superficial or one in which there was no real basis
> for trust (p. 12).

arro proceeded to maintain that interpersonal influence also

loped (or failed to develop) in much the same way that trust and

al expectations developed, over time, with each person's influence

other increasing or waning on the basis of each person's

and what each learned about the other.

An important implication is that accumulated experiences of

ction may protect the person from the emotional consequences of

ve interpersonal relations. Hence, in more enduring relations a

balanced appraisal may result because increased interaction

les additional cues for judgment. Support for this theoretical

on can be drawn from the findings and implications of several

s (Gabarro, 1979; Jablin, 1979; Kahn et al., 1964; Penley &

s, 1985; Tannenbaum, 1969; Vroom, 1964). Kahn et al. (1964)

that:

High frequency of communication is associated with close
interpersonal bonds (trust, respect and liking for their
associates) when there is little conflict, but these bonds
become severed when conflicts are intense (p. 209).

ong history of research in industrial psychology and sociology

lso indicated the importance of peer interaction in at least

ally meeting the socio-emotional desires of the participants

, 1982:199). Blau (1974), for example, states:

Social associations establish the networks of interpersonal
relations that integrate individuals into cohesive social
units. Regular face-to-face contacts in groups socialize new
members, furnish continuing social support, create
interdependence through social exchange, and thereby make
individuals integral parts of groups. (p. 620)

Also, social interaction with others in the organizational

g has been identified as among the important variables directly

ing organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Eisenberg et al.,

Martin & O'Laughlin, 1984; Marsh & Manneri, 1977; Sheldon, 1971;

, 1977a), under the assumption that greater social interaction

ɔps stronger social ties. As a result, the individual member

es further committed to his organization.

elated Interaction and
personal Relations

Following the line of reasoning put forth by Eisenberg, Monge

Miller (1983), one could argue that there is good reason to

ɛct that social interaction in the work setting without further

.fication does not present the total picture in accounting for

ɲizational commitment. Specification of the topic of interaction

istinction (Eisenberg et al., 1983; also Penley & Hawkins, 1985),

ɛ an important factor affecting the development of any

tionship is the behavioral setting itself, and the expectation

people bring to it as an interpersonal setting (Gabarro, 1987).

larly, Vroom (1964), in his study of the role of interaction in

formation of interpersonal attitudes toward others at the work

ation, found that "Although there may be a general tendency for

raction to be pleasant and satisfying, a more complete explanation

the effects of interaction on attraction would require a

ɪfication not only of the amount of interaction but also of its

ɛnt" (Vroom, 1964:122). As is well known, network interaction is

ɛnt specific (Eisenberg et al., 1983),[1] therefore our focus is

ob-related interaction and the resultant working interpersonal

ɪonship.

---

[1]Watzlawick, Beavin and Jackson (1967, cited in Penley &
ns, 1985:311-312), for example, suggest that there are two levels
ɔmmunication: (1) the content level that is informational or
al, which corresponds to what is being said, and (2) the
ɪional level that defines role relationships among the
ɲicators and corresponds to how it is said.

Results from a number of investigations indicate that the
ajority of superior-subordinate interactions concern task issues and
hat superiors and subordinates talk more about impersonal (focus of
opics external to self) than about personal (directly related to
elf) topics (see Jablin, 1979 for a review). Moreover, studies that
xplored the interacting patterns between superior and subordinates
nd managerial communication indicate that the dominant mode of
teraction is oral, face-to-face discussion, and such discussion is
ncerned with task issues (Jablin, 1979; Klauss & Bass, 1982).

However, one could argue that job-related interaction can have a
rsonal quality to it, but the longer range process still falls short
being personal interaction unless one chooses to move it in that
rection (Williams, 1984). Further, job-related interaction relates
e to the social roles of the individual involved rather than to the
ecific motives and needs of the individual (Eisenberg et al., 1983).
es and role expectations are part of the context of all social
eraction (Gabarro, 1987). Focusing on content of interaction makes
instrumental role of communication in organizations clearer
nley & Hawkins, 1985:310).

Interaction on the job may influence an individual's sense of
clarity. This would seem to be especially important in a work
up where the task performance depends on the individual's role
ity or where the task of the individual members are highly
rdependent (Klauss & Bass, 1982:42).[1]

---

[1]For a more extensive theoretical discussion on the role-
unication linkage, refer to the work of Katz & Kahn (1978).

There is, however, a fair amount of research that links role

arity and functional interdependence to job-related interaction and

e resultant interpersonal relations (e.g., House & Rizzo, 1972; Kahn

al., 1964; Klauss & Bass, 1982). For example, Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn,

eck & Rosenthal (1964) argued that restricted communication in an

anization may cause role ambiguity, and influence the resultant

erpersonal relations. Using a role sender and the focal person to

cribe their role episode model for role conflict and role

iguity, Kahn et al. (1964) suggested that role senders (e.g.,

low workers, supervisors) communicate expectations of behavior to

focal person. These expectations are perceived by the focal

on with varying levels of role conflict and role ambiguity. Low

conflict and/or ambiguity received by the focal person will cause

focal person to augment his involvement in the relationship with

role senders because the focal person's levels of trust, respect,

liking for the role senders increase. Increased involvement is

ciated with continued communication with role senders. This

ts in even less role conflict and ambiguity (Schuer, 1979). A

element in removing discrepancies would seem to be the

nication that takes place between role sender and role receiver

s & Bass, 1982).

Katz and Kahn (1978) characterize an organization as a system of

where people are tied together in terms of the functional

pendency of roles they assume. Functional interdependencies

fluence the amount and content of interaction: "Where group

are highly interdependent, individuals may be involved in

task-interaction (Mowday et al., 1982) which, in turn, may

rve to shape the quality of interpersonal relations among group

mbers. For example, we would expect that each group member will

cept and respect directions from those colleagues with whom he

nsiders himself more acquainted regarding what he should do, how he

ould perform the task, and the priorities to be observed in

pleting the various tasks. Our expectation is that the resultant

terpersonal relations will be task-based, non-trivial, and of

tinuing duration, with fewer affective components than the purely

ial ones; experiences that Gabarro (1979, 1987) has shown to be

cific characteristics of interpersonal relations at work.

These resultant interpersonal relations, as defined by Gabarro

87), are a substantive type of social relationship. They employ

ial modalities, develop between two social beings and exist in

anizational contexts that are themselves social structure. These

erpersonal relations are also the consequences of task-based

ractions among individuals in organizations, but they differ

ifically from the more purely social relationship in several ways:

(1) They are more segmental in nature than intimate or personal

tionships; they do not necessarily involve all aspects of a

on's life. The relationship development is more likely to involve

of mutual understanding concerning task-related issues rather

breadth along a fuller range of issues.

(2) Openness concerning task-salient issues can be expected to

re important than self-disclosure per se.

(3) Specific competencies that are task-relevant will be an

cant influence on attributions, liking and evaluation. In a

-year longitudinal study of the evolution of managerial

elationships, Gabarro (1978) found that initial liking and attraction

ere not predictive of the long-term strength of the relationship.

ther more instrumentally relevant attributes such as judgment,

ompetence and task consistency were far more important to the

evelopment of a working relationship and its resulting quality, but

hese attributes did not emerge until after the two parties had worked

ogether for some time.

(4) Role definitions can be expected to temper openness, trust,

nd self-disclosure as well as a working relationship progresses

Gabarro, 1987:181). Gabarro contends that

> Roles and role expectations are part of the context of all
> social interaction, but they are even more pervasive and more
> explicitly defined in working relationship, particularly when
> they occur within or across organizational hierarchies. Most
> working relationships develop between people by virtue of
> their roles. People begin with an institutionalized role
> relationship, often before they have begun to develop an
> actual working relationship. (p. 180)

eople's reactions to each other and the attributions they make about

ach other are clearly influenced by role expectations (Triandis,

977, in Gabarro 1987), within the context of interaction on the job.

Thus, it seems plausible to expect that job-related interaction

a moderator of interpersonal relations at work. In other words,

alking about one's job or talking as part of one's job may provide

atisfying interpersonal communications which may help to generate the

uality of interpersonal relations desired by the organization's

ember, and in turn works to enhance his feelings of personal

nportance to the organization; a work-experience that Buchanan (1974)

d Steers (1977a) (also Maehr & Braskamp, 1986) have shown to be

lated to commitment.

Deutsch (1958) found that communication was a central variable

the development of trust in a series of laboratory studies.

vever, he did not directly examine the specific kind of

munication behaviors that apply in an ongoing organizational

ting (Klauss & Bass, 1982:40).

Gabarro (1979), tracing the development of interpersonal trust,

nd that judgment about how much and in what ways one could trust

ther were based on an accumulation of task-related interactions.

instance, the discovery that one party has intentionally withheld

ortant information may create discontinuities in a relationship's

elopment by calling into question whatever trust had already

eloped (p. 12).

Jones, James and Bruni (1975) found that the presence of

rdinates' confidence and trust in a superior is positively related

the superior's success in interactions with higher levels of

gement. Similarly, a person's ability to perform effectively

uences a number of interpersonal outcomes regarding the other

on's willingness to grant autonomy, the development of trust, and

other person's evaluation--all of which are important to the

ess of interpersonal relations formation at work (Gabarro, 1979).

aintance with such ability can be obtained through job-related

action.

Thus we can conclude that job-related interaction (by which each

can be evaluated through personal acquaintance) could lead to a

tion in negative interpersonal outcomes which is an important

t of the satisfaction with work. Hence it is possible such

fying experiences will determine the extent to which attachments

formed with the organization. A somewhat similar position was
gested by March and Simon (1957, cited in Marrett, Hage & Aiken,
5): "Through planned interaction could come a reduction in the
trust that so often reduces satisfaction with work and an increased
se of involvement in the organization" (p. 371; see also Cook &
l, 1980; Hrebiniak, 1971; and Penley & Hawkins, 1985). Therefore,
is expected that aspects of an organization's structure which
ter positive interpersonal relations through increased interactions
the job may contribute to a sense of organizational commitment.

An implicit assumption here is that when the work organization
es group members depend highly on each other and interact well with
n other on a regular basis, it is desirable for them to develop
erpersonal relations that are mutual and robust enough to be
arding and effective. Face-to-face interactions furnish continuing
al support, create interdependence through social exchange and
reby make individuals integral parts of groups (Blau, 1974)
use, "A friendly, cooperative, supportive relationship may lead a
on to perceive things in common with, perhaps also a sense of
rdependence with and thus a sense of solidarity with co-workers"
chen, 1970).

The extension of this framework to the problem of organizational
itment would suggest that work groups would be attractive to the
er to the extent to which the nature of the situation permits or
ires interaction (Vroom, 1964:180). Furthermore, the degree of
rpersonal relation between two members of the group should be
tly related to the extent to which they interact with one another
performing their work. However, the content of interaction can

ke forms which are irrelevant or destructive for organizational
nctioning (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Irrelevant task-interaction might
ad organization members to band together, hence, produce high
lidarity in opposition to organization management. If a person has
relevant task-interaction or warm interpersonal relations with his
mediate work group, he may come to identify with that group, and the
neralization of such identification to the larger organization
pends in part on whether the interests of the immediate group are
en as congruent with or opposed to those of the larger organization
atchen, 1970).

Thus, job-related interaction may prevent potentially
unterproductive interaction from arising through generating working
terpersonal relations which may facilitate the development of
sitive orientation to the organization. Since interaction among
rk group members tends to be based on common understanding (Hall,
32) and since continued interaction builds up the integration of the
up (Blau, 1974), we would expect each group member to develop
sitive attitudes toward his organization as a function of the
ality of interpersonal relations (trust, respect and solidarity) he
eriences with other members during his tenure in working at this
anization.

In sum, an individual's orientation toward an organization would
affected by the quality of his working interpersonal relations with
er members. Moreover, the specification of the interaction topic
gests an important distinction between our study and earlier ones;
interpersonal relations variable makes most sense to us as a
iator of the relationship between organizational structure and

itment.   To the extent that interaction networks of co-workers
blize the work organization for the individual, the quality of
rpersonal relations with co-workers might be expected to affect
itment to the larger work organization.   The nature of
rpersonal relations, which alone may be enough to encourage
itment to the organization, may be met via participation in
icular types of interaction between members of the organization.
related interaction, which is in itself the effect of the
nization's structure, moderates the relationship between
nizational structure and interpersonal relations.   That is, the
ity of interpersonal relations increases where there are
rtunities to be involved in interaction related to the job.
:, interpersonal relations may produce a pattern of increased
tment as job-related interaction increases.

Further, it was felt that job-related interaction would more
rately reflect the effects of organization structure that
iization members actually experienced in their daily activities.
is posited that the structuring characteristics of formalization,
alization, and participation would have more direct effects upon
rpersonal relations (in the predicted direction) through
elated interaction than other types of interaction.   In turn, the
tant interpersonal relations will mediate the relationship of
action to organizational commitment.

personal Relations and Organizational Commitment

Our review of previous research suggests that interpersonal
ions such as trust, respect, supportive peer groups, and

surance from supervisors are related to organizational commitment

., Buchanan, 1974; Cook & Wall, 1980; Lee, 1971; Maehr & Braskamp,

; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Patchen, 1970; Penley & Hawkins, 1985;

Welsch & LeVan, 1981). Consistent with this view is the major

lusion of a study of organizational communication by Goldhaber et

(1978). Their results indicate that perceptions of the quality of

tionships in the organization and perceptions of the quality of

unication have a potent impact on members' satisfaction and

lvement with the organization. These perception qualities are

of an overall evaluation of the communication "climate" of the

nization. In general, where others are perceived to be open and

onsive, willing to interact, sensitive to emotions, skilled in

nication, and trustworthy, the communication climate is perceived

avorable. Positive perceptions of overall climate are related to

rs' feelings of involvement and their overall satisfaction with

system (Goldhaber et al., 1978; see also Penley & Hawkins, 1985;

Welsch & LeVan, 1981). So job satisfaction and organizational

tment, especially, are related to the quality of the social

te associated with the place of work (Maehr & Braskamp, 1986).

yees who trust, respect, and feel respected and close to each

and help each other out in their work feel a greater loyalty to

express a greater sense of psychological attachment to the

zation.

Since the quality of these interpersonal relations tends to vary

the structuring characteristics of the organization, it is

ed that organizational commitment will vary accordingly. In

formalized/centralized but highly participative structures,

iduals may be more interdependent with others in their work, so

interact more with each other on the job. As a result, their

ng relationships with each other may be more cooperative,

dly, and characterized by a sense of trust, mutual respect, and

arity, compared to those individuals of a highly formalized and

alized structure, whose working relationships with others are

likely to be superficial or strained and might even be hostile.

is, hostility and opposition are replaced by more cooperative

udes (Tannenbaum, 1969). Individuals who experience cooperative

lly relations with co-workers would come to feel more a sense of

n interest and solidarity with those co-workers than with

duals whose relationships within the organization were strained

en hostile.

In other words, less formalized/centralized and highly

ipative structure can be ego-enhancing under the conditions of

ing norms of trust, mutual respect, and feelings of

tiveness and closeness, since participation enhances employee

tion of being valued, the perception of common goals and

ation, and the feelings of enthusiasm for work (French, Israel &

nas, 1960; Patchen, 1970; Tannenbaum, 1969). Hence, with these

le work experiences, one may expect an organization's members to

re of their social worth (or "the degree to which one is

vely valued by other members of the work group")(Vroom, 1964),

eir personal importance to the organization (Buchanan, 1974;

, 1977a). Moreover, these characteristics of their job

ons, coupled with the recurrent interaction among group members

ey participate on the tasks, increase the feeling of

nsibility among members of a group, a characteristic that

ik (1983) indicated increased commitment.   As a result, the

dual member becomes further commited to the organization.

Moderating Effects

So far we have emphasized the influence of the structural

bles, interaction, and interpersonal variables on the

dual's commitment to his organization.   One could also argue

he quality of the desired interpersonal relations is affected by

dual variables such as age, marital status, education, position,

gth of service and job satisfaction, which have also been shown

related directly to organizational commitment (e.g., Buchanan,

Cook & Wall, 1980; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Penley & Hawkins,

Steers, 1977a; and Welsch & LeVan, 1981).   This version of our

ing is set forth more on an exploratory level because of the

y of empirical data available for reference.

Figure 3.1 shows the order of priority for the variables in a

sual sequence.   This causal model or scheme involves an

iplified model in the sense that the model takes into account

he variables that are of interest for this study, its specific

ch question, and related hypotheses.   The model, however,

ates a number of direct and indirect relationships and is

d into independent, intervening, and dependent variables.

ening variables may also serve as independent or dependent

es.   In the next chapter, a research strategy is outlined to

rious aspects of the model for the suggested relations.

Individual Variables

I

Age
Marital Status
Education
Salary
Length of Service
Organization Level

III

Structural
Variables

Formalization
Centralization
Participation

Interaction

II

IV

Interpersonal Variables

(Trust, Mutual Respect, Solidarity)

V

Outcome
Variable

Organizational
Commitment
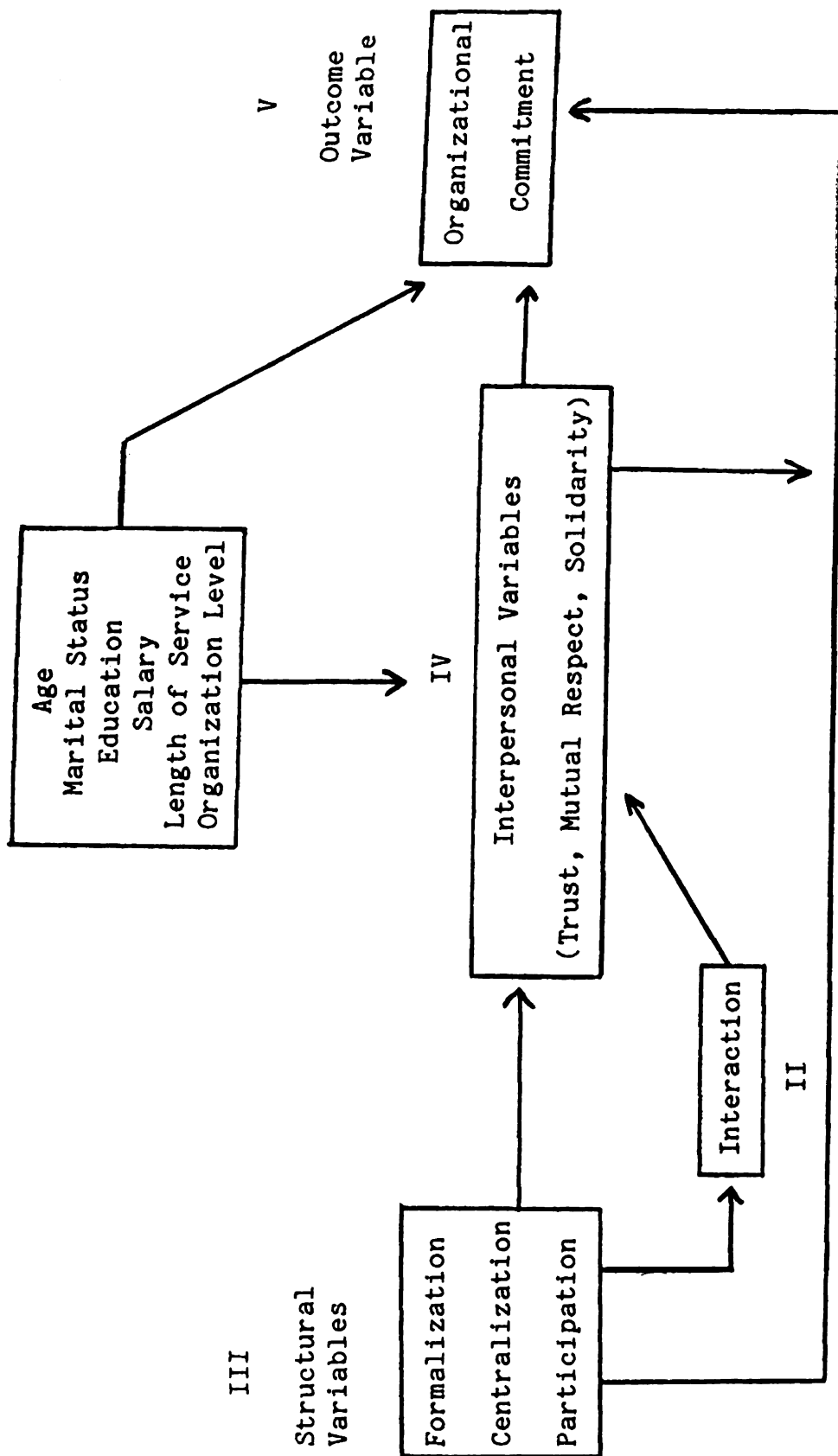
Figure 3.1--Theoretical Model; Structural - Interpersonal and Commitment Linkage

Argument Summary

In the context of the proposed mediating effects of
.erpersonal relations between organizations' structure and
anizational commitment, our argument is, basically, centered around
basic causal sequences:

1. The first sequence (Figure 3.2a) suggests that the quality of
   interpersonal relations existing in certain types of
   organization structure will be directly associated with the
   level of organizational commitment of its members based on
   the assumption that organizations differ in terms of the
   structural properties of each, which may facilitate or impede
   the quality of the interpersonal relations desired by its
   members.

2. The second sequence (Figure 3.2b) suggests other directions
   of the mediating effects of interpersonal relations, based on
   the same basic assumption mentioned in the first argument,
   "which relates interpersonal relations in organization to its
   structure," except that these structural effects in relation
   to interpersonal relations would be obtained through the
   specific type of interaction in which the organization's
   member is involved. Since such interaction is affected by
   the organization's structure, it is assumed that interaction
   will have its impact upon the quality of interpersonal
   relations which, in turn, will be directly associated with
   organizational commitment.

Structural
Variables

Formalization
Centralization
Participation

→ Interpersonal Relations
(Trust, Respect, Solidarity)

→ Organizational
Commitment
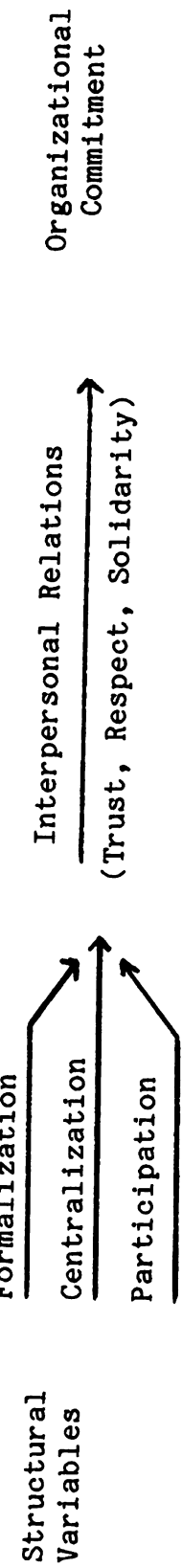
Figure 3.2a—First causal sequence for mediating effects of interpersonal relations. The linear statement or temporal order of variables in this argument may be written as follows:

Structural
Variables

Formalization
Centralization
Participation

→ Job-Related
Interaction →

Interpersonal Relations
(Trust, Respect, Solidarity)

→ Organizational
Commitment
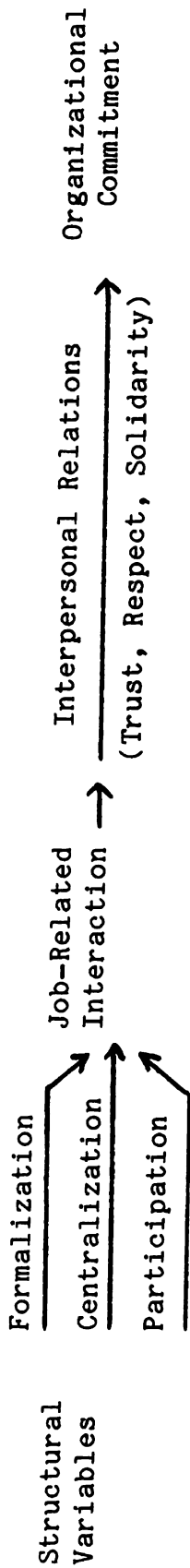
Figure 3.2b—Second causal sequence for mediating effects of interpersonal relations. The linear statement or temporal order of variables in this argument may be written as follows:

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The earlier variables (formalization, participation and centralization) may affect a later one (commitment), not only through the mediating relationship of interpersonal variables, but also directly. But in both conditions, the structure-commitment link is preconditioned by the relationship of interpersonal variables to the characteristics of the organization's structure. If the latter facilitates the development of interpersonal relations desired by the organization's members, then we assume the link to occur.

nterpersonal relations function as a mediating variable in the nship between organizational structure and organizational nt. In both cases the implication is that satisfaction with sonal relations affects the level of commitment the member has er organization. If the interpersonal relations experienced member are satisfactory, high organizational commitment would ted; the opposite is expected if they are not satisfactory.

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CHAPTER IV

WORKING HYPOTHESES

from the general proposition included in our argument, several
c propositions and related hypotheses concerning the suggested
re-interpersonal- commitment linkage can be stated.   Because
esent study is exploratory in nature, the hypotheses are
ed as working hypotheses.

irst: Formalization — Interpersonal Variables and Commitment
      Hypothesis

n many ways, formalization is the key structural variable for
lividual because a person's behavior is substantially affected
 degree of such formalization (Hall, 1982:95).   Formalization
to what one is asked to do, how one is to do it, and when it is
lone.   In this respect, the amount of individual discretion is
ly related to the amount of preprogramming of behavior by the
ition (Hall, 1982).   However, in a highly formalized situation,
·e highly differentiated and specialized roles are specifically
   Each member's rights, obligations, and technical methods are
·ed.   We expect that an increase in formalization in the work
n leads to increasingly unfavorable interpersonal relations in
ituation.

is proposition assumes that members of a work organization
 one another on the basis of different role expectations for

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vior and expertise. Since each member is more apt to be

edgable concerning only his role and technical methods, he is

likely (a) to recognize the importance of others in determining

vay of doing his job, (b) may have less regard for their opinions,

less confidence in their willingness to help out in times of

s, (c) may see his associates as less supportive, and deserving

respect in terms of knowledge and judgment, and (d) as a result,

ay even hold others surrounding him in lower esteem. The

opment of negative interpersonal relations, if it occurs in

y formalized organizations, may contribute to a negative attitude

d the employing organization.

Thus, we can formally hypothesize that:

IA. The interpersonal variables (trust, mutual respect, and
    solidarity) will be associated negatively with the degree of
    organizational formalization.

IB. The interpersonal variables (trust, mutual respect, and
    solidarity) will be positively associated with
    organizational commitment.

IC. The relationship between formalization and organizational
    commitment will vary depending upon the value of
    interpersonal measures.

Second: Centralization -- Interpersonal Variables and Commitment
esis

Centralization is closely aligned to formalization.

alization here refers to the hierarchical authority to make

ons (Hage & Aiken, 1967). In a highly formalized situation, the

s are viewed as incapable of making their own decisions and

ing a large number of rules to guide their behavior. Likewise,

ghly centralized situations, they are not trusted to make

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isions on work or even evaluate themselves (Hall, 1982). Moreover,
ause of indoctrination via standard operating procedures, manuals,
informally stated rules, we tend to shift behaviors and attitudes
ard centralization.

In highly centralized situations, communication consists
marily of instructions and decisions by superiors and information
requests for decisions by subordinates. The chief executive knows
t (Steers, 1977b:90). The differences in power and status among an
anization's members inhibits recurrent communication. Hence, the
ial distance between organizational levels reduces the free flow of
ormation. Consequently, the potential for feedback, which is an
ortant factor for improving interpersonal relations, is reduced by
igh degree of centralization.

Further, highly centralized organizations actively discourage
ticipative activities. A suggestion may be underestimated because
the low status of its source, and contributions of lower status
loyees may not be adequately acknowledged. Formal recognition may
lacking. An inferior employee's suggestions are seldom adopted and
re adopted, he is not credited with the contribution (Lowin,
). Hence, employees may experience conditions of inequity and
might affect their subjective evaluations of those around them.
efore, we would expect that increased centralization leads to
easingly unfavorable evaluations of others in terms of the
rtance of their knowledge, expertise in determining one's way of
g work, respect for such knowledge, and even suspicion about their
eration.

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Thus, we can formally hypothesize the following:

IIA. The interpersonal variables (trust, mutual respect, and solidarity) will be associated negatively with the degree of organizational centralization.

IIB. The interpersonal variables (trust, mutual respect, and solidarity) will be positively associated with organizational commitments.[1]

IIC. The relationship between centralization and organizational commitment will vary depending upon the value of interpersonal measures.

Third: Participation -- Interpersonal Relations and Commitment Hypothesis

In a less formalized and centralized organization, tasks are interrelated, continually readjusted and redefined as izational members interact. Duties and responsibilities are more redefined by interaction with others participating in the task. nication is both vertical and horizontal; the content of it is rily advice and information. The best knowledge may be located ere in the network (Steers, 1977b).

In contrast to a highly formalized situation, a less formalized tion indicates a lower level of centralization and a higher level articipation, where cooperation involves a larger part of cipants' personalities. The exchange of information, ideas, and ngs provides the opportunity for resolving differences in ons, thus reducing discrepancies in perception, ideals, and ties. Hostility and opposition are replaced by more cooperative udes (Tannenbaum, 1969). The acceptance of common goals and of dependent goals should lead to better communication and mutual

[1]This hypothesis (IIB) is identical to hypothesis IB but is led here to clarify the structure of the argument.

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ng and hence to an increased understanding of each other. Thus, a

eption of shared characteristics is more likely.

Each individual job takes on more meaning and importance because

s a necessary part of this function and because the relationship

be seen and appreciated by all members of the work group, which

ributes to a better understanding of each other's problems and

s of view and facilitates resolution of working difficulties that

e. Moreover, members' evaluations of each other participating on

job will be based on shared role expectations for appropriate

vior, since each individual is in need of the knowledge and

tise of others. Therefore, uncertainty about the way one is

uated by his associates is reduced (Vroom, 1964).

It follows that each member is likely to receive more favorable

onses from other members. So there is apt to be an indication

others are looking out for one's welfare; the individual member

well expect that his associates would be willing to go out of

way to help him and he may also hold them in higher esteem.

Because of the effect of participation on feelings of shared

cteristics as well as the satisfaction which may result from

cipation, greater employee participation may lead to stronger

ngs regarding the importance of others around him in determining

job, confidence in their willingness to help out in times of

le, as well as being supportive and deserving of respect. Also,

nature of a participative work environment makes people very

rned with having associates who are competent, supportive, and

protective in times of trouble.

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Thus, we hypothesize that:

IIIA. The interpersonal variables (trust, mutual respect, and solidarity) will be associated positively with the degree of organizational participation.

IIIB. The interpersonal variables (trust, mutual respect, and solidarity) will be positively associated with organizational commitment.[1]

IIIC. The relationship between participation and organizational commitment will vary depending upon the value of interpersonal measures.

predictions here are straightforward. It is expected that persons

have no recognition of the importance of others in their work, and

these others as unreliable in time of crisis, or who lack respect

others in their work or have associates who are not supportive,

d be more negative in their subjective reactions to their working

nizations. If an individual member of an organization does not

t, or respect, or feel respected by the people he works with, he

have low morale exhibited in lower level of commitment; the

site is also true. In addition, recurrent interaction among

-group members establishes the networks of interpersonal relations

integrate individuals into cohesive social units, which may

nce their morale and consequently increase their commitment.

on Reciprocality

A comment may also be made here about our suggestion that

personal relations may serve as a mediating variable between

izational structure and commitment.

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[1]This hypothesis (IIIB) is identical to hypotheses IB and IIB
s included here to clarify the structure of our argument.

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First: There is the possibility that prior differences in

itment among organization members would lead to more participation

directly but through its direct effect on interpersonal relations

also through the effects of interpersonal relations on job-related

ration). Thus, one could assume that these two variables exercise

eciprocal influence upon each other. It may be that once a

icient level of commitment is present (in part generated through

effects of participation on interpersonal relations and the

elated interaction) a reciprocal pattern of effects occurs such

more participation leads to greater commitment (through

personal relations) which leads to more participation.

Second: We do not expect that these reciprocal effects will hold

for the structural variables of formalization and centralization

se the basic assumptions underlying the negative effects of these

bles does not permit one to assume such reciprocal effects, nor

common sense suggest that interpersonal relations affect these

ts of organizational structure. One could only assume that these

variables exercise a one-way effect through the suggested

ting effects of interpersonal relations.

The three hypotheses discussed earlier are the major ones that

be tested in the dissertation. Subsidiary hypotheses involving

dual characteristics and job-related interaction variables that

uggested by Figure 3.1 will also be tested. These hypotheses

in the past, been tested independently of interpersonal and

ural variables for the most part. This study will be concerned

how the relationship between individual variables and

zational commitment may be influenced by interpersonal relations

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d organizational structure, i.e., how the suggested mediating

fects of interpersonal relations may be moderated by the individual

riables as well as the job-related interaction.

Definitions of Variables Involved in the Basic Model and Related Hypotheses

ganization Structure

The term "structure" embodies a variety of concepts. Structure

s been atomized into component parts, referred to as structural

mensions (Dalton et al., 1980:51). One of the major dimensions upon

ich we are focusing in this study is the formal structuring

aracteristics of organizations. Formal structuring properties refer

"policies and activities occurring within the organization members"

ablin, 1982:338; also Dalton et al., 1980:51). Specifically, the

ructuring dimensions under study here include formalization,

ntralization, and participation:

a. Formalization: Formalization is defined in terms of the

les in an organization including job codification and role

servation. The variable of job codification represents the degree

which the job descriptions are specified, whereas the variable of

le observation refers to the degree to which job holders are

pervised in conforming to the standards established by job

dification (Hage & Aiken, 1967). Job codification is closely

igned to rule-observation.

b. Centralization: Centralization generally refers to a

ventional hierarchical mode of operations in which decision and

ion functions are segregated in terms of authority (Lowin, 1968).

most often involves the locus of decision-making authority in

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anizations. In other words, it is a type of social power. If, for
stance, the power to make decisions is exercised by one or
atively few individuals, the structure is considered centralized.
s is consistent with Dalton et al. (1980): "The minimum degree of
tralization (decentralization) would exist in an organization if
ision-making authority were exercised equally by every member of
organization. Degree of centralization, then, refers to the
persion of decision-making authority throughout the organization"
59).

c. _Participation_: In contrast to centralization, participation
ns a mode of organizational orientation in which decisions as to
ivities are arrived at by the very persons who are to execute those
isions (Lowin, 1968).

Participation is here perceived by the employee as what Vroom
60) called "psychological participation." Psychological
ticipation is the perception of the amount of influence one has on
ntly made decisions associated with his position. That is,
ticipation through a more immediate arena in which an employee may
some influence--the work group under more immediate supervisors"
chen, 1970:191). Thus it is a type of social influence (French et
, 1960), whereas centralization is a type of social power.
ver, as participation shifts the locus of some decisions downward,
contrast between participation and centralization becomes only one
egree rather than of kind (Lowin, 1968:69). While participation
centralization are obviously related conceptually, there are
rate measures that are used in the organizational literature and
e measures have somewhat different corrrelates.

