

**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL**

**The perceived impact of management styles on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment: A case study of Hulamin, Pietermaritzburg**

**By**

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# Declaration

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# Abstract

This study, which drew on the view that the management style that a manager uses to direct their employees plays a vital role in ensuring employee satisfaction with their jobs and decisions to commit or not to their organisations, investigated the impact of management styles on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The study used a quantitative research approach in which three variables were tested using job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The study used a questionnaire that had eight Likert-scaled sections numbered from B to I with each section consisting of items that address a specific measurement or construct to collect data from 242 employees at Hulamin, Pietermaritzburg. The response rate was 97 percent. The reliability of these constructs was analysed using Chronbach's Alpha statistic. The study findings revealed that not all management styles impact job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The autocratic management style had a significant negative impact on organisational commitment without job satisfaction as a moderating factor and with job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The democratic management style had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment in the absence of job satisfaction as a moderating factor and with job satisfaction as a moderating factor. It was discovered that the laissez-faire management style can be subdivided into two categories, which comprise of negative attitudes (-) and positive attitudes (+). The laissez-faire management style (-) had no significant impact on organisational commitment in the absence of job satisfaction as a moderating factor and still had no significant impact on organisational commitment with job satisfaction as a moderating factor. Job satisfaction had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment, but its presence in the regression model did not significantly affect the impact of both the laissez-faire(-) and laissez-faire(+) aspects of the laissez-faire management style on organisational commitment. The paternalistic style of management was found to have a significant positive impact on organisational commitment in the absence of job satisfaction as a moderating factor and still had no significant impact on organisational commitment with job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The persuasive management style had a significant negative impact on organisational commitment without the moderating effects of job satisfaction. However, in the presence of job satisfaction, the persuasive management style had no significant impact

on organisational commitment. As a result, job satisfaction had a significant moderating effect on the impact of the persuasive management style on organisational commitment. The study findings have implications for practice in organisations, organisational policy formulation and research focusing on the determinants for employee commitment in organisations.

Key words: job satisfaction, management, management styles, management theories, organisational commitment.

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# Dedication

This work is dedicated to my daughter Hlelolenkosi Nxumalo and my late brother Nkosinathi Nxumalo; a dear brother, leader, friend to many, and an inspiration and guiding light for his family. You left us too soon and your positive energy, loving heart and influence remains. I will always love you. Zwide, Mkhathswa, Sothondose!

# Abbreviations

<b>Alcan</b>	Aluminium Limited of Canada
<b>CAE</b>	Corporate Affairs Executive
<b>CEO</b>	Chief Executive Officer
<b>CFA</b>	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
<b>CFO</b>	Chief Financial Officer
<b>Covid19</b>	Corona Virus Disease
<b>JSE</b>	Johannesburg Stock Exchange
<b>GMM</b>	General Marketing Manager
<b>HSSREC</b>	Human Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
<b>HRE</b>	Human Resource Executive
<b>HR</b>	Human Resources
<b>HRT</b>	Human Relations Theory
<b>IQS</b>	Integrated Quality System
<b>LPC</b>	List Preferred Co-worker
<b>NRF</b>	National Research Foundation
<b>QMS</b>	Quality Management System
<b>SA</b>	South Africa
<b>SPSS</b>	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
<b>SMIG</b>	School of Management, IT and Governance
<b>UK</b>	United Kingdom
<b>UKZN</b>	University Of KwaZulu Natal
<b>US</b>	United States of America
<b>WWII</b>	World War II

# CHAPTER 1

## Overview of the study

### 1.1 Introduction

Relations in any business corporation are sensibly coordinated and directed, with the manager being the person responsible for controlling these interactions. Businesses have a set of objectives and goals, which they seek to achieve at a certain period in time. However, businesses can only meet their objectives through the use of strategies designed to manage both human and material resources. These strategies are referred to as management styles and are defined by Watson (2003) as different styles that are used by the managers to encourage and motivate their employees to strive toward the achievement of organisational goals. Khandwalla (1995) also defines management styles as a distinct way in which an organisation makes decisions, discharges various functions of goal setting, implementation, strategy formulation, corporate image building, and deals with key stakeholders and other rudimentary management activities. In addition, Field and Dubey (2001) cited in Nwadukwe and Court (2012) note that a management style refers to the way in which a manager manages their employees and direct them to do their tasks in order to achieve the goals of their organisation. It also includes how the manager uses various resources available to any organisation into output through the functions of management. Therefore, a successful management style is the one that allows the manager to continually and progressively lead as well as direct their employees

to a predetermined destination agreed upon by the whole team (Nwadukwe and Court, 2012). This, as noted by Nwadukwe and Court (2012), makes management style one of the critical antecedents to employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment such that the style a manager uses ultimately impacts on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

When discussing the management styles, some authors use the term management and leadership interchangeably (Matzler and Renzl, 2006). The nature of existing discussions on management styles is instructive here in order to establish the co-relationship between leadership and management. The question that always arise is on whether a manager must be a great leader or whether a leader must have good management skills. Before deliberating on the correlation between both concepts, it is worthwhile to start with an outline of detailed definitions of each concept. Thus, management refers to a set of processes that keep an organisation functioning with the processes of management involving planning, budgeting, staffing, clarifying jobs, measuring performance, and problem-solving. At the same time, leadership is about aligning people to the vision through the use of buy-in and communication, motivation and inspiration (Matzler and Renzl, 2006). Therefore, it is clear from the above definitions that both management and leadership are important in an organisation. A manager needs to possess some leadership skills while a leader needs management skills. In addition, literature has shown that trust in management has a strong influence on employee job satisfaction which directly correlates to an employee's organisational commitment (Matzler and Renzl, 2006).

The aim of this study was to investigate the impact of management style(s) on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The role of job satisfaction, as a mediating variable in the relationship between management styles and organisational commitment, was also investigated. Five management styles namely; autocratic management style, democratic management style, laissez-faire management style, paternalistic and persuasive management style, are discussed thoroughly in Chapter 2. This chapter begins with an introduction and a brief background of the study, followed by the problem statement, research objectives and research questions. The chapter also explains the significance and purpose of the study, and the methodology used to collect data for

this study. It ends with an explanation of the hypothetical framework, and definitions of concepts used in the study.

## **1.2 Background**

Different managers use different management styles to manage business organisations. These management styles have also changed over the years, such that the emergence of styles of management compelled researchers to identify and describe a diversity of formal styles of management since the 1950s (Uche and Timinepere, 2012). Authors such as Likert (1967) grouped four approaches of management that create a continuum of participative, paternalistic, exploitative and autocratic, and consultative management style, while Burns and Stalker (1961) identified organic and mechanistic styles of management. Furthermore, Mintzberg (1973) considered entrepreneurial and strategic planning as forms of management styles that can be adopted by managers in organisational entities. Finally, Mosadeghrad and Ferdosi (2013) argued that employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment depends on the management style of managers.

Currently, the issue of employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment is of great concern to both employees and organisations (Zahiri, Bahmaee and Malhani, 2016). The reality is that an organisation can only succeed if it has committed and dedicated employees who are prepared to work tirelessly in order to achieve the objectives and goals of the organisation. The purpose of this research study was to investigate the impact of management styles on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. According to Zahiri *et al.* (2016), creating proper grounds in the form of careful planning, clear objectives and organisation, factoring in futurism, a proper and scientific selection of personnel and being open to re-consideration in the approaches of management, can help to create a healthy and growing competition. In addition, the appreciation of humans as a strategic resource, creation of appropriate working groups and organisational culture through the provision of high values and beliefs, as well as minimising external controls and pushing people and corporate policies toward self-control and internal commitment

can significantly reduce dissatisfaction with the organisation and lead to the subordinate's commitment (Zahiri *et al.*, 2016).

### **1.3 Problem statement**

The character, behaviour and attitude of line managers constitute one of the reasons that force employees to leave their jobs (Ganguly and Chaudhuri, 2019). Managers who possess dreadful traits can, as further argued by Ganguly and Chaudhuri (2019), demotivate employees and as such, employees may resort to leaving the organisation. Previous research has indicated that organisations that encourage their employees to work eagerly are the most successful (Zahiri *et al.*, 2016). In addition, employees who are proud of working in the organisation are the most committed and do their best to achieve the goal of that organisation (Zahiri *et al.*, 2016). A study conducted by Adam (2019) reveals that 57% of employees leave their jobs because of their managers. An increase in employee turnover leads to an unavoidable damage in productivity while replacing the experienced employees can be very expensive. The negative impact of employee turnover is also evident in the reality that, some customers prefer to work with the employees that they already know and trust and may be unhappy to deal with new employees that they do not know. Hence, as noted by Alkhawaja (2017), management styles have a direct impact on employees' turnover, which leads to this study's aim at finding the link between the above-mentioned independent variables (management styles), mediating variable (employee job satisfaction) and dependent variables (organisational commitment).

Figure 1.1 shows a disappointing percentage of employees who at some point in their lives left (43 percent + 14 percent) their organisations because of their managers. Managers who cannot retain their employees are likely to lose valuable and skilled employees and this affects any company's productivity in a negative way.

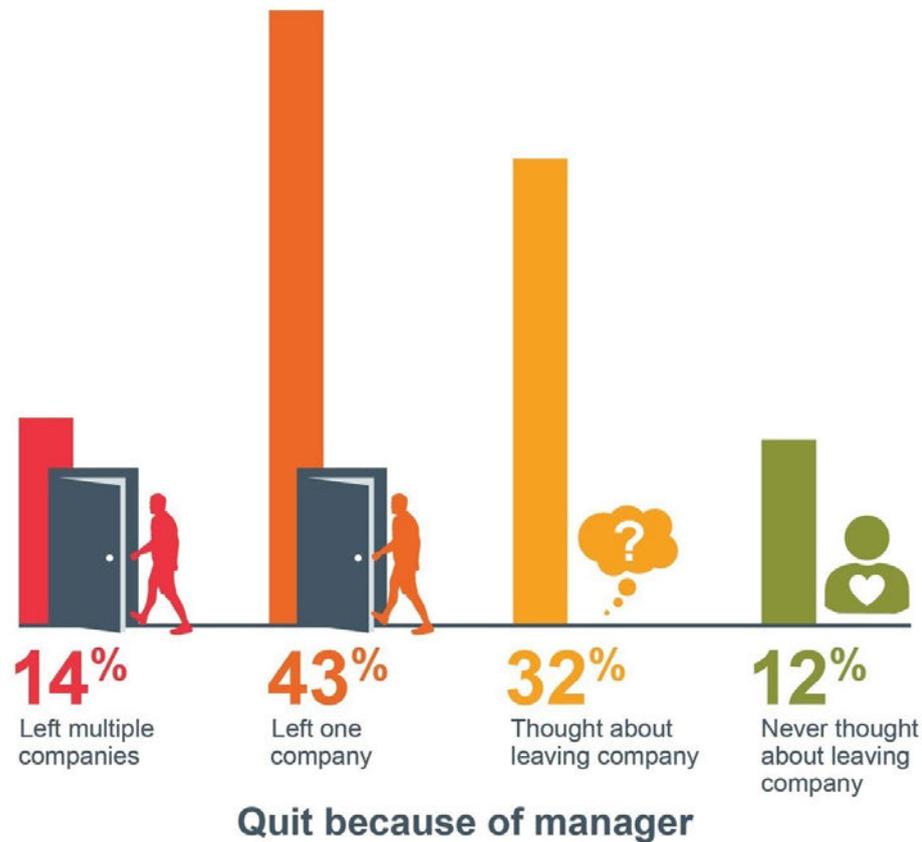


FIGURE 1.1: Staff turnover due to manager's management style.  
Source: Development Dimensions International (2019)

## 1.4 Significance of the study

There is shortage of literature that focuses on the impact of management styles on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment in South Africa (SA). This study contributes towards a better understanding of the different management styles in relation to employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment from the South African perspective. Previous studies in Europe and the United States of America (USA) concur that job performance is positively impacted by employee job satisfaction (Eby, Freeman, Rush and Lance, 1999). Job satisfaction produces a pleasing feeling that results in the constitution of a positive work attitude. A satisfied employee is more likely to be innovative, creative, flexible, and loyal to the organisation (Smith and Shields, 2013). Therefore, the findings of this study will assist organisations to maximise employee job

satisfaction and decrease employee turnover. It is hoped that after going through the findings of this study, managers will also act strategically and critically in their attempts to choose the best management styles for their organisations and use them accordingly.

The researcher, well aware of the complexity of the South African workforce (demographics), holds the view that it would be worthwhile to conduct research seeking to establish how the impact of current management styles on the South African workforce's job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The findings of this research, based on the case study of Hulamin, will assist managers with selecting the best management style for their organisations and in that way increase employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

It is presumed that the study will contribute to contemporary research around the subject of the determinants for employee commitment to their organisations. This is critical, as it will assist organisations in their quest for employee retention, improved organisational performance and the realization of a competitive advantage. Furthermore, this study is poised to act as a guide for policy re-adjustments in organisations in their efforts to ensure employee job satisfaction and therefore organisational commitment.

## **1.5 Research objectives**

The rationale of this study is that managers need to adopt an appropriate management style to create a good work relationship with their employees and ensure that they are satisfied with their jobs and are committed to the organisation, while also working towards achieving the objectives and goals of the organisation. Research, as discussed above, has proved that employees who have a good work relationship with their managers are likely to be satisfied with their jobs and, as a result, commit to the organisation. The objectives of this study are:

1. To establish the impact of an autocratic management style on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

2. To investigate if the democratic management style influence organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.
3. To examine if the laissez-faire management style impacts on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.
4. To investigate if the paternalistic management style influence organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.
5. To examine the impact of the persuasive management style on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment with or without jobs satisfaction as a moderating factor.

## **1.6 Research questions**

In order to achieve the objectives of this study, the researcher attempted to discuss and address the following questions;

1. Does the autocratic management style have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor?
2. What impact does the democratic management style have on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor?
3. Does the laissez-faire management style impact organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor?
4. Does the paternalistic management style influence organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor?
5. What impact does the persuasive management style have on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor?

## **1.7 Methodology**

This study employed a quantitative method of research. The research method was used to determine the relationships between management styles (independent variables) and job satisfaction and organisational commitment (dependent or outcome variables) within the Hulamini, Pietermaritzburg workforce population who are not in management positions. For data collection, the researcher used stratified random sampling to determine the study sample. The workforce population at Hulamini comprised of different departments, hence the need to carry out stratified random sampling. The responses obtained from questionnaires were coded and then analysed using IBM-SPSS for Windows, Version 25. The questionnaire items included the eight-point Likert scale. A Likert scale is a form of rating scale used to measure attitudes or opinions. Unfortunately, a list of employee names, email addresses, telephone numbers, and other relevant contact details of respondents could not be obtained due to the confidential nature of the information. The research methodology is further discussed in Chapter 6.

## **1.8 Study framework**

This study was aimed at investigating the relationship between three variables; management styles, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The role of job satisfaction, as a mediating variable in the relationship between management styles and organisational commitment, is also investigated. The five management styles namely, autocratic management style, democratic management style, laissez-faire management style, paternalistic and persuasive management style, are thoroughly discussed and linked to job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Figure 1.2 shows a possible relationship between three variables: management styles, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment is also indicated.