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It must be stressed, however, that we are more concerned with the individual member's perception of these variables rather than their actual existence as structuring characteristics of the organization, although these variables can be experienced by an organization's members in a comparatively direct and operationally meaningful way. An important assumption here is that members' perceptions regarding these variables constitute, for them, the reality of how structural prescriptions are used to organize and coordinate work (Porter, Lawler & Hackman, 1975). Although we are working at an individual level of analysis instead of an organizational one, we assume that these perceptions reflect the actual organizational structure. Further, such perceptions of organizational structure may be perceptions of certain segments of the organization (e.g., departmental differences) which are only part of the view people have of organizational life. These perceptions are, however, likely to be embedded within a larger view of the organization. Similarly the perceptions of relationships with others are part of the views people have of organizational life (Goldhaber et al, 1978). What people believe about an organization may influence interpersonal relations whether or not it is an accurate perception. In other words, it is a belief which makes a difference, whether or not it is the actual representation of interpersonal relations or organizational structure.

Interpersonal Variables

Generally, interpersonal relations refers to the orientation of an organization's members toward each other in terms of trust, mutual

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respect, and solidarity. These constructs are used here to mean an interpersonal relationship that is task-based, nontrivial, and of continuing duration (Gabarro, 1987:173).

In order to remain consistent with the theoretical model outlined in the previous pages, and to avoid problems of multicolinearity with other study variables, the following dimensions of interpersonal variables were selected.

a. Trust, or the organization member's confidence in his workgroup[1] members' occupational abilities, and their willingness to offer support in times of trouble.

b. Mutual Respect refers to the member's occupational and personal respect he has for his workgroup members, and his feelings of their respect toward him.

c. Solidarity refers to mutual support the member feels exists among the workgroup members, and his feelings of closeness to them.

Job-Related Interaction

Interaction here refers to the extent to which an organization's member maintains direct communication contact with other members linked to his job performance. It is the frequency of such interaction that is at issue.

Individual Characteristics

These characteristics may be classified under two major headings:

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[1]Workgroup members refers here exclusively to the people the organization's member works with in his department or unit. They are his immediate superior, his coworkers, and his subordinates.

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a. <u>Personal or Demographic Variables</u>, which the organization's mber brings to the organization or work, such as age, marital atus, and education.

b. <u>The Conditions of His Membership</u> in the organization, such as s position, salary, and length of service.

ganizational Commitment

Researchers have tended to define this concept in terms of a nbination of attitudes and behavioral intentions (Ferris & Aranya, 33). However, it is attitudinally defined as "the relative strength an employee's involvement in and identification with the particular ganization" (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979:226). This definition :ludes some aspects of commitment-related behavior. According to ·ris and Aranya (1983), attitudes include (1) identification with · organization (acceptance of its goals), which are the basis for :achment to the organization; (2) involvement in the organizational ·k role (assessing the strength of attachment); and (3) warm, ·ective regard for, or loyalty to, the organization (the evaluation attachment). The behavior-intention variables include: (1) a lingness to exert effort; and (2) a desire or willingness to remain the organization (see Hall, 1979 in Ferris & Aranya, 1983:88).

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CHAPTER V

SAMPLE AND MEASUREMENT

Introduction

The purpose of the study, as described in Chapter I (p. 2) is to

examine the possible mediating effects of interpersonal variables

between an organization's structure and organizational commitment as

applied to a sample of Saudi Arabian employees. A causal theoretical

model or scheme was constructed based upon a synthesis of ideas

derived from current and past theories and literature on

organizational settings, and described in Chapter III (p. 46) as the

basic model of structure-interpersonal relations and commitment

linkage. This model represents the individual member's attitude

toward his employing organization as an ultimate outcome of particular

forces acting on the individual to determine his organizational

commitment.

This chapter aims to explain the methodological procedures which

were used to test the theoretical path model. This includes a

description of the research setting and a discussion of the survey

instrument and how the data were collected. This is followed by the

plan of analyzing the data, including a discussion of the assumptions

underlying the path model. Since the underlying assumptions of path

analysis were mostly met, the model suggested by our theoretical

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ramework can be tested and many variables can be handled

imultaneously. The path model described in this chapter is an

perational model employed to test the causal schemes represented by

he "structure-interpersonal relations and commitment" model.

The nature of the sample, its size, as well as the tools for

ollecting data are mostly determined by the purpose of the study, but

lso by the available human and economic resources, and time

onstraints.

> Typically, in any social science research, we are faced with
> a number of trade-offs: experimental control, the capture of
> the basic real-world conditions in which a problem exists,
> the costs (time and money) in being able to carry through on
> a particular research design, as well as opportunity and
> feasibility. (Klaus & Bass, 1982:61)

Research Settings

Subjects were drawn from two different types of work

ganizations. This was done to ensure greater heterogeneity in

ganizational structure, since the structural variables are the heart

this research and all the structural effect measures are derived

om it.

1. Industry-Oriented Organizations:

Three large organizations which operated oil industries in

Eastern and Middle regions of Saudi Arabia participated in the

ly. It is well known that the economy of Saudi Arabia is heavily

ndent on oil income. Therefore the oil industry is the most

king feature of its industrial development.

2. Research-Oriented Organizations:

Four relatively mid-size and small organizations involved in

, applied, and development research participated in the study.

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These types of organization are all public enterprises

(independent bodies within the Saudi government). They are among the

largest of their types in Saudi Arabia in terms of size, mission, or

the services they provide. Specifically, the three selected

industrial organizations are involved in a large industrialization

effort of export-oriented, large-scale hydrocarbon and mineral-based

industries. These are:

1. Aramco (1933): An internationally known oil company now fully

owned by the government. In addition to its central mission of

petroleum exploration, production, and exportation, it has been

authorized to design and build an extensive gas-gathering, treatment,

and transportation facility to provide industrial projects with fuel

for energy and feedstock.

2. Riyadh Refinery (1970): One of the largest projects

undertaken by the General Petroleum and Minerals Organization

(Petromin) to develop the important natural resources of the Kingdom's

crude oil and natural gas.

3. SABIC, or the Saudi Basic Industrial Corporation (1976): A

fully owned holding company that is entrusted with the task of

preparing and implementing a number of petrochemical and metal

projects in cooperation with several foreign firms specializing in

these areas. Only eight out of fifteen of its first-stage plants in

Saudi Arabia were sampled because the others were either of very small

or were just newly operational.

The four research-oriented organizations selected for the study

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1. The King Abdulaziz City for Science and Technology (KACST)
77): This is an independent scientific organization established to
mulate the national policy for science and technology development,
draw up the strategy and plans for its implementation, and to
duct applied scientific research programs to further promote Saudi
elopment in both public and private sectors.

2. The Research Institute (RI): The Institute is an integral
t of the University of Petroleum and Minerals (1963) in Dhahran,
di Arabia but is semiautonomous in operation. It provides
damental and applied research under contract for government,
ustry, and the general public. Activities cover petroleum and gas
hnology, energy resources, geology, standards and materials, and
rgy economics and industrial research.

3. Saudi Consulting House (SCH)(1979): An organization owned
ly by the government, providing professional consulting services in
ineering, economic, industrial, and management as well as to
ernment agencies, private establishments, and individual
estors. Its headquarters office is located in Riyadh, from which
sample came, and other branches are located in Jeddah and Dammam,
the West and East regions of Saudi Arabia, respectively.

4. The Institute of Public Administration (IPA)(1961): This
anization is an autonomous body of the Saudi government. Its major
sion is to design and implement educational programs for all levels
the Civil Services, and to conduct administrative research and to
erate with the government agencies in which research is conducted.
headquarters are in Riyadh and there are two branches in Jeddah
Dammam. The activities of the branches are confined to the middle

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[1]The

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nagement, clerical, and supervisory training programs and the
nsultation services.

Both types of organization can be seen as part of a wider
velopment process with the objective of a more balanced and
lf-supporting growth in the oil and non-oil sectors as well as
lated sectors of science, technology, and management.[1]

Our sample came from those male Saudi individuals who are
volved in carrying out the core mission in each of the critical
rts of these organizations. If the organization had branches, we
lected only the subjects from the headquarters. Subjects at
nches were excluded because of being few in number, or the branch
newly established, or even difficult to reach, as in the case of
e of the SABIC's plants, the IPA, and SCH branches in Jeddah and
mam.

Sampling Procedures

The sampling procedures divided the organizations into levels
departments or divisions, i.e., the person's level of
ponsibility in the organization determined whether the
nizational member was part of the top, middle, or first-line
agement. The department to which the member belongs in his
nization determined how closely the person's role in the
nization is associated with direct accomplishment of the
nization's task (cf., Westrum & Samara, 1984:22).

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[1]The information mentioned above about these organizations is
n from informational books published by these organizations (see
lography).

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    c) Nc

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Respondents within each organization were selected according to
 following criteria:

a) All male Saudi supervisory personnel were included (including
artment or unit heads, supervisors at both types of organizations,
 superintendents, and foremen in the industrial type). In the
ected industrial units, middle managers (division managers) were
luded and were sampled along with the supervisory personnel.

Supervisory level personnel were exclusively selected because
y are most likely to be key decision makers and to determine
anizational policy. Therefore, understanding the factors affecting
 organizational commitment of supervision may be especially
ortant, since the key determinants of commitment are found in
racteristics of the job that increase the employee's feeling of
ponsibility (Mowday et al., 1982). Hence, we assume that
ervision will increase the feeling of responsibility required for
reased commitment.

b) In the research and development organizations, the
fessionals (such as specialists, researchers, and trainers) were
pled along with the supervisory personnel because they are
mately involved in the achievement of the organization's goals,
are likely to have organizational power (Aiken & Hage, 1966; Hage
iken, 1969). Supervisory relationships still exist within this
gory of an organizations' employees.

c) Non-supervisory level and supportive division personnel (in
types of organization) were excluded because they either are not
tly involved in the achievement of organizational goals or they
little or no power (cf., Aiken & Hage, 1966:497-507). This

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Another consideration is that the sampling goals were stablished separately for each type of organization, in relation to rganization type and size. The industrial organizations are larger han the professional ones. So we decided to take both supervisory ersonnel and professionals at the research and development rganizations, and limit the selection to the supervisory level at the ndustrial organizations since they are large. This is also done for easons of cost, limited resources, and time constraints. onsequently, a majority of respondents were from the supervisory evel in the production sections of industrial organizations. The ext largest group of respondents were professionals in different epartments at the research and development organizations. Finally here were respondents from the supervisory level at the research and evelopment organizations, and respondents from the managerial level f both types of organizations.

Since a relatively large number of cases was desired for the nalysis, it was decided to administer questionnaires to all subjects these organizations who met the criteria rather than to a sample. nis was done to maximize the number of responses and to overcome the fficulty of obtaining access to a complete list of subjects, which uld be required for the process of randomization. The subjects were ndomly selected only in ARAMCO, which comprised the greatest oportion of the total sample. It accounted for 51.6 percent of the dustrial sample and 36.2 percent of the total sample, as shown in ble 1.

Table 1--

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le 1--Summary of the distribution of the sample along the
different types of organization.

Organization type Industry-Oriented	Percent of total sample	Organization type Research-Oriented	Percent of total sample
RAMCO 141 (51.6)	36.2	KACST 38 (32.5)	9.7
iyadh efinery 24 (8.8)	6.2	UPM 16 (13.7)	4.1
ABIC 108 (39.6)	27.7	SCH 18 (15.4)	4.6
		IPA 45 (38.5)	11.5
273	70.0	117	30.0

al number of cases = 390
dustry-Oriented cases = 273 (70%)
search-Oriented cases = 117 (30%)

Measures and Instrument

asures

The primary structural dimensions are formalization, ticipation, and centralization. The most common measurement of se variables involves one of two basic approaches (although etimes both are used at the same time):

1. Objective Measures. The variables of formalization, ticipation, and centralization are operationalized by using icial records and documents from organizations, or information from informants about the organization, to determine such matters as definition of rules, what occupants of positions do (job ification), and whether or not the rules are employed (rule

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servation). Also, the degree of hierarchy of authority, the amount
influence members have on work decisions, can be determined
jectively.

2. <u>Subjective or Perceptual Measures</u>. The structural variables
formalization, centralization, and participation are operationally
fined by asking the members of organizations to respond to a series
questions bearing directly on these issues. Their responses are
ed to determine the extent to which the organization is formalized
d centralized, and the amount of influence the individual member has
the decisions made in the organization. (A series of questions
aring directly on these structural variables is described in the
xt section concerning the instrument.)[1]

While recent research suggests that subjective and objective
asures of structure are not always equivalent (e.g., Jablin, 1982;
mes & Jones, 1976; and McKelvey & Sekaran, 1977), subjective
asures were employed because it was felt that they would more
curately reflect the degree of structure that organization members
tually experienced in their day-to-day activities (Jablin, 1982).
ll (1982) contends that the use of perceptual measures has the
vantage of recognizing the existence of informal procedures as well
allowing validity checks for the objective ones. "Scores on
rceptual scales may thus represent an accurate portrayal of an
anization's degree of formalization or other structural features"
ll, 1982:99).

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[1]For more information about these measurements of an
anization's structure, see: Aiken & Hage, 1966; Hall, 1982; Inkson,
h & Hickson, 1970; Miller, 1970; and Pugh, Hickson, Hinings &
ner, 1969.

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The choice was made to use the second measures, the "subjective perceptual ones." In addition, the difficulty of reaching key ntacts about organizations for preliminary interviewing, the ailability of written data, and the possible difficulty in getting :ess to the written information, if any is available, with which we e concerned make the use of objective measures a difficult task. In ner words, it was posited that the structural variables that these rceptual measures assessed would have a more direct effect upon the pendent variables involved in this study than would objective asures. Further, "the perceptual measures do allow comparisons ross the organization" (Hall, 1982:99).

strument

The primary data for the present study were obtained from formation collected via anonymous questionnaires. Beside taking to account time and resource limitations, the choice of this chnique was made because of the possibility that organization mbers might be reluctant to express unfavorable opinions if the terview technique were used, i.e., it might have placed inordinate essure upon the respondents to search for answers they believed the terviewer would find pleasing.

This questionnaire is an outgrowth of reviews of questionnaires ed in related studies (Kahn et al., 1964; Marriet, Hage, & Aiken, 75; Mowday et al., 1979; Patchen, 1970; and Vroom, 1960).

The translated version of the questionnaire was administered to r sample at their work site. It was stressed that questionnaire

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ponses are confidential, anonymity of respondents was guaranteed,

participation was completely voluntary.

The major areas covered in the questionnaire included

ormation about the background characteristics of the respondents,

structural characteristics of the organization in which they work,

ir satisfaction with their jobs, their interaction with each other,

quality of interpersonal relations they have with each other, and

ir attitudes toward that organization.

I. Individual Characteristics Variables (ICV):

Certain individual information about the respondents was

collected in order to allow comparison of the findings with

other studies and to take into account the characteristics

that might be expected to contribute to the problem at hand,

such as age, marital status, education or years of schooling,

years of service or tenure, salary, and so on (Questionnaire,

Section I - Items #1 - #17 in the Appendix).

II. Job Satisfaction (JS) Scale:

A measure was developed based on items measuring the same

variable from earlier studies and upon the participants'

comments during the pretest stage (Questionnaire, Question 18

with 22 items). The overall measure reflects the individual

member's evaluation and affective reactions to his working

conditions and organization.

III. Job-Related Interaction (JRI) Scale:

The job-related interaction scale (JRI) reflects task

communication or the interaction linked to performance. The

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major types of interaction are measured by Items #19 - #22a in Section II of the questionnaire. These items are modified items based on a communication questionnaire developed by Marriet et al. (1975). The major types of interaction (unscheduled - scheduled) are intended to give an indication of the content and frequency of the job-related interaction in the organization. Items 22b and 22c were eliminated from the scale computations because of excessive missing data.

IV. Structural Variables (SV) Scale:

An organization's structure is conceived in terms of its operational aspects which include:

1) Index of Formalization

   Formalization, or the use of rules in an organization, including:

   a. job codification and rules

   b. rule observation

e two dimensions of formalization may be specified as job fication, the degree of work standardization; and rule leniency, measure of the latitude of behavior that is tolerated from dards (Miller, 1970:286). These items are drawn from a idardized instrument developed by Hage and Aiken (1967) stionnaire, Section III - Items #23 - #30).

2) Index of Centralization

   Centralization or the reliance on the hierarchy of authority is measured by a 5-item standardized scale which measures the degree to which the organization member participates in decisions involving the tasks associated

with his position; developed by Hage and Aiken (1967). (Questionnaire, Section III - Items #31 - #34).

3) Index of Participation

Participation on the job is measured by a 4-item standardized scale developed by Vroom (1960). (Questionnaire, Section III - Items #35 - #38).

From an operational standpoint, structural variables such as these (1, 2 and 3) constitute a "system" of potential influences on an organization member's perception and responses (Morris & Steers, 1980).

V. Interpersonal Relations (IR) Scale:

Interpersonal variables such as trust, mutual respect, and solidarity were measured on an 8-item scale (Questionnaire, Section IV - Items #39 - #47). In addition, Item #18 from the JS scale was added to the analysis of the overall measure of the interpersonal relation variable. These items were a combination of standardized and tailor-made items.

VI. Organizational Commitment (OC) Scale:

Commitment is measured by a 15-item standardized instrument (OCQ) developed by Porter et al. (1974). Each item asks the subject to express his or her agreement or disagreement with the item on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" (Questionnaire, Section V - Items #48 - #62). The 15 items reflect a combination of attitude and behavioral intentions, and emphasize the employees' moral involvement with the organization. This instrument has been the most widely utilized to date, and its

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result tend to suggest that it produces a more efficient measure of organizational commitment (Ferris & Aranya, 1983:96). Multiple-sample psychometric data are available for this instrument (see Mowday et al., 1979).

Thus the questions in the questionnaire cover a variety of the bject-related matters. Most are of the fixed-alternative type. The spondent was asked to select the response that best describes his n views. This is done to ensure that the responses cover the mensions under study and to simplify response and analysis. (The ans and standard deviations of all variables are shown in Table 2.)

anslation and Pretesting

The survey was conducted in Arabic, the indigenous language of e participants. Therefore, the questionnaire was translated from glish to Arabic by the author. In some cases, the author sought nsultation with some faculty members of the psychology department at ng Saud University (the University which has granted the author's holarship). In particular, the consultation involved a few items ich were open to interpretation. The author provided each rticipating member with more than one written translated meaning at was thought to correspond to the English item, then asked the ber to choose the one closest in meaning. The closest one that was eed upon by the participative members was chosen as the correct .

The questionnaire was then tested. Two pretests were conducted a small sample randomly selected from the two types of anizations involved in the study (28 subjects from the industrial

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Table 2--Means and Standard Deviations of All Variables.

Scale Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Number of Cases
OC	81.772	13.973	35	105	390
IT	26.053	4.407	8.40	35.00	390
IR	38.252	4.556	18.00	45.00	390
IS	11.738	1.681	5.00	14.00	390
JRI	31.563	6.416	13.50	45.00	390
OIR	76.043	8.546	39.40	94.00	390
CV	15.026	5.916	4.00	28.00	390
FV	32.106	7.173	13.00	49.00	390
PV	14.415	2.798	5.00	20.00	388
JS	78.154	13.521	40.86	110.0	390
LS	4.615	1.778	1*	7*	390
AV	34.979	8.549	20	58	390
MS	.874	.332	0**	1**	390
EV	4.959	1.377	0***	7***	390
SV	12.508	3.157	4****	15****	390
MS	12.508	3.157	4	15	390
MP	.679	.467	.00	1.00	390
SP	.090	.286	.00	1.00	390
PP	.231	.422	.00	1.00	390

Key to Variables:

1 OC = Organizational Commitment
2 IT = Interpersonal Trust
3 IR = Interpersonal Respect
4 IS = Interpersonal Solidarity
   JRI = Job-Related Interaction
   OIR = Overall Interpersonal
              Relations
   CV = Centralization Variable
   FV = Formalization Variable
   PV = Participation Variable

10 JS = Job Satisfaction
11 LS = Length of Service
12 AV = Age Variable
13 MS = Marital Status
14 EV = Education Variable
15 SV = Salary Variable

16 MP = Managerial Position
17 SP = Supervisory Position
18 PP = Professional Position

*1 = less than one year, 7 = more than 15 years
**0 = single, 1 = married
***0 = no education, 7 = more than 15 years of schooling completed
****4 = 4501 SR-5000 SR, 15 = more than 10,000 SR
           (SR = Saudi rial, approximately = 26.66 cents U.S.)

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organizations and 25 subjects from the research organizations). The

two groups were asked to comment on any item which seemed ambiguous or

to suggest something related worth adding to the instrument.

Consequently, <u>a new constructed scale--a job satisfaction scale</u>--was

added to the final questionnaire, and questions that appeared to be

incomprehensible or vague were changed or reworded. In this study,

the job satisfaction scale will be considered as part of the member's

individual characteristics, reflecting his general satisfaction with

the working conditions in the organization he belongs to.

The final items of each scale in the questionnaire were selected

after the two samples tested the initial questionnaire. As noted in

the next section, the questionnaire scales have been proven reliable

and the questionnaire seems appropriate for measuring the different

variables involved. The Arabic version was then translated back into

English by the author and appears in the Appendix.

The Final Questionnaire: Reliability

As indicated at the beginning of this chapter, the final

questionnaire is an outgrowth of reviews of other questionnaires.

Various established scales measuring the variables involved were

reviewed prior to the construction of the final questionnaire.

Popular scales such as the "Organizational Commitment Scale (Mowday,

Steers & Porter, 1979), the "Formalization" scale, a version of the

Centralization" scale (Hage & Aiken, 1967, 1969), and the

Participation" scale (Vroom, 1964) were chosen because they best fit

this study's research design. These standardized scales have a

history of popular use and a record of high validity and reliability

(α = .90, α = .88, α= .70, and α=.90, respectively). Other scales were a combination of standardized and tailor-made items.

The reliability of these standardized scales, and the tailor-made scales, as parts of the questionnaire, was tested. Factor analysis was used to estimate the internal consistency of each scale. A higher alpha coefficient indicates a reliable instrument.

The reliability coefficient for the Job Satisfaction (JS) Scale was α = .89, for the Job-Related Interaction (JRI) Scale was α = .65, and for the Structural Variables (SV) Scale as follows:

Formalization Index α = .66,

Centralization Index α = .74 (after deleting Item #30), and

Participation Index α = .74.

The reliability coefficients for the Interpersonal Relations (IR) Scale were

Trust Index α = .60,

Mutual Respect Index α = .79,

Solidarity Index α = .64, and

Overall Index α = .83.

Finally, the reliability coefficient for the Organizational Commitment (OCS) Scale was α = .86.

The reliabilities of the standardized scales for our sample compare favorably with reliability coefficients reported in previous research (Hage & Aiken, 1967; Morris & Steers, 1980; Mowday et al., 1979; Ferris & Aranya, 1983; Luthans et al., 1985; Morrow & McElroy, 1987, respectively). This suggests that these instruments are reliable ones.

Data Collection

After permission to distribute the questionnaires was obtained from the organizations' authorities, questionnaire data were collected from subjects of the two types of organizations based on the criteria set for the sampling goals. Given the potentially sensitive nature of the variables involved in the study, and in order to promote spontaneous answers and to overcome resistance to the questionnaire, the steps described below were taken.

The final Arabic version of the questionnaire was designed in a well-organized, easy to understand, and clear fashion, in 16 pages of offset printed style.

A cover letter was attached to the questionnaire. It was basically a brief appeal to the participants, urging them to fill out the questionnaire and mail it back as soon as possible to the predetermined appropriate place. The participants were told briefly about the purpose of the study and were reminded of the importance of the study for them and for the country. They were assured that the data they provided were confidential and would be used solely for the proposed research purposes. Anonymity was guaranteed; no names or other identifying marks were to be included, and their organizations would have nothing to do with the present study. The letter was signed by the researcher with his address included. In addition, general directions on how to fill out the questionnaire were provided on a separate page and also in the questionnaire.

Participants were furnished with self-addressed return envelopes for direct mail return to the researcher or his assistants at the

redetermined place. A statement appeared on the envelope asking them
o seal it once they completed filling it out. No code identification
as used. All these efforts were done to assure the participants that
he questionnaires would remain confidential and that the participants
ould remain anonymous.

Personal distribution was adopted to overcome the problems
ssociated with mail services in Saudi Arabia, to maximize the
esponses, and because of the difficulty of getting access to accurate
nformation about the participants' addresses from their
rganizations.

All questionnaires were presented directly to the participants
hrough the assistance of an internal communication system of each
rganization represented by persons assigned, by either the public
elations or similar offices in each organization, to help the
esearcher in the distribution, follow-up, and collection of the
uestionnaires. Care was taken that none of those who were in the
ain of authority (with respect to the participants) in each
ganization became involved in the distribution or collection of the
estionnaire.

As a matter of cooperation, in some cases participants were sent
letter from their organization, along with the questionnaire, via
 organization's internal mail system. This letter was a brief
eal to the participants urging them to cooperate with the
earcher as best as they could, and to indicate that the
nization had nothing to do with the proposed study.

Participants completed the questionnaire on their own time,
r at work or at home.

Mail-back questionnaires were sent to the appropriate offices, [vi]a the organization's internal mail and then handed to the [re]searcher. Very few cases were mailed directly to the researcher by [th]e participants themselves.

In most cases, there was no direct contact between the [pa]rticipants and the researcher, therefore the follow-up techniques [us]ed were telephone calls and postcards sent to the research-assigned [as]sistants with a strong appeal for encouraging their employees to [co]operate.

In some cases, visits were made to the agencies, for the same [re]ason, in addition to the first visits to all organizations at the [ti]me of distributing the questionnaire, which lasted from a few hours [to] a few days depending on the size and the location of the [or]ganizations.

The distribution of the questionnaires to the organizations [be]gan on September 15, 1987 and was completed on November 28, 1987.

By the predetermined cutoff date, a total of 622 (out of 1630 [dis]tributed questionnaires) questionnaires had been returned. This [con]stituted a return rate of 38 percent, which is better than average [fo]r such studies but, of course, leaves the possibility of nonresponse [bi]as. The issue is addressed in the concluding chapter.

The researcher checked the questionnaires for errors (omissions, [inc]omplete answers, contradictions, and so on). Six responses showed [inc]omplete answers; 34 had no response at all. Additionally, 192 [que]stionnaires were eliminated because they did not comply with the [sam]pling rules by either not meeting the criteria set for the sampling [pro]cedures (e.g., the subjects were non-supervisory or supportive

vision personnel in both types of organizations) or by being presented in one organization rather than the other, as the case of e quality-control departments in the industrial organization.

Since the study sample is represented disproportionately by rticipants within each organization and across the organization pes, the sample cannot be considered either random or presentative. It is, however, diverse. For this reason the results rit reporting, although extrapolation of the findings to ganizations in general should be done with caution. In addition, e primary focus of this study was on conceptualization and the tension of the existing research into a new area. Therefore, it was lt that the representativeness of the sample would not be as crucial its heterogeneity with respect to the investigated variables.[1]

Thus, the nature of the selected sample--as described above--was pected to provide a particularly sensitive test of the relationship tween the commitment variable and its correlates. Also, it permits valid test of the theoretical framework, although it does not permit description of the actual distribution of any of the variables or neralization to any predefined population.

Plan of Analysis

The unit of analysis in this study is the individual member of ch organization, not the organizations themselves. Therefore, formation collected from each individual's questionnaire was edited,

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[1]The same justification was given by Thornton Russell in his rk, "Organizational Involvement and Commitment to Organization and ofession," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 15, 1970:417-426.

coded (as described above) and processed for analysis using the SPSSX computer program.

The analysis rests on the major research question (Chapter I), the theoretical argument and its related hypotheses, as delineated in Chapter III, and the discussion in Chapter IV concerning structural variables, interpersonal variables and commitment linkage.

The object of the analysis is to determine the adequacy of the postulated causal schemes of the model presented in Chapter III (p. 68) by referring to the observable relationships in a set of test models.

To provide the possibility for causal determinations among the sets of measured variables we are concerned with in this study, the data analytic technique of multiple regression with some characteristics of path analysis was used. The evidence can result in a description of the relative degree of explanatory power for each of several predictor variables on a dependent variable. Moreover, a major advantage of this approach is that it provides flexibility regarding the presence or absence of possible causal links (Franklin, 1975b:426). The traditional procedures in using multiple regression analysis were followed:

First, a pattern of association between the variables in the theoretical scheme (Figure 3.1) was established to translate it from a conceptual framework into quantitative estimates. A correlation matrix was calculated utilizing the Pearson correlation coefficient for all variables in the model (Table 6.1). These include the structural variables of "formalization," "participation" and "centralization"; the job-related interaction variable; the

interpersonal variables, both separately and as a combined set; and the individual characteristic variables. Particularly, the analysis attempts to note any large intercorrelations between the independent variables (multicolinearity), since such correlations can substantially affect the results of multiple regression analysis (Norusis, 1985). Histogram frequencies and a separate analysis of scattergrams were done to determine whether the variables are normally distributed.

Second, the path coefficients were calculated. In contrast to correlation coefficients, path coefficients reflect the amount of direct contribution of a given variable on another variable when the effects of other related variables are taken into account (Miller, 1970:190). Path coefficients are calculated using a multiple regression program that takes raw data and computes partial coefficients from standardized input data. Hence, the standardized partial regression coefficients (betas) used here are identical to path coefficients (see Hall & Hall, 1976; Miller, 1970).

As a means to test the path models, each path model represents a system of full equations, since all possible paths in the model are postulated to exist. The significance of the regression coefficients determined by the F-test indicates which variables are significant in each equation in the system and, hence, which paths are significant in the model. The object is to arrive at the most parsimonious equations without losing significantly explained variance (Barnes, 1975:67).

A stepwise regression program is used to determine which variables, and hence which paths in each system, are statistically significant at the probability level of $\alpha < .05$, Then the test models

are trimmed accordingly. The determination as to which paths could be deleted in the test models is made, based upon the stepwise regression runs, and the F-test is employed to delete any variables which are not significant at the desired probability level of $\alpha < .05$.

One reason for using the stepwise procedures is to examine the size of path coefficients to see whether they are large enough to warrant the inclusion of a variable or path in the model, and to evaluate the ability of the model to predict correlation coefficients that are not used in computing the path coefficients themselves.

An important part of any statistical procedure that builds models from data is to establish how well the model actually fits (Noursis, 1985:17). The partial regression coefficients in standard form (betas) and the coefficients of determination for specified combinations of variables (R^2) are essential for applying the "goodness of fit" between observed data and the basic theoretical model. Each analysis yielded multiple coefficients (R) describing the effect of a set of predictors on each dependent variable and standardized regression coefficients (B) indicating the unique effect of each predictor on each dependent variable. Since the number of variables used as predictors in these analyses varied from five to fourteen, the multiple correlation coefficients were adjusted for the number of predictors used. In addition to these statistics, a residual value was determined for each dependent variable to indicate the amount of variance not accounted for by variables included in the model (Franklin, 1975b:426).

For example, Tables 6.2a and 6.2b show that the coefficient of determination (R^2) for all selected variables significantly directly

affecting the ultimate dependent variable of commitment is .37; i.e., .37 percent of the variation in the organizational commitment variable may be accounted for by these variables: centralization, interpersonal variables, and the characteristic variables of job satisfaction and tenure. The unexplained variation is due to variables or measurement error not included in the model. For the sake of completeness, the square root of these $(1-R^2)$ values are ascribed to the residual variables, as shown in Tables 6.2a and 6.2b. "The importance of the residual is not its size, rather whether the unobserved factors it stands for are properly represented as being uncorrelated with the measured antecedent factors" (Miller, 1970:192). After each full path model has been trimmed to correspond to the parsimonious equations, it is used to render a calculation of direct and indirect effects.

The object is to study the linkages of all variables in the given trimmed system of Figures 6.1a and 6.1b, and to determine the extent to which the assumptions and related hypotheses regarding the mediating effects of interpersonal relations hold true. (These assumptions and hypotheses were discussed in Chapter III and Chapter IV under the basic theoretical causal models, pp. 46 and 72). In other words, using the path analysis technique we determined whether the structural variables (formalization, participation and centralization) were related to organizational commitment independently of any relationship they might have with the interpersonal variables or whether the interpersonal relations variables mediate the relationship between the structural variables and the organizational commitment variable.

For interpersonal relations to mediate the relationship between an organization's structure and organizational commitment, <u>three</u> necessary conditions must be met:

1.   Each of the organization's structural variables--formalization, participation, and centralization--must have a significant effect on the interpersonal variables (combined or taken separately), either directly or indirectly, through the significant direct effects of each of these structural variables on the job-related interaction variable which, in turn, has its direct influence upon the interpersonal variables as a combined set or taken separately.

2.   The interpersonal variables, as a combined measure or separately (trust, mutual respect, and solidarity) must, in turn, have a significant direct effect on the ultimate dependent variable of organizational commitment.

3.   The relationship between each of the structural variables (formalization, participation, and centralization) and organizational commitment must vary depending on the values of the interpersonal relations variables (as combined or separate measures).

These conditions involve testing two completely identified path models, as shown in Figures 6.1a and 6.1b.   These basic path models were computed using the following regression equations:

a. Structural variables, interpersonal variables, the job-related interaction variable, and interpersonal variables (combined or taken separately) were regressed on organizational commitment as the dependent variable.

b. Structural variables, the job-related interaction variable, and individual characteristics were regressed on interpersonal variables (as a combined set or taken separately) as the dependent variable.

c. Structural variables were regressed on job-related interaction as the dependent variable.

In each equation, the effects of each factor as an independent variable on the dependent variable depend on its relationship with all the other variables in the regression equation.

As previously described, the full path models are tested for significant paths, trimmed, and then used to render an interpretation of the significant relationships among the variables. Each path represents the relationship between any two variables with all other related variables controlled. So the tested model fares well and remains undistorted by the trimming process. Most of the significant paths are in the expected directions; non-significant paths were deleted without loss of information.

In Figures 6.1a and 6.1b, path coefficients have been entered on the path diagram, with the exception of the antecedent variables of formalization, participation, and centralization. The basic path models are now complete and await interpretation of their direct and indirect effects, which is the heart of our explanatory study.

Testing the above-mentioned model answers the general question concerning the mediating effects of interpersonal relations between an organization's structure and organizational commitment.

Assumptions Underlying the Path Models

According to Franklin (1975b), the use of multiple regression analysis requires embracing several assumptions about the data and the model. These include (1) interval scale measurement, (2) linear relations among variables, (3) an additive model, (4) uncorrelated residual variables, and (5) a known and correctly represented causal model (see also Knoke, 1985; Miller, 1970; and Norusis, 1985). In this study, the path models are tested assuming that the relationships among the variables are linear and additive; i.e., an increase in the independent variable results in a proportional increase or decrease in the dependent variable. However, every path model in this study serves as a tentative approximation to an understanding of the mediating effects of interpersonal relations between an organization's structure and organizational commitment, and explicitly represents the causal ordering of the variables stipulated for it. Every path model is assumed to be a simple, asymmetric or recursive closed system, with no dependent variables appearing as causes of their independent variables, except between predetermined variables (Knoke, 1985:393). But we should note, as suggested by Klauss and Bass (1982), that "assuming causality in real-world contexts thus becomes a difficult task. Strictly speaking, one can argue that everything is mutually interactive in the realm of organizational behavior." Further, "The technique of path analysis is not a method of discovering causal laws but a procedure for giving a quantitative interpretation of an assumed causal system as it operates within a given population" (Miller, 1970:193).

Since the residuals are neither correlated with other residual factors in the models nor causally connected to other independent variables, this precludes the effects of extraneous variables and contamination within the system (Barnes, 1975). In general, the residuals have been found to be normally distributed, indicating that the unmeasured variables have no systematic effect upon the system. The residuals, as mentioned earlier, represent the effects of variables not considered in the analysis, including measurement error, response bias, and other unexplained variance.