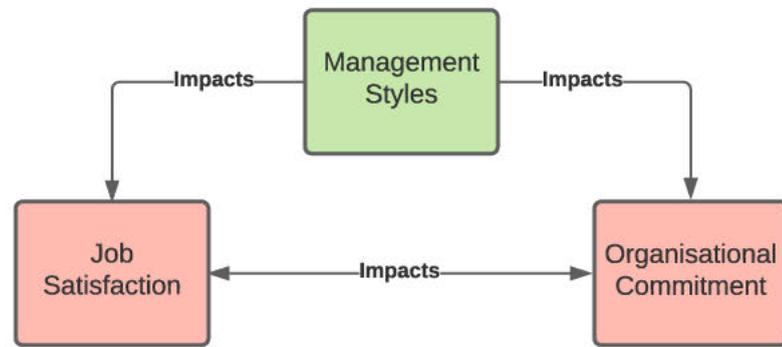


FIGURE 1.2: Study framework  
Source: Author's compilation

## 1.9 Hypothetical framework

Mourougan and Sethuraman (2017) defines a research hypothesis as a prediction made by researchers with regards to how a study or experiment will turn out. As the ultimate goal of any inquiry, this assumption must be at the centre of any valid experimental design (Mourougan and Sethuraman, 2017). The scientists then use a number of deductive techniques to arrive at a tested, falsifiable, and realistic hypothesis. The formation of a hypothesis is the first step in the scientific method, which can then be critically assessed through observations and experiments. The scientist's efforts are intended to refute rather than confirm the initial hypothesis (Mourougan and Sethuraman, 2017).

It should be noted that hypotheses are divided into two categories for statistical significance assessment. The categories are the null hypothesis and alternate hypothesis. The null hypothesis states that there is no true link between the variables. Finally, an alternate hypothesis constitutes a remark that implies a possible conclusion that the researcher predicts (Mourougan and Sethuraman, 2017).

Figure 1.3 shows a possible relationship between the five management styles, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The study's hypothesis statements are presented below.

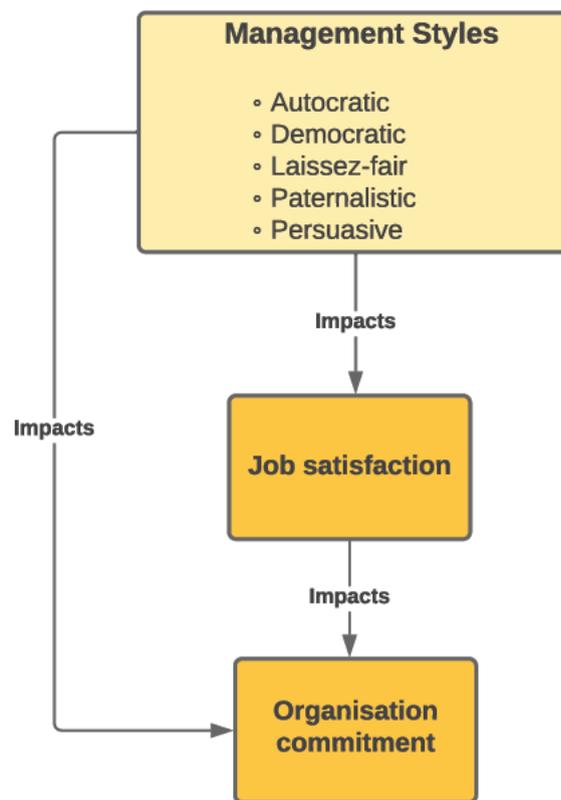


FIGURE 1.3: Hypothetical framework  
Source: Author's compilation

### 1.9.1 Hypothesis One

H<sub>0</sub> The autocratic management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>1</sub> The autocratic management style has an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

### 1.9.2 Hypothesis Two

H<sub>0</sub> The democratic management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>1</sub> The democratic management style has an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

### **1.9.3 Hypothesis Three**

H<sub>0</sub> The laissez-faire management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>1</sub> The laissez-faire management style has an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

### **1.9.4 Hypothesis Four**

H<sub>0</sub> The paternalistic management style does not have an influence on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>1</sub> The paternalistic management style has an influence on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

### **1.9.5 Hypothesis Five**

H<sub>0</sub> The persuasive management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>1</sub> The persuasive management style has an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

## **1.10 Limitations of the study**

Theofanidis and Fountouki (2018) describe study limitations as possible flaws that are usually outside the control of the researcher and are strongly connected to the research

design, funding constraints, statistical model constraints, or other factors. According to Theofanidis and Fountouki (2018), each study has its own set of limitations. These limitations can result from methodology or research design constraints. Nonetheless, this may have an impact on the remainder of the research. According to Theofanidis and Fountouki (2018), most researchers avoid discussing their study limitations for fear of lowering the perceived value of their research study. This study is subject to limitations in terms of the size of data to be collected (number of employees) and unit of analysis (only one company). Therefore, the researcher cannot generalise their findings to other industries, but a similar study done with larger number of employees from different companies will provide better findings regarding the influence of manager management style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

In addition, future studies can analyse the whole KwaZulu Natal (KZN) province, all companies in the same line of business as Hulamin, or South Africa as a whole. Future studies can also focus on other industries other than those in the aluminum sector. People in management positions may also be interviewed in order to get more clarity on why managers choose a particular style of management and what their thoughts would be on how a particular management style affects employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Managers may also share their experiences regarding the style they would be using and how it would have impacted on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

## **1.11 Ethical considerations**

Childress and Beauchamp (1994) underscore the importance of considering ethical issues before any attempts at conducting a research study. Ethics is defined, in Childress and Beauchamp (1994), as a broad term of understanding and studying the moral life. It is concerned with views about the right and proper behaviour and as (Stevens, 2010) notes, ethics are an essential principles of decent human behaviour. Polit and Beck (2004) state further that ethics encompass the quality of research techniques that include their adherence to professional, legal, and social obligations to study participants. Hence,

this study's ethical approval was obtained from the University of KwaZulu-Natal Ethics Committee and a gate keeper's letter was obtained from Hulamin (the study site). The researcher also ensured that human dignity is upheld by seeking informed consent from respondents and allowing them to make the decision to participate or not based on the provision of adequate knowledge about the study. Privacy and confidentiality were upheld by reminding participants of their right to keep certain information from the public and agreeing to limit access to private information. Finally, the respondents remained anonymous, no names except pseudonyms were used in this study and no contact details were shared with the researcher.

### **1.11.1 Protection from harm**

It is important to mention that this study did not result in any form of mental or physical harm. All participants were encouraged to participate willingly with the environment defined by no risk of exposure to mental or physical harm. The researcher also observed all the rules of the organisation and its employee's welfare. Before conducting the study, the researcher assured the participants that anonymity would be ensured, and the final thesis would not contain any of participant's names or contact details. According to Price, Jansen and Weick (2020), the provision of assurances on how research participants' personal information will be protected is one of the most critical aspects of protecting study participants. This includes safeguarding participants' privacy, keeping information secure, and/or allowing them to remain anonymous. Although the phrases privacy, secrecy, and anonymity are sometimes used interchangeably, they are separate concepts that may require various types of participant protections. This is an academic research study, as a result, participants were informed that there were no payments for taking part in the study and there were no penalties for declining or withdrawing from participating in this study. All the contributors were assured that the study was approved by the office of the University of KwaZulu-Natal Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee and the ethical clearance number was obtained. All participants were also requested to sign the informed consent form.

### **1.11.2 Voluntary and informed participation**

All the participants were made aware that they had the right to decline or withdraw from the study whenever they felt the need to do so. As a result, participation in this study was voluntary. Scholars such as (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014) stress the importance of explaining the rights of the participants before the participants engage in the research study. As a result, the researcher explained the objectives of and research problem of the study in order ensure that the participants understood the rationale of the study. Participants were also requested to sign the letter of consent before receiving the questionnaires to the study. Smith and Shields (2013) cautioned researchers about proceeding with research without the participants voluntary consent. Finally, the researcher was available to provide clarity where needed.

### **1.11.3 Right to privacy**

All the answers from the questionnaire were kept in a private and in a safe place where only the researcher and their supervisor had access. Leedy and Ormrod (2014) argue that research should not be presented in a way that enables other people to know how a participant responded or behaved. As a result, all participants were assured that collected data would be protected and kept for a period of five years under the monitoring of the supervisor.

### **1.11.4 Honesty with professional colleagues**

Researchers must report their findings in a manner that is complete, honest and does not misrepresent what they would have researched on and deduced (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). Thus, all credit in this research was given where it was due. Furthermore, any other people's words or ideas were acknowledged. Confidentiality and anonymity of finished thesis was maintained by the researcher and the School of Management, IT and Governance at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. Finally, the investigator was not bias while all captured data was double checked for accuracy.

## **1.12 Definition of terms**

The purpose of this section is to assist the readers to understand some of the concepts that are used frequently in this study. The concepts, management, leadership, management style, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and employees, are defined below.

### **1.12.1 Management**

Stuhlman (2009) defines management as a process that comprises strategic planning, the management of resources, setting objectives, deploying human and financial assets in order to archive objectives, and measuring results. Stuhlman (2009) underscores further that management refers to the process of controlling and dealing with people or things in a given organisation. Hissom (2009) agrees with Stuhlman (2009) in their definition that management is an organisational process that includes setting organisational objectives, taking strategic decisions, and deploying financial and human assets needed to achieve organisational goals and objectives. According to Fulop, Lilley and Linstead (2004), cited in Ramazan (2010), management can be clearly defined as a relation and differential activities that are inclusive of people as resources. Ramazan (2010) argues that leadership and management should go hand in hand. Ultimately, management is a purposive activity and directs group efforts towards the attainment of certain pre-determined goals. It is the process of working with and through others to effectively achieve the goals of the organisation while using limited resources efficiently in the changing world (Ramazan, 2010).

### **1.12.2 Leadership**

Leadership is about motivating people to move in the right direction in order to achieve a shared vision of the organisation (Bohoris and Vorria, 2008). Leadership refers to the process of persuading other people to comprehend and reach agreement on what needs to be done and how to do it and working together to accomplish shared objectives (Bohoris and Vorria, 2008). Similarly, Northouse (2010:3) defines leadership as “a

process whereby an individual influence[s] a group of individuals to achieve a common goal". The following was observed from the above definitions:

- Leadership is about influence - leaders are responsible for providing direction and motivating employees to adopt a particular strategy in order to achieve the vision of the organisation. It is important to note that the leader does not force their employees to adopt a certain strategy, but they use their leadership skills to motivate their employees.
- Leadership operates in groups - groups make it manageable for leaders to build stronger teams. Leaders are leaders because they lead a certain group of people.
- As mentioned above, leadership is about directing a group of people towards the achievement of a given task/s. Leaders do not force employees and instead use their leadership skills to motivate subordinates to move in the direction that will enable the achievement of the goals of the organisation

Influence plays a vital role in the leadership process, not just the leader's effect on followers as many authors have described, but through the interactive influence between the leader and followers, as Bass (1990) cited in Silva (2016) articulates. Leaders should be dedicated to creating capacity and empowering others. They should also be respectful and consultative, but still able and willing to make difficult decisions when necessary. Credibility, which is usually established by means of demonstrating ethical and transparent ways to practice, lies at the heart of leadership. Therefore, leaders are expected, as noted by Silva (2016), to take calculated risks, speak out against the status quo, and come forward to accept responsibility and demonstrate initiative.

### **1.12.3 Management style**

An organisation can only meet its target through the use of critical strategies that enable the management of both its human and material resources. This is referred to as the management styles (Okon and Isong, 2016). According to Watson (2003), management styles are the different approaches that are used by managers to influence the employees

so that they can strive willingly toward the achievement of organisational goals. In addition, Agrusa and Lema (2007) cited in (Ayres, (2014: 5) note that: "management style can be defined as an overall method of management techniques".

Therefore, the term management style can be defined as a leadership technique that a manager uses in managing an organisation. It includes controlling, directing, and the use of techniques and methods by leaders in order to motivate subordinates to follow their instructions (Ogunola, Kalejaiye and Abrifor, 2013). A further definition by Robbins and Judge (2009) states that managers as individuals who achieve goals through other people, oversee the activities of others and are people responsible for attaining goals in these organisations. Finally, management styles can be classified according to the managers power, usage of such power and behaviour such as the autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire, where styles are distinguished by the influence managers have on subordinates (Robbins and Judge, 2009).

#### **1.12.4 Organisational commitment**

Available literature defines the concept commitment as a positive, satisfying and spiritual situation related to work that consists of vigor, dedication and concentration (Kimura, 2012). Other scholars, in particular Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), state that commitment refers to the importance of work in an individual's life and an internalisation of the ideology of the work. Theoretically, "it is not a momentary and peculiar situation; it is a more persistent and widespread emotional-cognitive situation that does not focus on a single object, person or behaviour" (Bakker, Demerouti and Verbeke, 2004:14). In addition, Humphreys, Brunsen and Davis (2005) argue that job commitment influences the formation of an effective organisational structure by allowing the employee to approach the work with self-sacrifice. Finally, it was observed that employees with higher levels of job commitment had higher levels of job satisfaction, higher organisational commitment and lower intention to leave the job (Bakker *et al.*, 2004; Abraham, 2012).

### **1.12.5 Job satisfaction**

Paksoy, Soyer and Çalık,(2017:643) define job satisfaction as “pleasure and happiness of one’s work and the factors related to it”. Job satisfaction, is also noted, according to Locke and Henne (1986), as the condition of emotional pleasure brought about by a person’s work experience and the values he or she gives to it. Furnham, Eracleous and Chamorro-Premuzic (2009) further describe job satisfaction as the degree to which employees are satisfied with their employment. This is a common occurrence in which two concepts are discussed simultaneously because it is stated that an employee is a content at work if there is a factor or condition that motivates him or her. The greatest characteristic of job satisfaction is that it is an emotional concept. Hence, the most important thing that managers should do is to help their employees reach their highest level of satisfaction (Iscan and Timuroglu, 2007) cited in (Paksoy *et al.*, 2017).

It should also be noted that job dissatisfaction “can lead people to have negative feelings and creates psychological anxiety in the workplace. This can cause the unwanted behaviours within the organisation such as boredom, leaving work, absenteeism and fighting” (Özkaya, Yakın and Ekinci, 2008: 643). As a result, job satisfaction is closely connected to employee motivation (Özkaya *et al.* (2008), while Robbins (2006) adds that job satisfaction is typical behaviour to work performance that is linked to appropriate awards and successes. This also underscore that happiness should, in theory, be linked to job performance. Employee satisfaction indeed leads to increased effectiveness and productivity in the workplace. Furthermore, employees that are satisfied with their jobs will have fewer turnovers (Chen, 2006).

### **1.12.6 Employees**

Employees are people who work for another in return for wages or a salary (Gillis, 2006). Employees are hired to provide services to a company on a regular basis, and not as part of an independent business, in exchange for compensation (Gillis, 2006). However, Gillis (2006) states that employees are more than any of those definitions as they are the life blood of an organisation because they are the ones who provide

products and services that define corporations, organisations and government entities. According to Gillis (2006), employees are referred to as the most precious assets of an organisation because without them, the organisation is crippled and cannot function effectively. In this study, the term 'employees' will be used to refer to all the workers employees who are not in management positions. In a competitive climate, employees are among the most essential variables and main aspects that define an organisation's success. Furthermore, if effectively managed, employee commitment can result in positive outcomes that include greater effectiveness, performance, and productivity, as well as lower turnover and limited cases of absenteeism at both the individual and organisational levels (Fiorito, Bozeman, Young and Meurs, 2007). An individual who is happy in their job will do a good job and will be dedicated to their job and, as a result, to his/her company. Employers must understand the elements that can affect their employees' job satisfaction, and note as well how job satisfaction impacts on the organisation's performance (Awang, Ahmad and Zin, 2010).