Additionally, the coding technique of "dummy variables" was employed for the use of the nominal variable of organizational level of position. Also the relationships among the variables are measured on interval scales and standardized. The factor analysis method is used to construct the scales; some scales are point dichotomies, which may be considered a special case of an interval scale (Blalock, 1967:32, in Barnes, 1975). Path coefficients are estimated from correlations which are already standardized (Knoke, 1985:392).

Thus, based on the type of measurement used, assumptions 1 through 4 were judged not to be extremely violated, especially if we consider the reasonable size of our sample as a major criterion for judgment. The accuracy of the model must be accepted to the extent that the analyses provide support for the model, a judgment of how well the data fit the hypothesized relations (Franklin, 1975b:426). The validity of a given path model is its predictive capacity. If this capacity is low, the fault may lie with the postulated ordering of the variables, or it could be a failure to consider the effects

of certain unmeasured variables, or most of the unexplained variance may be due to inadequate measurement (Barnes, 1975; also Miller, 1970). Despite its limitations, our hope is that the proposed model may help to clarify and promote understanding as to how organizational structure affects individual attitudes, namely, an individual's commitment to his organization.

Some Clarifications in Relation to the Tested Model

The general model guiding this research (outlined in Chapter III, p. 68) has been presented with a rationale linking various components of the model together which propose a set of cause-effect relations. The structural variables of participation, formalization, and centralization are presumed to cause a certain quality of interpersonal relations directly and through their effects on job-related interaction. In turn, the resultant interpersonal relations will lead to stronger commitment to the working organization.

We fully recognize the difficulties of developing a causal model in this research. It is our view that the current state of the art concerning the effect of organizational structure on organizational commitment is still limited. There has been little empirical research dealing with formal structural characteristics of organizations and commitment. Moreover, there do not seem to be many systematic conclusions that one can confidently draw from the existing literature about how organization structure affects interpersonal relations (see, for example, Jablin, 1982; Klauss & Bass, 1982; Mowday et al., 1982). We recognize from the start that our research design has considerable

limitations (e.g., no experimental, very limited number of variables, restricted generalizability due to the sampling procedures). Hence our ability to make strong causal inference is much more threatened since other factors may be operating in a way such that any effects that may have noticed could be due to variables not measured or inadequately measured. We are also severely constrained and at best will be able to make weak causal inferences from our data, since our data collection is cross-sectional in nature. Still, thinking in causal terms can help to increase understanding and in turn may assist in improving simplified models of reality (Franklin, 1975b:60).

We will attempt to make statements regarding the ability of our model to predict certain kinds of outcomes, since our research design still increases our confidence in being able to make causal inferences.[1]

(1) Although studies have investigated the effects of both organizational structure (e.g., participation, formalization, and centralization) and interpersonal relations on commitment, they have limited their efforts to the direct effects of these variables on commitment with no necessary conditions for such effects to occur. These investigations of organizational commitment have provided valuable empirical evidence on how a host of variables, both structural and interpersonal, influence commitment. However, no attempt has been made to explain methodologically and empirically how these two sets of variables interact to influence the individual's

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[1] In a similar manner, Klauss & Bass (1982) attempt to explain the difficulties of developing a causal model in their study, "Interpersonal Communication in Organizations" (see Bibliography).

commitment to his organization. Some of the studies offer some hint of such interaction (e.g., Patchen, 1970); others only speculate about how the structural effects occur (e.g., Morris & Steers, 1980), which makes one conclude that the direct effects of structure cannot happen without mediating effects.

Therefore, our study is an attempt to bring about meaningful explanation of how structure influences commitment by combining the two sets of variables (structural and interpersonal) to interact in one research design. The study is designed to explore the extent to which interpersonal relations mediate the influence of structure on commitment, arguing that such influence can be explained through the effect of structure on interpersonal relations. In turn, interpersonal relations will influence commitment directly.

(2) Not only does organizational structure affect commitment through the mediating effects of interpersonal relations, but also through its direct impact on the specific type of interaction in which the individual member participates. In turn, such interaction moderates the direct effect on interpersonal relations.

(3) As a means of obtaining greater control, we will measure certain additional variables not originally specified in the basic model but that prior research suggests may influence the specific dependent variables (e.g., individual characteristic variables). In this sense, we can introduce a certain amount of control over "third" factors which might be indirectly involved (Klauss & Bass, 1982). Statistical techniques such as factor analysis, the introduction of dummy variables, and stepwise multiple regression facilitate this kind of control.

Additionally, in examining any specific effect of a particular variable involved in our theoretical framework, it was necessary to control for all other related variables having effects on the specific dependent variable at hand, so that the independent effects for any particular variable are not incorrectly attributed to this specific effect of the particular variable involved (Brass, 1979).

Thus, the research design, coupled with the size and heterogeneity of the sample (which came from different work environments having differing technologies), strengthens the predictive power of the model in relation to the proposed outcomes, and bridges a gap noticed in previous research. The results, however, must be viewed in tentative terms until subsequent research can more thoroughly test similar models through longitudinal studies. "Clearly, longitudinal effects must follow, but what is learned in the cross-sectional beginning will contribute to a more efficient design in those more difficult longitudinal efforts" (Franklin, 1975b:62).

CHAPTER VI

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The analysis of the data follows the plan described in Chapter IV. It rests on the theoretical argument and related hypotheses described earlier in Chapter III and Chapter IV regarding the conditions under which an organization's structure leads to a modification of organizational commitment.

The causal structures of this model are described in Chapter III as the "organization's structure, interpersonal variables, and commitment linkage," in which organizational commitment is the ultimate dependent variable. The organization's structure, interpersonal relations and commitment model, shown in Figure 3.1, represents the postulated relationships among the variables under study. Figure 3.1 is tested for the fit of the data by observing the extent to which the observable relationships in the test model support the postulated relationships. In the context of the postulated relationships, a calculus of the direct, and of the cumulative indirect, effects were examined and interpreted for each path model.

The analysis of the findings is presented in two major sections.

First: The relationship among the structural variables, the interpersonal variables, the individual variables, and the ultimate dependent variable of organizational commitment were assessed by means of:

117

a) correlation coefficients to test the adequacy of the model in establishing path analysis using multiple regression equations, and

b) by the calculation of path coefficients to assess the independent direct effects of the selected variables included in this study on the ultimate dependent variable of organizational commitment.

The results of these coefficients should provide an indication of the value of the exploratory model in Figure 3.1 in future analysis.

Although included in this section, the effects of the variables of interpersonal relations (as a combined measure and when taken separately), will be reported again as a special case to assess a major condition concerning the mediating effects in which the variables of interpersonal relations must have direct effects on the ultimate dependent variable of commitment.

Second:

The primary focus of this section is on examining the possible mediating effects of the variables of interpersonal relations (as an overall measure or taken separately) on the organization's structure-commitment relationships. Included in this section are the following:

a) an assessment of the conditions under which the mediating effects of interpersonal variables occur. Included in this analysis are the assessment of the direct effects of the structural variables on the variables of interpersonal relations, the indirect effects through the variable of job-related interaction, and the direct effects of interpersonal variables on the ultimate dependent variable

of organizational commitment. These analyses will provide the primary test of the necessary conditions of the mediating effects.

b) To the extent that the necessary conditions for the mediating effects are found, an assessment of the proposed mediating effects will be performed. This part of the second section will rely more upon the results obtained in the first part of this section. The assessment will provide the testing of the major hypotheses delineated in Chapter IV, and the subsidiary hypotheses involving job-related interaction and individual characteristics variables that are suggested by our theoretical framework. At the end of this section, additional analysis was provided, including a supplementary model of the mediating effect of job satisfaction on organizational structure and commitment.

This study uses multiple regression programs that take raw data and compute partial coefficients from standardized input data in order to calculate the path coefficients in the analysis of the variables involved in the study.[1] One of the first steps in calculating regression equations with several independent variables is to calculate a correlation matrix for all variables (Norusis, 1985:18), that is, translating the conceptual framework of this study into quantitative estimates by establishing a pattern of association between the variables in the theoretical model or the causal scheme developed in Chapter III (Figure 3.1, p. 68).

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[1] Path coefficients are identical to partial regression coefficients (the betas) when the variables are measured in standard form (Miller, 1970). See also Barnes, 1975; Franklin, 1975b; Hall & Hall, 1976; and Knoke, 1985.

Organizational Commitment and Its Correlates

Assuming one-way causation, simple correlation coefficients indicate the gross or total effect of the antecedent variable upon the consequent variable. The correlation matrix presented in Table 6.1 shows the correlations between the dependent variables and each independent variable, as well as the correlations among the independent variables.

As shown in Table 6.1, all the hypothesized antecedents of organizational commitment are associated with organizational commitment. Reading across the first row of Table 6.1, it is observed that these variables show significant correlation to commitment, with the exception of the structural variable of formalization ($r = -.056$). The highest correlation coefficient is for the job satisfaction variable ($r = .499$) and the second highest is for the interpersonal variable as a combined measure ($r = .425$), followed in descending order by the structural variable of participation ($r = .382$), length of service variable ($r = .377$), and other related variables.

The correlation coefficient is generally higher with the combined measure of interpersonal variables than when these variables are taken as separate measures. The pattern varies somewhat but is basically similar for the interpersonal variables as a combined set and separately. The interpersonal variables of trust, solidarity and mutual respect are related to organizational commitment in somewhat diminished magnitude ($r = .371$, $r = .355$, $r = .306$, respectively). However, our analysis will focus on both combined and separate measures in order to uncover possible differences, though the emphasis will be on the combined measure for the rest of the analysis. The

Table 6.1—Correlation Matrix of All the Variables Involved in the Study

		1 OC	2 IT	3 IR	4 IS	5 JRI	6 OIR	7 CV	8 FV	9 PV	10 JS	11 LS	12 AV	13 MS	14 EV	15 SV	16 MP	17 SP	18 PP
1	OC		.371 (.000)	.306 (.000)	.355 (.000)	.250 (.000)	.425 (.000)	-.288 (.000)	-.056 (.301)	.382 (.000)	.499 (.000)	.377 (.000)	.395 (.000)	.147 (.000)	-.191 (.000)	.329 (.000)	.131 (.005)	.121 (.008)	-.227 (.000)
2	IT			.4695 (.000)	.306 (.000)	.249 (.000)	.826 (.000)	-.159 (.001)	.081 (.055)	.314 (.000)	.288 (.000)	.245 (.000)	.314 (.000)	.015 (.386)	-.200 (.000)	.185 (.000)	.101 (.023)	.021 (.342)	-.126 (.006)
3	IR				.434 (.000)	.245 (.000)	.861 (.000)	-.094 (.029)	-.030 (.278)	.312 (.000)	.288 (.000)	.068 (.091)	.081 (.056)	.024 (.315)	-.092 (.035)	.103 (.021)	.120 (.009)	.006 (.451)	-.138 (.003)
4	IS					.286 (.000)	.586 (.000)	-.137 (.003)	.004 (.472)	.378 (.000)	.301 (.000)	.259 (.000)	.199 (.000)	.102 (.022)	-.189 (.000)	.257 (.000)	.165 (.000)	.065 (.100)	-.226 (.000)
5	JRI						.315 (.000)	-.074 (.073)	.105 (.019)	.358 (.000)	.325 (.000)	.106 (.018)	.203 (.000)	.075 (.069)	-.120 (.009)	.241 (.000)	.285 (.000)	.069 (.086)	-.362 (.000)
6	OIR							-.161 (.001)	.025 (.301)	.397 (.000)	.362 (.000)	.214 (.000)	.244 (.000)	.041 (.211)	-.189 (.000)	.201 (.000)	.149 (.002)	.027 (.299)	-.183 (.000)
7	CV								.195 (.000)	-.307 (.000)	-.3298 (.000)	-.174 (.000)	-.153 (.001)	-.123 (.008)	-.0599 (.193)	-.269 (.000)	-.055 (.141)	-.181 (.000)	.183 (.000)
8	FV									-.067 (.094)	-.064 (.104)	.193 (.000)	.201 (.000)	.026 (.303)	-.297 (.000)	.088 (.041)	.270 (.000)	.121 (.008)	-.216 (.000)
9	PV										.469 (.000)	.255 (.000)	.232 (.000)	.195 (.000)	-.098 (.026)	.366 (.000)	.209 (.000)	.173 (.000)	-.346 (.000)
10	JS											.275 (.000)	.288 (.000)	.100 (.024)	-.137 (.003)	.378 (.000)	.205 (.000)	.156 (.001)	-.333 (.000)
11	LS												.736 (.000)	.358 (.000)	-.441 (.000)	.618 (.000)	.377 (.000)	.038 (.229)	-.443 (.000)
12	AV													.250 (.000)	-.445 (.000)	.560 (.000)	.310 (.000)	.056 (.133)	-.382 (.000)
13	MS														-.225 (.000)	.324 (.000)	.237 (.000)	.065 (.100)	-.307 (.000)
14	EV															-.196 (.000)	-.532 (.000)	.277 (.000)	.401 (.000)
15	SV																.435 (.000)	.146 (.002)	-.580 (.000)
16	MP																	-.457 (.000)	-.798 (.000)
17	SP																		-.172 (.000)

Key to Variables:

1 OC = Organizational Commitment
2 IT = Interpersonal Trust
3 IR = Interpersonal Respect
4 IS = Interpersonal Solidarity
5 JRI = Job-Related Interaction
6 OIR = Overall Interpersonal Relations
7 CV = Centralization Variable
8 FV = Formalization Variable
9 PV = Participation Variable
10 JS = Job Satisfaction
11 LS = Length of Service
12 AV = Age Variable
13 MS = Marital Status
14 EV = Education Variable
15 SV = Salary Variable
16 MP = Managerial Position
17 SP = Supervisory Position
18 PP = Professional Position

initial results suggest that a combination of interpersonal variables may be necessary in order for a sizable effect on in organizational commitment to occur.

Most important, the structural variables of participation and centralization are both correlated with organizational commitment in the expected direction (r = .382 and r = -.288, respectively), while the structural variable of formalization is in the predicted direction, although slightly and insignificantly (r = -.056). For the correlation of participation with organizational commitment, our finding is consistent with previous research findings based on the same measure, but this is not so for the formalization variable (cf., Morris & Steers, 1980). Job-related interaction is positively and significantly correlated with organizational commitment (r = .250, p < .001). Finally, the individual characteristics of age, salary, position, and (to a lesser extent) education and marital status are all significantly correlated with organizational commitment (r = .395, r = .329, r = -.227, r = -.191, and r = .147, respectively).

The second through fourth rows of Table 6.1 report correlations with interpersonal variables (trust, respect, and solidarity) taken separately. Again, the pattern of association is as it was expected. As Table 6.1 indicates, job-related interaction correlates positively and significantly with solidarity, trust, and respect (r = . 286, r = .249, and r = .245, respectively).

On the other hand, the structural variable of centralization correlates negatively, with only a slight relationship, with trust (r = -.159), solidarity (r = -.137), and mutual respect (r = -.094). In contrast, participation as a structural variable has a strong positive

correlation with the variables of solidarity, trust, and mutual respect ($r = .378$, $r = .314$, and $r = .312$, respectively). The correlations of formalization with these interpersonal variables are all weak and not in the expected direction, with the exception of mutual respect, although it is not statistically significant.

It is not surprising that the set of three interpersonal variables--trust, mutual respect, and solidarity--are positively correlated among themselves. They are, of course, highly correlated with the interpersonal relations variable as a combined measure (respectively, $r = .861$; trust, $r = .826$; solidarity, $r = .586$). A reliability test of these three measures as a combined set yields a coefficient of .83, which means that these variables are loading highly on each other when they are combined in a single measure.

The pattern of association for interpersonal relations variables, when they are taken as a combined measure, with job-related interaction and structural variables, is as expected. Correlation coefficients are generally higher than for the individual interpersonal variables and in the predicted direction, with the exception of the structural variable of formalization. Generally, interpersonal relations as a combined set is positively and significantly correlated with participation ($r = .378$), and with job-related interaction ($r = .315$). In addition, they correlate negatively and significantly (though moderately) with the structural variable of centralization ($r = -.161$). However, there are no significant associations for these variables as a combined set with the structural variable of formalization ($r = .025$, $p = .301$).

The interpersonal variables, either as a combined set or taken separately, are significantly correlated with the individual characteristic variables. The highest correlation is with job satisfaction ($r = .362$). The exceptions are the interpersonal relation as a combined measure with marital status ($r = .041$); the trust variable with marital status ($r = .015$); and the mutual respect variable with years of service or tenure, age and marital status, and education.

Finally, the job-related interaction variable correlated significantly and positively with the structural variable of participation ($r = .358$), and positively but with a weaker relationship with the structural variable of formalization ($r = .105$, $p = .019$). However, there is no indication of a statistically significant correlation with the structural variable of centralization, although it is in the predicted direction ($r = -.074$).

Additionally, Table 6.1 demonstrates the pattern of associations between the major independent variables in this study. Centralization and formalization are positively and significantly correlated ($r = .195$, $p < .001$). In contrast, centralization and participation are strongly but negatively correlated ($r = -.307$, $p < .001$). Formalization has no statistically significant correlation with participation, but it is in the predicted direction. In summary, judging from the above-discussed simple matrix correlations in Table 6.1, our data do not differ significantly from the findings of the previous studies from which our theoretical scheme or model (Figure 3.1) was developed.

The primary importance of the initial analyses reported above lies in their contribution in translating the theoretical framework (Figure 3.1) into quantitative estimates, since such quantitative estimates are required for the calculation of path coefficients when using multiple regression programs. Correlational coefficients yield important relations but they do not demonstrate causality, although causality can be inferred (Miller, 1970:188).

It is possible to test the theoretically postulated causality among the variables involved in this study by computing the standardized regression coefficients in a multiple regression analysis. The relative contribution of certain variables to the explained variation in other particular variables will be analyzed by controlling for all related variables involved. The results are more straightforward when the multiple regression analysis contains a manageable number of independent variables, as was done in our model.

The preliminary condition for running a multiple regression analysis to compute path coefficients is testing the variables for their linearity and multicolinearity. Theoretically, variables should be normally distributed. Also the independent variables should be correlated with the dependent variables but not with one another. In practice, multiple regression is recognized as a robust technique that can include non-normally distributed variables if their variations from normality are not extreme (Hedderson, 1987:107).

Frequency analysis revealed no evidence of extreme nonlinear relationships, and the correlational matrix revealed no high multicolinearity ($r \Rightarrow .80$) among the independent variables.

The Independent Direct Effect on
Commitment of All Variables Involved

All the variables in the causal model depicted in Figure 3.1 were studied for their direct and indirect effects upon the ultimate dependent variable, namely, organizational commitment. One approach to do so would be to deal with the complete unreduced model presented in Figure 3.1 measuring all its variables and estimating all its parameters. If the general scheme shown in the model is correct, it would be expected that all the related variables, either independents, exogenous, or endogenous, would have significant direct effects on the ultimate dependent variable of organizational commitment. So all the related variables were entered in the regression equations using the method of stepwise multiple regression with organizational commitment in the role of dependent variable. Thus the order of entry of the variables was left to the stepwise regression procedures. The variables of interpersonal relations are entered as both separate measures (trust, respect, and solidarity) and as a combined one.

Table 6.2a presents the results of path coefficients, in which organizational commitment was designated as the dependent variable and the structural variables, job-related interaction, interpersonal variables of trust, mutual respect and solidarity, and the individual characteristics variables as independent variables.

Table 6.2a shows that the most striking factors having significant direct effects on organizational commitment are job satisfaction and tenure, with path coefficients of .318 and .194 respectively. Thus, with an increase in job satisfaction and length

Table 6.2a--Direct Effects on the Dependent Variable of Commitment When Interpersonal Relations Are Taken Separately.

	Path Coefficients						
	Independent Variables						
Dependent Variables	Centrali- zation	Trust	Solidarity	Job Satis.	Length Service	R^2	*Rd
Commitment	-.104 (.016)	.173 (.0001)	.142 (.0014)	.318 (.0000)	.194 (.0000)	.374 **(.366)	.626 (.634)

F = 45.689 p = < .0001   No. cases = 390   df = 5

Table 6.2b--Direct Effects on Commitment When Interpersonal Relations Are Combined

	Path Coefficients					
	Independent Variables					
Dependent Variables	Centrali- zation	Overall Interpersonal Relations	Job Satis.	Length Service	R^2	*Rd
Commitment	-.108 (.013)	.247 (.0000)	.311 (.0000)	.221 (.0000)	.373 **(.366)	.627 (.634)

F = 57.057 p = < .0001   No. cases = 390   df = 4

*RD = residuals   **(-) adjusted R^2

of stay (tenure), an increase in organizational commitment is predicted. This is followed, in descending order, by the interpersonal variables of trust, with a .173 path coefficient, and solidarity with a .142 path coefficient. All of the variables have a positive relationship with commitment except for the structural variable of centralization, with a path coefficient of -.104.

When other variables are controlled, none of the other background characteristics, such as age, marital status, education, salary, and position, has a significant direct effect. Neither the job-related interaction variable nor the structural variables of formalization or participation have significant direct effects on organizational commitment when controlling for other variables, although all are in the predicted direction. Since none of them alter the position of the significance of other variables as the dominant factors directly affecting commitment, they were consequently omitted from the tables.

Replacing the case in which the variables of interpersonal relations were taken separately (trust, respect, and solidarity) with the case of being an overall measure (Table 6.2b) results in no major change in the coefficients from interpersonal variables taken separately, for all related variables in the regression equation. As a combined measure, interpersonal variables became a stronger predictor of organizational commitment, having a significant direct effect with a .247 coefficient, which is stronger than any of the interpersonal variables when taken separately. There are also some slight significant increases in the coefficients related to the variable of length of stay or tenure (.221), the structural variable of centralization (-.108), and a slight decrease in the coefficient related to the job satisfaction variable (.311).

Some overall patterns in the results concerning the independent direct effect on organizational commitment for the selected factors in this study are worth noting. Most noteworthy is that although the eighteen variables were included as possible factors directly

affecting organizational commitment, only five of the eighteen have a significant direct effect, explaining .374 percent of the variance in organizational commitment.

Moreover, these five significant factors are characterized as being at least partly situational (tenure and job satisfaction) and interpersonal rather than personal (e.g., age, marital status, education) or structural (formalization and participation) with the exception of centralization.

With the interpersonal relations variables as a combined measure, the explained variation in the dependent variable of organizational commitment dropped slightly from .373 to .365 when all structural variables and job-related interaction were omitted from the regression equation, but all other related variables were entered. At the same time, however, the path coefficients of interpersonal variables (as a combined set), the job-satisfaction variable, and tenure are slightly increased (.251, .345, and .228, respectively).

No change occurred in the value of explained variation of the dependent variable (R^2) or in the path coefficients for all the dependent variables involved when the job-related interaction variable is the only variable omitted from the regressions, either for the case where variables of interpersonal relations were treated as separate measures or as one combined measure.

Finally, it is clear that many of the variables shown to be correlated with organizational commitment in previous studies do not have as great a direct effect as might be expected. Variables such as age, salary, marital status, education, position, formalization, and participation yield no significant direct effects on organizational

commitment as might be expected from a glance at the simple correlation matrix in this study or as shown in previous studies.

Obviously, multiple regression equations with the stepwise method make a difference, the independent effect of any particular variable is less likely to be incorrectly attributed to the specific effect of this particular variable when all of the other related variables in the same regression equation are controlled. In contrast, correlational techniques which have been reported by most studies on organizational commitment have not controlled for the effects of other variables. So the significant effects related to certain variables in those studies might be attributed to uncontrolled contamination of the effects of other variables.

The results of these obtained coefficients should provide a preliminary indication of the value of our theoretical models depicted in Figure 3.1. The absence of direct significant effects on commitment for the variables of interest, particularly the structural variables of formalization and participation, and the job-related interaction variable, may mean that their effect occurs indirectly through the mediating effects of the variables of interpersonal relations as suggested by the theoretical models examined in this study.

Possible Mediating Effects of Interpersonal Variables on the Organization Structure-Commitment Relationship

Conditions for the Mediating Effects

In the context of the proposed mediating effects of the variables of interpersonal relations between an organization's

structure and organizational commitment, our twofold theoretical argument is basically centered around two assumptions. First, the quality of interpersonal relations existing in certain types of organizations will directly affect the level of organizational commitment of its members and the quality of interpersonal relations which exist will be influenced by the structural characteristics of the organizations. Second, job-related interaction will have its impact on the quality of interpersonal relations which, in turn, will directly influence the level of organizational commitment and job-related interaction will be affected by the organization's structure. (These assumptions have been fully discussed and summarized in Chapter III, Chapter IV, Figure 3.2a, and Figure 3.2b).

In both cases, the structure-commitment link is conditioned by the relationship of interpersonal variables to the characteristics of organizational structure. Thus, interpersonal relations function as a mediating variable in the relationship between organizational structure and organizational commitment.

In operational terms, it is important to determine the effects of each of the structural variables on the variables of interpersonal relations (combined or taken separately), either directly or indirectly through the effects of these structural variables on the variable of job-related interaction. It is also important to determine the effects of the variables of interpersonal relations as an overall measure or taken separately on the ultimate dependent variable of organizational commitment.

The effects of each of the structural variables on organizational commitment are hypothesized to vary depending on the values of these interpersonal variables as mediating variables.

Effects of Structural Variables on Interpersonal Variables

As a necessary condition for the mediating effects to occur, the structural variables of participation, formalization, and centralization must have significant effects on the variables of interpersonal relations, either directly or indirectly through their direct effects on the variable of job-related interactions which, in turn, directly affects the variables of interpersonal relations. This major condition remains to be tested in the following order:

A. Direct Structural Effects on the Variables of Interpersonal Relation

Tables 6.3a and 6.3b present the results of this analysis. The path coefficients obtained in these tables illustrate that with all variables entered the only structural variable which has a significant direct effect on the variables of interpersonal relations (either as a combined measure or taken separately) is the structural variable of participation. Variables having non-significant coefficients were omitted from the table.

Table 6.3a indicates that participation has a significant direct effect on interpersonal variables as a combined measure, with a path coefficient of .246 at the probability level of .00001.

Table 6.3b indicates that participation also has a significant direct effect on interpersonal variables when indexed by the variables of solidarity, trust and mutual respect. There were significant

Table 6.3a--Direct Effects on the Variables of Interpersonal Relations When Combined

Path Coefficients

Independent Variables

Dependent Variables	Participation	Job Interaction	Job Satisfaction	Education	R^2	Rd*
Overall Interpersonal Variables	.246 (.0000)	.153 (.0020)	.178 (.0000)	-.123 (.00070)	.233 (.225)**	.767 (.748)

F = 30.937 p =< .0001 No. cases = 399 df = 3 *Rd = residuals **(-) adjusted R

Table 6.3b--Direct Effects on the Variables of Interpersonal Relations When Taken Separately

Path Coefficients

Independent Variables

Dependent Variables	Participation	Job Interaction	Job Satisfaction	Length of Service	Age	Marital Status	R^2	Rd*
Trust	.219 (.0000)	.120 (.016)	-	-	.280 (.0000)	-.131 (.0058)	.182 (.174)**	.818 (.826)
Respect	.193 (.0005)	.125 (.016)	.159 (.0039)	-	-	-	.137 (.130)**	.863 (.870)
Solidarity	.275 (.0000)	.167 (.0007)	-	.169 (.0004)	-	-	.195 (.188)**	.805 (.812)

F = 29.110 p =< .0001 No. cases = 399 df = 4 *Rd = residuals **(-) adjusted R

direct effects on solidarity and trust, with path coefficient values of .275 and .219, respectively, and a somewhat weaker direct effect on mutual respect, with a path coefficient of .193. Similar findings have been noted in other related studies when interpersonal variables such as these have been included in studies of participation (Vroom, 1964; Nicholson & Goh, 1983).

Neither of the other structural variables—formalization or centralization—has a direct significant effect on the variable of interpersonal relations (either as a combined measure or taken separately). Their effect may be obtained, however, from the cumulative indirect effects through their effects on job-related interaction which, in turn, influences interpersonal relations directly. These cumulative indirect effects are significant with the exception of centralization, as will be shown below.

B. Indirect Effects of Structural Variables on Interpersonal Variables

It was suggested in Chapter III that the structural effects on interpersonal variables might be obtained through the specific type of interaction in which the organization's member is involved. That is, another aspect of the effects of an organization's structure on interpersonal variables is through job-related interaction, since this variable is assumed to be determined in part by the structural variables involved in this study.

Direct Effects of Structural Variables on Job-Related Interaction

From the perspective of our theoretical argument, an organization's structure not only constrains the interpersonal

relations process, but also provides substance to interaction. Table 6.4 illustrates that the structural variables have significant direct effects on the variable of job-related interaction, with the exception of the centralization variable. Specifically, participation as a structural variables has a highly significant direct effect on the job-related interaction variable, with a path coefficient of .366, at a probability level of .00001. The structural variable of formalization has a lower but still significant effect on job-related interaction, with a path coefficient of .133, significant at the .005 level. Centralization as a structural variable has neither a direct nor an indirect effect on the job-related interaction variable.

Table 6.4--Direct Effects of Structural Variables on Job-Related Interaction

Dependent Variable	Path Coefficients				
	Independent Variables				
	Centralization	Formalization	Participation	R^2	Rd*
Job-Related Interaction	.0199 (.69)	.133 (.0051)	.366 (.0000)	.146 **(.141)	.854 (.859)

F = 32.812   p = < .0001   No. cases = 399   df = 2

*Rd = residual   **(-) adjusted R^2

Job-related interaction is assumed to be a primary determinant of the variables of interpersonal relations, especially if we consider the fact that interaction is the basic data source of interpersonal relations.

Direct Effects of Job-Related Interaction
on Interpersonal Variables

Table 6.3a shows that the variable of job-related interaction has a significant direct effect on interpersonal variables as a combined measure, with a path coefficient of .153 at the probability level of .0020.

In addition, Table 6.3b indicates that the job-related interaction variable has significant direct effects on the interpersonal variables when taken separately. The job-related interaction variable has direct effects on the interpersonal variable of solidarity, with a path coefficient of .167; on the variable of mutual respect, with a path coefficient of .125; and on the variable of trust, with a path coefficient of .120. These path coefficient values are significant at the .0007, .016, and .016 levels, respectively.

It is not surprising to note such significant direct effects of the job-related interaction variable on the variables of interpersonal relations, especially if we consider the fact that interpersonal relations do not automatically materialize in our lives but require development, as Williams (1984) precisely describes it. Williams (1984) talks about a similar concept, i.e., communication as the basis of interpersonal relations, when he states:

> Two individuals must know a great deal about one another before trust develops. And becoming acquainted requires the exchange of information about one another, the ability to understand one another's needs, and the willingness to develop mutually satisfying goals. All of these requirements are a part of the communication process underlying the development of interpersonal relations. Effective communication is the basis of interpersonal cooperation whether the relationship grows into a friendship or marriage, or becomes simply an effective working relationship between a manager and an employee. (p. 16)

Additionally, interaction with other members in the organization has been identified as among the primary determinant variables of organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Eisenberg et al., 1983; and Marsh & Mannari, 1977). The findings of our study, reported at the beginning of this chapter, show no indication of such a direct effect of job-related interaction on organizational commitment. But the effect of job-related interaction on organizational commitment can be explained through the mediating effect of the interpersonal relations variables, since job-related interaction has a significant direct effect on the interpersonal variables and these same variables, in turn, have significant effects on organizational commitment. We conclude that job-related interaction has its effect through the mediating effects of interpersonal variables on the job-related interaction-commitment relationships.

Thus, there is no significant direct effect of job-related interaction on organizational commitment, but the cumulative indirect effect is significant. It is implied that job-related interaction is differentially related to commitment under the conditions of high or low desired interpersonal relations, with increased interaction predicting better interpersonal relations and, consequently, commitment occurs. This result is consistent with our theoretical argument.

Effects of Interpersonal Variables
on Organizational Commitment

As for the second major condition for the mediating effect of the variables of interpersonal relations on the dependent measure of commitment to occur, interpersonal variables must have significant
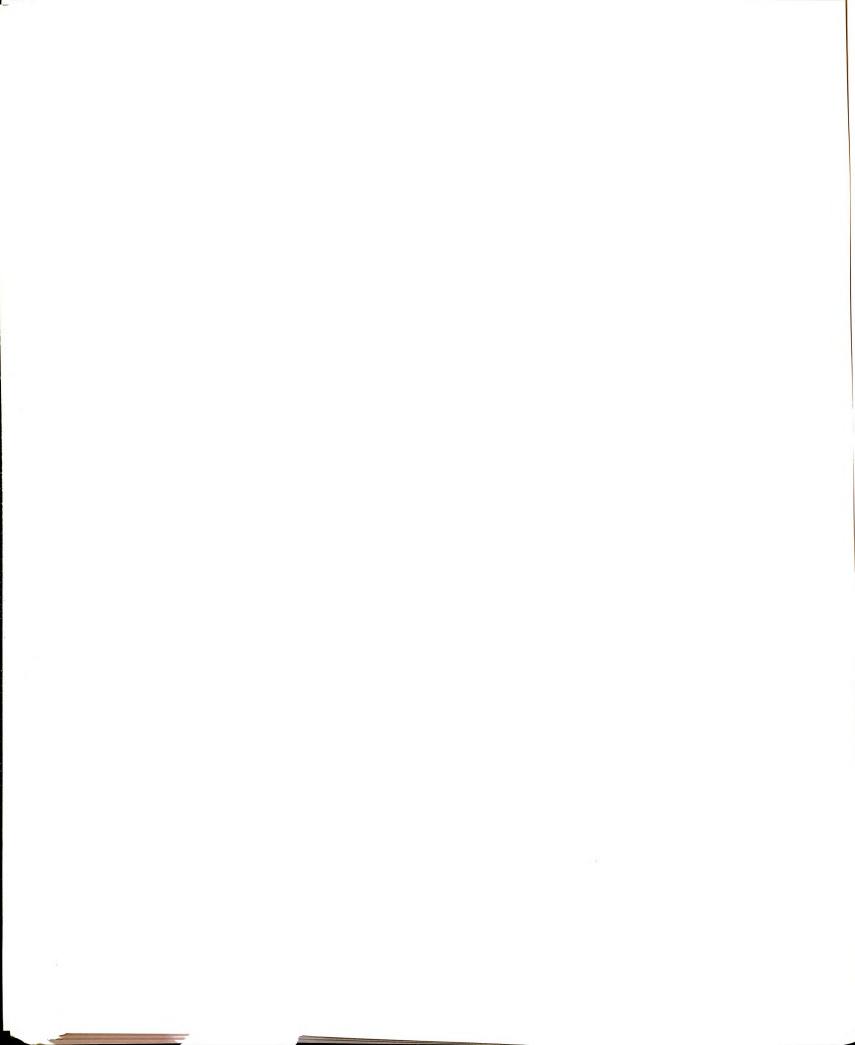
direct effects on organizational commitment. This second major condition remains to be tested. The preliminary assessment of this condition will rely upon the results obtained in the first section of the analysis.

Table 6.2a and Table 6.2b present the effects of interpersonal variables when taken separately and as a combined measure on organizational commitment, controlling for all other related variables.

In Table 6.2a the effects of interpersonal variables on commitment are positive and significant with the exception of the effects of mutual respect, with path coefficients of .173 and .142 for trust and solidarity, respectively, at probability levels of .001.