### **1.13 The study structure**

To ensure that there is unbroken continuity from one chapter to the next, each chapter is made up of introductory paragraph which states the purpose of the chapter and is followed by main body which comprise of subsections that articulate the chapter focus in an in depth way. Lastly, the concluding summary, which links the current chapter with the next chapter, ends each chapter. In summary, the study is structured as follows:

Chapter 1 outlines the background and context of study. This is followed by an outline of the problem statement, research questions and research objectives. Thereafter, a brief view of methodology is presented, followed by the definition of terms. Lastly, the chapter discusses the study's limitations, and outlines the structure of the thesis.

Chapter 2 provides an assessment of the relevant literature as it relates to the impact of management styles on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In this chapter, management styles are discussed in detail.

Chapter 3 provides a theoretical framework for the study which is grounded in the impact of management style on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The main topics discussed in the chapter are the different management styles, the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Chapter 4 focuses on a few management theories that are pertinent to this study. The evaluation of these theories seeks to assist readers to get a sense of how employees respond to certain styles of management in the organisation.

Chapter 5 presents the background context to the study site, which is Hulamin. The background context to the study site is presented here for clarity to the readers. This assists the readers in understanding the empirical findings of the study. Importantly, an understanding of the relationship between management styles and job satisfaction and organisational commitment is linked to an analysis of Hulamin's organisational structure and the impact of Hulamin in the country.

Chapter 6 explains the research methodology adopted for the study in detail. The chapter also considers the theories underpinning the research methodology used and; the justification for using the chosen research method. The chapter also described the study site and the sampling method used for this study.

Chapter 7 focuses on the statistical results generated from the responses given by the employees from different departments who are not in managerial positions at Hulamin. The aim of this chapter is to describe, identify and explore the relationship between management styles, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Chapter 8 discusses the research findings presented in Chapter 7. The discussion is aligned to the study objectives which translate to research questions. The discussions are also linked to existing literature.

Chapter 9 concludes the research study. It also presents some recommendations that will provide a valuable guide to solutions and other matters arising from the study. The limitations and suggestions for future research are also presented.

## **1.14 The role of the researcher in this study**

A quantitative researcher's responsibilities include sourcing, screening, and orienting research participants. Thus, participants were put to the test using the methods proposed by the researcher (Davis, 2021). In this case, the researcher was responsible for taking raw data from the participants and turning it into useful numbers and figures. This research was primarily conducted by the researcher with the guidance of their supervisor. Throughout the data collection phase, the researcher minimised the interference with participants' by always giving enough time and clarity wherever it was deemed necessary. The motivation and objective of the study were discussed with the participants. The researcher also discussed the structure of the questionnaire and allowed those who would have failed to finish completing their questionnaire on time some extra time to complete their questionnaire. This was done in order to maintain fairness and validity of respondents' opinions.

Finally, the researcher administered the questionnaires and delivered them personally to the participants at Hulamin, Pietermaritzburg. All the participants showed respect for this research study by spending their time and sharing their knowledge and experience with the researcher. The researcher then captured data from the questionnaires and sent an appreciation email to thank the participants for taking part in the study. The researcher also ensured that other people's views and opinions used in the analyses and discussions were referenced using the Harvard style of referencing as required by the School of Management, IT and Governance.

## **1.15 Summary**

A manager's style of management plays a role in creating a good work relationship between them and their employees. A good relationship between the two may lead to employee job satisfaction with the employees most likely to end up committing to the organisation. Employee turnover has a negative impact on the organisation and thus, managers need to ensure that they select the best management style and use it accordingly

in order to ensure that employees are satisfied and committed to the organisation. The aim of this chapter was to introduce the topic and to explain some of the concepts that are be used in this study. To do this, the background, research problem, research questions and research methodology were presented. This was followed by a brief discussion on the significance of the study, the limits within which the study will be undertaken and the role of the researcher in this study.

The next chapter discusses five management styles namely, the autocratic management style, democratic management style, laissez-faire management style, paternalist management style and persuasive management style.

# CHAPTER 2

## Literature Review I: Management Styles

### 2.1 Introduction

As mentioned in the previous chapter, employees are an important asset of any organisation as they enable the organisation to achieve its goals and objectives. This compels managers to ensure that they enhance their employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The selection of the best management style and using it accordingly is one of the ways in which managers can improve employee job satisfaction. There should also be a meaningful interaction between employers and employees. Ogunola *et al.* (2013) notes that employees should be able to communicate freely with their managers and in that way build a strong work relationship. The primary goal of any management style, according to Prasetya and Kato (2011), is to improve employee performance so that the organisation's goals can be met. Thus, employee performance, which is linked to an existing management style, is a critical component of any business.

It should also be noted that, as Watson (2003) notes, management styles differ as each manager has their own style that they use to influence their employees to strive willingly in order to achieve the vision of the organisation. The possession and use of different management styles is expected because of diversity in people's perspectives

and in the way they do things (Okon and Isong, 2016). Ultimately a management style, according to Kamyabi and Devi (2011), is a multidimensional concept and a critical criterion that affects whether an organisation succeeds or fails. In fact, Devi (2011) perceives management styles as a multidimensional concept and an extremely vital measure that determines organisational success or failure. These management styles, as defined by Okon and Isong (2016) are jointly learnt behaviours, subject to all the infirmities of human learning, and they include both the contents of decision making and the process of decision making, which would be all aligned to goal setting, strategy formulations and strategy implementation. This then underscores a management style as not a procedure on how to manage but a management framework for managing (Okon and Isong, 2016). Ultimately, the main purpose of a management style is to enhance employees' performance so that the objective of the organisation can be achieved (Prasetya and Kato, 2011). Kamyabi and Devi (2011) agree that management styles are both a major requirement for the realisation of organisational objectives and an important factor in the achievement of any organisation's success.

Jaskyte (2004) states that employees' perceptions of management behaviour is an important predictor of employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Managers develop their personal management style through their education, training, and experience (Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson, 2001). However, employees may either be motivated or demotivated by their managers management style. The outcomes can either lead to an increase or decrease in productivity levels (Mullins, 2007) cited in (Okon and Isong, 2016). According to Schyns and Sanders (2007), the sources of employee job dissatisfaction include inadequate salary, conflicting job demands (from the management) and absence of promotion prospects. An effective management style affects employees' satisfaction in a positive way and makes commitment to the organisation desirable (Turner and Muller, 2005). The distinctive way in which managers perform the various functions in an organisation define their management styles. As a result, a manager should take into consideration their subordinates when choosing a certain management style because employees play a huge role in working towards the achievement of the organisation's goals (Turner and Muller, 2005). The previous chapter explained some of the important concepts that are discussed in this chapter and the structure of this

research study. This chapter discusses different management styles. Five management styles namely, the autocratic management style, democratic management style, laissez-faire management style, paternalist management style and persuasive management style are explained in relation to the available and relevant literature under review in this chapter. The ultimate goal of this chapter is to identify any discrepancies and gaps in literature that have necessitated this study. Once this has been achieved, reflections on how the reviewed literature links up with the objectives of the study will be made.

## **2.2 Management styles**

As discussed in Chapter 1, management style refers to the way an organisation manages its employees and their work activities. McGuire (2005) defines management style as the jargon employed by managers to describe how they manage. It is a personality trait related with behaviour. Scholars such as Okon and Isong (2016) argue that one of the most important predictors of organisational efficiency is management style. Management style is simply defined as a method of managing an organisation. It is a manager's general approach to dealing with people at work and exercising authority over subordinates in order to achieve organisational goals and objectives (Okon and Isong, 2016). McGuire (2005) expanded his definition with the addition that, a management style is the glue that holds varied activities. This makes a management style a structure for doing and not a procedure on how to do (Field and Dubey, 2001). A successful management style is the degree to which a manager frequently and progressively manages and directs employees to a predetermined destination agreed upon by the whole group. This means that the manager, using his/her skills will motivate employees to move into the ideal position in order to achieve the goals of the organisation. According to Bucata and Rizescu (2016), the management styles that organisational managers adopt will have a significant impact on all organisational activities, organisational climate, and labor productivity. It is therefore critical for the manager to understand not only the benefits and drawbacks of different management styles, but also how subordinates perceive them. Bucata and Rizescu (2016) adds that management is an essential component of life and a critical factor in the efficiency of organisations. Because employees are a part of organisations

throughout their lives, having a proper management style in the organisation is one of the most important factors in gaining a competitive advantage. In addition, a management style refers to the approach towards issues used by managers in order to attain the goals of their organisation, which often includes altering various resources available to any organisation into output through the functions of management (Field and Dubey, 2001). It is thus vital to figure out which management style is suitable for a company's specific operational circumstances (Quang and Vuong, 2002).

The extent to which a manager continuously and gradually manages and directs employees to a planned goal agreed upon by the organisation is defined as an effective management style, according to Quang and Vuong (2002), is the distinct approach in which an organisation takes choices and performs numerous functions that include goal setting, strategy creation, strategy implementation, corporate image building, dealing with important stakeholders, and other basic management activities. Some managers are largely task-oriented and seek to get things done as quickly as possible. Others are mostly concerned with the happiness and satisfaction of others while others blend these orientations. Different managers use different ways of completing tasks in the course of their official work, resulting in a variety of management styles. Scholars have recognized and documented a variety of formal management styles since the 1950s, with the advent of management styles. Finally, management styles are influenced by organisational variables such as organisation type, business purpose, size, operating environment, corporate culture, and legacy (Quang and Vuong, 2002). Below five (5) types on management styles are discussed.

### **2.2.1 Autocratic management style**

Okon and Isong (2016) define the autocratic management style as a marked by individual decision making by a manager and without much regard for subordinate employees. Choices made within this style reflect the sentiments and personality of the manager only and not that of the subordinate employees. In addition, the manager does not ask any of their subordinate employees for suggestions as they solely make decisions that they think are best for the organisation. Hence, (Okon and Isong, 2016: 54) note that, "It

is a management style in which the manager retains as much power and decision-making as possible”.

A further characteristic is that, autocratic managers try to simplify and clarify work to achieve maximum control. In this style of management, the manager does not consult employees nor do they allow the employees to give any input (Zturan and Tugsal, 2019). Employees are only expected to follow orders without receiving any explanations as noted by (Brewer, Selden and Facer II, 2000) cited in (Okon and Isong, 2016: 54). Other scholars, such as Ogunola *et al.* (2013) agree with Okon and Isong (2016) on the definition of autocratic management style and add that it is a style that gives the manager the power to make decisions. The managers try to simplify work to gain supreme control and as such, “Employees are only expected to obey orders without receiving any explanations” (Brewer *et al.*, 2000: 114). The premise of the autocratic management style, according to (Okon and Isong, 2016: 54), is the belief that “in most cases workers cannot make contributions on their own to meet their goals. This type of management style tends to focus more on the task and not on the human resources needed to get the task done”. This style might not be the best management style for employees who want to contribute more to the success of the organisation and exceed expectation because the manager does not involve employees in the decision-making processes. However, this is a style that ensures that work is done on time (Brewer *et al.*, 2000: 114).

Figure 2.1 displays the type of relationship that an autocratic manager has with their employees. The figure shows how employees are considered as drones that must perform within clearly defined boundaries and under close monitoring by their managers. Employees are not encouraged to give ideas, raise questions or share their thoughts on how to improve processes, and in some circumstances are actively discouraged from doing so (Zturan and Tugsal, 2019). This form of management style employs a top-down approach, with managers and employees communicating only in one direction. This is the most commanding of the management styles, with management making all workplace decisions and wielding complete control (Zturan and Tugsal, 2019).

The manager who relies on an autocratic management style takes choices on his or her own and with little regard for subordinates. The manager’s beliefs and personality are



FIGURE 2.1: Autocratic management style.  
Source: Resource-Management (2010)

reflected in the decisions, not the employees' (Okon and Isong, 2016). On the contrary, the democratic management style encourages employees at all levels to contribute suggestions during the process of defining and setting organisational goals, addressing problems, and in making other decisions that may affect them. Interestingly, decisions are made quickly under the autocratic management style since only the boss is involved, communication is direct, and employees' roles and expectations are specified and monitored under this management style. Sigei Chepkoech (2018) criticises this managerial style for not allowing open dialogue and others to make their input. According to Sigei Chepkoech (2018), an autocratic management style can lead to a low motivation, work satisfaction, and staff performance. The next subsection discusses the advantages and disadvantages of the autocratic management style that were underscored by Brewer *et al.* (2000).

### **2.2.1.1 Advantages of the autocratic management style**

The autocratic management style has both pros and cons. Various authors hold the view that the disadvantages outnumber the benefits (Chukwusa, 2018). Nevertheless, the

advantages and disadvantages of the autocratic management style provided Chukwusa (2018) by are discussed below.

- Decisions are made quickly and more efficiently because the manager does not have to go back and forth while trying to consolidate different suggestions and comments from the subordinates.
- Updates and changes are communicated to everyone as soon as they occur and they get applied right away. Fortunately, in this style of management, employees cannot say 'no' when their manager implements something, which results in quick implementations.
- Managers are given the authority to run a team/department and thus, making them more confident about their own abilities.
- This style's smooth-sailing implementation and quick decision-making projects a strong and solid image for the company.
- This type of management style can be used in situations where the organisation needs the employees to work or act in a particular manner in order to survive in the business world. The reality that employees do not have a say in the decisions and directives means that the implementation process will be quick and straightforward.

#### **2.2.1.2 Disadvantages of the autocratic management style**

- The reality that ideas are generated by the managers alone discourages employees from sharing fresh ideas and prevents the exploration of innovative ideas that can benefit the organisation.
- Employees may hold the view that the company or their line managers do not value or care for them, which results in the development of senses that they are useless and ultimately discourage the subordinates from doing their work.
- Under this management style, employees may feel like they are not part of the organisation and that their skills are not fully utilised and may end up wanting to leave the organisation.

- Employees become less motivated to work but may still do the work on time and meet the deadlines because they do not want to lose their jobs.
- While there is still an acceptable level of productivity, companies adopting the autocratic style of management will not be able to experience the benefits of working with highly motivated individuals while the managers will never know the importance and benefits of team work.
- The style prevents subordinates from being creative and innovative in their jobs and as a result, they may get bored with their jobs and may consider looking for new jobs.
- The resultant low morale leads to a turnover rate as workers decide to quit their jobs and seek employment in other companies that put a high regard on human relationships and employee potentials.

### **2.2.1.3 When to use the autocratic management?**

Although the drawbacks of this management style far overshadow the benefits, it is still useful for some organisations whose contexts make it an ideal management style to use. The military sector and airline and ship crews benefit from this type of management. The autocratic management will be more effective in crisis situations such as when natural disasters strike because unilateral control prevents further disaster-based and other secondary chaos. A good example is the official South Africa lock-down which was announced by the President of South Africa on 23 March 2020 due to the outbreak of Covid-19 disease aimed at flattening the curve and getting a handle on the coronavirus pandemic in SA. In this type of situation, the autocratic management style is appropriate in order to prevent the spread of Covid-19. If SA citizens were given the chance to participate in the decision making, it would have taken long to come to a conclusion while the number of death cases increased on daily basis.

According to Chukwusa (2018), the idea of using autocratic management in today's modern business organisations is simply risky and could very well lead to dire consequences for the company. Most organisations today work and promote working in teams.

Therefore, teamwork is necessary for employees to perform their tasks successfully. If they are managed by a person who does not care about what they have to say, then it will only serve to hamper the team's spirit and lower their morale. Ultimately, autocratic management will only work for organisations that employ people who work on simple and repetitive tasks every day. Therefore, it is safe to state that, as much as the autocratic management style is considered undesirable by many, there are instances where this style of management can be argued to be the most appropriate style to use (Brewer *et al.*, 2000).

### **2.2.2 Democratic management style**

Unlike in the autocratic management style where employees are not given an opportunity to participate in the decision making processes of the business, the democratic style of management offers employees a chance to participate in the decision-making processes and are encouraged to be innovative (Okon and Isong, 2016). A democratic manager encourages employees to be creative and innovative. Under the democratic management style, employees are given a chance to help in problem solving matters of the organisation. Their suggestions and comments are valued and taken into consideration. In addition, managers encourage employees to be more productive and as a result, the products are often of high quantity (Okon and Isong, 2016). The employee's self-esteem is enhanced with the thought that he/she is trusted; consequently, he/she performs well. The effect of this management style is long-term achievement (Okon and Isong, 2016). In addition, the employees remain loyal to the company because they know that they are trusted and valued.

The democratic management style is also known as the participative style as it inspires employees to be part of the decision-making process. The democratic managers keep their employees informed about everything that affects their work and share decision-making and problem-solving responsibilities with their employees (Okon and Isong, 2016). This management style requires the manager to be a coach who, while possessing the final say, gathers information from staff members before making the decisions

(Okon and Isong, 2016). A typical democratic manager develops plans to assist employees evaluate their own performances, encourages employees to grow on the job and be promoted, allows employees to establish goals, and recognises and encourages achievement (Okon and Isong, 2016). Under this management style, managers thrive to keep employees knowledgeable about matters that affect them. Hence, unlike with the autocratic management style, democratic management style is mostly desired by the employees because it creates a form of belonging for them, however, this style might not be as much desirable for the organisation (Brewer *et al.*, 2000).

The manager in a democratic management style encourages employees to participate in the decision-making process and, as a result, everything is agreed upon by the majority. Communication is extensive from employees to managers and vice-versa with every employee offered a seat at the table in a democratic management style, and dialogue relatively free-flowing. Employees are also encouraged to contribute their ideas and express other sentiments that will benefit the company. The manager considers the perspectives of the employees before making a decision, which allows the manager to get a diversity of ideas from the employees, and thus lead to a better conclusion or decisions. Okon and Isong (2016) highlighted advantages and disadvantages of the democratic management styles as discussed below:

### **2.2.2.1 Advantages of the democratic management style**

- The democratic management style involves employees in the decision-making with the management still holding control over the process and the decisions, and yet employees feel acknowledged by and as part of the organisation. As a result, the employees are motivated to excel in their jobs and may stay in the organisation for long.
- Productivity is increased as the workers feel valued and, in that way, get inspired to do well. Happy employees are likely to be motivated to impress their managers.
- The management style's emphasis on multi-directional communication between workers and management fosters teamwork and cultivates a sense of dedication that enables the company to achieve its goals and targets.

- Stress is reduced in the workplace, which results in employees that are happy with their superiors and who feel that they can be open with the management.

### **2.2.2.2 Disadvantages of the democratic management style**

- Some managers adopt democratic management style to satisfy their subordinates but fail to follow the dictates and expectations of the style in its entirety as they would simply take in all the ideas and not apply them at all. Failure by management to apply the employees' contributions discourages and de-motivates the employees.
- The decision-making process might be a long drawn one since every team member needs to be consulted while some contributors may take longer to submit their contributions, which undermines the organisation's ability to achieve its vision on the set timelines.
- The team might take longer to achieve the targets because time will be wasted on consultations and decision-making meetings.

### **2.2.2.3 Comparison between autocratic and democratic management styles**

Figure 2.2 summarises the key differences between the autocratic management style and the democratic management style. There are various differences that can be identified in the comparison of both management styles. The manager using the autocratic style of management instructs their subordinates on what should be done and how it should be done, while the one using the democratic management, allows subordinates to participate equally in arriving at decisions on what should be done and how it should be done. The reality that the autocratic manager possesses the entire command and decision-making authority indicates that the associated management style creates a clear line of demarcation between the manager and the employees (Mesly, 2011). On the contrary, a democratic manager respects their subordinates' opinions and recommendations while maintaining final decision-making authority as per the characteristics of the democratic management style. A comparison of the power dynamics in both management styles is instructive here. Power is centralised in the hands of the autocratic manager and

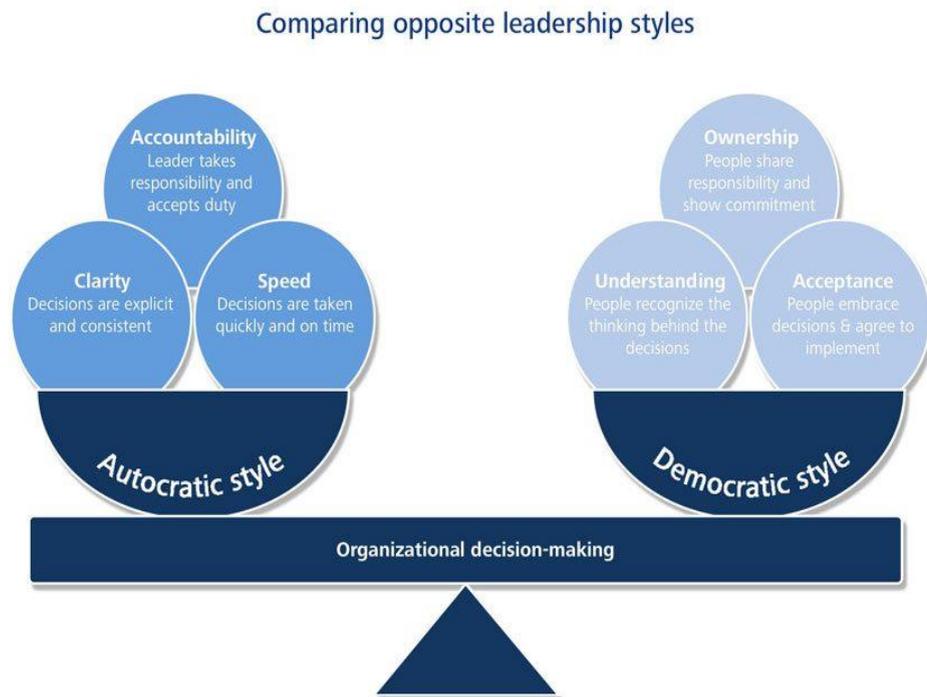


FIGURE 2.2: Democratic Management Style vs Autocratic.  
Source: Leadership-Agility (2022)

yet it is delegated to group members under the democratic management style. Finally, the task-oriented nature of autocratic management focuses more on accomplishing the task successfully while the task-orientation within the democratic management style is relational and seeks to strengthen the superior-subordinate relationship by sharing power with the members of the organisation (Surbhi, 1976). Autocratic management is characterised by a high degree of control, whereas democratic management is characterised by a low degree of control. There is freedom of expression and intellectual independence in democratic management, which is not present in autocratic management (Surbhi, 1976). The autocratic management works best with employees that are not well educated or skilled as are mostly obedient. However, democratic management keeps employees well-informed, experienced, and capable. In addition, an evaluation of the efficacy of both management styles shows that the democratic management trumps dictatorial management (Surbhi, 1976). Finally, one can select between both management styles depending on the immediate aim and subordinates. An authoritarian management style is preferable when the organisation's immediate goal is to increase output and when the need for subordinate independence is low. However, the democratic management is

the best alternative because the immediate goal is job satisfaction, and the subordinates require more liberty (Surbhi, 1976).

### **2.2.3 Laissez-faire management style**

This is a popular management style that is being used by a lot of companies nowadays. It is an easy-going approach to management that inspires employees to be more productive (Chaudhry and Javed, 2012). In this style of management, employees are encouraged to grab any opportunity to develop and learn new skills (Okon and Isong, 2016). Under this management style, employees are not under pressure because their manager gives them space. The reality is that, managers who adopt this style are confident with their employees' capabilities and skills. The laissez-faire managers hold the view that employees can achieve and complete their tasks without their interference (Okon and Isong, 2016). In this style of management, a manager offers little or no direction and gives employees as much freedom as possible (Okon and Isong, 2016). All authority is given to the employees and they determine goals, make decisions, and resolve problems on their own. Hence, a laissez-faire manager abandons responsibility, delays decisions, gives no feedback, and makes little effort to help their employees satisfy their needs. The manager also does not engage with employees over any attempts to help them grow. Thus, Okon and Isong (2016) argue that the laissez-faire management style might not be good for employees who lack the needed skills and fail to adhere to deadlines and motivation. Laissez faire managers believe and trust their employees. They believe that employees are capable of completing their tasks and meeting the deadlines without any supervision (Chaudhry and Javed, 2012). Subordinate employees are given power to make their own personal decisions about their work. A manager that uses this style of management avoids making decisions on behalf of their employees and instead offers their employees the freedom to make decisions themselves (Chaudhry and Javed, 2012). Finally, Chaudhry and Javed (2012) discuss the perfect time to use the laissez-faire management style and the advantages and the disadvantages of the laissez-faire management style as presented in the review that follows.

### **2.2.3.1 When will laissez-faire management style work?**

- Under this management style, managers should hire people who are extremely skilled and educated who do not require strict supervision.
- Since there is less supervision, managers should appoint employees who are determined to work hard and have pride in their work.
- Managers should employ workers who are trustworthy, experienced and who will not require a manager's supervision.
- The organisation should consider employing outside consultants and staff specialists. These are experts in their field who would be employed to assist the company for a specific purpose.

### **2.2.3.2 Advantages of the laissez faire management style**

- Employees become more productive because the awareness of the reality that their managers have faith in them encourages them to do their best to impress their managers.
- This style of management make employees feel trusted and affords them an opportunity to make decisions on their own.
- This management style stimulates loyalty in the company because the employees have relative freedom and in that way they become satisfied with the work environment.
- The manager has more time to put emphasis on higher-level responsibilities or on another set of projects, and as such the company and the workers benefit from this style of management.

### **2.2.3.3 Disadvantages of the laissez faire management style**

The laissez-faire approach places far too much reliance on the employee's abilities. As a result, it is unreliable in instances when the workers lack the necessary skill or experience

to complete tasks or make choices. Some of the key disadvantages of the laissez-faire leadership style are as follows:

- There is no clear picture of who is in charge and this is because in some cases, the laissez-faire approach adds to a lack of clearly defined responsibilities within the team members as team members often receive little or no training, which leaves them with a lack of clarity on their role in the team.
- The style is often marked by a lack of group cohesion as – the who use it are perceived as disengaged and disconnected, which undermines team work.
- There are low levels of accountability as some managers adopt this management style to avoid taking responsibility for the group’s problems by holding team members accountable for not completing their tasks or achieving standards after objectives had not been met.

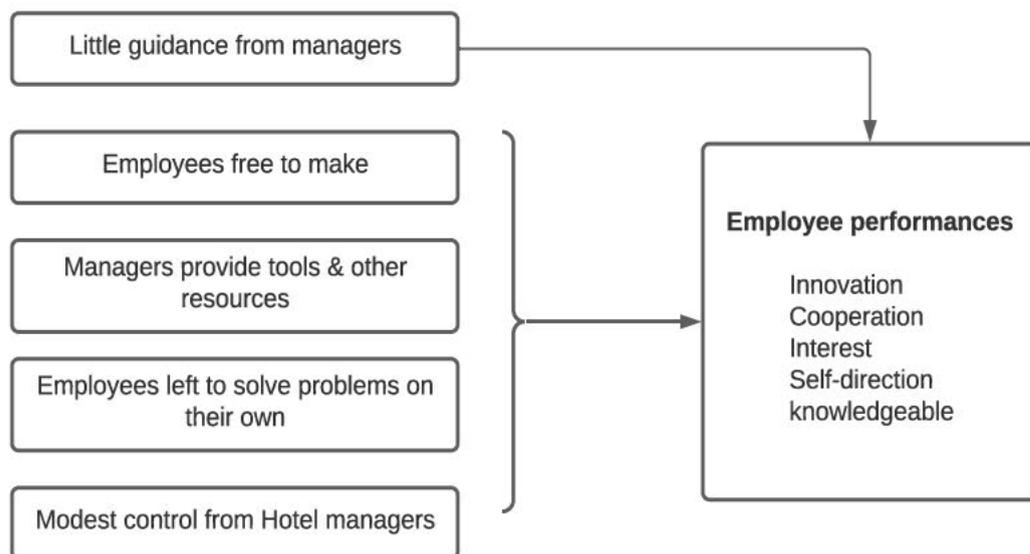


FIGURE 2.3: The characteristics of laissez-faire management style.  
Source: David (2018)

Figure 2.3 shows that a laissez-faire management style is one in which the manager takes a back seat and lets the group members make the decisions. Employees are given the freedom to set their own goals, handle problems, and make decisions with little or no supervision. However, managers’ preferences for any of the above discussed management

styles differ. As a result, some people favour the an authoritarian management style in that it empowers them to instruct their employees on what to do and how to accomplish it. Others favor a democratic approach; in which they assist their staff in finding solutions to problems on their own. Finally, some managers prefer the laissez-faire management style, in which the manager takes a back seat and leaves the group members to make their own decisions. Ultimately, whichever management style a manager employs, the goal should be to improve employee and organisational performance.

#### **2.2.4 The paternalistic management style**

The paternalistic management style pays more attention to the social health of the organisation. It mainly involves communicating and listening to the feelings of the employees (Hawley, 2004). Employees are encouraged, under this management style, to talk freely about their feelings. According to Hawley (2004), the paternalistic approach is an old management style and some of the organisations no longer use this approach. Hawley (2004) states that this approach has some resemblance to the autocratic management style, which was discussed earlier. Nevertheless, the paternalistic management style is characterised by the manager's efforts, which take into account the best interest of both the employees and the organisation (Okon and Isong, 2016). In addition, "In paternalistic management style, communication is downward, feedback and questioning authority are absent as a respect to superior and group harmony" (Okon and Isong, 2016: 52). As a result, the manager takes care of both the job-related challenges and personal challenges of the employees. Ultimately, the relationship between the manager and the employees is just like the father-child relationship and as noted by Okon and Isong (2016), the manager ensures control over the employees and at the same time allow them to be innovative in the way they do their job. Therefore, the manager who uses the paternalistic management style considers both the interests of the employees and the interests of the company. Communication is downward in a paternalistic management style, and feedback and questioning authority would be missing because of the subordinate workers' desire to respect their superiors and to maintain group harmony.

The relationship between the management and the workforce is similar to that of a parent and his child. The manager maintains control over his or her personnel while still allowing them to be creative in their work. He or she is also responsible for both the job-related and personal issues that employees face (Okon and Isong, 2016). Okon and Isong (2016) discussed the qualities of a good paternalistic manager, the advantages and the disadvantages of a paternalistic manager as presented in the sections below.