Table 6.2b also indicates that the overall measure of interpersonal relations as a combined set has a strong significant direct effect on organizational commitment, with a path coefficient of .247 at a probability level of $\alpha < .0000$.

These findings are consistent with most of the findings of other studies dealing with interpersonal variables as antecedents of organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Grusky, 1966; Hrebiniak, 1971; Lee, 1971; Maehr & Braskamp, 1986; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Patchen, 1970; Welsch & LeVan, 1981). Similarly, Maehr and Braskamp (1986) speculate that "looking at these results more closely, a strong and positive stress on supportive social relationships in the work place apparently is important in eliciting workers' commitment to the organization" (p. 148).

As noted in the previous analysis, each of the structural variables--with the exception of centralization--has significant
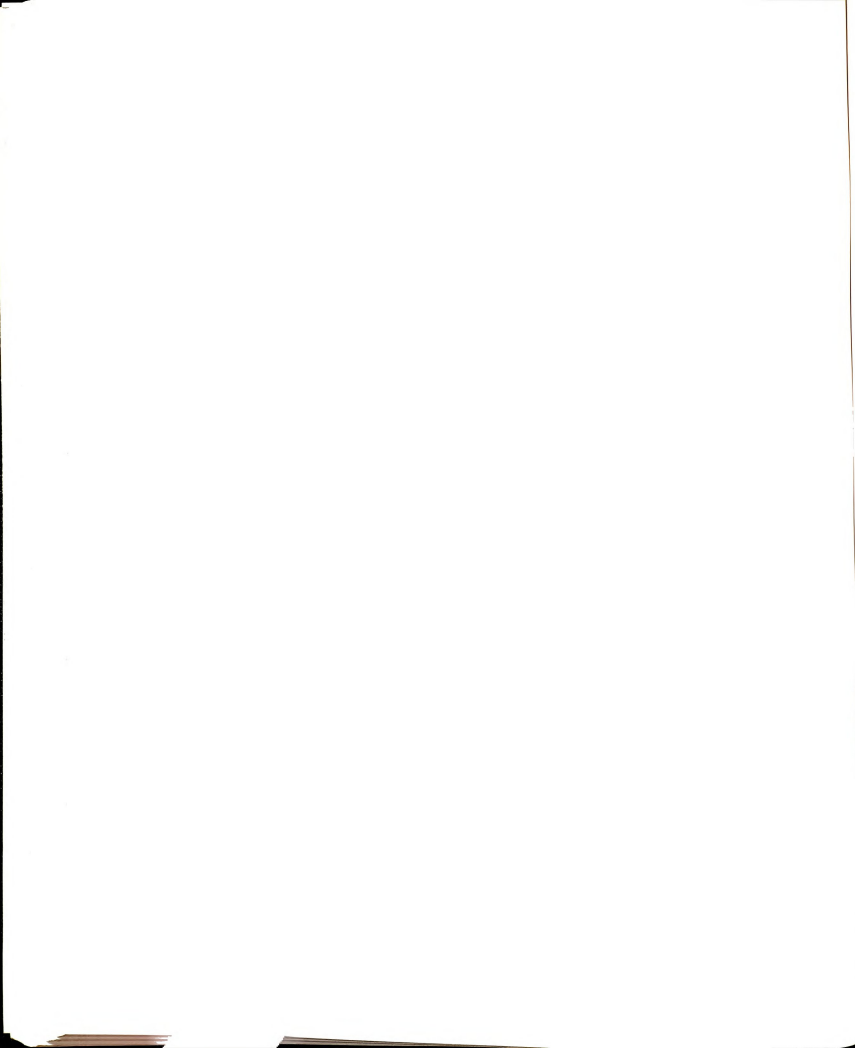
effects on the variables of interpersonal relations either directly or indirectly through the effects on job-related interaction which, in turn, influences the interpersonal variables directly. The structural variable of centralization is the only structural variable which has no significant direct effect on the variables of interpersonal relations, but it is the only structural variable which has a significant direct effect on organizational commitment.

The variables of interpersonal relations, as an overall measure or taken separately, have significant direct effects on the ultimate dependent variable of organizational commitment. So the two major conditions for the mediating effects of interpersonal variables to occur have been met. That is, none of the structural variables' direct path coefficients with organizational commitment were significant except for centralization. Still, the cumulative indirect path coefficients are significant. Accordingly, we assume that the effects of organization structure on commitment will vary depending on the values of the variables of interpersonal relations, a further condition to be tested concerning the mediating effects on the dependent variable of organizational commitment.

Mediating Effects of the Variables of Interpersonal Relations

Model 3.1 is a diagrammatic representation of the effects of interpersonal relations as possible mediating factors in the organization's structure-commitment relationship. The argument, in general, has stipulated how the variables involved in the model, as applied to Saudi employees, would be related to one another.
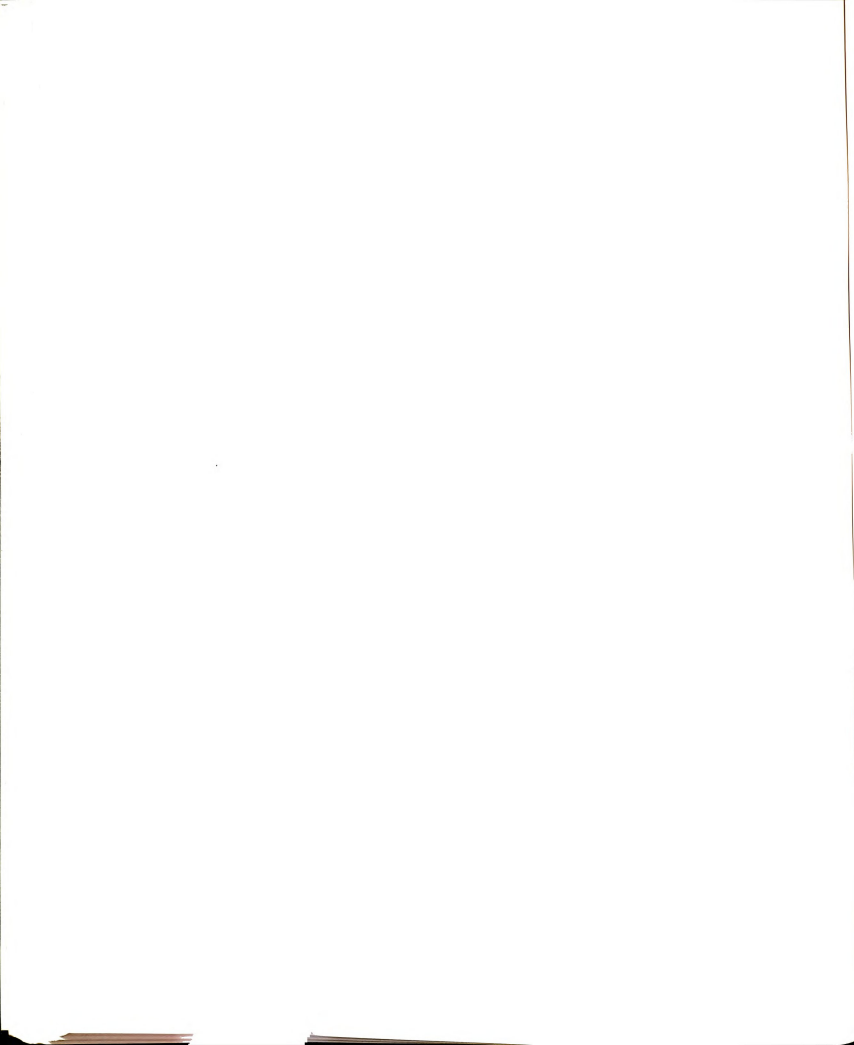
Originally, this model was tested as a completely identified model in which all paths were postulated to exist.

The model was then trimmed on the basis of the stepwise regression run by omitting all paths with coefficients less than .10. The results of the trimming process are shown in Figures 6.1a and 6.1b, in which the path coefficients have been entered on the path diagram, with the exception of those between the antecedent variables of formalization, participation, and centralization.

The basic path models are now complete and await interpretation of their direct and indirect effects, which is the heart of our explanatory study. These models represent the structure-interpersonal relations and commitment variable linkage. The algebraic representation of the causal scheme now shown in the path models rests on a system of equations rather than a single equation. This feature permits a flexible ordering of the inferred influences (Miller, 1970). Each line represents a search and a determination of direct and indirect influences.

Overall, the findings provide strong support for the theoretical argument upon which our study is based. The possible mediating variables of interpersonal relations are significantly related to organizational structure and to organizational commitment and two of the three structural variables are not directly linked to commitment. Coupled with the previously noted findings, the necessary conditions for possible mediating effects exist.

A mediating effect means that the influence of each of the structural variables (participation, formalization, and centralization) on the ultimate dependent variable of commitment must
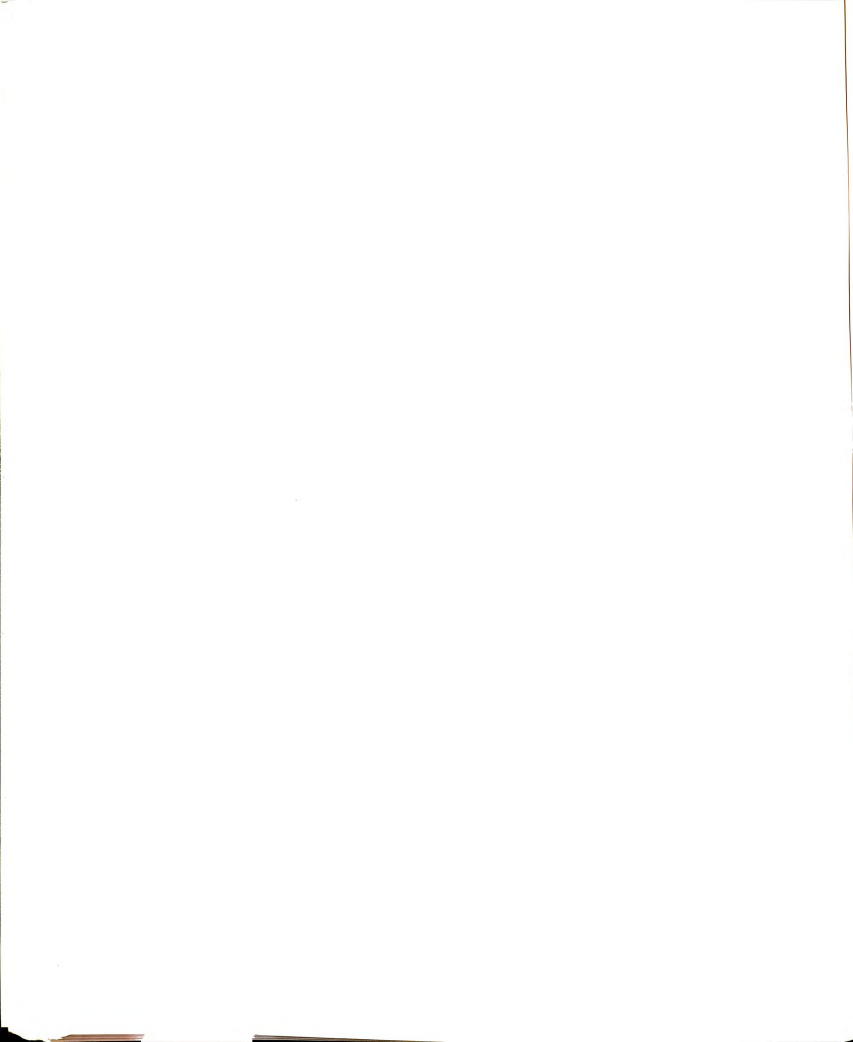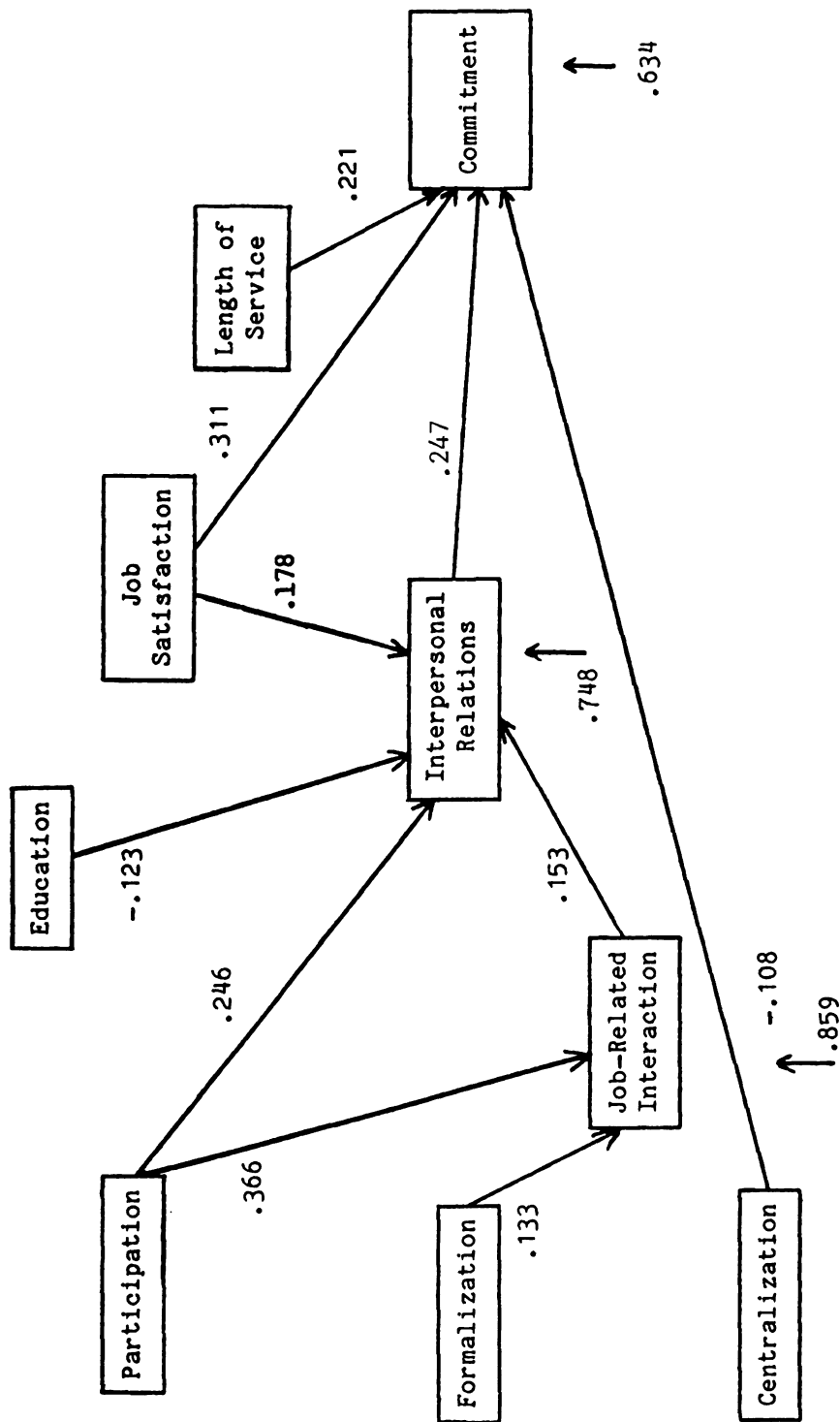
Figure 6.1a--Trimmed Model for Mediating Effects of Interpersonal Variables as Combined Measures.
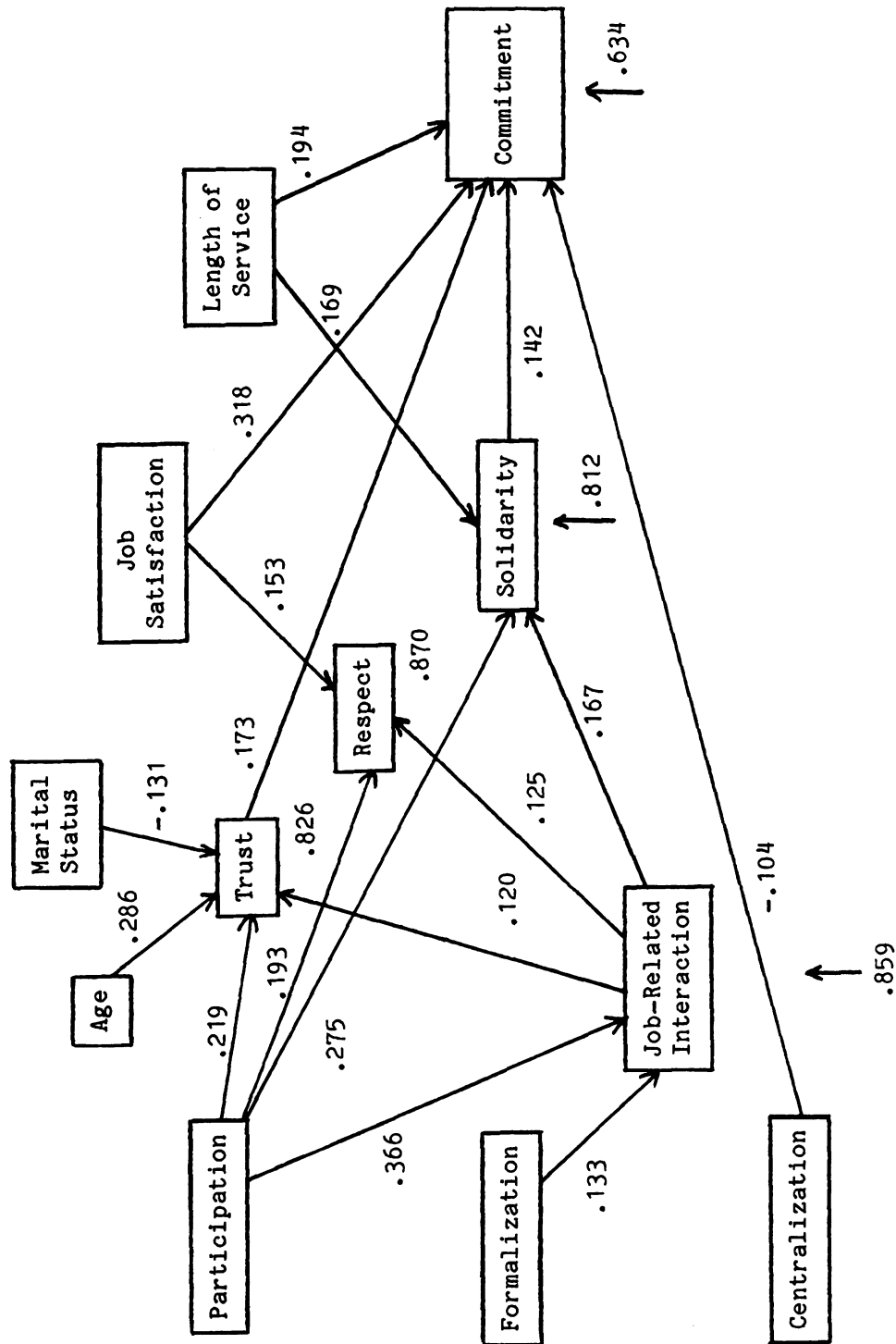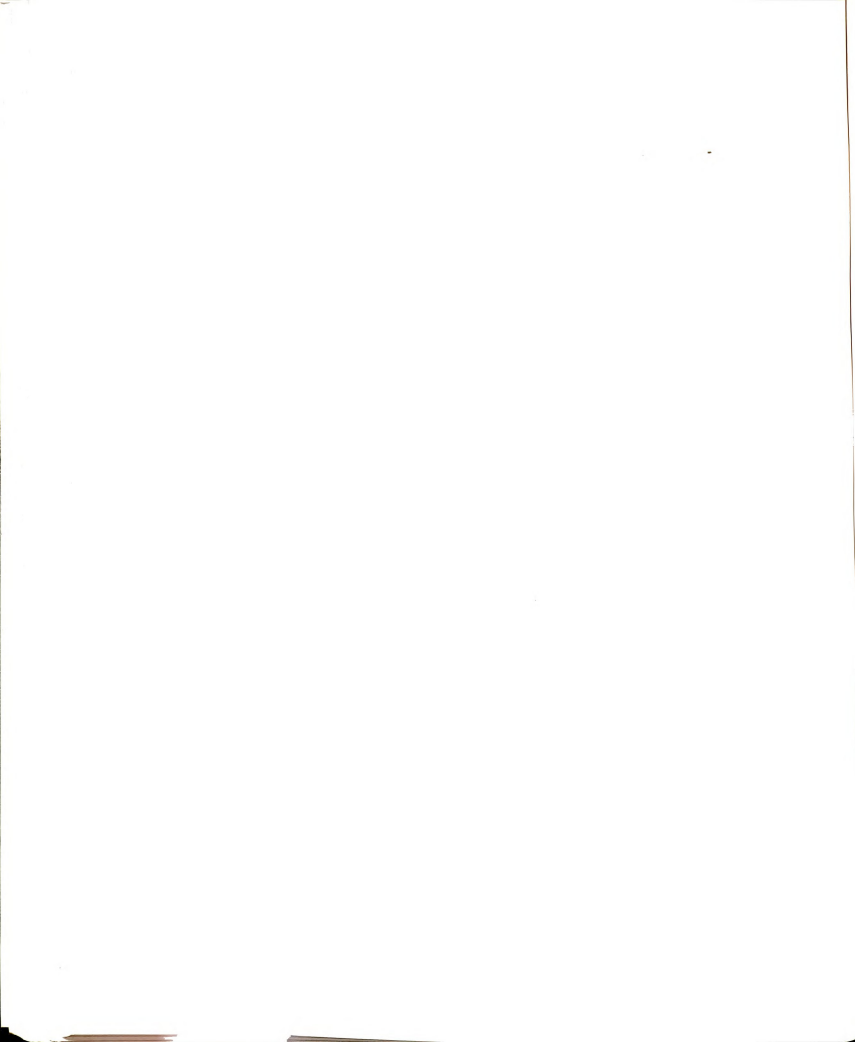
Figure 6.1b--Trimmed Model for Mediating Effects of Interpersonal Variables as Separate Measures - Trust, Mutual Respect, and Solidarity.

vary depending on the values of the variables of interpersonal relations. The assessment of this condition will help us to sum up the mediating effect on each structural variable separately by noting the path coefficients of the significant cumulative indirect effects of each variable in contrast to the insignificant direct effects. While subsumed in the preceding discussion, what follows is evidence bearing on each of the hypotheses presented in Chapter VI regarding mediating effects of interpersonal relations.

Mediating Effects for the Structural Variable of Participation

Our theoretical argument states that the structural variable of participation would affect the dependent variable of organizational commitment through the mediating effect of interpersonal variables (either as a combined set or taken separately). This can be formally stated as follows: The interpersonal variables (trust, mutual respect, and solidarity) will be influenced positively by the degree of organizational participation and, in organizations with high rates of participation, interpersonal variables will increase the level of organizational commitment.

As noted previously, participation has its own positive effects on the variables of interpersonal relations both directly and indirectly through its effects on the variable of job-related interaction, which, in turn, has its direct effects on the interpersonal variables. At the same time, the variables of interpersonal relations have significant direct effects on organizational commitment.
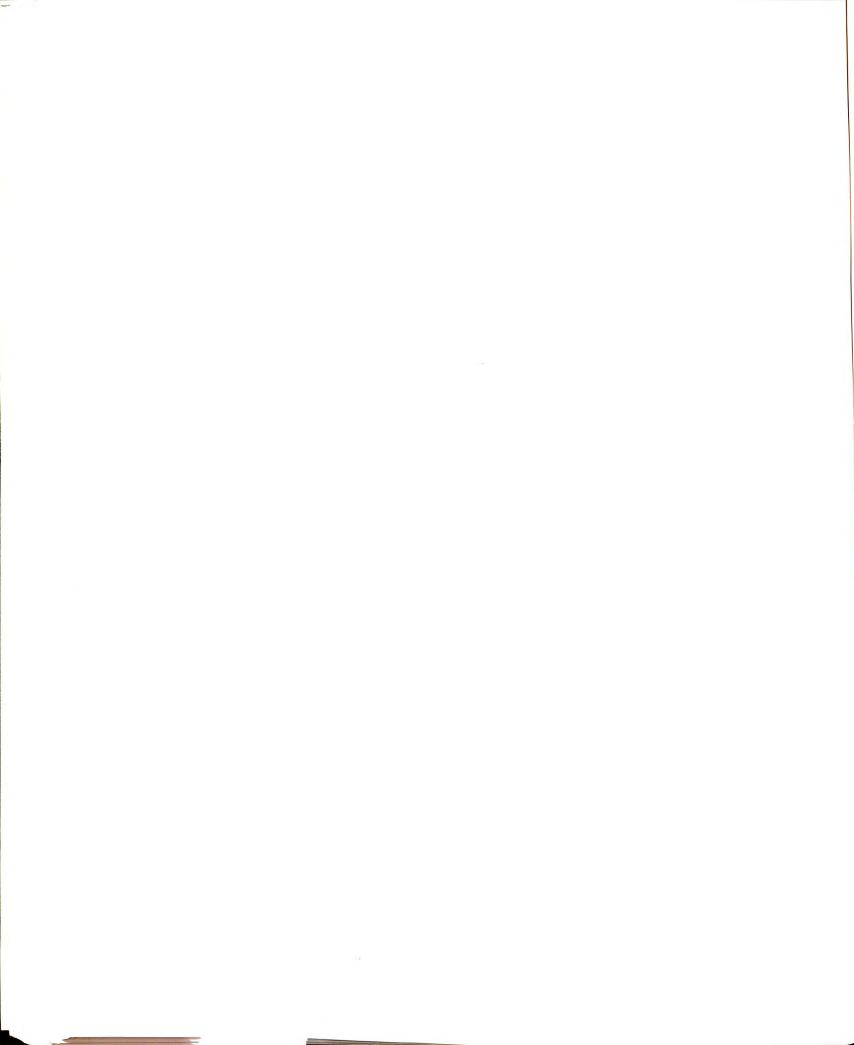
As illustrated in the trimmed models, Figures 6.1a and 6.1b, there is no direct path showing a significant effect of participation on organizational commitment. Nevertheless, the cumulative indirect effects are significant:

<u>First</u>, the structural variable of participation directly influences interpersonal variables as a combined set, with a path coefficient of .246, and when taken separately, with path coefficients of .275, .193, and .219 for each of the variables of interpersonal relations (solidarity, mutual respect, and trust), respectively. (Figures 6.2a and 6.2b illustrate the direct mediating effect of interpersonal relations; Tables 6.5a and 6.5b, path models 1a and 1b, summarize these results). These interpersonal variables, either as a combined set or taken separately (with the exception of the mutual respect variable), in turn, influence directly the dependent variable of organizational commitment with a path coefficient of .247 for the combined set and path coefficients of .142 and .173 for the variables of solidarity and trust, respectively. These results support the hypothesis stated earlier concerning the participation-interpersonal variables and commitment link.

<u>Second</u>, the structural variable of participation indirectly influences interpersonal variables, as a combined set or taken separately, through the significant direct effect of participation on the job-related interaction variable with a path coefficient of .366 in both models (Figures 6.2c and 6.2d). As shown in Figures 6.2c and 6.2d, the job-related interaction variable, in turn, influences the interpersonal variables as a combined set with a path coefficient of
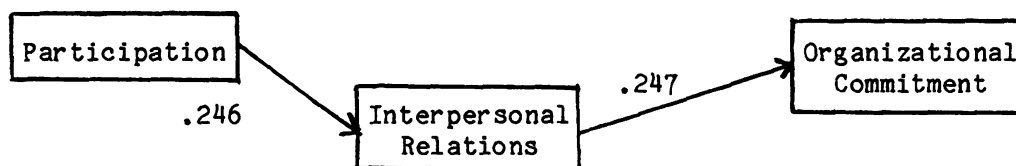
Figure 6.2a--Direct Mediating Effects for Participation When
Interpersonal Relations are Combined (Path Model 1a)

Figure 6.2b--Direct Mediating Effects for Participation When
Interpersonal Relations are Separate (Path Model 1b)

Table 6.5a—Direct Mediating Effects for Participation, Path
Model 1a.

Dependent Variables	Path Coefficients - Path Model 1a	
	Independent Variables	
	Participation	Interpersonal Relations
Interpersonal Relations	.246	-
Organizational Commitment	-	.247

Table 6.5b—Direct Mediating Effects for Participation, Path
Model 1b.

| Dependent Variables	Path Coefficients - Path Model 1b			
	Independent Variables			
	Participation	Solidarity	Respect	Trust
Trust	.219			
Mutual Respect	.193			
Solidarity	.275			
Organizational Commitment	-	.142	-	.173
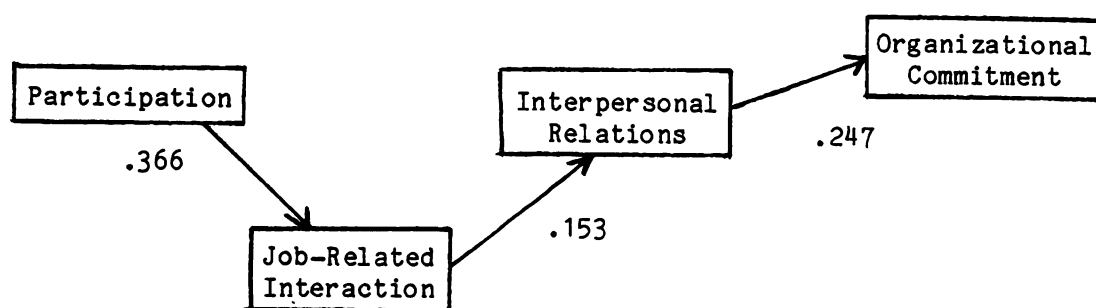
Figure 6.2c—Indirect Mediating Effects for Participation When
Interpersonal Relations are Combined (Path Model 1c)
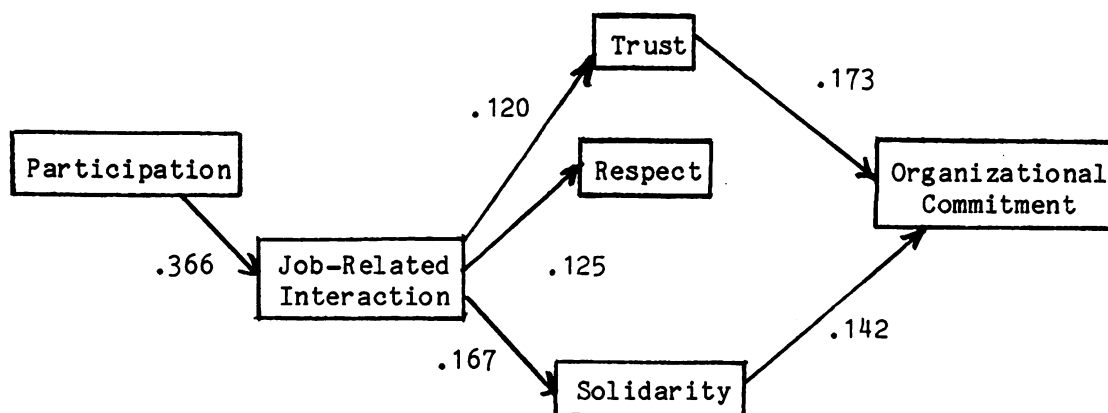
Figure 6.2d--Indirect Mediating Effects for Participation When
Interpersonal Relations are Separate (Path Model 1d)

Table 6.5c--Indirect Mediating Effects for Participation, Path
Model 1c.

| | Path Coefficients - Path Model 1c | | |
| | Independent Variables | | |
Dependent Variables	Participation	Job-Related Interaction	Interpersonal Relations
Job-Related Interaction	.366	-	-
Interpersonal Relations	-	.153	
Organizational Commitment	-	-	.247

Table 6.5d--Indirect Mediating Effects for Participation, Path
Model 1d.

| | Path Coefficients - Path Model 1d | | | | |
| | Independent Variables | | | | |
Dependent Variables	Participation	Job-Related Interaction	Trust	Respect	Solidarity
Job-related Interaction	.366				
Trust	-	.120			
Mutual Respect	-	.125			
Solidarity	-	.167			
Organizational Commitment		-	.173	-	.142

.153. When taken separately, the path coefficients for solidarity, mutual respect, and trust are .167, .125, and .120, respectively.

In turn, these interpersonal variables (either combined or taken separately) directly influence the dependent variable of organizational commitment with the exception of the mutual respect variable, as mentioned earlier. Tables 6.5c and 6.5d, path models 1c and 1d, summarize these results. The results for both directions of effects support the theoretical argument of this study.

Mediating Effects for the Structural Variable of Formalization

It was also hypothesized that the structural variable of formalization would affect organizational commitment through the mediating variables of interpersonal relations. This can be formally stated as follows: The interpersonal variables (trust, mutual respect, and solidarity) will be influenced negatively by the degree of organizational formalization and, in a highly formalized organization, interpersonal variables will reduce the level of organizational commitment.