#### **2.2.4.1 Qualities of a good paternalistic manager**

- A good paternalistic manager must be able to provide a clear vision for the organisation. The objectives of the organisation and the time frames should be discussed with employees.
- A paternalistic manager takes the welfare of his employees into consideration. Paternalistic manager create a homely environment for their employees and encourages them to share their personal lives.
- A good paternalistic manager is aware that the organisation will not be able to attain its goals and targets without the cooperation of the employee, and as a result, they value the importance of their employees.
- A paternalistic manager is like a father who tells his workers that he knows what is best for them and thus, strives at achieving what is best for their employees.
- A paternalistic manager makes decisions based on how they will affect the employees.
- A good paternalistic manager is usually calm under pressure and will not automatically place the blame on anyone when difficulties arise.

#### **2.2.4.2 Advantages of paternalistic management style**

- The manager is seen as a father figure than a boss, as a result, employees find it easy to approach the manager. Under this management style, employees are free to share their innovative ideas that may assist the organisation towards the achievement of its vision.

- The employees can accomplish set targets because they would be contented with their work environment, feel motivated and thus work towards finishing and excelling in their tasks as they are happy and working hard to impress their managers.
- Employees feel like they belong in the company, so they give it their best effort and goals are easily achieved.
- The employees are less stressed because they are happy with their managers, feel not pressured with work and are allowed to use their own work strategies in order to complete the tasks given to them by their managers.

### **2.2.4.3 Disadvantages of working with a paternalistic manager**

- Managers, like parents, will occasionally have to reprimand employees in unconventional ways, as a result, some employees may not be happy about that and end up wanting to leave the organisation.
- Employee unhappiness is mostly the result of poor management decisions and thus any poor management-based job dissatisfaction may have a negative impact on employee organisational commitment.
- Employees will become increasingly reliant on their manager, which may necessitate increased supervision to ensure that tasks are completed in a timely and proper manner.
- If loyalty to the manager is not established quickly then there can be poor staff motivation.
- Employee legislation and rights can both cause and worsen problems.
- Employees place a greater emphasis on the manager than they would in a conventional workplace, as a result, the team might become extremely competitive as everyone competes for attention and affection.
- Managers might grow oblivious to their own power and make judgments that are exclusively beneficial to them.

- There can be power conflicts and internal issues if responsibilities are not clearly defined and if workers and the manager do not understand what is expected of them.

### **2.2.5 Persuasive management style**

Okon and Isong (2016) define the persuasive management style as an approach in which the manager shares some characteristics with those of an autocratic manager. The most important feature of a persuasive manager is that they uphold control over the entire decision-making process. Here, the manager uses their skill to interpret a situation, people's actions and dialogue and then strongly urges them to do a task or achieve certain objectives in accordance with the manager's way (Okon and Isong, 2016). In this type of management style, employees are not actively involved in decision-making process and hence, opportunities for employees' initiative and commitment are overlooked, which leads to low levels of motivation and job satisfaction. The persuasive management style is a great choice for managers who need input from experts but still intend to keep the final decision-making up to them. This does not work when employees do not support management and choose not to provide input or do not trust decisions that have been made (Okon and Isong, 2016). Figure 2.4 below outlines the nature and impact of persuasive management on employee.

Figure 2.4 displays the impact of influence on employee by their managers. In this style of management, a manager is responsible for persuading their staff by convincing them that their ideas are good and that the work they are doing is important. The aim is to instill passion in their employees and produce far superior results. A persuasive management style is a form of management style in which the manager resembles an authoritarian manager in some ways. A convincing manager's most significant quality is that they keep control over the entire decision-making process. The manager uses their skill to analyse a situation, people's behaviours, and dialogue, and then firmly urges or persuades them to accomplish a task or achieve particular objectives in the manager's way. Finally, persuasive management style has its advantages and disadvantages as discussed by Okon and Isong (2016). These advantages and disadvantages are articulated below.

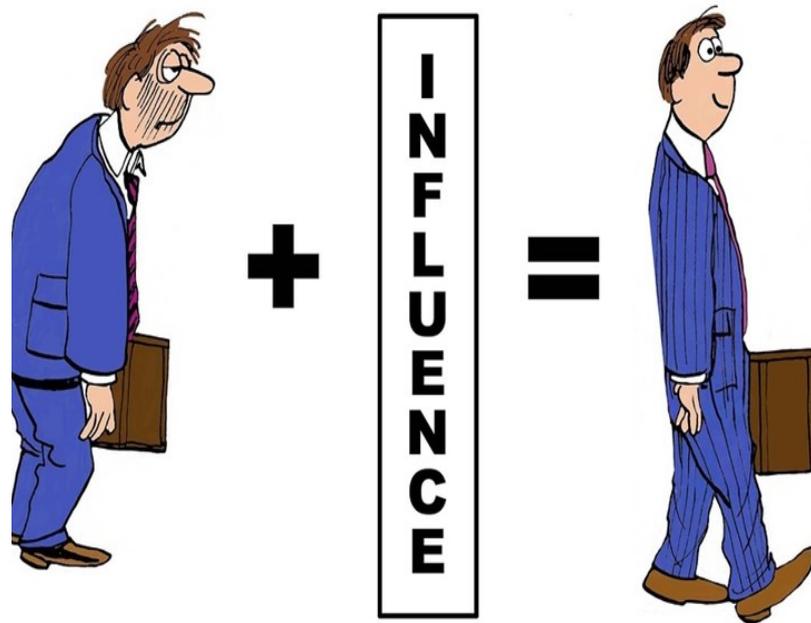


FIGURE 2.4: Persuasive management style.  
Source: Primeast (2010)

### 2.2.5.1 The advantages the persuasive management style

- The management style has the capability to make rapid decisions and increase organisational efficiency in that the reality that employees are not actively involved in the making of decisions in the organisation makes it is easier and quicker for the top level to make decisions.
- There is no confusion with regards to the organisational hierarchy or decision-making process as the reporting lines are clear and the employees know the boundaries.
- There is creative, innovation and professional freedom.
- This type of management style has a better reaction than one would get with other management styles such as the autocratic management style.
- The persuasive management style is usually made up of a passionate team that is likely to produce impressive work.

### **2.2.5.2 The disadvantages of the persuasive management style**

- Since the manager is the bona fide expert, they are required to make decisions and plans that work, as a result, any failure to make decisions that are good for business will impact negatively on the organisation, which may fail to meet its deadlines.
- It is also the manager's job to ensure that the team or employees' team believe in his/her ideas and carry out the work to a specific standard.
- Regardless of whether the manager's plan was flawed, or the employees did not support the manager, the blame always falls on the manager in the case of unsatisfactory results.
- If the manager is unable to build a positive relationship with his/her employees that is based on trust, this management style is less likely to lead to achieve success.

A manager that uses the persuasive management style control the decision-making processes in an organisation. However, the manager will spend time with their employees to ensure that they understand the decisions made. The management takes all the decisions in the end, but the team is well-informed about the reasons behind them (Srinivasan, 2012). The persuasive manager's actions seek to acknowledge that employees are people and not objects to be exploited or disregarded. Therefore, employees are indeed regarded as the company's most valuable asset (Srinivasan, 2012). In addition, this management style includes participative, collaborative, delegation, and laissez-faire management approaches. It is founded on the premise that all points of view are heard, evaluated extensively, and a decision reached is acceptable to all or the majority of participants (Srinivasan, 2012).

## **2.3 Gap in literature**

Most authors used leadership and management concepts interchangeably (Kotterman, 2006). While authors other authors such as Lu and Wang (1997), Claes (1999), Sulich,

Sołoducho-Pelc and Ferasso (2021), Perlitz and Seger (2004) avoid using these concepts interchangeably. Authors that prefer to use leadership in their discussions on management, creates a gap on the literature that specifically focuses on management. When scholars use search engines like Google Scholar, Google Books, and others to find research on management styles, they are likely to find results that are related to leadership styles. This demonstrates that little work is being done to specifically address management styles. As much as these styles are likely to be the same for both, but it is important for authors to begin by differentiating the two concepts and mention that their definitions are not the same but still use management styles that are similar. However, Kotterman (2006) notes that although leadership and management are similar, they are not the same. Managers are the persons who are given management responsibilities, and it is widely assumed that they accomplish their objectives by performing important duties that include the preparation and making of financial arrangements, organising and recruitment, problem solving, and controlling. Leaders, on the other hand, set the tone, bring people together, and motivate and inspire others (Kotter, 2001). In fact, Wajdi (2017) argues that the ability to influence, working with others, and achieving common goals are all aspects of leadership and management. Nevertheless, leadership and management, as noted by Kotterman (2006), are thought to be completely separate fields. According to Katz (1955), leadership is a two-way influence connection, whereas management is a one-way authority relationship (Katz, 1955) cited in (Wajdi, 2017).

The importance of management and leadership in the delivery of high-quality services cannot be overstated. Although they are similar in some ways, they may include different types of outlooks, abilities, and behaviours. Good managers should want to be good leaders, and good leaders require management skills in order to be successful. Leaders will have a vision of what can be accomplished, which they will then communicate to others and develop tactics to achieve (Katz, 1955). As discussed in Chapter 1, leaders are able to persuade others and bargain for resources and other forms of assistance in order to attain their objectives. Managers make sure that the available resources are well-organised and put to good use in order to get the greatest results possible. However, a manager must also be a leader in order for them to obtain the best outcomes in the resource-constrained and tough circumstances found in various low- to middle-income

countries. Other managers do not exert leadership, and some people lead without holding any management responsibilities, thus it is a mistake to believe that all managers are leaders. As a result, there is an ongoing debate concerning the distinction between leaders and managers.

## **2.4 Conclusion**

There exist various managers who hold world views that are not the same and manage their employees in different ways. This reality of a diversity in stature and values accounts for the way different managers use different management styles to manage their employees. As mentioned in chapter 1, it is important for managers to select the most appropriate style of management and use it accordingly because the failure of a manager's choice of management affects the organisation and the employees. If employees are negatively affected by their managers management style, they may feel dissatisfied with their jobs and resort to leaving the organisation. This chapter discussed different management styles that managers use/can use to manage their organisations. The chapter also focused on the benefits, advantages and the disadvantages of using a certain management style.

The next chapter unpacks the link between employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

# CHAPTER 3

## Literature Review II: The link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment

### 3.1 Introduction

There exists a huge body of management literature based on studies of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Various scholars (Allen and Meyer, 1990*b*; Parker and Kohlmeyer III, 2005; Bodla and Naeem, 2008*a*; Bodla and Naeem, 2008*b*; Bodla and Danish, 2009) have studied job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Among these, Allen and Meyer (1990*b*) argue that employees become committed to organisations for several reasons that include an emotional attachment to the values of the organisation, understanding of the costs involved with leaving the organisation and a sense of responsibility to the organisation. An employee who finds fulfilment in their job performs their duties well, and are mostly committed to their job and subsequently to their organisation. Therefore, it is important for employers to be aware of the factors that can affect their employees' job satisfaction level since it would have an impact on organisational commitment (Awang *et al.*, 2010). A study conducted by Nath Gangai and Agrawal (2015), which resembles an earlier study by Lok and Crawford (2001),

found that there is a link between one's commitment to an organisation and job satisfaction. However, there are employees who are committed to their organisations just because they need the job and not because they are satisfied (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Tonges, Rothstein and Carter (1998) further note that employee attitudes in the direction of satisfaction and commitment are pointers to the unity between organisational employees and management. Therefore, the above arguments indicate that there are different reasons why people commit to their organisations just as there are various reasons that explain why workers derive satisfaction from their jobs. While the previous chapter addressed the literature review in the context of management styles in relation to employee organisational commitment, this chapter focuses on the relationship between the independent variable (organisational commitment) and the moderating variable (job satisfaction). Just as it was the case in chapter 2, any discrepancies and gaps in literature will be identified.

## **3.2 Job Satisfaction**

There are various definitions of job satisfaction and its qualities that are presented in available management studies literature. Aziri (2011) defines job satisfaction as a blend of negative and positive feelings that employees have towards their work. Aziri (2011) states further that employees bring with them their desires, needs and experiences that determine prospects when joining an organisation and, as such job satisfaction signifies the degree to which prospects match the real awards. Davis and Bordieri (1988) cited in Aziri (2011) also argue that job satisfaction is closely related to individuals' behaviour at their work place. Thus, job satisfaction suggests that employees are happy and enthusiastic about their jobs (Aziri, 2011). In addition, Aziri (2011) postulates that job satisfaction spurs one towards promotions and recognition and the achievement of goals of the organisation.

Kerschen, Armstrong and Hillman (2006) define job satisfaction as the positive feelings and attitudes that employees have towards their jobs. Kerschen *et al.* (2006) add that the negative feeling and attitudes towards the job designates job dissatisfaction. This

shows that job satisfaction refers to the gathering of opinions and feelings that employees have about their present jobs. However, employees can have, in addition to the attitudes about their jobs as a whole, attitudes about different features of their jobs such as their co-workers, the kind of work they do, their pay and their managers (George, Louw and Badenhorst, 2008). Thus, Mullins (2005) holds the view that job satisfaction is a multifaceted and complex notion which can describe diverse things to different people. Generally, job satisfaction is related to motivation nonetheless with the nature of this relationship remaining unclear (Mullins, 2005). Mullins (2005) further argues that, even though job satisfaction is related to motivation, the two are the same with job satisfaction standing out as mostly an internal state or an attitude. Finally, Aziri (2011) agrees with the above-noted view by Mullins (2005) and adds that job satisfaction signifies the feeling that is consequent of the view that the job permits the mental and material needs. Further literature considers the link between job satisfaction and the organisation and an employee's views in relation to their job in this organisation. Job satisfaction is one of the key factors that enable the effectiveness and efficiency of an organisation (Aziri, 2011). Statt (2004) adds that job satisfaction is the degree to which an employee is happy with the rewards they get out of their jobs, mainly in terms of inherent motivation. Locke (1970) cited in Zhu (2013) defines job satisfaction as the good and pleasurable affective state that an individual has regarding his or her job. Kalleberg and Mastekaasa (2001) notes that job satisfaction is an employee's usual attitude towards their jobs as employees balance their satisfaction or dissatisfaction in relation to different parts of their job and eventually establish an overall conclusion on whether their jobs are satisfying or not.

Figure 3.1 summarises the factors that lead to satisfaction and the factors that lead to dissatisfaction.