As noted in Figures 6.3a and 6.3b, the structural variable of formalization has its only effects on the interpersonal variables (combined or taken separately) indirectly through its positive direct effect on the variable of job-related interaction which, in turn, has its direct effect on the interpersonal variables. At the same time, the interpersonal variables as an overall measure or taken separately (with the exception of the mutual respect variable) have significant direct effects on the ultimate dependent variable of commitment. Tables 6.6a and 6.6b, path models 2a and 2b, summarize these

Figure 6.3a—Mediating Effects for Formalization When Interpersonal
Relations are Combined (Path Model 2a)
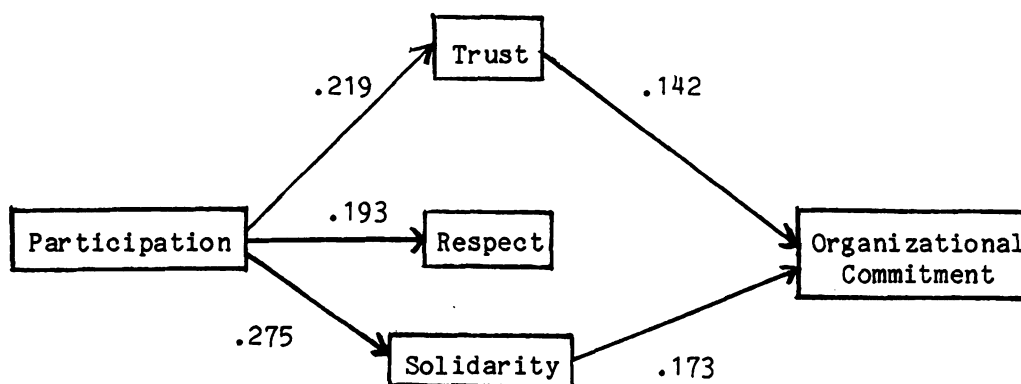

Figure 6.3b—Mediating Effects of Formalization When Interpersonal
Relations are Separate (Path Model 2b)

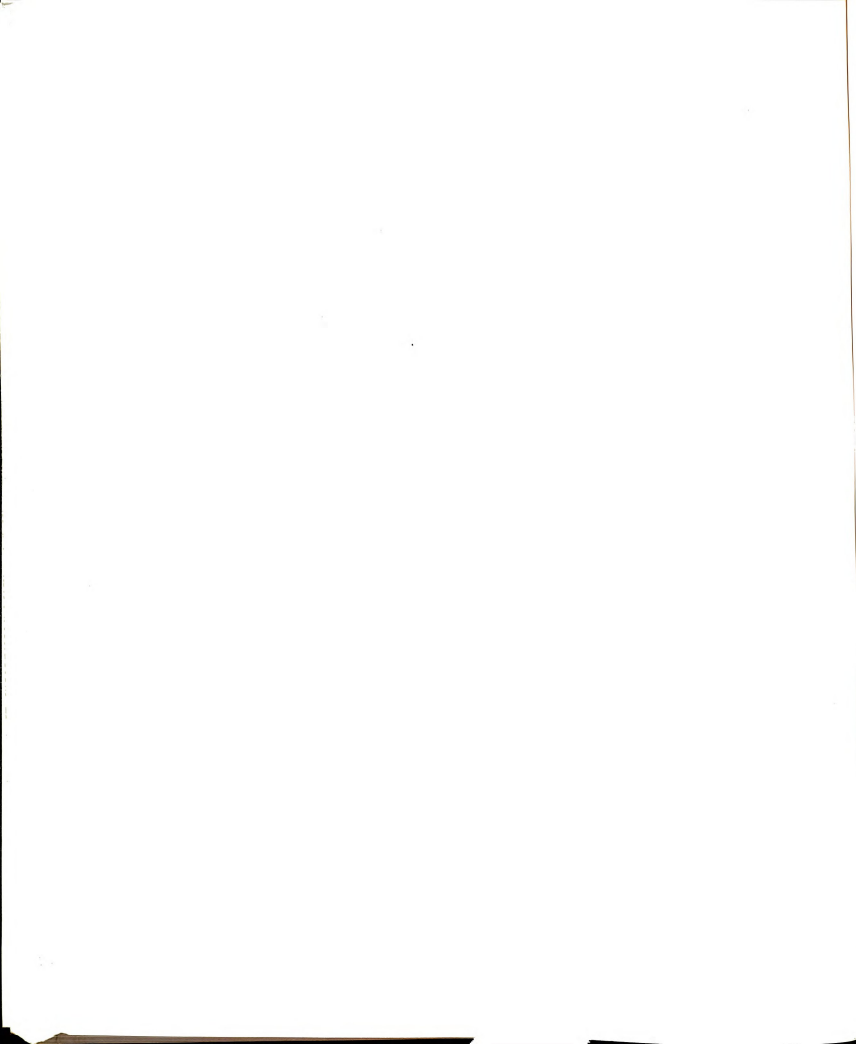Table 6.6a--Mediating Effects for Formalization, Path Model 2a.

| | Path Coefficients - Path Model 2a | | |
| | Independent Variables | | |
Dependent Variables	Formalization	Job-Related Interaction	Interpersonal Relations
Job-Related Interaction	.133	-	-
Interpersonal Relations	-	.153	
Organizational Commitment	-	-	.247

Table 6.6b--Mediating Effects for Formalization, Path Model 2b.

| | Path Coefficients - Path Model 2b | | | | |
| | Independent Variables | | | | |
Dependent Variables	Formalization	Job-Related Interaction	Trust	Respect	Solidarity
Job-related Interaction	.133				
Trust	-	.120			
Mutual Respect	-	.125			
Solidarity	-	.167			
Organizational Commitment	-		.173	-	.142

results. Since we hypothesized a negative effect of formalization on interpersonal relations, the evidence is clear that support for this second hypothesis is lacking. The theoretical argument concerning the indirect effects of formalization through job-related interaction is supported, although not in the predicted direction.

Mediating Effects for the Structural
Variable of Centralization

Centralization, as a structural variable, was also expected to affect the ultimate dependent variable of organizational commitment through the mediating effects of the interpersonal relations variables. This can be formally stated as follows: The interpersonal variables (trust, mutual respect, and solidarity) will be influenced negatively by the degree of centralization and, in highly centralized organizations, interpersonal variables will reduce the level of organizational commitment.

As previously noted, none of the structural variables has a direct effect on organizational commitment except for centralization. As illustrated in Figures 6.4a and 6.4b, path models 3a and 3b show a significant direct and negative effect of centralization on organizational commitment, with path coefficients of -.108 and -.104, respectively. Although the effect is negative, as expected, there is no direct effect of centralization on interpersonal relations or indirect effect through the influence of centralization on job-related interaction. Tables 6.7a and 6.7b, path models 3a and 3b, summarize these results.

So the results support neither the earlier stated hypothesis nor the propositions upon which our theoretical framework is based.
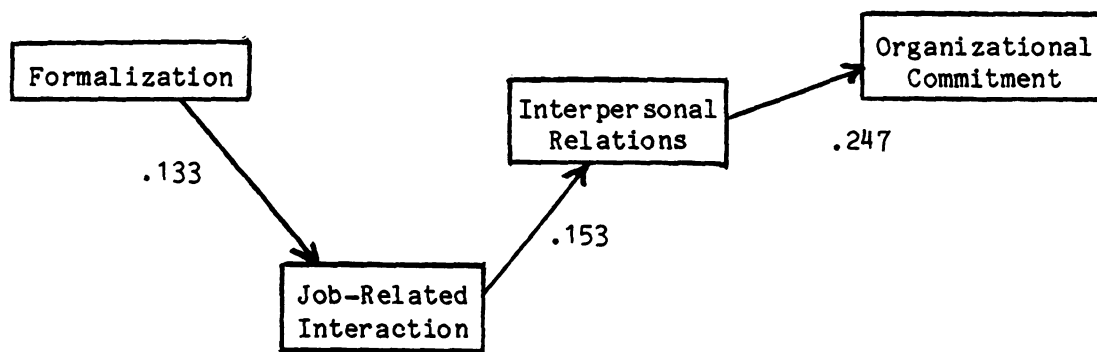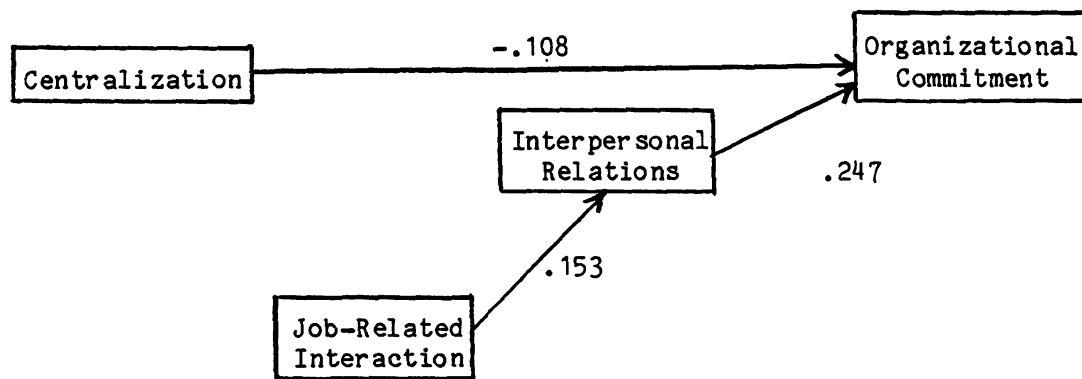
Figure 6.4a--Mediating Effects for Centralization When Interpersonal
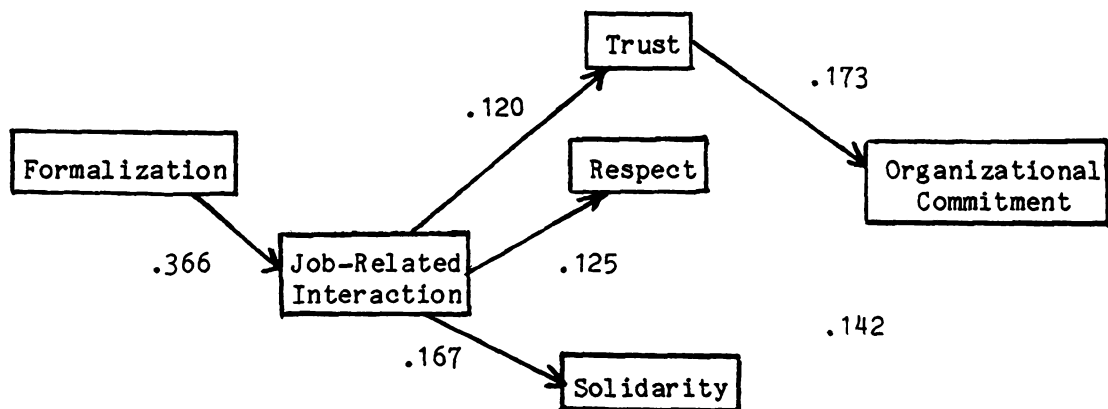Relations are Combined (Path Model 3a)
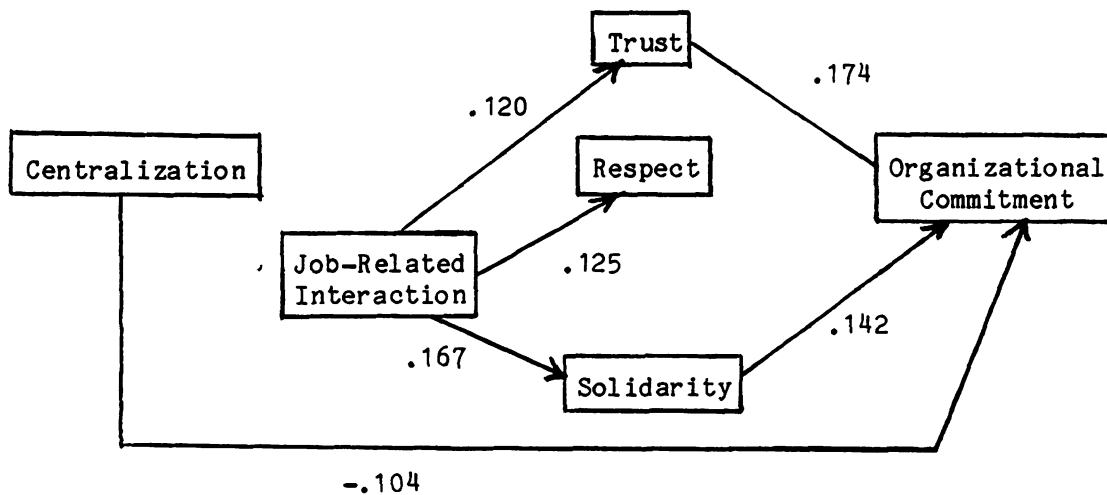
Figure 6.4b--Mediating Effects for Centralization When Interpersonal
Relations are Separate (Path Model 3b)

Table 6.7a—Mediating Effects for Centralization, Path Model 3a.

Dependent Variables	Path Coefficients – Path Model 3a		
	Independent Variables		
	Centralization	Job-Related Interaction	Interpersonal Relations
Interpersonal Relations	-	.153	
Job-Related Interaction	-		
Organizational Commitment	-.108	.247	-

Table 6.7b—Mediating Effects for Centralization, Path Model 3b.

Dependent Variables	Path Coefficients – Path Model 3b				
	Independent Variables				
	Centralization	Job-Related Interaction	Trust	Respect	Solidarity
Job-related Interaction	-				
Trust	-	.120			
Mutual Respect	-	.125			
Solidarity	-	.167			
Job-Related Interaction	-.104	-	.173	-	.142

Therefore the theoretical argument and its related hypotheses should be reconsidered. A further discussion is provided in Chapter VII.

Effects of Individual Characteristic
Variables on the Interpersonal Variables

So far we have emphasized the mediating effects of interpersonal relations on the relationship between structure and commitment, which is the primary focus of this study. It was also predicted that the quality of interpersonal relations desired by organization members is influenced by several aspects of their individual characteristics (such as age, marital status, length of service, and job satisfaction). We begin analysis of this relationship by examining the effects of these individual characteristics on the interpersonal relations variables, as illustrated in Figures 6.1a and 6.1b.

As shown in Figure 6.1a (p. 141), there are direct paths indicating significant direct effects of job satisfaction and education on the variables of interpersonal relations as a combined measure, with a positive path coefficient of .178 and a negative path coefficient of -.123, respectively. Job satisfaction also has a significant direct effect on the organizational commitment variable, as shown in Figure 6.1a. None of the other individual characteristic variables except for length of service has a significant direct effect on either interpersonal relations as a combined set or on commitment.

With the variables of interpersonal relations taken separately, the story is quite different. In Figure 6.1b (p. 142), the direct paths show that job satisfaction has a significant direct effect on interpersonal relations only when indexed by the variable of mutual respect, with a path coefficient of .153. Length of service has a

significant direct effect on interpersonal relations only when indexed by the solidarity variable, with a path coefficient of .169. The personal characteristics of age and marital status show significant direct effects on interpersonal relations only when indexed by the trust variable. In Figure 6.1b, the direct paths show that age has a significant positive effect on trust, with a path coefficient of .286, and marital status has a significant but negative direct effect, with a path coefficient of -.131. None of the other individual characteristics variables except these have significant direct effects on the interpersonal relations variables. Education, for example, which was included in model 6.1a, drops out of this model.

Although our expectation was that the desired interpersonal relations would be influenced by the individual characteristic variables, the apparent differences in their effects require some comment. On the one hand, the effects on the interpersonal relations variables as a combined measure are exclusively for two aspects of the individual characteristic variables. That is, job satisfaction and education were the only predictors of interpersonal relations among individual variables, with an increase in job satisfaction predicting an increase in the quality of interpersonal relations, and with an increase in education showing a decrease in the quality of interpersonal relations. Direct paths in Figure 6.1a are the source of this conclusion.

On the other hand, the effects on interpersonal variables as separate measures are mixed. Each of the characteristic variables of job satisfaction and length of stay affect individually the interpersonal respect and solidarity, respectively. Thus, job

satisfaction is only associated with the variable of mutual respect, whereas the solidarity variable is associated with length of service. In contrast, interpersonal trust is affected by the personal characteristics variables of age and marital status.

These patterns of findings are both more pronounced and more consistent across the different studies of commitment (Brief & Aldag, 1980; Buchanan, 1974; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Hrebiniak, 1971; Penley & Hawkins, 1985; and Welsh & LeVan, 1981). Presumably the effects of these variables on commitment reflect processes of growth and change in the development of commitment. It is possible that job satisfaction serves as an intervening variable in the interpersonal relations-commitment relationship in the sense that it would be difficult for individuals to embed their ego identity and growth in an organization with which they are having unsatisfying experiences, particularly with regard to interpersonal relations with emphasis on the aspect of mutual respect.

In contrast, length of service, might exert an influence on commitment to the organization if the period of service is long enough to allow growth and development of commitment. However, having a long tenure in the organization might reduce the individual's need for high quality interpersonal relations because he has already reached the stage of development in which he adjusted to the type of interpersonal relations which exist and became more attracted to other aspects of his work situation. Still, the duration of service may affect the interpersonal solidarity of the work group. Personal characteristics of the individual member, particularly age and marital status, may influence his interpersonal trust in his group work.
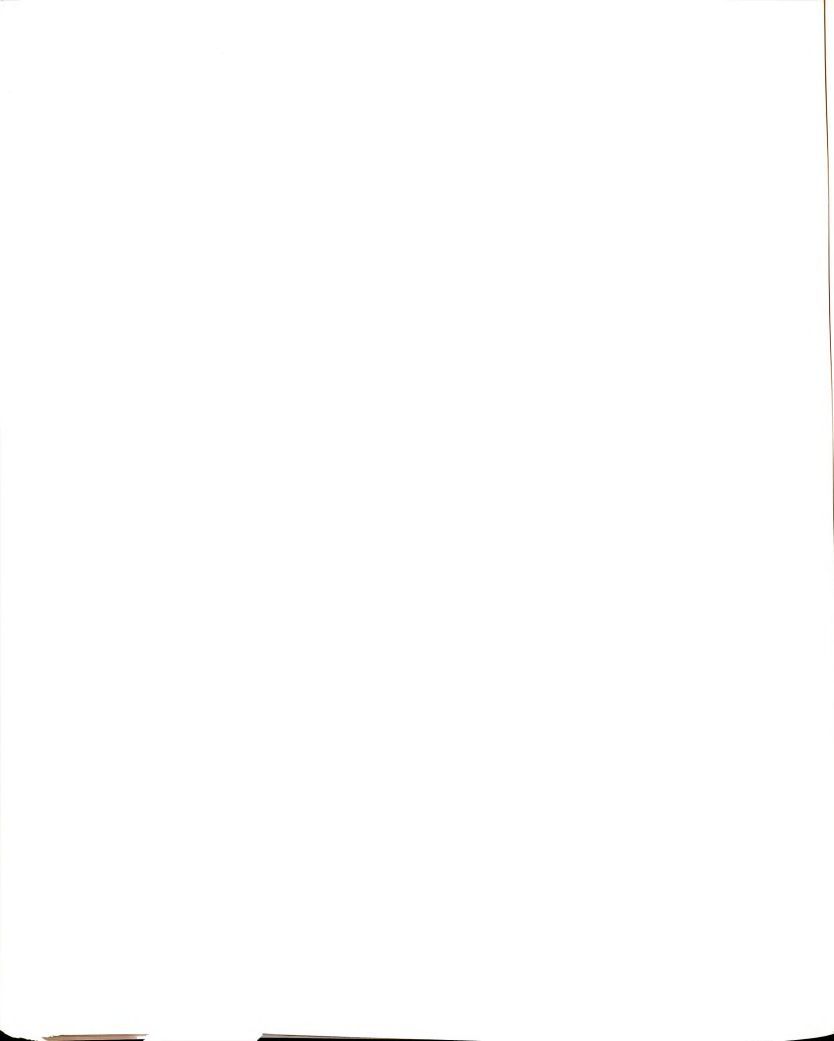
Age and marital status are indicators of human development stages. At the same time, trust has a central role in the conception of psychological growth (Maslow, 1970), which is a major dimension of human development. Therefore people who cannot gain the trust of others are denied the chance to develop close interpersonal relationships. Also people who cannot trust others are hampered in psychological growth (Williams, 1984:192). Coupled with the fact that age and marital status are indicators of human development stages, the statement suggests interesting implications. This unique relationship suggested that employees perceive work experiences through the lens of their own value system, possibly even to the point of shaping their working conditions to fulfill personally desirable outcomes. The demographic profile appeared to be representing a systematic response orientation which was not related to objective characteristics of the employee's position in the organization. Such a response orientation is probably not tied to any specific work environment, but rather may be based on a personal value system culled from past experiences in both work and nonwork settings (Herman, Dunham & Hulin, 1975:228).

Individual Characteristics and Commitment: Additional Analysis

Relationship of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment: A Supplementary Model

Organizational commitment was significantly and consistently affected by job satisfaction and length of service, with a greater effect for job satisfaction. This result was one of the more important contributions of this study to the understanding and prediction of organizational commitment. In all of the analysis,

overall job satisfaction was the strongest predictor of organizational commitment. The effects were positive, with high-level satisfaction and a long period of service predicting increased commitment. This finding corresponds to those of other studies (Buchanan, 1974; Goldhaber et al., 1978; Grusky, 1966; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Hrebiniak, 1971; Maehr & Braskamp, 1986; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Patchen, 1970; Penley & Hawkins, 1985; Sheldon, 1971; and Welsch & LeVan, 1981).

This result leads to inferences concerning the existence of commitment as related to behavioral sequences. Thus, when a person persists in staying with an organization in spite of the availability of better opportunities for himself, commitment may be inferred. However, merely having a long tenure in the organization is not sufficient to indicate commitment (Wiener, 1982:421) because so many factors may co-vary with length of service (Salancik, 1983). In this respect, Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) suggested that "length of service may be associated with increasing investment and social involvement, decreased mobility, and sacrifices. Each of these factors alone or in combination may serve to strengthen commitment to the organization" (p. 66).

Since length of service is a common job investment related to commitment in the sense that investment serves to increase commitment by increasing the costs of leaving the organization (Farrell & Rusbult, 1981:82), one might argue that increased commitment to an organization may become more likely if the period of service is long enough to allow growth and change in the development of commitment. There is also the possibility that satisfaction with work and

organizational conditions might contribute to such development. Satisfaction with one's job can be justifiably construed as an indication of personal investment in that the person is more or less attracted to the job (Maehr & Braskamp, 1982). Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974), in a longitudinal study, describe the relationship of length of service to each of the variables of job satisfaction and commitment in the following fashion: "Job satisfaction appears to be largely associated with specific and tangible aspects of the work environment and may represent a more rapidly formed affective response than does commitment. On the other hand, the development of commitment appears to require global evaluations about the relationship to the organization and may require a longer time to develop" (p. 608). The implication is that the best way to understand the relationship between these variables is to determine the type of work conditions each of these variables (job satisfaction and commitment) are related to and the period of time required for such a relationship to develop in order to establish the order of priority for these variables in a processual sequence.

Job satisfaction has been conceptualized as an independent, mediating and dependent variable in relation to commitment. Wiener (1982) suggests that job satisfaction may serve as an intervening variable in the job characteristics-commitment relationship. Hall and Schneider (1972) found that job satisfaction served as a mediating variable in the relationship between job challenge and commitment. We will therefore examine evidence bearing on our expectation that job satisfaction serves as an important mediating variable between organizational structure and commitment, as a supplementary model. It

is necessary, however, to identify a conceptual model that helps integrate and tie together previous research into a more coherent framework before determining such mediating effects.

Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction

According to Wiener (1982), an important conceptual deficiency has been the failure to specify theoretical relationships in the link between commitment and job satisfaction. Both variables represent affective aspects of individual attitudinal responses to organizations, and seem to be linked to similar antecedents and consequences. Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) also stated: "The general theoretical ambiguity associated with most previous research on commitment is evident when it is considered that many, if not all, of the antecedents of commitment have also been investigated as determinants of job satisfaction" (p. 58).

As for the possibility that differences in characteristics other than job satisfaction and length of service account for the explanation of variation in organizational commitment, we must recognize that controlling for the characteristics of age, marital status, education, salary and position made no significant independent contribution to explain the variation in organizational commitment.

It may well be that an organization's members, throughout their service in an organization, will continue to perceive and evaluate their experiences with work conditions in terms of how much these experiences contribute to their overall job satisfaction. They will continue to use general work conditions as their reference criteria

for such evaluation, since these conditions are considered to be the main source of work experience.

In their analysis of the commitment construct, based on available theory and research, Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) indicated that commitment as a mode of orientation to an organization can be distinguished from other apparently similar modes, such as job satisfaction, in five ways:

1) Commitment as a construct is more global, reflecting a general affective response to the organization as a whole.

2) Job satisfaction, on the other hand, reflects one's response either to one's job or to certain aspects of one's job.

3) Commitment emphasizes attachment to the employing organization, including its goals and values.

4) Satisfaction emphasizes the specific task environment where an employee performs his duties.

5) Commitment is more stable over time than job satisfaction. The level of job satisfaction may be influenced by day-to-day events in the work place, but these events should not cause one to reevaluate his continuing participation in an organization (Mowday et al., 1979:220; see also Mowday et al., 1982; and Porter et al., 1974).

Maehr and Braskamp (1986) sum up the differences between these constructs in terms of the pattern of significant personal incentives in the sense that they are not identical for commitment and satisfaction. Commitment is more closely associated with the interpersonal dimensions of social concern and affiliation whereas job satisfaction is more closely aligned with task and power dimensions.

Also, commitment is more closely associated with a high sense of self-reliance than is job satisfaction (Maehr & Braskamp, 1986:121).

In sum, job satisfaction means an evaluation of the work or organization, i.e., the individual's affective state and evaluation of organizational structure, practices, procedures and/or evaluation of the outcomes derived from organization participation. The affective and evaluative aspects include satisfied, dissatisfied, good, bad, just, and unjust kinds of reactions to structure, practices and procedures (Schneider, 1975:464). However, job satisfaction is more transitory in nature than commitment (Welsch & LeVan, 1981).

In light of this conceptual analysis, organizational commitment should be related to but distinct from job satisfaction. Porter et al. (1974), Mowday et al. (1979), and Maehr and Braskamp (1986) demonstrate that job satisfaction and organizaitonal commitment are distinct concepts. Of equal importance is Marsh and Mannari's (1977) and Welsch & LeVan's (1981) proposition that job satisfaction is a determinant of organizational commitment. They also support this proposition empirically (see also Bluedorn, 1982; Ferris & Aranya, 1983; Goldhaber et al., 1978; and Wiener, 1982). Thus it would seem that the results of the research to date indicates that it is possible to operationally distinguish job satisfaction from organizational commitment and that job satisfaction may positively affect commitment. Coupled with our previous reported result we can safely conclude that job satisfaction exerts a reasonably powerful role as a determinant of organizational commitment. It remains important to identify the influence of organizational structure on job satisfaction as a necessary condition for the mediating effect to occur.

Organization Structure
and Job Satisfaction

As for the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, our view, so far, is that commitment is more likely to follow job satisfaction than the reverse. This means that an employee is committed to the organization to the extent that he derives satisfaction from his job.

Job satisfaction, as mentioned earlier, refers to the evaluation of organizational structure, procedures and practices or the outcomes attained from organizational participation (Schneider, 1975:464). This suggests that the person's satisfaction with his job will be influenced by his work environment and may form more rapidly than his commitment, which requires global evaluations about his relationship to the working organization over a longer period of time (Porter et al., 1974; Mowday et al., 1979; also Mowday et al., 1982).

The argument makes the most sense when we recall that the role of organization structure on job satisfaction has been of interest to social scientists in the same manner in which structure affects attitudes such as commitment, although less work has been done with respect to the latter (commitment). Compared to the extensive research on job satisfaction, there have been relatively few attempts to operationally define and systematically investigate the effect of structure on commitment.

A rich literature suggests how structural variation can affect job satisfaction and employee behavior (Bluedorn, 1982; Cummings & Berger, 1976; Oskamp, 1984; Porter & Lawler, 1965). The structural variables of participation, decentralization, centralization and

formalization are aspects of working conditions that contribute to satisfaction and dissatisfaction on the job (Cummings & Berger, 1976; Hall, 1982; McGregor, 1960; Patchen, 1970; Vroom, 1960; see also Mohr, 1982 for review).

Most commentators agree that employees desire and gain satisfaction from increased involvement in matters of direct relevance to their own work activities (Lischeron & Wall, 1975:501). Advocates of "participative management" (Argyris, 1964, 1970, 1971; Likert, 1967; McGregor, 1960) share the assumption that the extent of participation in decision making has a substantial impact upon employee attitudes, beliefs, and motivations (Siegel & Ruh, 1973:318). McGregor (1960) contends that participation provides an opportunity for employee satisfaction by integrating employees into the organization. He further sees this as contributing to a sense of controlling one's destiny and gaining satisfaction and recognition from peers and superiors.

Participation also enables personal needs to be satisfied. French, Israel and Dagfinnas (1960) comment that participation "satisfies such important social needs as the need for recognition and appreciation and the need for independence. These satisfactions and, in addition, the improvements in their jobs that are introduced through participation lead to higher job satisfaction" (p. 5). Further, participation can be ego-enhancing because it satisfies such important social-psychological needs as the need for recognition, appreciation, consideration and the need for self-determination or interdependence. "In fact, those who are in positions of power often elicit behavior on the part of others which implies respect and

consideration (Tannenbaum, 1969). Thus, it would be difficult for individuals to embed their ego identity and growth in a job with which they are not satisfied (Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1975). Participation, in other words, facilitates their ego involvement and the development of positive attitudes toward the organization through the mediating effects of job satisfaction.

Consistent with these assumptions, the research literature reveals evidence of a positive relationship between participation and job satisfaction. In an extensive review of the relationship of structure to job satisfaction, Cummings and Berger (1976) concluded that: "Decentralization (which can be regarded as a measure of participation) has been shown to generate less alienation from work, less dissatisfaction with work, greater satisfaction with supervision--evidently job satisfaction increases as decentralization progresses" (p. 46). Aiken and Hage (1966) found that employees in the more participative organizations express higher levels of satisfaction with respect to their work and their supervisors. In assessing the usefulness of trust and participation in predicting satisfaction among a college faculty, Driscoll (1978) found that increasing level of participation is associated with greater overall satisfaction with the organization as well as with specific satisfaction with participation itself.

Satisfaction in the organization is also thought to be negatively related to centralization and formalization because opportunities to participate in decision making, identification with overall organization goals, and a sense of identifiable achievement decreases as centralization increases, and because formalization may

limit job scope which results in boredom, alienation, and, in turn, job dissatisfaction (Forehand & Gilmer, 1964; Hackman & Lawler, 1971).

Moreover, the degree of formalization and centralization in an organization indicates management's view of its members. In a highly formalized organization, the members are viewed as incapable of making their own decisions and requiring a large number of rules to guide their behavior. Likewise, in a highly centralized organization, the members are not trusted to make decisions or evaluate themselves. In contrast, less centralized situations indicate a greater willingness to permit the members to carry out their activities in a more autonomous way (Hall, 1982:115). Hence, the result will be as described by French, Israel, and Dagfinnas (1960):

> When management accords the workers participation in any important decision, it implies that workers are intelligent, competent, valued partners. Thus participation directly affects such aspects of worker-management relations as the perception of being valued, the perception of common goals, and cooperation. It satisfies such important social needs as the need for recognition and appreciation and the need for independence. These satisfactions, and in addition the improvement in their jobs that are introduced through participation, lead to higher job satisfaction. (p. 5)

Knowing that organization structure and job satisfaction are related in the same manner in which structure affects commitment is a conclusion with important theoretical and empirical implications. In addition to these theoretical and empirical considerations, it is logical to assume that structural variations may affect commitment through their effects on job satisfaction, since commitment is influenced by job satisfaction and job satisfaction is influenced by organization structure. Alternatively stated, job satisfaction will mediate the structure-commitment relationship in the same manner it

was suggested, originally, for the mediating effects of interpersonal relations. The consistent relationship between organization structure and job satisfaction strongly supports the inclusion of job satisfaction in the process leading to organizational commitment.

Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction

Because correlations between the structural variables (participation and centralization) and job satisfaction are significant, a test of the supplementary model (where job satisfaction mediates the structure-commitment relationship) begins with Table 6.8. The significant explained variation in job satisfaction (R^2 = .337) accounted for by these structural variables, when other variables which are considered to affect satisfaction are held constant, indicates support for the supplementary model. Table 6.8 indicates that participation has a significant direct effect on job satisfaction, following in descending order by monthly salary, centralization, interpersonal relations, and job-related interaction with positive path coefficients of .237 and .182, a negative path coefficient of -.173, and positive coefficients of .162 and .131, respectively. When controlling for only background characteristics, participation has a significant direct effect on job satisfaction, followed in descending order by monthly salary and centralization, with positive path coefficients of .340 and .209, and a negative path coefficient of -.169, respectively, and the explained variation in job satisfaction decreased slightly to .288.

When other variables, namely, background characteristics, job-related interaction and interpersonal relations are uncontrolled,

Table 6.8—Direct Effects on Job Satisfaction.

Path Coefficients

Independent Variables

Dependent Variable	Participation	Centralization	Job Interaction	Interpersonal Relations	Salary	R^2	Rd*
Job Satisfaction	.237 (.0000)	-.173 (.0001)	.131 (.0001)	.162 (.0006)	.20907 (.0006)	.337 (.328)**	.663 (.672)

F = 38.944   P =< .000   df = 5   No. Cases = 390

*Rd – residuals   **(-) Adjusted R^2

the effects increased dramatically, with significant coefficients of .406 for participation and -.204 for centralization, but the explained variance decreased dramatically (R^2 = .257). Formalization and other background characteristics yield no significant effects in either case, as mentioned above.

Since formalization is proposed to lead to lower satisfaction (Forehand & Gilmer, 1964; James & Jones, 1976), and at the same time is reported to have moderate interaction with centralization (Hage & Aiken, 1967, as well as in this study), one may suggest that the effect of formalization on job satisfaction may be obtained through its effects on centralization. We consider that formalization is described as deleterious to satisfaction when important task characteristics were deleted from jobs because of high task prescription or lack of autonomy (James & Jones, 1976:106). While this possibility cannot be ruled out completely, it seems very unlikely that the causal relations should go in this direction. We cannot confirm such a suggestion since there is no tangible evidence of direct effects of formalization on job satisfaction. House and Rizzo (1972), however, have reported findings that suggest role clarity is an important intervening variable linking formalization with job satisfaction. This particular study may provide an alternative explanation concerning the effect of formalization on job satisfaction.

Moderating Effects on Job Satisfaction

Ritchie (1974) summarizes several conditions moderating the effects of participation on satisfaction such as the individual having

relevant information, experiencing little status or expertise differential, and benefiting from the trust and support of their superiors. Ritchie and Miles (1970) hypothesized that the main effects of participation on satisfaction with the supervisor would be mediated by the supervisor's confidence in his subordinates. Klauss and Bass (1982) argued that communication style creates a credible image in the eyes of others which, in turn, increases satisfaction with the communicator. At a broader level, interpersonal communication is also seen to influence general satisfaction with the job. That is, credibility of the communicating person is conceived as an intervening factor (the degree of being trustworthy, informative, dynamic) that determines the nature and extent of the effects of the communication style on the individual's general satisfaction. Their argument was supported (see also Penley & Hawkins, 1985). Moreover, Driscoll (1978) and Roberts and O'Reilly (1974) found a positive relationship between trust and job satisfaction.

Consistent with these cited assumptions and related studies are our results regarding the direct effects of job-related interaction and interpersonal relations on job satisfaction, since job satisfaction is influenced by participation and centralization. At the same time, it has its direct positive effect on organizational commitment. In other words, job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational structure and commitment. We suggest, however, that interpersonal relations and job-related variables influence the mediating effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment. With high interaction on the job and positive interpersonal relations, the level of job satisfaction

increases. In turn, commitment to the employing organization increases.

Another striking result is the effect of salary on job satisfaction. Salary is the only individual characteristic which has a significant direct effect on job satisfaction. On the other hand, it has no significant direct effect on commitment. Thus, the absence of direct effect may be explained through the salary effect on job satisfaction since salary is defined empirically as a major determinant of job satisfaction and job satisfaction, in this study, has a significant direct effect on commitment.

There are theoretical reasons to doubt that increases in salary will always be associated with high commitment. In general, any characteristics of a person's job situation which reduce the responsiblity he feels will reduce his commitment (Salancik, 1983: 205). According to Salancik, many job situation characteristics can affect a person's perceptions of responsibility. Some positions simply carry more responsibility and persons in higher positions tend to be more committed because these positions offer more discretion and self-determination. Moreover, Salancik suggested that when instrumental rewards (such as pay) for work are salient it reduces the person's felt responsibility. As a result the person becomes less committed. Because of higher pay, workers were attached to larger firms. Consequently, this instrumental orientation led to little personal involvement with the organization (Ingham, 1970, cited in Salancik, 1983:206).

Salary, however, is predicted to be positively associated with job satisfaction and commitment. Yet, even here there is conflicting

evidence. Empirical support for such a prediction is weak, suggesting that better-paying positions are not necessarily associated with higher commitment in organizations (Mowday et al., 1982:60). In addition, there is some research to suggest that perceived pay equity is a more important determinant of commitment than level of pay (cf. Mowday et al., 1982). Such a statement implies that satisfaction with pay may determine the person's level of commitment rather than the pay itself. Since pay is one of the most important determinants of job satisfaction (Oskamp, 1984), and job satisfaction, as we argued previously and supported empirically, is a major determinant of organizational commitment, we could conclude that whether or not pay will lead to greater commitment depends on whether or not the person is satisfied with his level of pay. Hence, we suggest that pay or salary may serve as a moderating variable in the job satisfaction-commitment relation. Higher pay increases satisfaction which, in turn, increases one's commitment to his organization. Our results support such a proposition.

Moderating Effects on Job-Related Interaction

Many studies have shown significant direct effects of age, organizational level, and education on organizational commitment, but our present study did not. In an effort to reconcile this apparent failure, the present study sought to examine the possible moderating effects of these variables on job-related interaction as an alternative explanation of their effects on organizational commitment.

As evidenced by our argument and the related results, the relationship between organizational structure and interpersonal

relations was moderated by a third variable, namely, job-related interaction. However, interactions among organization members are heavily permeated by the effects of individual characteristics (Gabarro, 1987). Personal characteristics and needs of interactants in task-oriented communication seem to mediate their desire for and perceptions of superior-subordinate communication (Jablin, 1982:1203; Eisenberg et al., 1983; Rothwell & Costigan, 1975). For example, Rothwell and Costigan (1975) wrote: "The use of instrumental communication tends to vary inversely with age and status of the persons involved. The older and the higher the status a person has, the more he tends to request [or demand] of others" (p. 22). The same thing can be said about job-related interaction, since job-related interaction seems to be relatively directive in nature in the sense that it functions to a great extent on the instrumental level with supervisors delegating responsibilities and sending directives to subordinates.

In this analysis, Table 6.9 indicates that, with the exception of education, the characteristics of job satisfaction, length of service, organizational level or position, and age, besides the structural variable of participation, have significant direct effects on the job-related interaction variable. It is thus possible that the amount and content of job-related interaction is a function of both one's age, position in the hierarchy, length of service, satisfaction with the job, and participation in the work. Our discussion is limited to the moderating effects of age and position.

Since job-related interaction has been reported to have its effects on organizational commitment through its direct effects on the

Table 6.9—Direct Effects on Job-Related Interaction.

Dependent Variable	Path Coefficients							
	Independent Variables							
	Partici- pation	Job Satis.	Length of Service	Mg. Post.	Suprv. Position	Age	R^2	Rd
Job- Related Interaction	.21985 (.00001)	.1473 (.005)	-.260 (.0002)	.315 (.00001)	.142 (.009)	.193 (.003)	.238 (.226)	.762 (.774)

F = 21.931   P =< .000   df = 5   No. Cases = 390

*Rd = residuals   **(-) adjusted R^2

interpersonal variables, the effects of age and organizational level
on commitment might be explained through their moderating effects on
job-related interaction. In essence, Table 6.9 suggests that age and
position have direct effects on job-related interaction, i.e., the
older and the higher the position a person has, the more he tends to
interact with others on the task. Thus, the pattern of the
relationship between age and job-related interaction is similar to
that obtained for position. There is an overall trend for job-related
interaction to increase with age and this trend holds across different
types of positions.

The content and frequency of interaction will affect the quality
of interpersonal relations desired by the organization member.
Increasing the quality of interpersonal relations is assumed to bring
about increased commitment to the organization.

In the same manner, we could explain the failure to obtain
significant direct effects of education level on organizational
commitment. Table 6.3a indicates that the level of education

has a negative direct effect on the variables of interpersonal relations as a combined set with a path coefficient of -.123. Regardless of the organization structure, the interpersonal relations variable has been defined as one of the most determinant factors of organizational commitment. Increasing the level of education leads to a decrease in the quality of interpersonal relations, thereby leading to decreased organizational commitment. This reverse relationship may result from the fact that the more highly educated individuals have higher expectations that the organization may be unable to meet. In our case, we assume that among these expectations is the quality of interpersonal relations desired by organization members of a high education level.

Parenthetically, it should be noted that the individual characteristics shown in Figure 6.5 may interact with one another, for example, age, education and length of stay may influence one's position which, in turn, may affect job-related interaction. This is because older people have been with the organization longer; they probably occupy higher positions, and this leads to a high degree of involvement in job-related interaction by virtue of their authority. In turn, their interaction with others will influence the quality of interpersonal outcomes which influence, finally, their commitment to the work organization.

In their discussion of the effects of age, education, and seniority on the communication process, Klauss and Bass (1982) comment:

> Such factors as age, education, and seniority, however, present some difficulties in that they may not represent critical distinctions of importance. For example, education may in some instances act somewhat as a surrogate for status

or other considerations. Thus, Allen (1967) found that in small R & D labs, Ph.D.s formed tightly knit groups and seldom met with non-Ph.D.s socially or regarding technical matters. In this instance, education may have taken on a status value, which in turn influenced communication patterns. Similarly, age and seniority may incorporate many interrelated elements including experience, organizational level, and motivational needs [Goldhaber et al., 1978]. (p. 26)

Since the mediating effects of interpersonal relations on commitment are our primary concern here, these variables are relevant only as they individually influence factors affecting commitment; namely, job-related interaction, which influences commitment through its role as a moderating variables between organization structure and interpersonal relations.

Thus, we could conclude that the apparent failure to find direct effects of age, position, and education level on organizational commitment can be reconciled by the explanation that the effects of these variables on commitment can be obtained through the moderating effects of age and position on job-related interaction and the moderating effect of education on the interpersonal relations variables as a combined set. Figure 6.5 supports our position.

Analysis of all of the effects of individual characteristics is clearly beyond the scope of this study. It is, however, worth noting that controlling for the individual characteristics on job-related interaction results in the absence of direct effects of formalization on job-related interaction and in the decline of the effect of participation on interaction from .367 to .220. One may conclude that formalization has little effect on job-related interaction (.133) if individual characteristics are not controlled; when controlled for individual characteristics, such effects dramatically diminished.

This may be an example of a suppressor effect (Darlington, 1968), in which

> Two variables have a small zero-order relationship but when additional variables positively related to each of them are entered into the equation their partial relationship becomes negative, thus suppressing or cancelling out the positive relationship between them created by the introduction of the additional variables. (Kalleberg, 1974, p. 315)

The correlation matrix in Table 6.1 supports such a notion. For example, formalization has a positive relationship of .105 with job-related interaction and organizational position has a positive relation of .065 and .277. But the positive effect of formalization on job-related interaction is cancelled out by the introduction of the third variable, namely, position.

A substantive interpretation for this is that formalization has two types of effects on job-related interaction--a positive direct one, in that higher formalization leads to higher involvement in job-related interaction, or a positive indirect effect through organizational level, which is a function of the degree of formalization in the organization, especially if we conceive organizational structure in terms of the formal or required hierarchical and lateral linkages between organizational positions (Klauss & Bass, 1982).

Figure 6.5 shows the supplementary model of mediating effects of job satisfaction on organizational structure and commitment, and the moderating effects of other variables on such effects. Figures 6.6a and 6b show the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the structural variables of participation and centralization, respectively, and Table 6.10a, path model 4a, and Table 6.10b, path model 4b, summarize the coefficients of these effects.

Figure 6.5.--Supplementary Model of the Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction and the Moderating Effect of Other Related Variables.
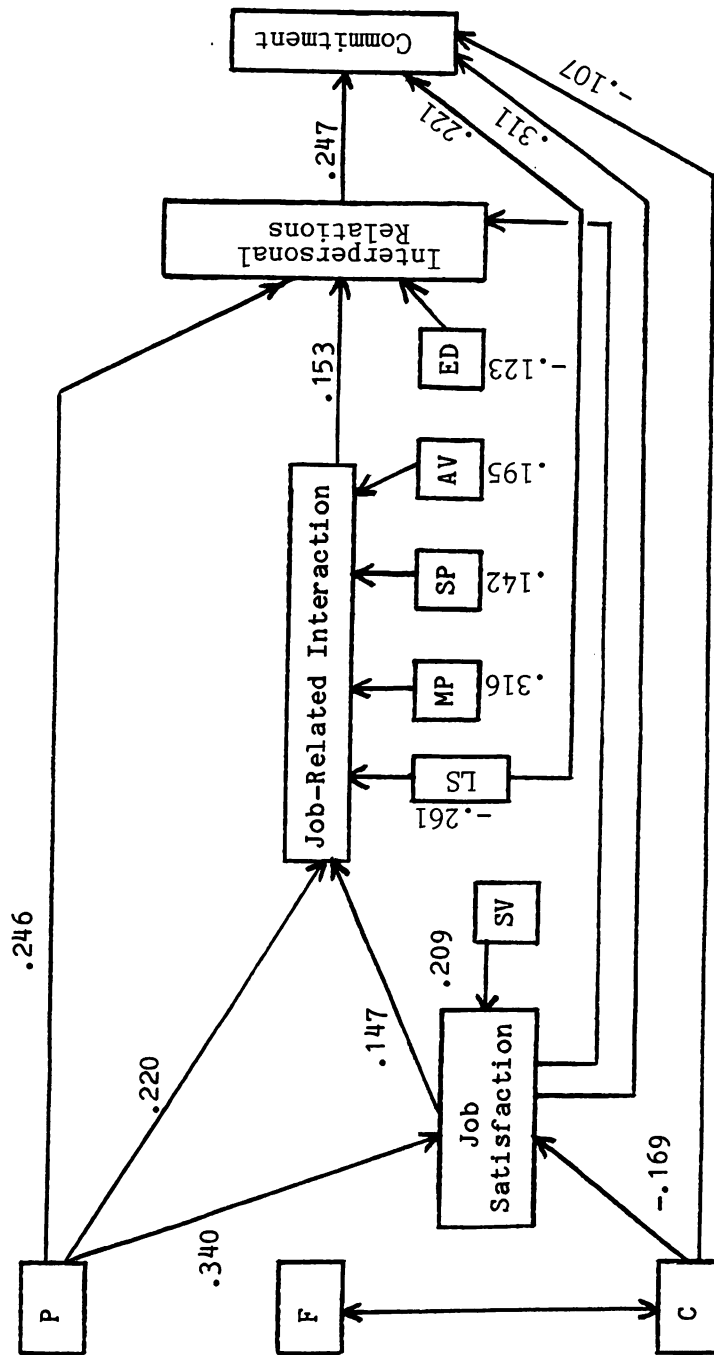
Key to Variables: SV = salary variable   LS = length of service
                    MP = managerial position   SP = supervisory position
                    AV = age variable   EV = education variable
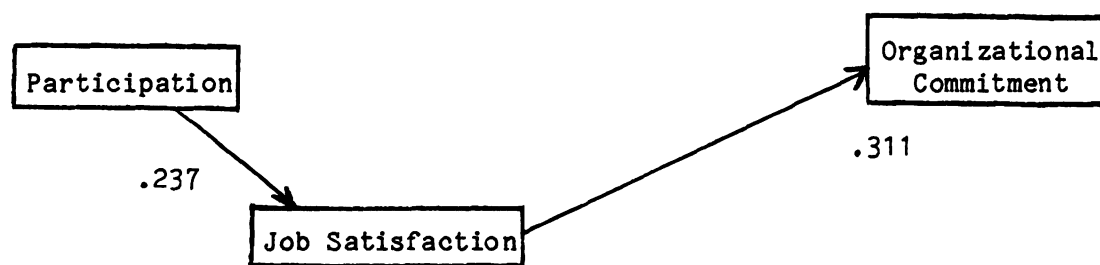
Figure 6.6a--Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction for Participation
(Path Model 4a)
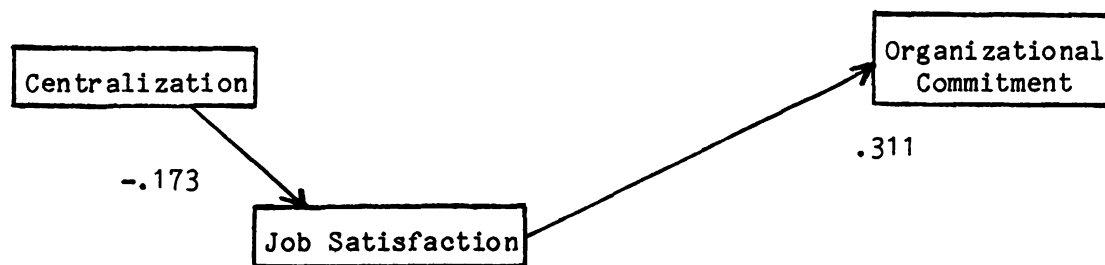
Figure 6.6b--Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction for
Centralization (Path Model 4b)

Table 6.10a—Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction for Participation, Path Model 4a.

| Dependent Variables | Path Coefficients - Path Model 4a | |
| | Independent Variables | |
	Participation	Job Satisfaction
Job Satisfaction	.237	-
Organizational Commitment	-	.311

Table 6.10b—Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction for Centralization, Path Model 4b.

| Dependent Variables | Path Coefficients - Path Model 4b | |
| | Independent Variables | |
	Centralization	Job Satisfaction
Job Satisfaction	-.173	-
Organizational Commitment	-	.311

Evidence of Reciprocal Effects

In the preceding sections we attempted, where feasible, to examine evidence bearing on our expectations that interpersonal relations as well as the supplementary variable of job satisfaction may serve as mediating variables in the relationship between organization structure and commitment. In both cases, the basic and the supplementary, the expectations held true for the structural variable of participation. Because of its impact on interpersonal relations as well as job-related interaction which may result from participating, greater employee participation will lead to stronger feelings of commitment to the organization. Also, participation leads to higher job satisfaction and hence increases one's commitment to the employing organization.

For the structural variable of centralization, the mediating effect held true only for job satisfaction in the relationship between organization structure and commitment, in the sense that increasing centralization in the working organization leads to less satisfaction. A low level of satisfaction reduces the employee's sense of commitment. No evidence of a mediating effect on the relationship between formalization and organizational commitment was found in either case; neither through interpersonal variables nor the job satisfaction variable.

It is possible that prior differences in commitment among organization members would lead to positive interpersonal relations which, in turn, may affect job-related interaction and participation. In a reciprocal way, the ultimate dependent variable of commitment becomes the ingredient that may produce interpersonal relations which
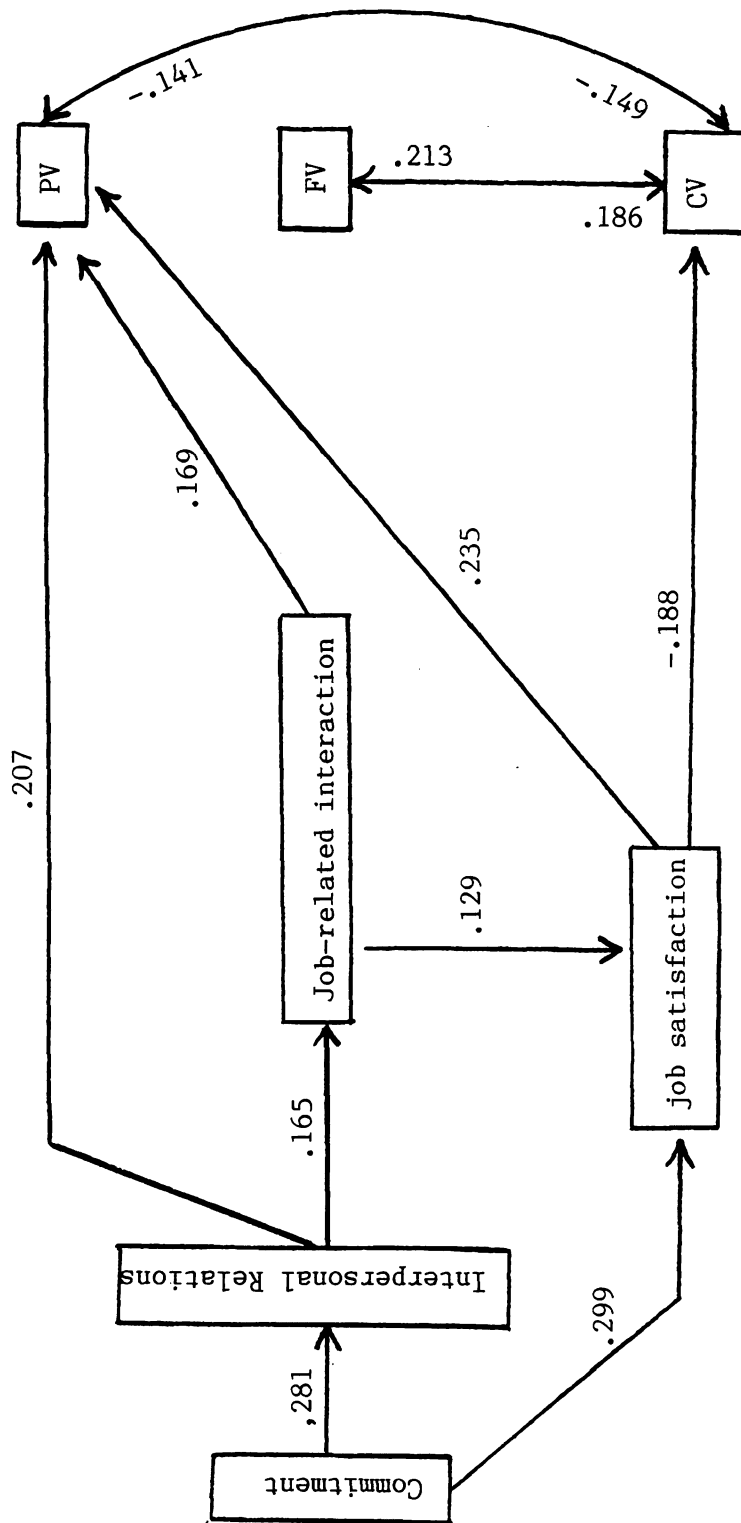
influence participation directly or indirectly through its influence on the job-related interaction.

Figure 6.7 represents our integration of the notions of reciprocality among the variables of both the basic and the alternative models. As illustrated in the trimmed model (Figure 6.7), there is a direct path showing a significant direct effect of commitment on interpersonal relations with a coefficient of .281, but there is no direct effect from commitment on job-related interaction (or even participation). In turn, there are significant direct paths from interpersonal relations on job-related interaction as well as on participation, and also a significant direct path of job-related interaction on participation, with path coefficients of .165, .207, and .169, respectively.

There are no direct paths showing significant effects of interpersonal relations or job-related interaction on either the variables of formalization or centralization. There are even no direct paths showing significant effects of commitment on these variables (formalization or centralization).

As for the supplementary model of the mediating effect of job satisfaction, Figure 6.7 shows a direct significant path from commitment on job satisfaction (.299) and from job satisfaction on participation (.235). Also, there is a direct path showing significant a negative effect of job satisfaction on centralization (-.188), but there is no significant path from job satisfaction on formalization.

Thus the notion of reciprocality appears to exist in our models. It may be (in both cases) that once a sufficient level of

Figure 6.7--Reciprocal Effects Among the Study's Major Variables, Controlling for All Related Variables Involved.

Key to variables: PV = participation variable
FV = formalization variable
CV = centralization variable

commitment is present (in part generated by participation through the mediating effects of interpersonal relations or job satisfaction), a reciprocal pattern of effects occurs such that more participation leads to greater commitment which leads, in turn, to more participation through the same mediating paths. The exception is that the higher satisfaction leads to lower centralization; i.e., higher commitment leads to a low level of centralization through the mediating effects of job satisfaction. Further discussion of this result is provided in the following chapter.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The present study involved identifying a major variable among explicit in the antecedents of organizational commitment, namely: interpersonal relations, as well as specifying its relation to the effects of organization structure by determining whether interpersonal relations, as an outcome of organization structure, serves to increase or to reduce organizational commitment. A series of individual variables also were explored to measure their impact upon the attitudinal outcome of commitment. We have attempted to integrate the available evidence into a systematic conceptual model of organizational commitment. In essence, it is suggested that the nature of the organization structure (degree of participation, formalization, and centralization) interacts with employee expectations (reflected by quality of interpersonal relations of organization member) to determine commitment to organizations, under the assumption that the variations in organization structure, in terms of degree of its formalization, centralization, or participation, will contribute to the quality of interpersonal relations of its members. In turn, the quality of interpersonal relations will determine the individual's commitment to his organization.

Alternatively stated, interpersonal relations are assumed to mediate the structure-commitment relationship. The general argument

186

developed in the present study was that the quality of interpersonal relations and the amount of job-related interaction experienced by the organization member will be, to a great extent, influenced by the type of organization structure he encountered. In turn, the quality of interpersonal relations, either directly or through the moderating effects of job-related interaction, were expected to be of particular importance in encouraging commitment to continuing participation in the employing organization. It was expected that organization structure with a high degree of centralization and formalization will lead to negative interpersonal relations experienced by the organization member while the exact opposite quality of interpersonal relations is suggested for organization with less centralized and less formalized but more participative structure. Positive interpersonal relations will lead the individual to be more committed to his organization than the negative ones.

Also, we tentatively argued that the quality of these interpersonal relations on the work place will be moderated by the individual characteristics of individual members in the sense that individuals may differ in their personal and social needs and desires.

With some exceptions, the findings of the present study were generally consistent with the basic argument and the results suggest that the model may be a reasonable means of describing the way in which organization structure is linked to organizational commitment.

With respect to the hypotheses involved in the basic model, the findings suggested that:

First: Regardless of organizational structure, interpersonal relations (combined or taken separately) had independent direct

effects on the ultimate dependent variable of organizational commitment, as indicated by increasing commitment to organization as the quality of interpersonal relations increases, but such impact cannot be generalized to all aspects of interpersonal relations, particularly the interpersonal variable of mutual respect. However, the components of interpersonal relations are highly intercorrelated and have mutual effects upon each other.

Second: With one exception (centralization), the structural variables had little direct influence on the individuals' commitment to their organization. The independent direct effects of participation and formalization on organizational commitment were found to be insignificant. Centralization, on the other hand, has a significant direct effect on commitment, although it is slight. But it has no direct effects on interpersonal relations or indirect effects through the moderating effects of job-related interaction, as was suggested by our basic model.

In contrast, formalization was found to have a significant effect on interpersonal relations, not directly but through its effect on the level of job-related interaction, although the effect was slight and positive, which is contrary to what we expected. On the other hand, participation has significant positive and larger effects on interpersonal relations both directly and indirectly through the moderating effects of job-related interaction, and the quality of interpersonal relations, particularly when they are combined, have significant and positive direct effects on the ultimate dependent variable of organizational commitment, as mentioned earlier.

189

Job-related interaction has a significant positive direct effect on the variables of interpersonal relations, but not directly on organizational commitment. In addition, the structural variable of formalization only has a significant direct effect on job-related interaction, whereas the variables of interpersonal relations and job-related interaction are influenced significantly and directly by the structural variable of participation. We confidently conclude that interpersonal relations function as a mediating variable in the relationship between organization structure and commitment, either directly or indirectly through the moderating effects of job-related interaction.

These findings highlight the suggested theoretical model of the effect of interpersonal relations as a mediating variable between organization structure and commitment, but such effects cannot be generalized to all aspects of organization structure measured in our study, especially if we consider the failure of obtaining such effects for centralization and the absence of the effect of formalization on job-related interaction when controlling for the background characteristics of organization members.

While the findings were not conclusive, they did suggest that organization structure is related to commitment under the conditions of facilitating interpersonal relations either directly or through its impact on job-related interaction which, in turn, moderates such an influence on interpersonal relations. This is particularly true in the case of the structural variable of participation. Participation in decisions related to a person's work creates a sense of commitment to his organization through the impact of this participation on the

quality of interpersonal relations he experiences during his experience at work with others. Participation is assumed to be a positive experience since it enhances one's self-worth and dignity (his opinions are valued and his company is desired), and also through the moderating effect of the interaction he is involved in as a result of his continuing participation, by which he can verify his work relationship with others.

Third: Individual characteristics, in general, were found to be diverse in their effects on organizational commitment.

On the one hand, organizational commitment is significantly and directly influenced by the characteristics of job satisfaction and length of service. Increases in these variables tend to increase the probability of obtaining a high level of organizational commitment. These results are consistent with previous findings in which job satisfaction and length of service were both more pronounced and more consistent as determinants of commitment across the different studies of commitment (cross-culturally oriented studies among them)(see Chapter II, sections 1 and 3).

On the other hand, organizational commitment was not directly influenced by the differences among organization members with respect to their personal characteristics such as age, marital status, education, salary, and organizational level or position. However, the findings related to these characteristics have been mixed and entirely inconsistent across previous studies (see Mowday et al., 1982 and Ferris & Aranya, 1983 for review). Results of research exploring the relationship of these variables to organizational commitment are equivocal, with some studies indicating that these variables are

directly related to commitment (e.g., Angle & Perry, 1981; Morris & Steers, 1980) while other studies suggest an indirect relation or no relation at all (e.g., Hall & Schneider, 1972; Steers, 1977a).

Additionally, individual characteristics were explored regarding their effects on the mediating variable of interpersonal relations and the moderating variable of job-related interaction. They function as a moderating variable in the relationship of the independent and dependent variables we are interested in. However, those variables which moderate the effect of interpersonal relations differ in their effects on the variable of interpersonal relations when the interpersonal relations were combined and when taken separately.

Explanation and Discussion

There are two general directions in which we may seek possible explanation for the failure to find certain expected effects. One involves the assumption that the data are valid and reliable; i.e., the structural variables and the interpersonal relations and individual characteristics were measured with reasonable accuracy. On the basis of this assumption, we would conclude that the structural variables of formalization and centralization, as well as some personal characteristics, yield no significant influence on organizational commitment in the manner suggested by the basic theoretical model of this study.

The other possible explanation lies in questioning the adequacy of our basic model and the theoretical and empirical considerations upon which it is based in order to formulate an supplementary model by which we can justify our results. Testing a _supplementary_ model

should be preceded by a thorough re-examination of the basic model. Two possibilities present themselves: (a) substituting factors in the basic model thought to be inconsistent; and (b) adding new factors to the basic model (Miller, 1970). Since the first option is the only possibility available to us, it remains possible that other factors may be of overriding importance, that the level of organizational commitment is based on other contextual factors rather than on interpersonal relations, although interpersonal relations are important in themselves as well as in their relation to the suggested alternative factor, job satisfaction.

Thus, we incorporate into our account of organizational commitment the available contextual variables which are more likely to mediate a particular set of findings we are interested in. The contextual variable of job satisfaction was introduced to function as a mediating variable in the structure-commitment relationship, since it has significant direct effects on commitment and also is influenced directly by the organization structure.

Our supplementary model revealed that participation, salary, and centralization, interpersonal relations, and job-related interaction are the only determinants of job satisfaction among the variables studied. Since job satisfaction was the most striking variable in this study affecting organizational commitment, we concluded that job satisfaction is an alternative mediating variable in the relationship between organization structure and job satisfaction.

Additionally, we might consider the finding of our study that indicates job satisfaction is a major determinant of interpersonal relations and is also influenced by these variables. At the same

time, interpersonal relations and job satisfaction are determined by job-related interaction. If this is the case, then we may further conclude that the mediating effects of job satisfaction on commitment reveal the importance of interpersonal relationships themselves as a mediating variable. Job satisfaction especially is related to the quality of the social climate associated with the place of work (Maehr & Braskamp, 1986; Oskamp, 1984). Moreover, co-worker relations have generally been found to be quite strongly related to general job satisfaction (Mowday et al., 1982) which, in turn, has been found to be related to organizational commitment. Thus, the mediating effects of job satisfaction can be perceived as another aspect of the mediating effect of interpersonal relations.

In order to offer an explanation for the results obtained, it is necessary to describe these results further.

Centralization and Commitment

The most striking result associated with centralization is its significant direct effect on commitment and the mediating effects of job satisfaction on such effects. The direct significant effects of centralization imply that as the degree of control increases, commitment decreases. Centralization reduces the potential for autonomy and feedback because of the greater social distance between those who have control and authority and those who do not. The literature on perceived decentralization and participation in decision making consistently points to increased employee involvement and commitment resulting from decentralization (Morris & Steers, 1980; Hall, 1977; Vroom, 1960). That is, employees experiencing greater

decentralization felt more committed to the organization than employees experiencing this factor to a lesser extent (Mowday et al., 1982).

Since the empirical justification or explanation for the effects of centralization or decentralization on commitment often has been lacking, the mediating effects of job satisfaction on centralization may help to fill this gap. In this study, centralization was found to have significant effect on commitment through the mediating effect of job satisfaction. A possible explanation which is not included in the basic model but is consistent with the supplementary one is that employees who are more satisfied with their jobs are more committed and, since job satisfaction is influenced negatively by centralization, it is possible that increasing centralization reduces commitment as a result of the mediating effect of individual satisfaction with jobs.

Other studies suggest that satisfaction of individuals in the organization is thought to be negatively related to centralization because opportunities to participate in decision making, identification with overall goals, and a sense of identifiable achievement decrease as centralization increases (Cummings & Berger, 1976; James & Jones, 1976). These consequences are also identified as antecedents and correlates of both job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

A common theme linking many variables such as job challenge, autonomy, feedback, opportunity for social interaction, group attitudes, and organizational dependability is their traditional role as antecedents and correlates of both job satisfaction and

organizational commitment (Mowday et al., 1982; Wiener, 1982). If a high degree of centralization does, in fact, lead to low satisfaction (and it did at least for this study), then the job characteristics and work experiences identified above would tend to be reduced or lost in the centralization processes (James & Jones, 1976). As a result, the level of organizational commitment will be reduced.

Formalization and Commitment

Like centralization, formalization was predicted to influence negatively the interpersonal variable and the resultant negative interpersonal relations was expected to reduce the level of commitment to the organization. However, the result associated with formalization most nearly conforms to an a posteriori argument relating negatively formalization to the interpersonal variable through the moderating effects of job-related interaction. Formalization was found to be related positively to interpersonal relations through job-related interaction. The significant positive effects, although small, of formalization on job-related interaction was unexpected, since it does not support the specific hypothesis relating formalization negatively to interpersonal relations.

The lack of support for the hypothesis indicated by the positive relationship with formalization and interpersonal relations may be due in part to weaknesses in the assumption upon which the argument and its related hypothesis were made. It was basically assumed that formalization will affect negatively interpersonal relations either directly or indirectly through the moderating effects of job-related interaction (since formalization presumably constrains the quality of

interpersonal relations and restricts the frequency of interaction).
In turn, commitment to the organization was expected to be reduced.
However, the result was in the opposite direction. Thus it is
possible that this assumption was incorrect. The findings indicate
that with a high degree of formalization, job-related interaction
increases, resulting in positive interpersonal relations and,
consequently, a high level of commitment. With greater formality of
rules and procedures, interpersonal relations experienced by
individual members may develop favorably, especially for those who
have a chance to interact more. As a result, employees feel more
committed to the organization. Clear-cut definitions of rules,
procedures, regulations, and responsibilities may make the work
settings well suited for establishing a relationship of considerate
behavior based on trust, mutual respect, and enduring personal
obligations to each other.

But, as previously noted, when controlling for the individual
background characteristics (particularly position), the formalization
effect declines, reaching the nonsignificant level. In contrast,
organizational level or position, which might be considered as being
related to the formalization process, has a significant positive
direct effect on job-related interaction. This positive effect of
position on job-related interaction may be due to the slight positive
correlation between formalization and position.

Higher position holders, who must engage in authority relations
with others (since they are assumed to be the initiators of
decisions), have a chance to interact more. Throughout their
interaction at work, they will also have the opportunity to verify the

perceptions of others toward them, which is more likely to be favorable, at least from their perspective. As a result, they then feel more trust in others, mutual respect, and solidarity with others. In fact, the positive reactions of others, reflected in the positive interpersonal relations, may be attributed largely to their positions in the hierarchy. Employees in positions subordinate to them know that, by obeying the boss (which results in respect and cooperation with the boss), their own position may be enhanced or may initiate other benefits. The employee may find satisfaction in several important interests and needs such as recognition from the boss, independence, and group belongingness (Mohr, 1982). That is, "Organization members tend to perceive those with greater power as instrumental to the need satisfactions, hence 'lows' behave toward 'highs' in a manner designed to maximize good relations and minimize feelings of unease in their interactions with high-power persons (Read, 1962:3).

This conclusion, although highly tentative, is supported by the positive correlation between formalization and position, and the positive direct effect of position on job-related interaction. This positive direct effect of position is true whether controlling for the structural variables alone or controlling for both the structural variables and other individual variables such as age, marital status, education, length of service, or job satisfaction. When controlling for the structural variables only, the effect of position is stronger than when controlling for both the structural variables and the individual characteristics; i.e., the effect decreased from .335 to .225 for the managerial position, for example.

Furthermore, increased formalization may influence commitment to some extent by facilitating both job and role clarity. It is interesting to note that Morris and Steers (1980) attempted to justify the direct effect of formalization on commitment in the following way:

> Since highly committed employees are, by definition, desirous of working hard to accomplish organization goals, the presence of written rules and procedures may help to ameliorate otherwise ambiguous situations and thereby provide a means to achieve these goals. (p. 56)

Lack of formalized role descriptions have also been shown to lead to role stress, conflict, and ambiguity (House & Rizzo, 1972; Kahn et al., 1964; Moch, Bartunck, & Brass, 1979; Schuer, 1977). Confusion may center around organizational rules and regulations. The person may be uncertain about the scope of his responsibilities, about what is expected of him by others, and about what behaviors will be effective in meeting these expectations (Kahn et al., 1964; also Nicholson & Goh, 1983). Kahn et al. (1964) contend that:

> Uncertainty about the way one is evaluated by his associates--how satisfied they are with his behavior--is significantly related to trust, respect, and liking. The socioemotional flavor of ambiguity about interpersonal evaluations makes it a source of emotional strain and a deterrent to close supportive social relations. (p. 90)

The effects of low formalization may be moderated by leadership behavior, such as providing structure in ambiguous situations (House & Rizzo, 1972), and by individual differences in reactions to (or tolerance for) ambiguity and conflict (see James & Jones, 1976, for review). The implication is that the negative consequences of low formalization can be avoided by the exercise of considerate behavior among work group members, which is reflected in a positive working relationship among them, i.e., display of warm personal relationships,

trust, respect, and willingness to explain his actions as a superior, willingness of the manager to listen to subordinates, and so forth.

As for the supplementary model, we have no strong basis to suggest that formalization should predict job satisfaction. The relationship between formalization and job satisfaction is better understood if role variables are treated as intervening. Prediction of job satisfaction as a dependent variable from formalization can be improved by considering its relationship to role perceptions (House & Rizzo, 1972). An example would be to state that formalization should predict job satisfaction if it were associated with reduced role conflict and ambiguity. House & Rizzo (1972) support this assumption empirically. Hence, the absence of effect of formalization on job satisfaction may be attributed to the lack of information related to the role perception which may moderate the relationship between formalization and job satisfaction. Therefore, we were cautious in suggesting that job satisfaction may function as a mediating variable on the formalization- commitment relationship. Even our results have no indication of such a relationship.

Still, high formalization is found to be related to less ambiguity, conflict, and anxiety (e.g., House & Rizzo, 1972; Kahn et al., 1964) and at the same time to limited job scope, resulting in boredom, alienation, low group involvement, and job dissatisfaction (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Kahn et al., 1964; Pheysey et al., 1971). Thus, there may be an optimal level of formalization that reduces role ambiguity yet maintains reasonable levels of job scope. Such an optimal level may be functional for the individual members and the

organizations. (For more extensive discussion of such effects, the reader is referred to House & Rizzo, 1972, and Hall, 1982.)

Participation and Commitment

Participation's effects on interpersonal relations were as predicted, both directly and through the moderating effect of job-related interaction, and participation was found to significantly and strongly affect job satisfaction. Participation in decision making is likely to be satisfying to many organizational members, as the work of Vroom and Tannenbaum indicate. Vroom (1960) suggests that greater participation in decision making leads to employees becoming more ego-involved in their work-related outcomes.