Job satisfaction is also described by Spector (1997) and Kreitner and Kinicki (2006) as a global concept or a constellation of multiple dimensions to which the employee reacts effectively. Employee job satisfaction can be defined in line with the way the workers feel about their jobs and various aspects of their jobs. According to Spector (1997), the focus of research in the previous 30 years shifted from job satisfaction as a requirement to job satisfaction and as an attitude variable. Employees, for example, may experience a sense of belonging to or disconnection from their company. Thus,

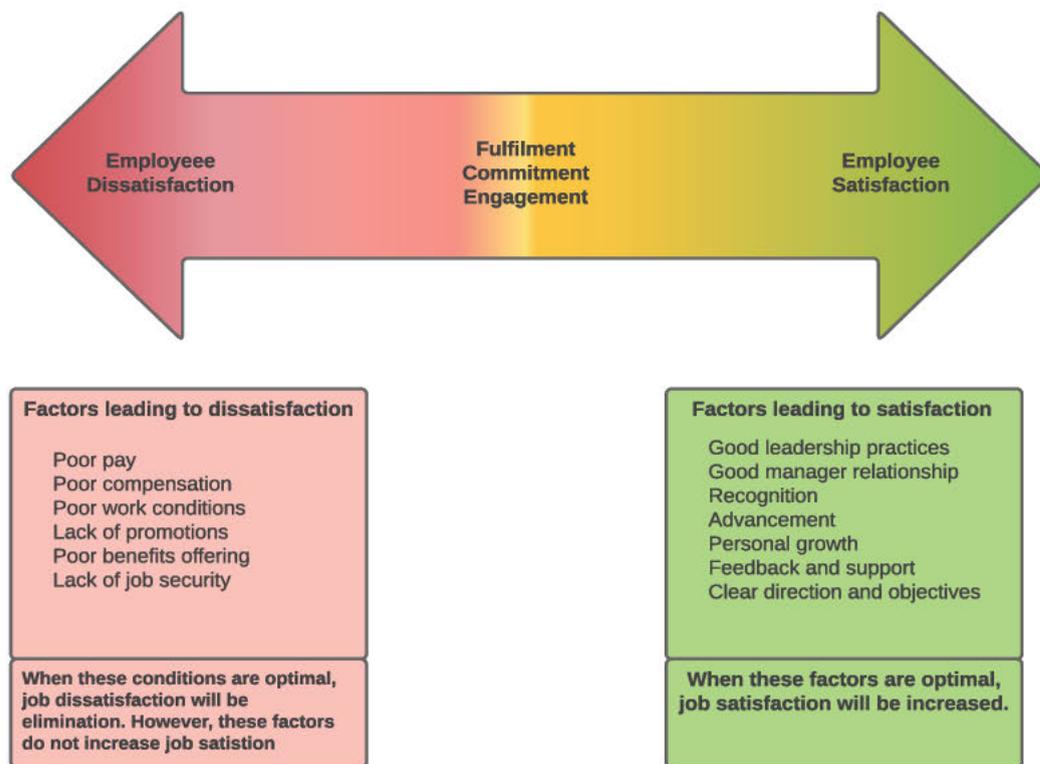


FIGURE 3.1: Factors that lead to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.  
Source: Popović *et al.* (2015)

Malik, Nawab, Naeem and Danish (2010) defines job satisfaction as a psychological construct consisting of two components: a cognitive component (the perception that one's requirements are being met) and an affective component (the experience that one's needs are being met), which are feeling that accompany the cognition. In terms of causal models, Kreitner and Kinicki (2006) identified five main tenets and these are:

- the need for fulfilment (e.g., salary needs, family needs),
- discrepancies between what is expected and what occurs,
- fulfilment of work values, equity or fairness of treatment,
- and dispositional (genetic) components, where certain congenital personality traits lead to job satisfaction.

Academics and practitioners have paid close attention to job satisfaction and loyalty to employing organisations since the Hawthorne studies. Employee views toward satisfaction and commitment were discovered to be indications of organisational employees' and management's solidarity. At the same time, there have been extensive studies on job satisfaction such that scholars' conceptions of the topic differ. The concept is mostly linked to an individual's feelings about their work. In the broadest sense, it refers to an employee's general attitude toward the job or some aspects of it (Cumbey and Alexander, 1998). Therefore, the interaction of employees, their values, traits and expectations with the work environment, as well as the organisation, determines job satisfaction (Cumbey and Alexander, 1998). Existing research also underscores that, job satisfaction or dissatisfaction results in a variety of implications. Studies have shown that employee happiness leads to increased productivity, higher quality of care, and a desire to stay with the company. On the contrary, job discontent has been linked to increased absenteeism, excessive stress, turnover, and grievances. Several researchers have, however, analysed the factors that influence job satisfaction. Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction cited in Noell (1976), which makes a distinction between elements that lead to contentment and factors that lead to unhappiness, is one of the most interesting studies in this area. Herzberg postulates that recognition for accomplishments, the job itself, development, and other things all contribute to increased pleasure. The theory also outlines factors that include organisational policy and administration, supervision, compensation, and interpersonal relationships as having an influence on unhappiness (Noell, 1976). Furthermore, the empirical study demonstrates that job satisfaction is influenced by leadership (democratic or autocratic), income and working conditions, and workload issues.

It should also be noted that the importance of organisational commitment to organisational performance and effectiveness makes it one of the organisational concepts that has received a lot of attention in management literature. The degree to which an employee shows loyalty to their company is referred to as organisational commitment. Acceptance of the company's principles, readiness to put effort on behalf of the organisation, and desire to remain an employee of the organisation are the three criteria that define organisational commitment. Turnover, productivity, and satisfaction were found to be

significantly affected by organisational commitment. Commitment is also influenced by other elements such as leadership, job stress, and organisational fairness. Al-Meer (1989) discovered a negative association between role conflict and ambiguity, as well as organisational commitment. This indicates that a rise in job conflict and uncertainty results in a decrease in employee commitment. Finally, Al-Ajmi (2006) notes that there is a link between organisational dedication and employees' perceptions of fair treatment and procedure. This view by Al-Ajmi (2006) is indeed confirmed in studies, the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction in several occupations, where a positive association between them was noted.

### **3.3 Organisational Commitment**

Organisational commitment refers to an employee's willingness to give their higher commitment to an organisation. According to scholars, such as Lincoln and Kalleberg (1992:22), organisational commitment entails identifying and accepting the goals and vision of the organisation as your own. Visagie and Steyn (2011) define organisational commitment as the intensity relative to the mental identification and employee involvement in the organisation. It also refers to the attachment that an employees has to the organisation and whose intention is to remain in the organisation (Porter, Crampon and Smith: 1976,604). Individuals regard the degree to which their own principles and interests align with those of the organisation as part of organisational responsibility, and this is referred to as the employee-organisation linkage (Becker, 1960; Alutto, Hrebiniak and Alonso, 1973).

In addition, Meyer and Allen (1997) introduced two dimensions of organisational commitment and these are the continuance and affective. Continuance is defined as the degree to which workers are loyal to their company because they believe that leaving would cost them money. The affective dimension refers to good feelings of identity, attachment, and participation in the workplace. Following further research, Allen and Meyer (1990a) added a third dimension called normative commitment and define it as the employee's sense of duty to stay with the company. The further three dimensions also

link with (Miller and Barbour, 2014:73) view that organisational commitment refers to the way an employee identifies with a specific organisation and its aims and their desire to remain as part of that organisation. As a result, the concept also refers to the extent to which an individual is able to remain loyal to an organisation due to a shared interest in and commitment to the organisation's goals and values.

The three dimensions of organisational commitment are discussed in detail in the following subsections.

### **3.3.1 Affective commitment**

Affective commitment indicates an individual's emotional relationship to the organisation. Mercurio (2015) consider it as an employee's emotional connection to the organisation. Here, an employee's active engagement is significant in that it ensures that they are not only satisfied, but also involved in organisational activities such as participating in debates and meetings, providing constructive feedback or ideas that would benefit the organisation, and having proactive work ethics. Vandenberghe, Bentein and Stinglhamber (2004) notes further links affective commitment with the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and participation in the organisation. Affective commitment also refers to an individual's strong desire to continue working in the organisation since the work is in line with his desires. Finally, it refers to an individual's desire to stay because he is emotionally invested in the organisation.

### **3.3.2 Continuance commitment**

The continuance commitment denotes the degree of dedication at which an employee believes it will be expensive to leave the company (Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, McInnis, Maltin and Sheppard, 2012). When an employee's engagement level is consistent, they tend to stay in the company for a longer period of time because they believe that they are obligated to stay having already spent enough resources and feeling emotionally and mentally committed to it. Continuance commitment also refers to an individual's strong

desire to continue working in the business due to a need to stay at work and a lack of other options. Thus, the individual employee would here hold the view that quitting work is expensive and represents a loss of what they would have invested in their employment, as well as a loss of time and effort engaged in the organisation, which may be lost if they quit the organisation (Meyer *et al.*, 2012).

### **3.3.3 Normative commitment**

This is the degree of dedication at which an employee feels obligated to remain with a company because they believe it is the best thing to do (Meyer *et al.*, 2012). In this dimension, employees feel obliged to continue working in the organisation. Individuals are obligated to maintain membership to the organisation due to internalised normative views of duty and obligation. In this case, the person may have affective commitment, in which he or she is pleased to remain with the organisation, but may also have continuance commitment, in which he or she does not want to forego the pay and benefits that the work provides. Finally, the nature of the work may compel a person to remain on the job and thus, resulting in normative commitment (Meyer *et al.*, 2012). Furthermore, normative commitment refers to an individual's desire to remain in an organisation because he or she think that it would be the right thing to do. Such an employee thinks that the company wants loyalty and may have been persuaded by others (Meyer and Parfyonova, 2010). Organisational commitment is also viewed as a reflection of an individual's views and behaviours within the company. Individuals who are committed to their organisations are less likely to withdraw and are willing to make sacrifices for their organisations. Ultimately, the higher a worker's organisational commitment, the lower the percentage of employee absences and resignations.

According to Nyengane (2007), organisational commitment also reflects the quality of the organisation's management. As a result, management behaviour has a substantial impact on the development of organisational commitment. The previous study suggests that management behaviour and organisational commitment are linked beneficially. In addition, transformational leadership is frequently linked to desirable organisational results, such as employees' willingness to put in extra work (Bass, 1990). A willingness

to go above expectations suggests a level of dedication. Transactional leadership behaviours such as contingent reward are reasonably associated with follower performance and work attitudes, though at a lower level than transformational leadership behaviours (Nyengane (2007)). At the same time organisational and management literature shows that there is a link between commitment and leadership style as noted in Nyengane (2007) argument that, there is a link between leader support and commitment.

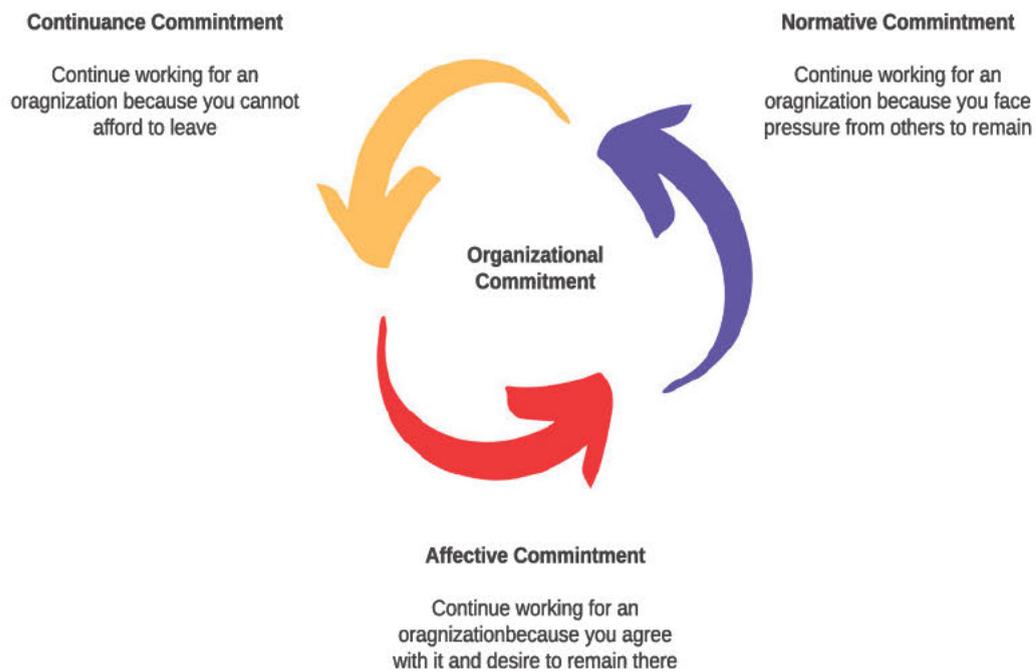


FIGURE 3.2: The three dimensions of organisational commitment.  
Source: Popović *et al.* (2015)

Figure 3.2 presents the three dimensions of organisational commitment. Firstly, continuance commitment which describes a situation where an employee continues to work for an organisation because they can not afford to leave. Secondly, normative commitment which describes a situation where employees continue to work for an organisation because they are encouraged to do so by other people (colleagues, friends, family etc.). Lastly, the affirmative commitment, where employees continue to work for an organisation because they are convinced that they deserve to.

Previous studies suggests that leadership behaviour and organisational commitment are linked beneficially (Bass, 1995). Transformational leadership is frequently linked to

desirable organisational results, such as followers' willingness to put in extra work (Bass, 1995). A willingness to go above and above suggests a level of dedication. Transactional leadership behaviours such as contingent reward are reasonably associated with follower performance and work attitudes, though at a lower level than transformational leadership behaviours (Nyengane, 2007). In the organisational and management literature, there is a link between commitment and leadership style. According to Nyengane (2007), there is a link between leader support and commitment.

### **3.4 The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment**

Several authors have treated job satisfaction as an independent and organisational commitment as a dependent variable (Gaertner, 1999; Lok and Crawford, 2001; Jernigan, Beggs and Kohut, 2002; Mowday, Porter and Steers, 2013a). Others, such as (Feinstein, Vondrasek and Restaurants, 2006:6) argue that job satisfaction is a form of response to certain job-related issue(s) while commitment is a more global response to an organisation. Consequently, commitment should be more constant than job satisfaction over time. Feinstein *et al.* (2006) carried out an analysis of the effects of job satisfaction on organisational commitment amongst the restaurant employees and their findings revealed that there is a link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Gaertner. (1999: 491) also analysed the causes of job satisfaction and organisational commitment and found that factors such as supervisory support, pay workload, distributive justice and promotional chances, play a big role in ensuring that employees are committed to the organisation. A study conducted by Eslami and Gharakhani (2012) revealed that job satisfaction has a positive and significant impact on organisational commitment. Their findings highlighted the critical role of job satisfaction in organisational commitment and recommended that managers actively improve on matters that create job satisfaction to employees in order to achieve a higher level of organisational commitment (Eslami and Gharakhani, 2012). In addition, Eslami and Gharakhani (2012) suggest that there

should be a suitable investment in job satisfaction in order to enhance organisational commitment.

Organisations have over the years faced the challenge of having dedicated employees ready to take part in the universal economic competition and this resulted in the factors that influence organisational commitment gaining a lot of scholarly attention. Authors such as Benkhoff (1997) argue that organisational commitment, as a concept, is too broad for effective organisational analyses. In response, Meyer and Allen (1997) tried to simplify organisational commitment by arguing that there is a difference between the dimensions of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Thus, Meyer and Allen (1997) define affective commitment as employees' perceptions of their emotional attachment to their organisation while continuous commitment encompasses employees' perceptions of the costs associated with leaving the organisation, and normative commitment is the employees' observation of their responsibility to their organisation. In addition, Gallie, Felstead and Green, (2001,1085) note, with regard to organisational commitment that there is "a difference between a preference to stay with the present organisation arising out of a sense of attachment, compared to one rooted in a sense of economic necessity or of moral obligation". Hence, an organisation that is faithful to the employee will see the employee reporting higher degrees of normative commitment.