Similarly, Tannenbaum (1969) suggests that participation can be ego-enhancing. However, in his discussion of the dynamics of participation and its effects on job satisfaction, Tannenbaum states several kinds of satisfaction can be obtained from participation at work. Some of these can be summarized as follows:

(1) Psychological or "symbolic" satisfaction. Individuals may derive satisfaction because of their need for self-determination or independence or power—or as a result of whatever satisfying meanings the exercise of control may have for them. It may, for example, imply to a member that he is important, or superior or successful. In fact, individuals in positions of power often elicit behavior on the part of others which implies respect and consideration:

> In sum, participation reduces some of the frustrations
> attached to positions of low rank. It does this by
> increasing the authority and status of these positions, by
> broadening the activities of these positions and by leading
> the decisions that seem less arbitrary and disadvantageous.
> It adds some of the qualities of the managerial role to

nonmanagerial jobs. Participation, to some degree, brings workers into management. Thus, it affects more than their job satisfaction; it affects their motivation. (p. 99)

(2) Intrinsic satisfaction: Participation is often intrinsically satisfying; for example, it may consist of group meetings that discuss interesting topics and make important decisions. Furthermore, it may include challenging activities that draw upon intellectual, technological, and human-relations skills. Workers may apply their knowledge and abilities to the development of new and better ways of doing their jobs. Not only is this a source of satisfaction, but it can be a source of many practical suggestions that contribute to efficiency, safety, or improved working conditions (pp. 98-99).

In other words, it would be difficult for individuals to embed their ego identity and growth in a job with which they were not satisfied. The association of satisfaction with participation in the work place may further increase the quality of interpersonal relations as well as loyalty to the organization.

> Participation reduces disaffection and increases the identification of members with the organization. Individuals are more likely to feel some sense of commitment and responsibility relative to tasks that are brought before them in their capacity as decision makers. . . . Participation also encourages the exchange of feelings and ideas, thus reducing discrepancies in perceptions, ideals and loyalties. (Tannenbaum, 1969:99)

Frequent consultations by the boss or some say in how things are done on the job draw upon one's unique experiences and expectations. Thus, the employees are more likely to have positive interpersonal relations and satisfaction with the job depending on the adequacy of the degree of participation involving these expectations or experiences. Experiences of positive interpersonal relations and

satisfaction resulting from a high degree of participation should also lead the individual to associate important social satisfaction with organization membership. Regarding the earlier report that job satisfaction and interpersonal relations are interrelated, the operational definition of job satisfaction includes questions about an employee's satisfaction in his relations with co-workers, and that question was also added to the overall measure of interpersonal relations, it is, then, a foregone conclusion and possibly an artifact of the measures used that members having interpersonal attraction to one another will be more satisfied than those who are not. However, both measures contain many items and it is unlikely that the inclusion of one common item would entirely account for the correlations between the two variables.

A Comment on Reciprocal Effects

A comment may also be made here about the reciprocity that seems to exist between participation and commitment through the mediating effects of interpersonal relations and job satisfaction. More participation leads to greater commitment which, in turn, leads to more participation; not necessarily directly, but through the suggested mediating effects.

While this possibility cannot be ruled out completely, it seems unlikely that the causal relation should go primarily in this direction. There seems to be ample theoretical justification for our contention that the causal effects point more forcefully in the other direction (suggested by the basic model). Participation, specifically defined in a qualitative way to mean the perception of the amount of

influence one has, may determine the quantity of interaction on the job and the quality of interpersonal relations. As indicated in our basic model, we were proposing that it is the level of participation on the job that influences a person's amount of interaction with others, how he trusts, respects or is respected, and the extent to which he feels close to others and that others help him.

Since participation, in general, means the total process of interaction and social influence in decision making (French et al., 1960), and "the quality of interpersonal interaction is the most direct and immediate mechanism whereby people establish positive or negative feelings toward others" (Klauss & Bass, 1982), then participation shapes the image or perception one has of others. In turn, the resultant feelings determine the level of commitment one has for the employing organization. Commitment is affected by the interpersonal relations experienced by the individual member, which are basically the outcome of the amount of control and influence he can exert within his own immediate workgroup. This justification is also supported by the absence of direct effect of participation on commitment and the direct effect of commitment on participation.

The same concern can be applied to the reciprocal effect of commitment on centralization through the mediating effect of job satisfaction, though the effect of job satisfaction on centralization seems unlikely to go in this reverse direction. If we are obligated to argue that everything is mutually interactive in the realm of organizational behavior, this makes the assessment of causality a difficult task (Klauss & Bass, 1982:44).

Finally, although the findings of our research concerning the moderating effects of individual characteristic variables are interesting and important, on the whole they tend to lack theoretical foundations and empirical support from other studies. Therefore, we have limited our discussion to those aspects which have such foundations.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSIONS, SUGGESTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This study of organizational commitment of a sample of Saudi employees at different work environments has focused on the complex relationships among organization structure, interpersonal relations, and organizational commitment. The author wishes to emphasize that the findings of this study were relatively complicated, and their interpretations are open to considerable conjecture. Alternative explanations of findings were given where possible, whether the findings were in the predicted direction or not. The study attempted to establish a causal linkage between variables where appropriate, although it is in large measure exploratory.

The predictive power of the tested models was stronger for some of the structural variables than for others. Specifically, the basic model best predicts that interpersonal relations mediate the relationship between participation and commitment and such patterns of mediating effects increased as job-related interaction increased, since "the quality of interpersonal communication is the most direct and immediate mechanism whereby people establish positive or negative feelings toward other people" (Klauss & Bass, 1982:33). But these results do not hold true for the other structural variables of formalization or centralization.

205
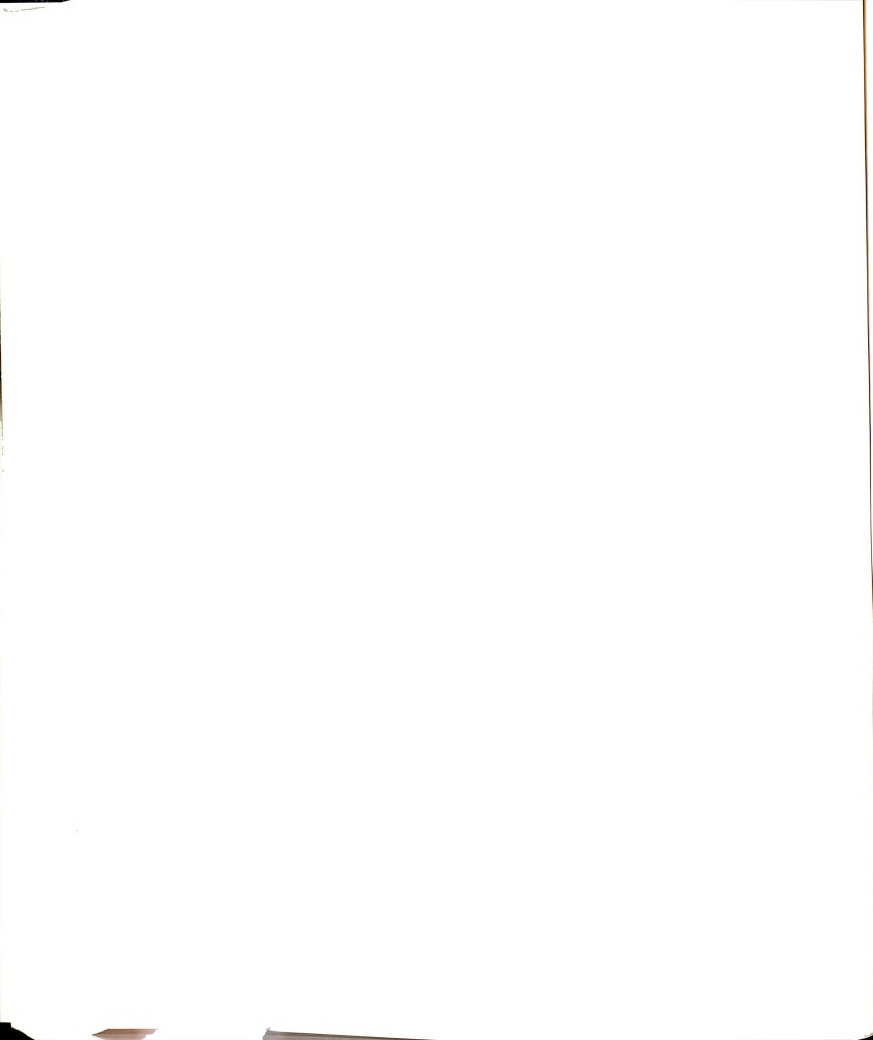
Correspondingly, the predictive power of the supplementary model indicates that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between participation and organizational commitment, and the negative direct effect of centralization on commitment can be best explained by such mediating effects since centralization has its negative effect on job satisfaction. However, the supplementary model yields no support for the mediating effect on formalization.

Thus the safe, conservative conclusion must be that participation causes commitment by facilitating the development of interpersonal relations and job satisfaction and these constructs, either separately or combined, explain how participation affects commitment. As people participate more on the job, they experience a higher quality of interpersonal relations and derive satisfaction from their jobs. In turn, these antecedents affect the degree of commitment they have for their employing organizations.

Still, the findings must be viewed in tentative terms until subsequent research can more thoroughly test similar models through longitudinal designs, larger samples, and additional variables.

Suggestions for Further Research

Efforts directed toward model construction in this field may benefit from the findings of this study. Many studies support the finding that job satisfaction is significantly related to commitment (e.g., Buchanan, 1974; Ferris & Aranya, 1983; Grusky, 1966; Hrebiniak, 1971; Martin & O'Laughlin, 1984; Penley & Hawkins, 1985; and Welsch & LeVan, 1981). Others suggest that job satisfaction serves as an

intervening variable in the job characteristics-commitment relationship (Hall et al., 1972; Wiener, 1982).

Apart from confirming that job satisfaction is a traditional organizationally related predictor of commitment (cf. Mowday et al., 1982; Martin & O'Laughlin, 1984), this study adds job satisfaction as a mediating factor in the structure-commitment relationship. Further, job satisfaction intercorrelates with other mediating factors, i.e., interpersonal relations, which is traditionally perceived as an independent predictor of commitment. The need for further investigation to determine the priority effect of each is obvious.

Another logical step in the model construction process would be to delineate how personal characteristics and situational factors (such as age, marital status, education, salary, and length of stay or tenure) rest within the constructed models. In general, findings regarding the effects of these factors on organizational commitment have been mixed.

Some studies indicated direct effects and others indicated indirect effects. In our study, we found only direct effects of tenure on commitment, and we attempted to explain the effects of other factors through their moderating effects on interpersonal relations or job-related interaction or even on job satisfaction (as in the case of age, marital status, education, position, and salary, respectively).

Some inconclusive results obtained in prior commitment studies may be attributed, in part, to the use of different methods to measure these factors. Until these measurement issues are resolved, research involving personal and situational characteristics is apt to yield more inconclusive findings similar to the results produced to date.

With respect to the improvement of our models and the development of better ones, we notice that the elements of the tested models here represent many important aspects of organizational life. At the same time, many determinants of organizational commitment and other related variables involved in the study are missing.

As the size of the residuals indicates, much of the variance in the path models for each set of variables is not accounted for by variables included in the model. Notably lacking are such variables as job or role-related characteristics, other work experience, even other structural characteristics. Based on the results of prior research, as well as the present study, it would seem most fruitful, for example, to examine variables which moderate the mediating effects of interpersonal relations and job satisfaction on the structural variable of formalization. Among such variables might be the characteristics of the job; more specifically, characteristics such as the degree of role ambiguity and role conflict. Some evidence for the impact of formalization on role ambiguity and role conflict as well as the impact of these characteristics on interpersonal relations and job satisfaction exist. (See, for example, House & Rizzo, 1972, and Nicholson & Goh, 1983; refer also to our discussion in Chapter VII, p. 195, concerning formalization and commitment link.) However, it should be noted, as Miller (1970) states:

> It must not be assumed that the size of the residual is necessarily a measure of success in explaining the phenomenon under study. The relevant question about the residual is not really its size at all, but whether the unobserved factors it stands for are properly represented as being uncorrelated with the measured antecedent factors. (p. 192)

Beyond this, the major factors included in the tested models are treated in a rudimentary manner. In essence, each factor represents an aggregation of many facets of organizational life which in themselves are considered to be independent factors contributing to the problem at hand.

For instance, the organizational commitment scale (OCQ) includes such factors as job involvement or occupational commitment and intent to stay. Similarly, the formalization scale includes job codification and rules observation factors. Also, the job satisfaction scale has the intrinsic and extrinsic facets of the job variables, which is also true for the interpersonal scale and the job-related interaction scale. The interpersonal scale includes the three dimensions of interpersonal relations (trust, mutual respect and solidarity) whereas job-related interaction includes scheduled and unscheduled interaction (Hage & Aiken, 1967; Kahn et al., 1964; Marriet et al., 1975; Mowday et al., 1979; and Patchen, 1970).

All of these factors have been treated as separate facets of organizational life affecting the attitudes and behaviors of individual members (see Cummings & Berger, 1976; James & Jones, 1976; Marrett, Hage & Aiken, 1975; Morrow & McElroy, 1987; Newman, 1975; Porter & Lawler, 1965). Thus the aggregation of these facets in cumulative measures obscures some relationships and, hence, "limits the amount of detail provided" (Franklin, 1975b:432).

The expansion of this model and others to include both a wider variety of variables and more detail for those variables which are included holds promise for greatly increasing our understanding of how and why individuals hold certain attitudes and behave in a certain way

in their interaction with others at work settings. However, "a more complete development of such models requires larger samples, more variables, longitudinal designs, multivariate analysis, and greater time and expense" (James & Jones, 1976:97). As mentioned previously, the variance in organizational commitment explained by interpersonal relations, job-related interaction, and job satisfaction has been inadequate.

The large residuals in models explaining organizational commitment as well as interpersonal relations and job-related interaction may represent measurement error but more likely result from explanatory variables not included in the models. As pointed out in the previous chapters, organizational commitment and job satisfaction appear to reflect affective motivational responses to the organization (see also Mowday et al., 1979; Mowday et al., 1982; Porter et al., 1974; Wiener, 1982), whereas interpersonal relations appear to reflect social psychological dimensions of the individual's needs. In future research it is suggested that more of the variance in the former might be explained if the models include more psychological variables as antecedents to these factors, whereas more of the variance in the latter might be explained if the models include more socio-cultural variables as antecedents to this factor.

Further, the explained variance in job-related interaction might improve if the model encompasses other dimensions of interaction, including the quality of interaction (accuracy, filtration, openness, and so forth) and social dimensions of interaction.

Another variable that should be included in future research, organizational level or position, may play an important role in

determining organizational commitment, although, in this study, there was no direct effect of organizational level on commitment. However, this might be attributed, in part, to the relative homogeneity of the sample studied with respect to this variable (i.e., most were at the supercisory level). Still, there were effects of organizational level on commitment obtained through its effects on job-related interaction, as was explained in Chapter VI.

Further studies are needed to determine the causal basis for the relationship which has been found between organizational level and commitment, through a research design which considers broader differences in organizational level within organizations and across different types of organizations.

A characteristic of Saudi society mentioned in Chapter I should also be examined in further studies. Saudi society is a developing society. A shortage of skill, deficiencies in training, lack of resources, and poor communications constitute obstacles to effective administration. But more important may be the cultural factors which hinder attempts to introduce administrative practices (Milne, 1970: 62). Thus, there is a great possibility that loyalty to one's own interests, family, clique or friends transcends loyalty to an organization. Questions 14-17 in our questionnaire dealt with these issues. However, the pattern of responses obtained for these questions was diverse and the majority of responses did not correspond with the required format for answering the questions, particularly questions 16 and 17. In some cases, these questions were not answered. But in most cases, the subjects selected only one or two responses which seemed to correspond to the objective criteria in the

selection or promotion of employees (e.g., qualifications, seniority) and ignored the possibility of influence of traditional cultural values.

There are two general directions in which we may seek explanations for this pattern of responses. One involves the possibility that the responses were accurate, to some extent, and indicated the relative absence of cultural influence, especially if we consider the nature of the organizations selected. These organizations are all public enterprises. They are autonomous in their missions and operations. So they must be distinguished from public bureaucracies in the sense that there is greater harmony between the expectations and interests of the individual member and the goals and interests of the organization, which may positively affect commitment and lessen traditional cultural influences. Such influences may characterize more the public bureaucracies (see, for example, Al-Awaji, 1971).

The other possible direction has to do with the adequacy of our questions. The questions proved to be sensitive and should be constructed in such a way that yields the desired responses without arousing suspicion or sensitivity. As is well known, extensive follow-up procedures are needed in survey research to offset such problems as misinterpretation of the questions and low return rates. These problems are particularly acute when working with populations of employees in the Third World. As previously noted, 38% of the eligible subjects returned usable questionnaires in this study. Only general impressions of the extent of bias due to non-returns or response error could be ascertained, partly as a result of the

sensitivity of the topic to the subjects involved. At least from this perspective, questions about a person's attitudes toward others associated with him (particularly if those are significant, such as his supervisors, superior, and so on) at work and his attitudes toward the employing organization carry a threat to his self-interest at work and even his employment. Because of the strong possibility that we did not get valid responses to questions 14-17, the answers to these questions were deleted from the analysis.

Still, the question of the possibility of commitment to an organization transcending loyalty to one's interests, family, clique, or friends remains important and unanswered. Research is needed to determine such effects and other effects on commitment related to the most crucial variables that characterize Saudi society which may be important in stimulating commitment among Saudis in relation to the type of organization for which they work. It would seem to be most fruitful to identify other potential determinants related to Saudi culture. Religious commitment, for example, has an immediate impact upon Saudi life which may include work involvement and attachment to certain types of organizations. It is a vital yet unexplored aspect of organizational commitment. But the author emphasizes that there should be a distinction between religious values and other cultural traditions, especially if we consider that Islam as a religion is a comprehensive way of life. People mix Islamic values with their traditional practices, so those who have an interest in explicating the concept of commitment within such a sphere must be cautious in distinguishing what is or is not religious and how it contributes to the problem at hand.

A considerable amount of recent organizational literature has been concerned with the topic of organizational climate. But there is disagreement concerning the components of organizational climate. On the one hand, climate dimensions have included both structure and interpersonal relations. On the other hand, there are studies in which a distinction between structure and climate (e.g., support, morale, satisfaction) is made. The assumption is that if practices or structure creates a climate, then there should be a separate climate for each distinct set of practices or structure (see Poole, 1985:82). In our case, the findings seem to correspond with the latter view. That is, organizational structure creates climate (interpersonal relations and job satisfaction). Therefore, it is important to distinguish between them.

Finally, in any study of causal linkages between any set of variables, the use of cross-sectional data is admittedly a poor man's substitute for longitudinal data (Barnes, 1975; Klauss & Bass, 1982). The latter is, of course, both costly and difficult to obtain in survey studies, particularly so with Saudi populations. Nevertheless, it would be fruitful in future research to retest similar models using longitudinal data and a cross-cultural sample.

Major Contributions

The findings of this study seem to add some to organizational literature that has relied primarily on organization structure as a predictor of organizational commitment. The theoretical models developed for this study are simple logical approaches that organize previous concrete findings and extend and formalize some basic

concepts of organizational literature and research which have been shown to have inconsistent results with respect to the relationships involved. The tested models, on the other hand, extend our knowledge of the relationship between organizational situations and individual attitudinal and behavioral outcomes by exploring and confirming the resultant outcomes of the structure-attitudes relationship.

A major consideration is the nature of previous evidence supporting the structure-commitment relationships. There are primary differences between the nature of the relations in this study and most previously examined relations. Most previous studies (e.g., Morris & Steers, 1980; Stevens et al., 1978) only examined the direct effects of structure on commitment. This study includes work experiences of interpersonal relations and job satisfaction as mediating variables to look for an explanation of the direct effect.

The most important findings of this study are as follows:

1. Regardless of organization structure, job satisfaction, interpersonal relations and length of service are independent in their effect on organizational commitment. In other words, they are affecting commitment directly.

2. Participation seems to contribute to the quality of interpersonal relations among employees in formal organizations and interpersonal relations can be further enhanced by increasing the amount of job-related interaction as a result of participative work organization.

3. Centralization seems to contribute negatively to organizational commitment and this negative effect on commitment is

partly a function of decreasing satisfaction with the job as a direct result of centralization.

4. The enhancement of interpersonal relations by increasing participation at work, and the enhancement of job satisfaction by increasing participation would contribute significantly to commitment to organizations on the part of the individual member, since these variables are assumed to increase one's sense of importance, enthusiasm and responsibility.

5. Formalization seems to have no effect on interpersonal relations or job-satisfaction and no direct effect on commitment, which implies that any mediating effect on the relationship between formalization and commitment may be based on other contextual factors rather than those considered here.

Thus, this study indicates that participation and interpersonal relations may not be clearly independent. (The same result was reached by Nicholson & Goh, 1983). In the same manner, participation and job satisfaction as well as centralization and job satisfaction may not be clearly independent. Also, there is no direct effect of either participation or formalization on commitment. We concluded that the effect of structure on commitment can be partially explained by structural effects on interpersonal relations and job satisfaction. Since interpersonal relations and job satisfaction are influenced by these structural variables, and, at the same time, they both directly influence commitment, we further concluded that they mediate the relationship of structure to organizational commitment. Moreover, interpersonal relations and job satisfaction are significantly intercorrelated, and both are influenced by job-related interaction.

Therefore, we tentatively conclude that the mediating effects of job satisfaction can be perceived as another aspect of the mediating effect of interpersonal relations under the assumption that a satisfactory level of interpersonal relations leads to a high level of organizational commitment.

In conclusion, although the study may provide relatively parsimonious predictive models of commitment and its correlates, which have accounted for a reasonable amount of variance in organizational commitment, the above conclusions must be tempered by certain methodological limitations that characterize this study. First and foremost, the study is cross-sectional, with a relatively small sample. All of the variables were measured by subjective perceptual measures at one point in time. The statistical technique used (path analysis) may be contributing to the clarity of the explanation of the observed associations. Thus, the results could have been strengthened if the variables had been measured using a set of alternative methods. Future research is needed to verify the results of this study using longitudinal designs, a larger sample (within and across organizations), and comparison of subjective measures with objective ones.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

Although the findings of this study may not be generalized beyond the limits of the data and the particular sample studied, one is free to draw some tentative implications which, as suggested above, may be pursued in future research.

The primary focus of this study was to examine the mediating effects of interpersonal relations on the relationship between organization structure and commitment, and the related research question was how interpersonal relations differ with regard to structure and what effects the resultant interpersonal relations have on employees' commitment to their organization.

Although the findings of this study were not entirely conclusive, specific results suggest that the models may be a reasonable means of describing the way in which organization structure is linked to organizational commitment. Organizational structure is related to commitment under the conditions of facilitating interpersonal relations and the enhancement of such relations through its effect on job-related interaction or through creating a high level of job satisfaction with the job as an alternative condition. However, the differences of these conditions with regard to organization structure are obvious. With a highly participative structure, the quality of interpersonal relations increased as well as the level of job satisfaction. In turn, commitment to the organization increased. In contrast, with a highly centralized structure, the level of job satisfaction decreased. As a result, organizational commitment decreased. In short, interpersonal relations and job satisfaction mediate the structure-commitment relationship.

Thus, as an exploratory effort, the study simply demonstrates the usefulness of viewing the impact of organizational structure on commitment through the mediating effects of interpersonal relations or

job satisfaction rather than the direct effects of structure on commitment.

Following recommendations made by Newman (1975), we can say that the underlying theoretical implications of the mediating effects of interpersonal relations and job satisfaction on organization structure involves the perception of the work environment by the organization members. In order to really understand and predict the effects of organization structure on commitment, it is not enough to just know how the employee perceives the structural characteristics of his employing organization (e.g., policies, activities, level of participation, and so forth), but it is also important to know how he feels toward others with whom he associates at work (e.g., in terms of trust, respect, and solidarity), and his affective feelings toward the work environment and organization surrounding him.

Another theoretical implication of knowing that interpersonal relations and job satisfaction are clearly interdependent in their effect on organizational commitment, or that they mediate the structure-commitment relationship, is that an organizational problem does not have to be classified as either a personal problem or a work organization problem. Rather, a given organizational problem (e.g., low commitment) can be construed as a person-organization problem. Whether we choose to solve it as a people or organization problem or as a person-and-organization problem depends on the situation (Newman, 1975).

Also, there seems to be an apparent indication that prior differences in organizational commitment among employees would lead to differences in perception about interpersonal relations and job

satisfaction which, in turn, affect participation. While these findings cannot be ruled out completely, it seems unlikely that the causal relations go primarily in this direction, as discussed in the previous chapter. If there are reciprocal causal relationships, then the study can direct attention to the ways in which firmly established behavior patterns may serve to modify organizational structure. Hence, organizational commitment largely becomes "a matter of reciprocation between individual and organization" (Angle & Perry, 1983:143). Thus, an understanding of the processes involved may reconcile what appears to be conflicting results of prior research and contribute to bridging the macro-micro gap in organizational theory.

In addition, our analysis verified the relationship of commitment to the situational variables of length of service or tenure and job satisfaction, a finding consistent with a number of previous cross-cultural studies (Luthans et al., 1985; Marsh & Mannari, 1977). But the relationship of commitment to personal characteristics of individual members is still inconsistent. This may suggest that variables as predictors of commitment are universal in nature while others are culture-specific. In view of these results, the question of whether organizational commitment is based on culture-specific norms and values remains unanswered.

Further, the present study may have implications for those who are concerned with organizational change. The characteristics of organizational members are important, as are organizational characteristics. To solve organizational problems successfully requires changes in the work organization in light of the characteristics of present organizational members. Knowing that work

organization or environment has a considerable influence on the
attitudes of organizational members through the perceived resultant
work experiences (e.g., interpersonal relations, job satisfaction,
actual flow of information and interaction), management can use the
work environment as a management tool for change and improvement.
That is, "A change in the work environment which would change the
stimulus pattern of a particular work setting should be expected to
have ramifications for employee responses in that setting" (Herman,
Dunham & Hulin, 1975:231).

APPENDIX

"In the name of Allah,
most benevolent, ever-merciful."

Dear Brother:

Enclosed is a scientific questionnaire which is part of a scientific study on Saudi employees at their work settings. The purpose of this study is to develop basic information concerning employees in formal organizations: their interaction with each other, their interpersonal relations, the rules that govern their behavior, and the feelings they have for the organization they work for.

The data being collected are to be used only for scientific purposes in order to complete my Ph.D. dissertation in social psychology at Michigan State University, U.S.A. Your cooperation and concern in responding to the content of this questionnaire will greatly contribute to the success of the study and, in turn, to the fulfillment of my ambitions.

I am trusting that you would not hesitate to cooperate, especially that you are aware of the importance of such studies and their positive consequences on the individual and on society in terms of improving the work environment for everyone. Also, I would like to remind you that I am conducting this study personally. Your organization is not a party to it. It did not suggest doing the research, nor is it supervising the research. I wish to assure you, at the same time, that the responses to the survey will be kept completely confidential. The final analysis will not identify the responses of specific individuals, and you are asked not to mention your name.

I appreciate your frankness and precision in answering each question included in this questionnaire. Thanking you for your quick response and generosity in giving of your time,

Your Brother,

Dakheel A.S. Al-Dakheelallah
Psychology Department
King Saud University
Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Directions

Dear Brother:

In the following pages you will find a number of questions with a brief explanation of the way you should answer them.

• Try to answer all of the questions. Do not leave any question without an answer because this will affect the results. Again, I wish to emphasize that the success of this research depends on your accurate and precise answers.

• Most of items in this questionnaire can be answered by circling (O) or checking (✓) a response where appropriate. A few items require a short written answer.

• Please indicate the one response that most closely represents your situation or, in other cases, the response that most closely describes your feelings.

• Reply to each of the questionnaire items from your own view, and personal observations, as it is represented by your behavior and career experience.

• Do not reply as you think others might reply, or as you feel that others would want you to reply or which they would find pleasing.

Please take your time to respond to all the questions. I appreciate, again, your cooperation, frankness and quick response, since the research must be completed in a very limited amount of time.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

- FIRST -

Here are a number of general questions. Please give the most precise and appropriate answer:

1. Age? _____

2. Marital status? ___ Single ___ Married ___ Divorced ___ Widowed

3. How many children do you have?

   _____ None   ___One   _____Two   _____Three or more

4. How many years of school did you complete?

   ___1,2,3   ___4,5,6   ___7,8,9   ___10,11,12
   ___ 13,14,15,16   ___ 17,18,19   ___ 20 and more

   What is the highest degree you have obtained? (with your major areas of study) _____

5. What is the name of the department to which you belong in this organization?

   _____

6. Your present job title? _____

7. What do you do in this job? _____

8. To what extent do you think that your present job is socially accepted?

   _____ Highly accepted
   _____ Accepted
   _____ Somewhat accepted
   _____ Not accepted
   _____ Not accepted at all

9. Is it important for you that your job is socially accepted?

   _____It is very important
   _____It is important
   _____Somewhat important
   _____I don't care; either it is accepted or not
   _____I do not care at all

10. To what extent does your education or your academic training correspond with the typical specialty of your job?

_____ Not appropriate at all
_____ Somewhat appropriate
_____ Appropriate
_____ Very appropriate

11. How did you obtain your present job? (Check "✓" all that apply)

_____ I was directed to it, after my graduation, by the Civil Service Bureau.
_____ I applied for it personally, and I was directly admitted as long as the employment conditions in this organization were met.
_____ I applied for it through a relative or friend.
_____ I was promoted to it from within the agency.
_____ I moved to it from another agency.
_____ I entered into a public contest and I won the job.

12. What is your monthly salary?

_____ Less than 3500 SR _____ 3501 to 4000 SR _____ 4001 to 4500 SR
_____ 4501 to 5000 SR _____ 5001 to 5500 SR _____ 5501 to 6000 SR
_____ 6001 to 6500 SR _____ 6501 to 7000 SR _____ 7001 to 7500 SR
_____ 7501 to 8000 SR _____ 8001 to 8500 SR _____ 8501 to 9000 SR
_____ 9001 to 9500 SR _____ 9501 to 10000 SR _____ more than 10000 SR

13. How long have you been in your present organization?

_____ Less than one year _____ 1 to 2 years _____ 3 to 5 years
_____ 6 to 8 years _____ 9 to 12 years
_____ 13 to 15 years _____ More than 15 years

14. Do you have relatives or friends who are working for this organization?

_____ Yes _____ No

15. Where do your closest friends work?

_____ Outside this organization.
_____ Within this organization.
_____ Both outside and within this organization.

16. What factors do you consider the most influential in the selection of employees in this organization? (Rate these factors according to their relative effect: (1) the most influential, etc. Put "<u>No effect</u>" for the one factor that you think has no effect.)

_____ Qualification and ability.
_____ Social status.
_____ Kinship or personal relations.
_____ Regional affiliations (prefering one from a certain area over another area).
_____ Tribal attachment.

17. What factors do you consider the most influential in promotion from job to job or from position to position? (Use the same method as in Question 16 to determine their relative effect.)

_____ Qualification and ability.
_____ Seniority.
_____ Social status.
_____ Kinship or personal relations.
_____ Regional affiliation.
_____ Tribal attachment.

- SECOND -

Each job has its own components, so the individual's job satisfaction depends upon the extent to which he is satisfied with these components.

18. How would you describe your job satisfaction, based on your satisfaction with the following features which represent components of your job as a whole?

	Very Satis.	Satis-fied	Some Dissat.	Dissat-isfied	Very Dissat.
- The basic salary	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Compensations related to the type of work or speciality	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- The total salary as it corresponds with your vocational abilities and your practical qualifications	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Work conditions (lighting, office, air-conditioning, etc.)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Work hours (regular work hours or swing-shift)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Vacation system in the organization	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Daily permission to leave work and the ease in obtaining such permission	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Penalties, rules, and regulations	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Monetary motives: • annual raises	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
• incentive bonuses	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Non-monetary motives: Receiving praise and encouragement or support and aid, in case of good achievement	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	Very Satis.	Satis-fied	Some Dissat.	Dissat-isfied	Very Dissat.
– Opportunities for advancement such as training programs or scholarships	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Other features: • Providing free housing or housing allowances	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
• Medical insurance for your and your family	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Future relation with the organization in terms of providing pension benefits in case of disability or death	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– The extent to which necessary information related to organizational policies are available which help you to be familiar with work rules and regulations	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– The type of your work as it relates to the required efforts or challenges	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Morale advantage that you feel in your job achievement	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Accepted amount of responsibility available which helps in performing your duties perfectly	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Nature of the relations you have with those with whom you work	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Existence of non-Saudis working with you	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Nearness of the work place to your residence	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

- THIRD -

In every position it is sometimes necessary in fulfilling one's job to have contact with other people in the organization other than at formal scheduled committees or meetings.

19. How often do you talk with each of the following people in your organization outside of meetings regarding business matters?

	Almost Constantly	Several Times a Day	Once or Twice a Day	Several Times a Week	A Few Times a Month
- Managers	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Supervisors/ Foreman	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Immediate Supervisors	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Co-workers	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Subordinates	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

20. How many times in a typical day do you confer with the following people in your department?

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
- Managers	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Supervisors/Foremen	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Immediate Supervisor	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Your co-worker	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Your subordinate	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Note: If any of the above-mentioned titles are not applicable to your organization, write the word "None" in front of the title or write the applicable title used in your organization.

21. If any of the following committees or meetings are present in your organization, how many times per month do they meet?

  Note: If any of these meetings are not present, or you are not familiar with the name, write the word "None" in front of it.

	Once a Month	Twice a Month	Three Times a Month	Four Times a Month	Four or more times a month
– Organization-wide committee meeting	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Departmental or unit meeting	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Meeting of the entire staff	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Case conferences	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

22. Consider the frequency of these meetings in your organization:

  a. How often do you have a chance to attend these meetings?

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
– Organization-wide committee meeting	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Departmental or unit meeting	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Meeting of the entire staff	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Case conferences	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

  b. How many members attend each type of meeting you attend?

	Less than 5	5-15	16-25	26-30	Above 30
– Organization-wide committee meeting	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Departmental or unit meeting	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Meeting of the entire staff	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Case conferences	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

c. Who are the majority of members usually attending these meetings?

	Managers	Super-visors	Super-iors	Co-workers	Subor-dinates	Counse-lors
— Organization-wide committee meeting	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
— Departmental or unit meeting	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
— Meeting of the entire staff	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
— Case conferences	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

- FOURTH -

The following are a series of statements that represent some of the given or observed behavioral practices by the organization's members, for which they work. I would like to know the possibility that these practices take place in the organization for which you work. Please rate your response on a 7-point scale, which looks like this:

(Low)   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   (High)

For example, select a "1" if you think the action described has a very low possibility of taking place or being observed. Similarly, select a "7" if you think the action has a very high possibility of being observed or taking place. Circle the number which reflects the exact degree of your feeling about the possibility for each of the following practices to take place in your organization.

23. I feel (in this organization) that   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    I am my own boss in most matters.

24. A person here can make hiw own   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    decisions without checking with
    anyone else.

25. How things are done here is left   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    up to the person doing the work.

26. People here are allowed to do   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    almost as they please.

27. Most people here make their   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    own rules on the job.

28. The employees are constantly   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    being checked on for value
    violation.

29. People here feel as though they   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    are constantly being watched to
    see that they obey all the rules.

30. There can be little action taken   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    here until a supervisor approves
    a decision.

31. A person who wants to make his   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    own decisions would be quickly
    discouraged here.

32. Even small matters have to be   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    referred to someone higher up
    for a final answer.

33. I have to ask my boss before I   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
     do almost anything.

34. Any decision I make has to have   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
     my boss's appproval.

     The statements that follow express different feelings you may have experienced concerning various aspects of your job. Please indicate the answer which best describes your feelings by checking (✔) one of the alternatives in front of each given question.