Several studies use of different facets of satisfaction as units of analysis in order to forecast employee qualities such as performance, organisational commitment, and service quality (Dienhart and Gregoire, 1993; Yousef, 1998; Oshagbemi, 2003). It is an arguable issue whether job satisfaction is the predictor of organisational commitment or vice versa. Numerous researchers have made the case that job satisfaction is a predictor of organisational commitment (Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1974; Price, 1989; Rose, 1991). In addition, Slattery, Selvarajan and Anderson (2006) studied the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment and found out that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. To conclude the discussion about the relationship between the two, Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002) assert that job satisfaction is a determinant of organisational commitment.

It should be noted that, the fundamental distinction between organisational commitment and work satisfaction is that organisational commitment is defined as an employee's emotional responses to his or her organisation, whereas job satisfaction is defined as an employee's emotional responses to any job. Both variables are considered to be highly interconnected. In other words, an employee may have positive feelings toward an organisation, its ideals, and aims, and still be dissatisfied with the job they would be doing. Various empirical studies carried out in the past found a low correlation between job satisfaction, commitment, and the intention to leave an organisation, which implies that there is no direct relationship. Scholars such as Norizan (2012) and Nunn (2000) note that there are satisfied and dedicated employees who choose to leave, as well as disgruntled, ambivalent colleagues who refuse to leave. Organisational commitment is defined by Meyer and Allen (1991a) as a psychological condition that describes an individual's relationship with the organisation and influences his decision to stay or leave. The emotional orientation toward the organisation, as well as the individual's judgment of the cost of quitting the organisation and the moral obligation to stay in the organisation, are all factors in this relationship. Organisational commitment is defined by Robbins and Judge (2009) as employees' views toward the organisation in which they work. Nevertheless, an individual's desire to stay with an organisation, their devotion to the organisation, and their acceptance of the organisation's principles and objectives all indicate that organisational commitment is an attitude. The organisational commitment represents employees' commitment to their employers and is influenced by a variety of personal (age, length of service, and attribution) and organisational (job design, leadership style, justice, and values) characteristics and others (availability of alternatives when leaving work). Finally, three psychological characteristics, an individual's acceptance of the organisation's aims and values, a desire to work hard to achieve the goals, and a desire to stay in the company, characterise organisational commitment. Furthermore, other numerous studies show that job satisfaction is a crucial factor of organisational commitment (Porter *et al.*, 1974; Williams and Anderson, 1991; Vandenberg and Lance, 1992a; Knoop, 1995; Young, Worchel and Woehr, 1998; Testa, 2001). The most common work attitudes studied in work and organisational literature are job satisfaction and organisational commitment. These various studies that have

analysed the relationship between organisational commitment, attitudes, and actions in the workplace underscore that organisational commitment is an important topic in organisational behaviour (Porter *et al.*, 1974; Koch and Steers, 1978; Angle and Perry, 1981). At the same time job happiness is regarded as a motivator for organisational loyalty (Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1996; Mowday *et al.*, 2013a ; Mueller, Boyer, Price and Iverson, 1994; Williams and Hazer, 1986). Finally, when an employee is happy with his or her employment, he or she becomes more dedicated to the company, and vice versa. In other words, organisational commitment can be used to measure and analyse work satisfaction, and vice versa (Porter *et al.*, 1974; Mottaz, 1987; Williams and Anderson, 1991; Vandenberg and Lance, 1992a; Knoop, 1995; Young *et al.*, 1998; Testa, 2001).

Academics from all around the world have paid a lot of attention on organisational commitment and job satisfaction as two work-related attitudes. This is because satisfied and committed personnel are typically great performers who contribute to organisational productivity (Azeem *et al.*, 2010). The success of a business and its pursuit of quality is determined not only by how well it utilises human resources but also by how well it encourages employee dedication. In fact, employee and employer commitment has been linked to positive outcomes as noted in the reality that more individual commitment can lead to higher feelings of belonging, security, efficacy, career development, increased compensation, and increased intrinsic benefits. In addition, commitment can result in longer employee retention, lower turnover, lower training expenses, more job satisfaction, acceptance of the organisation's demands, and the achievement of organisational goals such as good quality. Thus, depending on their backgrounds, different authors have defined and quantified organisational commitment in different ways (Azeem *et al.*, 2010). Organisational commitment is described as an employee's level of identification and involvement in the organisation, according to organisational commitment. Organisational commitment, according to Meyer and Allen (1991b), is a psychological condition that characterises an employee's relationship with the organisation and has ramifications for the decision on whether to stay or not in the organisation, according to (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 2013b) describe organisational commitment as a strong belief in an organisation's goals and ideals, a readiness to put up significant work on its behalf, and a strong desire to stay a member of the organisation. Age, gender, marital status,

education level, and work experience have all been demonstrated as having a substantial impact on organisational commitment (Azeem *et al.*, 2010). A study by Bodjrenou, Xu and Bomboma (2019) discovered that age and work tenure are important predictors of organisational commitment. Job satisfaction, according to Luthans, Avolio, Avey and Norman (2007), is a happy or positive emotional state arising from an assessment of one's job or work experience. It is a reflection of how well employees think of what their employment offers (Azeem *et al.*, 2010).

Most studies have paid more attention on directly testing the causal relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Bateman and Strasser, 1984; Curry, Wakefield, Price and Mueller, 1986*a*; Farkas and Tetrick, 1989; Dossett and Suszko, 1990; Lance, 1991). Past research on job satisfaction and organisational commitment found that there is a correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). A study carried out by Williams and Hazer (1986) found a straight link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, whereby job satisfaction stands out as a precursor of organisational commitment. The vast majority of authors (Norris and Niebuhr, 1984; Aranya, Kushnir and Valency, 1986; Johnston, Varadarajan, Futrell and Sager, 1987; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2006; Boshoff and Mels, 1995; Knoop, 1995; Ting, 1997; Harrison and Hubbard, 1998; Morrison, 2008 ) indicate a positive relationship between job satisfaction and commitment. In addition other scholars, (Klein and Ritti, 1970; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Benkhoff, 1997; Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid and Sirola, 1998; Clugston, 2000) argue that job satisfaction is one of the attitudinal concepts that is related to organisational commitment. Nevertheless, the treatment of job satisfaction as an independent concept should be highlighted.

Figure 3.3 displays a relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. Figure 3.3 shows a direct relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. A direct relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention is also displayed.

Mowday *et al.*,(2013*a*:226) argue that organisational commitment is “more global, reflecting a general affective response to the organisation as a whole” while job satisfaction “reflects one's response either to one's job or to certain aspects of one's job”.

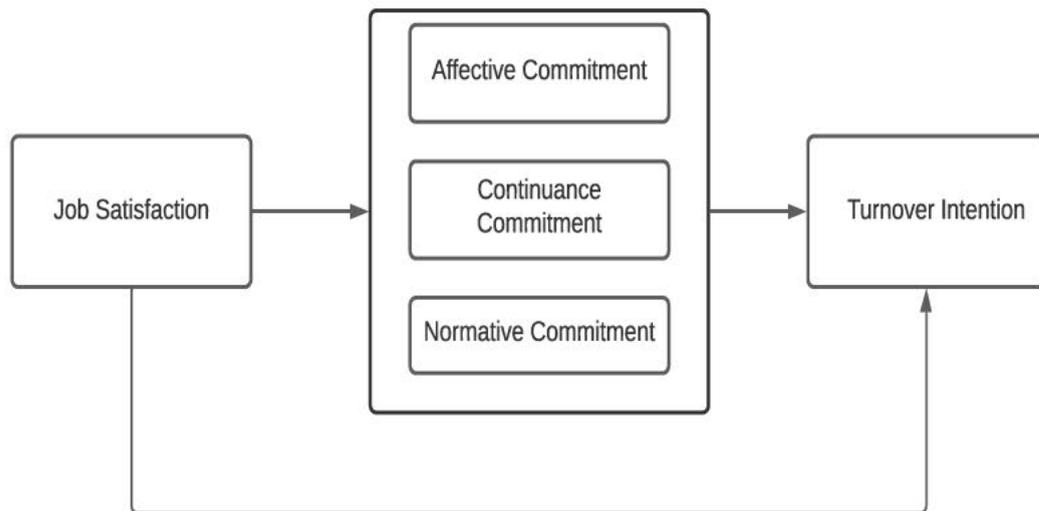


FIGURE 3.3: The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.  
Source: Yücel (2012a)

Accordingly, organisational commitment emphasises on attachment to the employing organisation, including the organisation's goals and values, while job satisfaction emphasises on the precise task environment in which an employee achieves his or her duties (Mowday *et al.*, 2013a). Thus, organisational commitment is less influenced by day-to-day proceedings than job satisfaction; it grows more slowly but consistently over time, and consequently is a more complex and lasting construct (Mowday *et al.*, 2013a). Furthermore, job satisfaction and organisational commitment do not essentially occur concurrently: it is possible that an employee may display high levels of job satisfaction without having a sense of attachment to the organisation. Similarly, a highly committed employee may loath the job they are doing (displaying low levels of job satisfaction) (McPhee and Townsend, 1992). Therefore, although research usually supports a positive association between commitment and satisfaction the fundamental ordering between both variables the view remains debatable and open to criticism (Martin and Bennett, 1996).

It should be noted that Kalleberg and Mastekaasa (2001) hold a contrary view as they disagree with several authors in their argument that previous research on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has not shown any accurate and easily compatible findings. Accordingly, Porter *et al.* (1974); Lincoln and Kalleberg

(1992) and Tett and Meyer (1993) uphold that the satisfaction-to-commitment concept assumes that happiness is a driving force behind commitment. According to a second commitment-to-satisfaction paradigm, commitment adds to a favourable attitude about the job.

According to Meyer and Allen (1997), job satisfaction influences organisational commitment. The main difference between organisational commitment and job satisfaction is that, while organisational commitment can be defined as the as an employee's emotional reactions to his or her employer, whereas job satisfaction is defined as an employee's reactions to any employment. These two variables are thought to be highly interconnected. In other words, an employee can have positive feelings towards an organisation, its objectives and values and possibly be unsatisfied with their jobs (Celik, 2008). There are satisfied and committed employees who decide to leave their organisations, and dissatisfied and uncertain employees who steadfastly remain at their jobs (Nunn, 2000; Norizan, 2012). This shows that, job satisfaction does not guarantee organisational commitment and organisational commitment does not always imply that employees are satisfied with their jobs. In fact, past experiential research has indicated that there is a low association between job satisfaction, commitment, and the intention to leave an organisation, which suggests that no direct relationship exists. Hence, factors might weigh in the decision to stay or to leave, and these factors may be both personal-related and work-related.

### **3.5 Gap in literature**

Several authors have deliberated on the link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Meyer *et al.*, 2002; Falkenburg and Schyns, 2007; Morrow, McElroy and Scheibe, 2011). However, there is a gap in the literature that links the managers style/s of management on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This research study seeks to close this gap. Although there is an agreement among academics that a correlation exists, the direction of the relationship is disputed. Work satisfaction predicts organisational commitment (Tsai and Huang, 2008; Yang and Chang, 2008; Yücel,

2012b; Valaei and Rezaei, 2016). According to Curry, Wakefield, Price and Mueller (1986b); Vandenberg and Lance (1992b), organisational commitment is a predictor of job satisfaction. Some hold the view that organisational commitment is an extension of work satisfaction, as it deals with an employee's favourable attitude toward the organisation rather than their own job. Nevertheless, employees who are satisfied and dedicated are more likely to commit to the organisation (Aamodt, 2015). A high association has been empirically shown between job satisfaction, employee commitment, and retention (Roodt and Kotze, 2005). Factors such as the type and variety of work, the level of responsibility associated with the job, the quality of the social relationship at work, and opportunities for promotion and career advancement in the company are all likely to influence organisational commitment (Riggio, 2008). This study investigated the impact of management style on both job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

### **3.6 Conclusion**

The reviewed literature reveals that there are instances where job satisfaction leads to organisational commitment and where organisational commitment leads to job satisfaction. However, this is not always the case as job satisfaction does not always lead to organisational commitment. For example, there have been instances where employees are satisfied with their jobs but end up leaving the organisation. The reality is the same with the organisational commitment in that there have been instances where employees are dissatisfied with their jobs but are committed to the organisation because of different reasons. Having said this, one can observe that a management style that a manager uses may impact on job satisfaction and not organisational commitment. Even though some authors argue that the two variables (job satisfaction and organisational commitment) should be treated independently, it is important for an organisation to work towards achieving both because there are various advantages that come with both job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The next chapter discusses different management theories that are relevant to this study

# CHAPTER 4

## Literature Review III: Theories of Management

### 4.1 Introduction

The way industries operate their businesses has changed radically due to the industrial revolution (Khalid, Irshad and Mahmood, 2012). Several authors (Pettinger, 1994; Ashkanasy, Humphrey and Huy, 2017; Hussain, Haque and Baloch, 2019; Donaldson, 2002) agree that change was unavoidable. However, innovators in management theories differed on perceptions on how the way things should change and function in management. At the same time, managers are important for business operation as they are responsible for encouraging employees, making business decisions and distributing resources or negotiating deals. Managers have been an essential factor for business success since the industrial revolution (Donaldson, 2002) such that, the changes then and the ongoing change highlight that organisations need a strong management team to motivate employees to accept any changes in their organisations and to move in the right direction in order to achieve the goals of the organisation. Management theories have been developed and have been used since management first became a standard part of business practices (Hussain *et al.*, 2019). While older theories still hold relevant, new

theories continue to be developed to keep up with current trends in business. A few writers have developed and introduced management theories that speak to the relationships between managers and employees in the organisations (Khalid *et al.*, 2012). Several authors (Hussain *et al.*, 2019; Pettinger, 1994; Ashkanasy *et al.*, 2017; Donaldson, 2002) have different views on how the relationship between employees and employers should look and on the impact of these relationships on the employees and the organisation. Management styles play a vital role in creating a relationship between managers and employees, hence, it is important for a manager to choose a management style that will impact positively on both the organisation and employees (Khalid *et al.*, 2012). It is worth noting that employees also need to contribute into making the managers management style successful. People are diverse and as a result, they perceive things and work differently. This means that different employees may prefer to be managed differently, which makes it hard for the manager to choose a style that will make all employees happy. This chapter discusses a few management theories that explain how employees respond to certain styles of management in an organisation.

The following theories of management are discussed this chapter:

- X and Y theory by Douglas McGregor
- Scientific Management theory by Frederick W. Taylor
- Human relations theory by Elton Mayo
- Contingency Management theory

## **4.2 X and Y theory by Douglas McGregor**

Theory X and Theory Y were first introduced by McGregor (1989) in his book, *The Human Side of Enterprise*, in which he refers to two styles of management that is, the authoritarian (Theory X) and participative (Theory Y). If, on the one hand, a manager believes that their team members do not like their work and have little or no motivation, then as McGregor (1989) postulates, these employers are likely to use an authoritarian

style of management (Kopelman, Prottas and Davis, 2008a). This style of management, which is a “hands – on” one that normally involves micromanaging employees to make sure that work is done properly was called theory X by McGregor (1989). On the other hand, employers that believe that their employees take pride in their work and see it as a challenge are more likely to adopt a participative management style in which they trust their employees to take ownership of their work and do it efficiently and effectively by themselves, a style the was named theory Y (McGregor, 1989). As already noted, theory X shares some similarities with the autocratic management style, which is discussed in Chapter 2. An autocratic manager makes decisions individually, and without much regard for subordinate employees. The employees subjected to the autocratic approach wait for the manager to make decisions and to be give tasks to implement. Business decisions arrived at and implemented under the autocratic management approach reflect the sentiments and personality of the manager only and not that of the subordinate employees. In this style of management, the manager does not ask any of their subordinates for suggestions or inputs and make decisions that they think are best for the organisation. Similarly managers relying on theory X make all the decisions that concern the organisation. There is little or no involvement of employees in the decision making of the organisation (Kopelman *et al.*, 2008a).