35. In general, how much say or influence do you feel you have on what goes on in your department or unit?

     _____ A very great deal of influence
     _____ A great deal of influence
     _____ Quite a bit of influence
     _____ Some influence
     _____ Little or no influence

36. If you have a suggestion for improving the job or changing the set-up in some way, how easy is it for you to get your ideas across to your immediate superior?

     _____ It is very difficult to get my ideas across
     _____ It is difficult to get my ideas across
     _____ Somewhat difficult
     _____ It is easy to get my ideas across
     _____ It is very easy to get my ideas across

37. How frequently does your immediate superior ask your opinion when a problem comes up that involves your work?

     _____ He always asks my opinion
     _____ Often asks
     _____ Sometimes asks
     _____ Seldom asks
     _____ He never asks my opinion

38. To what extent do you feel that you can influence the decisions of your immediate superior regarding things about which you are concerned on your job?

     _____ I can influence him to a very great extent
     _____ To a considerable extent
     _____ To some extent
     _____ To a very little extent
     _____ I cannot influence him at all

- FIFTH -

Here are some questions about the type of interpersonal relations with others around you with whom you share a common experience.

39. How important is each of the following persons in determining how you do your job?

	Of no Importance	Not very Important	Somewhat Important	Quite Important	Extremely Important
- Manager	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Supervisor/ Foreman	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Immediate Superior	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Your Co-worker	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Your Sub-ordinate	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

40. Suppose you were having some sort of difficulty in your job. To what extent do you feel each of the following would be willing to go out of his way to help you if you asked for it?

	Not at All	To Very Little Extent	To Some Extent	To Considerable Extent	To a Very Great Extent
- Manager	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Supervisor/ Foreman	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Immediate Superior	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Your Co-worker	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Your Sub-ordinate	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

41. We all respect the knowledge and judgment of some people more than others. To what extent do you have this kind of respect for each of the following? (especially in relation to their knowledge of the type of work).

	Not at All	To Very Little Extent	To Some Extent	To Considerable Extent	To a Very Great Extent
– Manager	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Supervisor/ Foreman	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Immediate Superior	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Your Co-worker	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Your Sub-ordinate	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

42. In turn, to what extent do you feel that the following persons have respect for your knowledge and judgment? (in relation to the type of work).

	Not at All	To Very Little Extent	To Some Extent	To Considerable Extent	To a Very Great Extent
– Manager	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Supervisor/ Foreman	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Immediate Superior	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Your Co-worker	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
– Your Sub-ordinate	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

43. To what extent do you feel that the following persons have respect for you as a person?

	Not at All	To Very Little Extent	To Some Extent	To Considerable Extent	To a Very Great Extent
- Manager	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Supervisor/ Foreman	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Immediate Superior	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Your Co-worker	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
- Your Sub-ordinate	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

44. To what extent do you think that your colleagues of the administrative personnel in this organization do not have any kind of qualifications which may enable them to understand the nature of your work and, consequently, this may cause a difficulty in your efforts to perform your work perfectly?

_____To a very high extent
_____To high extent
_____To some extent
_____To little extent
_____To very little extent, or not at all

45. In general, how much do the people you work with in your present job help each other?

_____Not at all
_____To a very small extent
_____To some extent
_____To considerable extent
_____To a very great extent

46. How close do you feel to the people you work with in your present job (department or unit)?

_____ Not close at all
_____ A little close
_____ Somewhat close
_____ Closer than to many people
_____ Very close

47. Do you feel lonely or alienated once you come to work in this department or unit?

    _____ Always I feel it
    _____ Often
    _____ Sometimes
    _____ Never

- SIXTH-

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the particular organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about your organization, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement on a 7-point scale (as it reflects your actual feeling toward your organization).

The Scale:

1 Strongly disagree	2 Moder- ately disagree	3 Slightly disagree	4 Neither disagree nor agree	5 Slightly agree	6 Moder- ately agree	7 Strongly agree

For example:

The number "1" indicates that your strongly disagree with the statement as it represents your feelings toward the organization for which you work. Similarly, the number "7" indicates that you strongly agree with the statement and, in fact, it represents your actual feeling toward the organization. The numbers "2", "3", "4", "5", and "6" indicate different degrees of agreement or disagreement, as shown above.

48. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

49. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

50. I feel very little loyalty to this organization.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

51. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

52. I find that my values and the organization's values are similar.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

53. I am proud to tell others that I am a part of this organization.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

54. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

55. This organization really inspires   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    the very best in me in the way of
    job performance

56. It would take very little change in   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    my present circumstances to cause me
    to leave this organization

57. I am extremely glad that I chose this   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    organization to work for over others
    I was considering at the time I joined

58. There is not very much to be gained by   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    staying with this organization
    indefinitely

59. Deciding to work for this organization   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    was a definite mistake on my part

60. Often I find it difficult to agree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    with this organization's policies
    on important matters relating to
    its employees

61. I really care about the fate of this   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    organization

62. For me this is the best of all   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    possible orgnaizations for which
    to work

There are no more questions. Thank you for your help.

استبيــــــان

عن واقع الموظفين السعوديين في بيئة عملهم

خـــاص

بتحضيـر رسـالة دكتــوراه

فــي

مجال علم النفس الاجتماعي

اعــــداد

دخيل عبد الله صالح الدخيل الله

قسم علم النفس ـ كلية التربية

جامعة الملك سعود

الريــــاض

١٤٠٨هـ ـ ١٩٨٧م

242

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

أخـــي العزيز:

بطيه استبيان علمي يعتبر جزءا من دراسة علمية عن واقع الموظفين السعوديين في بيئة عملهم. الهدف من هذه الدراسة هو الوصول الى معلومات أساسية تتعلق بأوضاع الموظفين في المؤسسات الرسمية: تفاعلهم مع بعضهم بعضا وما ينجم عن ذلك من علاقات وظيفية. وممارسات محكومة بقواعد وأنظمة تلك المؤسسات. ثم مشاعر أو اتجاهات هؤلاء الموظفين تجاه هذه المؤسسات التي يعملون بها.

هذه المعلومات سوف تستخدم لغرض علمي بحت غايته الحصول على درجة الدكتوراة في مجال علم النفس الاجتماعي من جامعة ولاية مشيجان الامريكية.

هذا فتعاونك واهتمامك في الاجابة على محتويات هذا الاستبيان فقرة فقرة سوف يسهم مساهمة عظيمة في انجاح مثل هذه الدراسة و بالتالي تحقيق ما أطمح اليه.

وكلي ايمان بأنك لن تتوانى في ذلك خاصة واني أخالك على درجة من الوعي بأهمية مثل هذا النوع من البحوث وعوائدها العميمة على الفرد والمجتمع في مجالات تحسين بيئة العمل في بلادنا. لما فيه خيرها وخير أهلها.

كما أحب أن أذكرك بأن القائم على هذه الدراسة هو أنا شخصيا ومؤسستك ليست طرفا فيها فهي لم تقترحها ولن تتولى حتى مسؤولية الاشراف عليها. مؤكدا لك في الوقت نفسه ضمان سرية المعلومات التي ستفضي بها لذا فالتحليل النهائي سوف لايحدد نتائج أحد بعينه. وعليه لم يكن مطلوبا منك ذكر اسمك.

أقدر لك صراحتك ودقتك في الاجابة عن كل سؤال يرد في هذا الاستبيان شاكرا لك سرعة تجاوبك وتكرمك ببعض من وقتك.

أخـــوك
دخيل عبد الله صالح الدخيل الله
قسم علم النفس ـ كلية التربية
جامعة الملــك ســعود
الريــاض

ارشـــــادات

أخـــي العـزيـز :

فيما يلي من الصفحات، سوف تجد العديد من الاسئلة، مرفقة بشرح مختصر عن طريقة الاجابة عليها.

- حاول اخي ان تجيب عن كل هذه الاسئلة فلا تتجاوز اي سؤال دون اجابة فتجاوز اي سؤال فيه اراك للنتائج. مؤكدا لك مرة اخرى بأن نجاح هذا البحث يتوقف على دقة اجابتك وصحة المعلومات التي تدونها.

- أغلب بنود هذا الاستبيان الذي يديك، يمكن الاجابة عنها بوضع دائرة (O) أو علامة (✓) في المكان المناسب. القليل من البنود يتطلب اجابة مكتوبة.

- رجاء : اشر الى الاجابة الاكثر تمثيلا لوضعك وفي حالات أخرى الاجابة الاكثر وصفا لمشاعرك.

- اجب على كل بند من بنود هذا الاستبيان من وجهة نظرك أنت وملاحظاتك الشخصية ممثلة في سلوكك وخبرتك الوظيفية.

- لا تجب كما لو كنت تعتقد ان الآخرين سوف يجيبون هكذا. أو من حيث أنهم يرغبون منك أن تجيب اجابة يحذونها.

- فضلا اعط نفسك وقتا كافيا للاجابة عن كل الاسئلة. مؤكدا لك مرة أخرى تقديري سلفا لتعاونك وصراحتك مع سرعة تجاوبك فالباحث مقيد بفترة زمنية محددة.

ـ أولا ـ

هناك عدد من الاسئلة العامة أمل اعطاء الجواب الاكثر دقة وملاءمة :

١ ـ العمر بالتقريب :

٢ ـ الحالة الاجتماعية :

أعزب .... متزوج ....

مطلق .... أرمل ....

٣ ـ كم طفلا لديك :

لاأحد .... واحد .... اثنان .... ثلاث فاكثر

٤ ـ كم عدد سنوات الدراسة التي أتممتها :

٩،٨،٧	٦،٥،٤	٣،٢،١
١٩،١٨،١٧	١٦،١٥،١٤،١٣	١٢،١١،١٠
		٢٠ فاكثر

ما اعلى درجة علمية حصلت عليها مع ذكر تخصصك ؟

٥ ـ القسم التابع له داخل هذه المؤسسة التي تعمل فيها :

٦ ـ مسمى وظيفتك الحالية :

٧ ـ ماطبيعة عملك (ماذا تعمل) :

٨ ـ الى اي مدى ترى ان مهنتك الحالية مقبولة اجتماعيا :

— جدا مقبولة.

— مقبولة.

— نوعا ما مقبولة.

— غير مقبولة.

— غير مقبولة البتة

٩ ـ أيهمك أن تكون مهنتك مقبولة اجتماعيا ؟

— يهمني جدا ان تكون مهنتي مقبولة اجتماعيا
— يهمني ان تكون مهنتي مقبولة اجتماعيا
— يهمني الى حد ما
— سيان عندي ان تكون مقبولة او غير مقبولة اجتماعيا
— لا يهمني ابدا ان تكون مقبولة اجتماعيا

١٠ ـ ما مدى مناسبة تعليمك أو تدريبك الاكاديمي للتخصص النوعي المتعلق بمهنتك ؟

— ليس مناسبا على الاطلاق
— مناسب نوعا ما
— مناسـب
— مناسب جـدا

١١ ـ كيف التحقت بوظيفتك الحالية؟ (ضع علامة ✓ على كل فقرة تنطبق عليك)

— وجهت اليها بعد تخرجي عن طريق ديوان الخدمة المدنية
— تقدمت لها شخصيا وتم قبولي مباشرة وفقا للوائح التوظيف في المؤسسة
— تقدمت لها عن طريق قريب أو صديق
— ترقيت لها وفقا للوائح والانظمة داخل جهاز المؤسسة
— انتقلت اليها من مؤسسة أخرى
— دخلت في مسابقة عامة. فكسبتها

١٢ ـ راتبـك الشهري :

— اقل من ٣٥٠٠ ريال سعودى   — ٣٥٠١ الى ٤٠٠٠ ريال سعودى
— ٤٠٠١ الى ٤٥٠٠ ريال سعودى   — ٤٥٠١ الى ٥٠٠٠ ريال سعودى
— ٥٠٠١ الى ٦٥٠٠ ريـال ,,   — ٥٥٠١ الى ٦٠٠٠ ريـال ,,
— ٦٥٠١ الى ٧٥٠٠ ريـال ,,   — ٦٥٠١ الى ٧٠٠٠ ريـال ,,
— ٧٥٠١ الى ٨٥٠٠ ريـال ,,   — ٧٥٠١ الى ٨٠٠٠ ريـال ,,
— ٨٥٠١ الى ٩٥٠٠ ريـال ,,   — ٨٥٠١ الى ٩٠٠٠ ريـال ,,
— ٩٥٠١ الى ١٠٠٠٠ ريـال ,,   — ٩٥٠١ الى ١٠٠٠٠ ريـال ,,
— اكثر من ١٠٠٠٠ ريـال ,,

١٣ ـ مدة خدمتك التي قضيتها حتى الآن في مؤسستك الحالية :

— اقل من سنة واحدة   — سنة الى سنتين
— ثلاث الى خمس سنوات   — ستة الى ثماني سنوات
— تسع الى اثنتى عشرة سنة   — ثلاث عشرة الى خمس عشرة سنة
— اكثر من خمس عشرة سنة

(منح)

١٤ ــ هل لك أقارب أو أصدقاء يعملون في هذه المؤسسة؟

ـــ   نعم   ـــ   لا

١٥ ــ أين يعمل أصدقاؤك المقربون ؟

ـــ   خارج هذه المؤسسة

ـــ   داخل هذه المؤسسة

ـــ   خارج وداخل هذه المؤسسة

١٦ ــ ما العوامل التي تعتبرها الأكثر تأثيرا في اختيار الموظفين في هذه المؤسسة ؟

(رتب هذه العوامل وفقا لتأثيرها النسبي وذلك بوضع مثلا الأرقام: ١، ٢، ٣، ٤، ٥. الرقم (١) للعامل الأكثر تأثيرا. والرقم (٢) ومايليه للأقل فالأقل تأثيرا). وإذا كنت ترى أن أي من هذه العوامل لاأثر له. فضلا ضع أمامه عبارة (لاأثر له).

ـــ   الكفاءة والقدرة.

ـــ   المكانة أو المنزلة الاجتماعية.

ـــ   علاقة النسب أو العلاقات الشخصية.

ـــ   الانتماء الإقليمي (تفضيل أبناء منطقة معينة على أبناء منطقة أخرى).

ـــ   الولاء أو الارتباط القبلي.

١٧ ــ ما العوامل التي تعتبرها الأكثر تأثيرا في الترقية من مرتبة الى أخرى أو وظيفة الى أخرى في هذه المؤسسة ؟

(استخدم نفس الأسلوب الوارد في السؤال السابق (١٥) لتحديد الأهمية النسبية لهذه العوامل):

ـــ   القدرة والكفاءة.

ـــ   الأقدمية أو الاسبقية في الخدمة.

ـــ   المكانة أو المنزلة الاجتماعية.

ـــ   علاقة النسب أو العلاقات الشخصية.

ـــ   الانتماء الإقليمي.

ـــ   الولاء أو الارتباط القبلي.

(يتبع)

ـ ثانيـــــــا ـ

لكل مهنة مقوماتها و يتوقف رضا الفرد عن وظيفته من عدمه على مدى رضاه عن تلك المقومات :

١٨ ـ بالنسبة لك، كيف تصف رضاك الوظيفي على اساس رضاك عن كل من الامور التالية، والتي تمثل في مجموعها مقومات مهنتك (عملك الحالي):

راض جدا	راض	نوعا ما راض	غير راض	ابدا غير راض	
					ـ الراتب الاساسي.
					ـ البدلات ذات العلاقة بطبيعة التخصص.
					ـ الراتب الاجمالي وتناسبه مع قدراتك المهنية وكفاءتك العملية
					ـ الظروف المحيطه بالعمل (اضاءة ـ تكيف ـ مكتب ..الخ)
					ـ طريقة توقيت العمل (فيما اذا كان نظام وردية أو دوام عادي)
					ـ نظام الاجازات في المؤسسة.
					ـ الترخيص اليومي بمغادرة العمل وسهولة الحصول عليه.
					ـ انظمة ولوائح الجزاءات أو العقوبات حيال اي تقصير أو اهمال في العمل.
					ـ الحوافز المادية :
					● علاوات دورية أو
					● مكافأت تشجيعية
					ـ الحوافز المعنوية كالثناء والتشجيع أو الدعم والمساندة في حالة الانجاز الجيد.
					ـ فرص تحسين الوضع الوظيفي كالدورات التدريبية والبعثات.
					ـ ميزات أخرى :
					● كتوفير السكن بالمجان أو منح بدلا عنه او
					● التامين الصحي لك ولافراد عائلتك.
					ـ علاقاتك المستقبلية بالمؤسسة من حيث توفر الضمانات المالية لك او لاسرتك في حالة عجزك أو مرضك او وفاتك (لا قدر الله).
					ـ مدى توفر المعلومات الضرورية والخاصة بالسياسات التنظيمية والتي تساعدك على الالمام بلوائح العمل وانظمته في هذه المؤسسة.
					ـ طبيعة عملك وما تتطلبه من جهد وحماس أو جد ومثابرة.
					ـ الفائدة المعنوية التي تحصب من اجازك الوظيفي.
					ـ توفر القدر الكافي من المسئولية والذي يمكنك من القيام بعملك على اكمل وجه.
					ـ طبيعة علاقاتك بالناس الذي تعمل معهم في هذه المؤسسة.
					ـ وحو. غير السعوديين للعمل معك.
					ـ قرب مكان عملك من مقر سكنك.

ـ ثالثـاً ـ

في كـل مـهـنة أو وظيـفة. يصبح احيانـا من الضروري للفرد ـ في سبيل تأديته لعمله ـ أن يتصل اتصـالا مباشرا بالآخريـن في مؤسسته التي يعمل بها. عدا الاتصال الرسمـي كالاجتماعات الرسمية واللجان المحددة :

١٩ ـ مـامـدى الـفـرص المـتاحـة لـك لـتتحدث مع الأشخاص التالية مسمياتهم في مؤسستك. (خارج أطار المقابلات الرسمية). فيما يتعلق بشئون العمل؟

مرات قليلة في الشهر	عدة مرات في الاسبوع	مرة أو مرتين في اليوم	عددمرات في اليوم	غالبا باستمرار	
□	□	□	□	□	مـدراء
□	□	□	□	□	مشـرفون/ملاحظون
□	□	□	□	□	رؤساء مباشرون
□	□	□	□	□	زمـلاه
□	□	□	□	□	مرؤوسـون

٢٠ ـ كم مرة في اليوم العادي تتباحث أو تتشاور مع مايلي من الأشخاص (في قسمك) فيما يتعلق بأمور العمل؟

أبـدا	نـادرا	أحيانا	كثيـرا	دائمـا	
□	□	□	□	□	المديـر
□	□	□	□	□	المشرف/الملاحظ
□	□	□	□	□	رئيسك المباشر
□	□	□	□	□	زميـلك
□	□	□	□	□	مرؤوسـك

●ملحوظة: في حالة عدم وجود مسمى الوظيفة في مؤسستك ضع كلمة (لايوجد) امام المسمى المذكور هنا. أو أن أمكن ضع مسمى بديل تراه يحل محله.

٢١ ـ اذا كان أي من اللجان أو الاجتماعات التالية تعقد في مؤسستك. كم مرة تعقد؟
(اذا كان الاجتماع لايوجد او لاتعرف عنه شيئا اشر الى ذلك بكلمة: (لايوجد).

أكثرمن أربع مرات في الشهر	أربع مرات في الشهر	ثلاث مرات في الشهر	مرتان في الشهر	مرة في الشهر أو أقل	
□	□	□	□	□	● الاجتماع العام للجان المؤسسة
□	□	□	□	□	● اجتماع القسم أو الوحـدة
□	□	□	□	□	● اجتماع منسوبي المؤسسة ككـل
□	□	□	□	□	● الاجتماعات الطارئة

(يتبع)

ـ ٨ ـ

٢٢ ـ إذا كانت هذه الاجتماعات تعقد باستمرار في مؤسستك :

أ ـ ما مدى إتاحة الفرصة لك لحضور هذه الاجتماعات ؟

	دائماً	كثيراً	أحياناً	نادراً	أبداً
● الاجتماع العام للجان المؤسسة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
● اجتماع القسم أو الوحدة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
● اجتماع منسوبي المؤسسة ككل	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
● الاجتماعات الطارئة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

ب ـ كم العدد الفعلي للأعضاء الذين يحضرون أي نوع من الاجتماعات التي تحضرها ؟

	أقل من خمسة	٥ ـ ١٥	١٦ ـ ٢٥	٢٦ ـ ٣٠	أكثر من ثلاثين
● الاجتماع العام للجان المؤسسة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
● اجتماع القسم أو الوحدة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
● اجتماع منسوبي المؤسسة ككل	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
● الاجتماعات الطارئة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

ج ـ من هم غالبية الأعضاء الذين يحضرون عادة هذه الاجتماعات ؟

	مدراء إدارات	مشرفون أو ملاحظون	رؤساء مباشرون	زملاء	مرؤوسون	مستشارون
● الاجتماع العام للجان المؤسسة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
● اجتماع القسم أو الوحدة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
● اجتماع منسوبي المؤسسة ككل	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
● الاجتماعات الطارئة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

ـ رابعـــــاً ـ

فيما يلي مجموعة من العبارات تمثل في نظرنا بعض الممارسات لأنماط سلوكية معينة والتي يمكن للأفراد الإتيان بها أو ملاحظتها في المؤسسات التي يعملون بها. أود من خلال إجابتك على هذه العبارات معرفة شعورك الشخصي بمدى إمكانية حدوث مثل هذه الممارسات في مؤسستك الحالية والتي تعمل بها.

(يتبع)

250

تحديد ذلك من قبلك سوف يكون باستخدام مقياس متدرج من سبع نقاط:

(ضئيل) ١ ٢ ٣ ٤ ٥ ٦ ٧ (كبير).

فمثلا: الرقم (١) يشير الى أن شعورك بحدوث ذلك أو ملاحظته ضئيل جدا. بينما الرقم (٧) يشير الى أن شعورك بحدوث ذلك أو ملاحظته كبير جدا.

المطلوب: هو وضع دائرة حول الرقم على المقياس والذي تشعر بأنه يمثل مقدار شعورك تماما بامكانية حدوث ذلك أو ملاحظته من عدمه في مؤسستك.

٢٣ ــ أشعر ــ في هذه المؤسسة ــ بأنني رئيس لنفسي (المشرف على نفسي) في اغلب الامور.
٧ ٦ ٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١

٢٤ ــ يمكن للشخص ــ هنا ــ أن يتخذ قراراته المتعلقة بعمله دون الرجوع الى شخص آخر.
٧ ٦ ٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١

٢٥ ــ كيفية عمل الاشياء المتعلقة بالعمل ــ في هذه المؤسسة ــ متروكة للشخص الذي يقوم باداء العمل.
٧ ٦ ٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١

٢٦ ــ الأفراد في هذه المؤسسة مسموح لهم غالبا بأن يعملوا على الطريقة التي تسرهم.
٧ ٦ ٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١

٢٧ ــ غالبية الأفراد ــ هنا ــ يتخذون قواعد للعمل من صنع انفسهم.
٧ ٦ ٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١

٢٨ ــ يراجع الموظفون باستمرار لمخالفتهم قواعد أو ضوابط العمل.
٧ ٦ ٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١

٢٩ ــ الأفراد في هذه المؤسسة يشعرون وكأنهم مراقبين باستمرار للتأكد من مدى طاعتهم لكل قواعد العمل.
٧ ٦ ٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١

٣٠ ــ يمكن أتخاذ اجراء بسيط (حيال اي مشكلة تعترض الشخص). ريثما يصادق المشرف على قرار خاص بها.
٧ ٦ ٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١

٣١ ــ الشخص ــ هنا ــ الذي يحاول أن يتخذ قراراته بنفسه فيما يتعلق بأمور عمله سوف يثبط بسرعة.
٧ ٦ ٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١

٣٢ ــ حتى الأمور أو المسائل الصغيرة يجب أن يرجع فيها الى من هو أعلى للحصول على الاجابة النهائية.
٧ ٦ ٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١

(يتبع)

ــ ١٠ ــ

٣٣ ـ غالبا علي أن أسأل رئيسي قبل   ١   ٢   ٣   ٤   ٥   ٦   ٧
أن أعمل أي شيء

٣٤ ـ وأي قرار أتخذه يجب أن يحظى   ١   ٢   ٣   ٤   ٥   ٦   ٧
بموافقة رئيسي

والعبارات التالية تعبر عن مشاعر مختلفة قد يحملها المرء تجاه مظاهر أخرى متنوعة ذات ارتباط بطبيعة عمله. فضلا حدد
الاجابة الاكثر تمثيلا لمشاعرك وذلك بوضع علامة (✓) أمام واحد فقط من الخيارات المدرجة الممنوحة لك والتي تلي كل
سؤال.

٣٥ ـ بصورة عامة، ما مقدار التأثير (قولا أو عملا) على مايجرى في قسمك أو وحدتك، والذي تشعر بأنك تملكه ؟

—— تأثير عظيم جدا.

—— تأثير عظيم.

—— تأثير معقول.

—— بعض التأثير.

—— تأثير قليل أو لا تأثير على الاطلاق.

٣٦ ـ اذا كان لديك اقتراح فيما يتعلق بتحسين العمل أو تغيير أسلوبه بترتيبه بطريقة ما. مامدى سهولة
تمرير افكارك (اقتراحاتك/ماتقترحه) هند الى رئيسك المباشر؟

—— صعب جدا أن أمرر افكاري (اقتراحاتي/ماأقترحه)

—— صعب أن أمرر افكاري

—— نوعا ما صعب

—— سهل على أن أمرر افكاري (اقتراحاتي/ماأقترحه)

—— سهل جدا أن أمرر افكاري (اقتراحاتي/ماأقترحه)

٣٧ ـ مامدى سؤال رئيسك المباشر لك عن رأيك عندما تبرز مشكلة ذات ارتباط بعملك؟

—— دائما ما يطلب رأيي

—— كثيرا ما يطلب رأيي

—— أحيانا يطلب رأيي

—— نادرا ما يسأل عن رأيي

—— لا يسأل عن رأيي أبدا

٣٨ ـ الى أي مدى تشعر بأن لك تأثيرا على قرارات رئيسك المباشر فيما يتعلق بالاشياء التي تهمك في عملك أو
مهنتك (ذات العلاقة بعملك أو مهنتك) ؟

—— لي تأثير عليه الى مدى كبير جدا

—— لي تأثير عليه الى مدى معقول

—— لي تأثير عليه الى حد ما

—— لي تأثير عليه الى مدى قليل جدا

—— ليس لي عليه أي تأثير على الاطلاق

ـ خامســـــا ـ

والآن لنا معك بعض الاسئلة عن نمط علاقاتك مع الآخرين حولك والذين تشاركبم الحياة والخبرة في محيط العمل

٣٩ ـ ما أهمية الأشخاص التالية مسميات وظائفهم في تحديد كيفية أدائك لعملك ؟

مهمون الى درجة كبيرة جدا	مهمون الى درجة كبيرة	مهمون نوعا ما	ليسوا مهمين جدا	لا أهمية لهم البتة
					المدير
					المشرف/الملاحظ
					رئيسك المباشر
					زميلك
					مرؤوسك

٤٠ ـ افترض ان لديك نوعا من الصعوبة في عملك. الى أي مدى تشعر بأن أي من الأشخاص التالية مسمياتهم سوف يكونون على أتم الاستعداد في المبادرة الى مساعدتك عندما تطلب ذلك ؟

الى مدى كبير جدا	الى الحد معقول	الى الحد ما	قليل جدا	ليس على الاطلاق
					المدير
					المشرف/الملاحظ
					رئيسك المباشر
					زميلك
					مرؤوسك

٤١ ـ كل منا يحترم معرفة واحكام بعض الناس ممن هم حوله أكثر من احترامه للبعض الآخر. الى أي مدى لديك هذا النوع من الاحترام لكل من الأفراد التالية مسمياتهم. (خاصة مايتعلق بمعرفتهم بطبيعة العمل)؟

الى مدى كبير جدا	الى الحد معقول	الى الحد ما	قليل جدا	ليس على الاطلاق
					المدير
					المشرف/الملاحظ
					رئيسك المباشر
					زميلك
					مرؤوسك

٤٢ ـ بالمقابل، الى أي مدى أنت تشعر بأن الأشخاص الآتية مسمياتهم يكنون احتراما لاحكامك ومعرفتك (خاصة مايتعلق بطبيعة العمل)؟

الى مدى كبير جدا	الى الحد معقول	الى الحد ما	قليل جدا	ليس على الاطلاق
					المدير
					المشرف/الملاحظ
					رئيسك المباشر
					زميلك
					مرؤوسك

253

٤٣ ـ الى أي مدى أنت تشعر بأن الأشخاص الآتية مسمياتهم يكنون احتراما لك كشخص ؟

الى مدى كبير جدا	الى حد معقول	الى حد ما	قليل جدا	ليس على الاطلاق
□	□	□	□	□	المدير
□	□	□	□	□	المشرف الملاحظ
□	□	□	□	□	رئيسك المباشر
□	□	□	□	□	زميلك
□	□	□	□	□	مرؤوسك

٤٤ ـ الى اي مدى انت ترى بأن زملاءك من الادار يين في هذه المؤسسة لايملكون اي نوع من الكفاءة التي تمكنهم من فهم طبيعة عملك مما قد يؤدي الى عرقلة جهودك في سبيل تأديتك لعملك على اكمل وجه؟

— الى حد كبير جدا أرى ذلك.
— الى حد كبير.
— الى حد ما.
— الى حد قليل.
— الى حد قليل جدا او لا أرى ذلك ابدا.

٤٥ ـ بصورة عامة، ماهقدار مساعدة الأفراد الذين تعمل معهم في مهنتك الحالية لبعضهم بعضا؟

— ليس اطلاقا.
— الى مدى قليل جدا.
— الى حد ما.
— الى حد معقول.
— الى حد كبير جدا.

٤٦ ـ كيف تشعر بقربك من الأفراد الذين تعمل معهم في مهنتك الحالية. (في القسم او الوحدة)؟

— لست قريبا على الاطلاق.
— قربي منهم قليل.
— نوعا ما قريب.
— أقرب اليهم من كثير من الناس.
— قريب جدا.

٤٧ ـ هل يعتريك شعور بالوحدة او الاغتراب بمجرد حضورك للعمل في هذا القسم او الوحدة؟

— دائما مايساورني شعور بالوحدة او الاغتراب.
— كثيرا ما أشعر بذلك.
— من حين لآخر أشعر بها.
— ما شعرت بذلك ابدا.

ـ حاول ترتيب الناس التالية اسمانهم طبقا لكيفية شعورك بالقرب منهم:

١ • المجموعة التي تشعر بأنها الاقرب.
٢ • المجموعة التي تشعر بأنها التالية في القرب.
٣ • المجموعة التي تشعر بأنها الاقل قربا.

— جيرانك.
— اقرباؤك عدا عائلتك المباشرة.
— الناس الذين تعمل معهم في هذه المؤسسة.

(يتبع)

ـ ١٢ ـ

ـــــادسا ـ

هذه السلسلة من العبارات التالية تمثل مشاعر محتملة قد يحملها الافراد عن المؤسسات التي يعملون بها. فيما يتعلق بمشاعرك أنت نحو المؤسسة التي تعمل بها الآن. اريد منك أن تشير الى موافقتك من عدمها مع كل عبارة مما يلي (بما تراه يعبر عن حقيقة شعورك نحو مؤسستك) وذلك عن طريق وضع الرقم المناسب من الارقام المدرجة في المقياس التالي امام كل عبارة.

المقياس :

٧	٦	٥	٤	٣	٢	١
أوافق بشدة	أوافق الى حد ما	موافق قليلا	لا مغارض ولاموافق	أعارض قليلا	أعارض الى حد ما	أعارض بشدة

مثـلا :

الرقم (١) من المقياس يشير الى أنك غير موافق البتة مع العبارة كممثلة لشعورك نحو مؤسستك التي تعمل بها. بينما الرقم (٧) يشير الى أنك موافق جدا مع العبارة وفعلا تمثل حقيقة شعورك نحو مؤسستك. في حين أن الارقام (٢، ٣، ٤، ٥، ٦) تشير الى درجات متباينة في الموافقة من عدمها كما هو موضح أعلاه.

٤٨ ـ أنا على استعداد أن أبذل
جهدا كبيرا أكثر مما هو
متوقع عامة في سبيل مساعدة
هذه المؤسسة لتكون ناجحة   ١   ٢   ٣   ٤   ٥   ٦   ٧

٤٩ ـ أنني اتحدث لأصدقائي عـن
مؤسستي هذه. كمؤسسة عظيمة
أن أعمل لها   ١   ٢   ٣   ٤   ٥   ٦   ٧

٥٠ ـ أشعر بولاء ضعيف جدا
تجاه هذه المؤسسة   ١   ٢   ٣   ٤   ٥   ٦   ٧

٥١ ـ يمكن لي ـ غالبا ـ أن أقبل
أي نوع من أنواع التكليف
المهني في سبيل أن أبقى في
عملي لهذه المؤسسة   ١   ٢   ٣   ٤   ٥   ٦   ٧

(يتبع)

٥٢ ــ لقد وجدت أن قيمي وقيم هذه
المؤسسة التي أعمل بها
متشابهة

٧   ٦   ٥   ٤   ٣   ٢   ١

٥٣ ــ انه لمن دواعي فخري واعتزازي
أن أخبر الآخرين بأنني جزء
لا يتجزأ من هذه المؤسسة

٧   ٦   ٥   ٤   ٣   ٢   ١

٥٤ ــ لامانع لدى في أن أعمل في
مؤسسة أخرى غير هذه ــ ما
دام نوع العمل في هذه
وتلك ــ متشابها

٧   ٦   ٥   ٤   ٣   ٢   ١

٥٥ ــ حقيقة، مؤسستي هذه التي
أعمل فيها تشحذ همتي في
ابراز أحسن ما عندي فيما
يتعلق في طريقة الأداء
الوظيفي أو المهني

٧   ٦   ٥   ٤   ٣   ٢   ١

٥٦ ــ أي تغيير بسيط في
ظروفي الحالية يجعلني على
استعداد لأن أترك هذه المؤسسة

٧   ٦   ٥   ٤   ٣   ٢   ١

٥٧ ــ انني سعيد جدا بأن اخترت
هذه المؤسسة للعمل بها من
بين مؤسسات أخرى كنت قد
أخذتها في الاعتبار وقت
الالتحاق بالعمل

٧   ٦   ٥   ٤   ٣   ٢   ١

٥٨ ــ بلا شك ليس هناك الشيء
الكثير الذي يمكنني كسبه
من جراه بقائي في هذه المؤسسة

٧   ٦   ٥   ٤   ٣   ٢   ١

٥٩ ــ قراري للعمل في هذه المؤسسة
كان خطأ مؤكدأ من جانبي

٧   ٦   ٥   ٤   ٣   ٢   ١

(يتبع)

٦٠ ــ عادة ما أجد أنه من الصعوبة
بمكان أن اتفق مع سياسات
هذه المؤسسة حول مسائل
مهمة تتعلق بموظفيها

٧   ٦   ٥   ٤   ٣   ٢   ١

٦١ ــ في الواقع إن مصير
هذه المؤسسة يهمني

٧   ٦   ٥   ٤   ٣   ٢   ١

٦٢ ــ في نظري. أن هذه المؤسسة
هي الأفضل من بين مؤسسات أخرى
متوفرة والتي يمكن أن أعمل فيها

٧   ٦   ٥   ٤   ٣   ٢   ١

هذه هي كل الاسئلة والتي بودنا ان تجيب عليها
وقد فعلت، فشكراً لك
أخيراً عل جميل صنعك

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