The X and Y theory of management postulates that there are two different types of employees. Theory X envisions employees that lack drive and ambition and expect to be ordered around by their managers to do anything. Such workers cannot make their own decisions, they are not creative nor innovative and rely on their managers for instructions on how to do their tasks. In addition theory Y postulates the idea of an employee that appreciates work and go all-out for self-fulfilment (Lawter, Kopelman and Prottas, 2015). Employees under this theory grab any given opportunity and do their best to achieve the goal of the organisation. They are proactive and willing to assist and take part in the decision making. Nevertheless, both theories sound a bit extreme with regards to how they view the employees as most employees fall somewhere between X and Y. That is, employees do not need to be followed and ordered to do every task, although there are situations where employees need to be disciplined and reminded of the company rules (Lawter *et al.*, 2015).

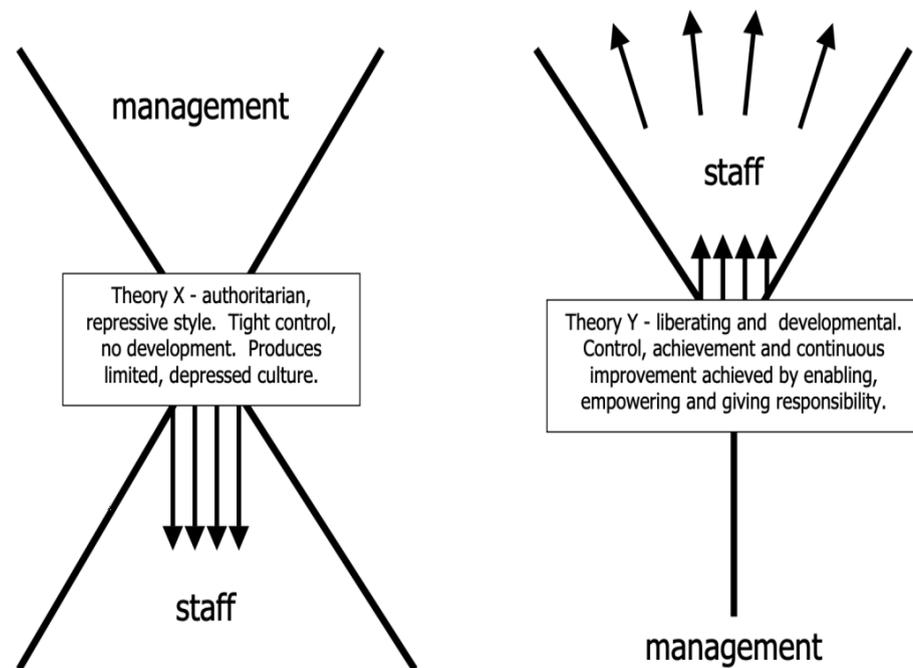


FIGURE 4.1: The Key differences between Theory X and Y.  
Source: McGregor (1989)

Figure 4.1 presents and describe the two opposing theories, Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X encourages managers to establish strict management systems and micromanage their staff because they feel workers are incapable of thinking for themselves, while also preventing them from thinking about how to improve the organisation. Theory Y accepts that employees are internally motivated, have self-direction and take initiatives. Therefore, the employees are considered as pillars of the organisation because they contribute towards a sustainable and growing organisation and its well-being.

### 4.2.1 Theory X

In theory X, managers tend to adopt a doubtful view of their employees and assume that they naturally dislike their jobs and are unmotivated such that the managers think that team members need to be encouraged, rewarded or punished continually to make sure that they finish their tasks (McGregor, 1960). Theory X portrays managers as

holding the view that employees are inferior, lazy, and work only for a small amount of sustainable income, and too out of their self-interest. As a result, managers adopt a hands-on approach with their employees (McGregor, 1960). In addition, managers believe that their actions should be traceable and that employees should be responsible for their actions in order for the individual to receive a reward or punishment depending on whether the outcome is positive or negative (Gürbüz, Şahin and Köksal, 2014).

In summary, theory X assumes that employees;

- Do not like their jobs, work because they need to and as a result are likely not to deliver on time or excel in their jobs.
- Avoid accountability and not proactive, creative nor innovative, and therefore, need constant direction.
- Must be controlled, threatened and forced to deliver work, otherwise, they will not deliver or meet their deadlines.
- Should be checked and supervised at every step in order to ensure that they are doing the right thing at the right time.
- Have no ambition, so need they need to be enticed by rewards to achieve goals.

### **4.2.2 Theory Y**

Theory Y managers have a positive opinion of their employees and make use of a decentralised as well as participative management style. This inspires a more cooperative and, trust-based relationship between managers and their team members. In this approach, employees have greater responsibility, and managers inspire them to develop their skills and suggest enhancements (McGregor, 1960). Evaluations are regular but, unlike in theory X organisations, they are used to inspire open communication rather than force their employees.

In addition, theory Y shares some similarities with the democratic style of management in that, employees are given a chance to participate in the decision-making process. A

democratic manager is also an encouraging type of a manager such that employees are hereby given a chance to help in problem solving matters. The employees' suggestions and comments are valued and they are encouraged to be creative and innovative. At the same time, managers who use theory Y consider their employees as the most valuable asset for the business because they do not only take full responsibility of their work but go an extra mile to deliver better outcomes without requiring supervision from their line managers in order to produce better outputs. Theory Y organisations also provide their employees with frequent opportunities for promotion (Gürbüz *et al.*, 2014).

In summary, Theory Y assumes that employees are:

- Content to work on their own initiatives and motivated to be innovative and work hard to achieve the goals of the organisation.
- More involved in decision making and free to share their innovative thoughts about how the organisation can achieve its vision.
- Self-motivated to excel and finish their tasks on time.
- Proactive and creative as they do not wait for their managers to give them tasks and, instead, grab opportunities to work on a particular project if they see the opportunity.
- Pursue and accept responsibility and need little or no direction from their managers.
- View work as satisfying and exciting with most employees under this theory being excited to take new projects.
- Solve problems imaginatively and creatively.

A few organisations make use of theory X which encourages the use of tight controls and supervision (McGregor, 1960). This theory implies that employees are unenthusiastic about organisational changes. As a result, the theory does not encourage motivation (Gürbüz *et al.*, 2014). Nevertheless, most organisations use theory Y, which implies that managers should create and encourage a work environment that provides opportunities for employees to take initiative and self-direction (McGregor, 1960). This theory further

encourages organisations to give its employees the opportunity to contribute to the organisational well-being.

Further comparisons between both theories should be noted here. Theory X suggests that employees are uninterested or dislike their work. Managers who follow theory X are often authoritarian and interfere in everything because they do not trust their employees. On the contrary, theory Y suggests that employees are energetic, responsible, and want to take ownership of their work. Managers who rely on Theory Y include their employees in the decision-making process and inspire creativity at all levels. Finally, small businesses tend to operate on Theory Y while large businesses normally operate on Theory X (McGregor, 1960).

Despite having conflicting views on how to manage employees, both theory X and Y have been applied in various fields and workplaces. The following are some of the applications of theory X and theory Y;

1. Theory X guides managers to implement tight management processes and to micromanage their employees since they believe the workers cannot think for themselves and at the same time inherently denies these workers from thinking about improving the organisation. There is a limited number of organisations which use theory X today because employees have become an important part of any contemporary organisation, represent the organisation to the society and are given a platform to offer their input on strategies that are meant to improve the organisation. If the employees are incompetent, then it is safe to assume that the organisation itself is incompetent, which is why theory X is used less and less in almost every workplace (McGregor, 1960). Finally, employees exposed to theory X-based management are not encouraged to be creative nor innovative and as a result, end up getting bored and do not look forward to going to work (McGregor, 1960). The above discussion points to a foreseeable high turnover rate in organisations that rely on theory X management style.
2. Theory Y accepts that employees are internally motivated, have self-direction and take initiatives. Therefore, the employees are considered as pillars of the organisation because they contribute towards a sustainable and growing organisation

and its well-being (McGregor, 1960). Under this theory, employees are motivated and encouraged to show their innovative and creative side. They also participate in the operational discussions and are more likely to be happy with their jobs such that they become committed to their organisation.

3. There is a restricted application of both theory X and theory Y because there may be cases in which these assumptions are contradicting. For example, a low-level employee may be better and more mature than an extremely qualified manager. In such cases, the assumptions on which theory X and theory Y have been written are falsified (McGregor, 1960).
4. Both theories have some characteristics that can stand as limitations to the organisation, which suggests that there should be a halfway between theory X and theory Y. Nevertheless, there are, as of yet, no appropriate approaches to combine both theories and stimulate multiple employees at the same time (McGregor, 1960).

The following review on scholarly analysis on both theories significance and impact on the employees and organisations is pertinent. In Theory Y, it may be more realistic for managers to be flexible and establish trust in their employees as noted by Kopelman, Prottas and Davis (2008*b*) and Jenab and Staub (2012) in their twenty-first century review of this theory. In contrast, scholars such as Thomas, Gupta and Bostrom (2008) and Sager (2008), argue that theory X is still an essential approach to management in that it leads to beneficial organisational influences, and may still be dominant in specific industries or geographical locations. However, in most cases, theory X is considered outdated.

In addition, theory Y is mostly criticised on the grounds that it results in managers abdication from their responsibilities. This judgment, however, fails to consider the knowledge that the theory Y approach necessitates a fully involved managerial position, and that the role shifted from towards creating conditions that allowed individuals to reach their full potential while pursuing organisational goals. McGregor was the first to point out that this "objective" would not be accomplished overnight, and that "progress" in the direction of Theory Y will be sluggish, and it will involve considerable

transformation of the attitudes of management and employees alike (McGregor, 1989). Therefore, the above review and considerations suggest that managers should adopt a theory Y management style rather than a Theory X management style to get superior overall results. However, this viewpoint (which was shared by many) misunderstands what McGregor was attempting to do. It is critical to emphasise, from the start, a few key facts that are sometimes missed while discussing McGregor's Theory X and Y. That is, he was not presenting a roadmap for management success, as some may imagine, but rather a beginning points for a discussion on management and organisational culture (Gannon, Boguszak *et al.*, 2013).

### **4.3 Scientific management theory by Frederick W. Taylor**

Taylor (1914) investigated a variety of ways that can be considered as an effective and efficient way to get tasks done. The investigations resulted in the formulation of the scientific management theory, which was meant to make work well-organised. Thus, Taylor (1914) designed four principles of this theory and these cater, firstly, for an initial study before a task is performed. Secondly, employers should ensure that employees are appointed for and stationed at the posts they are comfortable with and that match their qualifications. Thirdly, employees should be supervised closely to make sure that they only follow best working practices. Fourthly, managers should spend time and resources on training their employees and plan for future needs (Mahmood, Basharat and Bashir, 2012). The advantages of this theory include the fact that it maximises efficiency, which is a great idea for the business. This theory also stipulates that workers should be assigned to jobs based on their capabilities, which in turn produces best results. This theory also has some disadvantages. The major flaws include the lack of emphasis on teamwork as the theory pays more attention on specific individualised responsibilities, which removes creative problem solving and makes co-operation obsolete. This theory also inspires micromanagement, which has the potential to affect today's employees in a negative way.

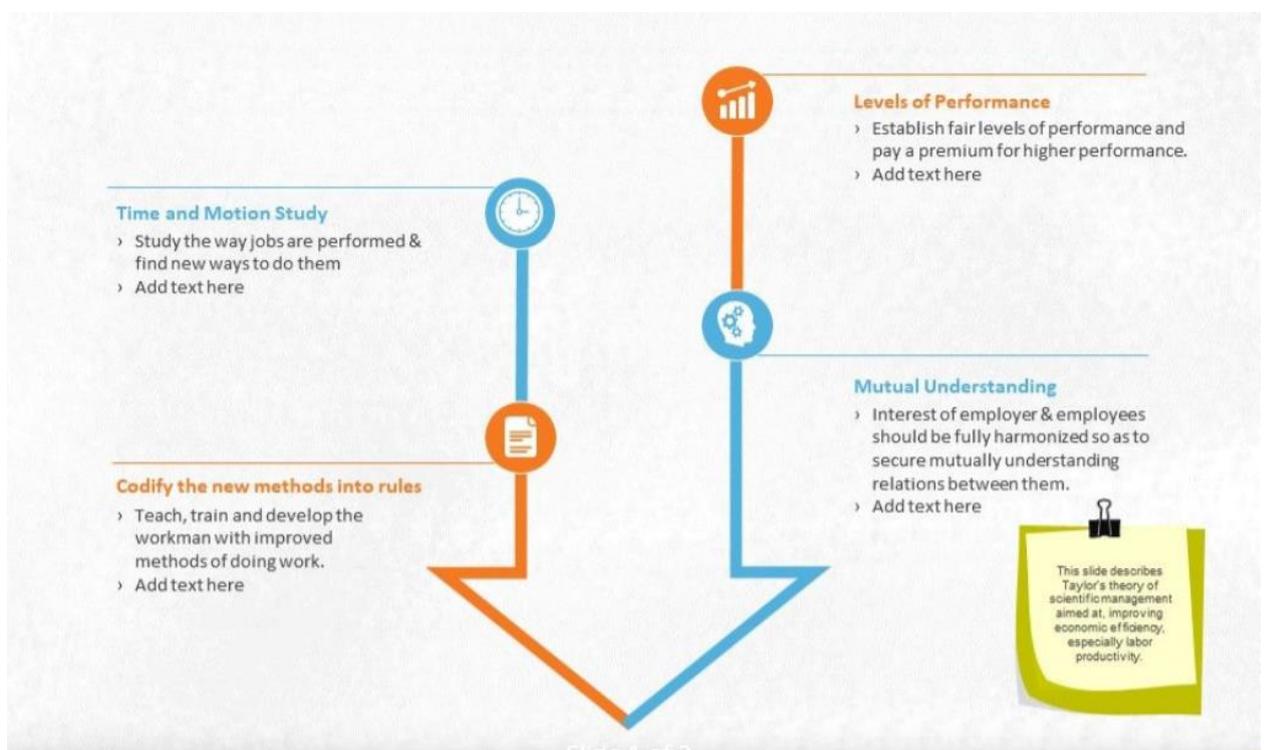


FIGURE 4.2: Hypothesis Scientific Management Theory.  
Source: Taylor (2004)

Figure 4.2 provides an overview of Taylor's scientific management theory. According to Taylor, management's fundamental purpose should be to maximize profit for the employer while also maximizing profit for each employee. He meant that the corporation and its employees should work together and be compensated for their efforts because it is in everyone's best interests. If this method were implemented, workers would benefit from increased wages, shorter work hours, and improved work and home environments.

Taylor sees management as the process of getting things done through the effort of employees who would be working independently or in teams. However, Sapru (2008) argues that Taylor holds the view that management is not performing its responsibilities and forces the liability of systems and production on labor. Furthermore, Taylor suggests that management should commit to planning work, organising, defining and directing methods directing that create the finest organisational fit. In summary, scientific management encourages standardisation, concentration, assignment based on ability, and extensive training and direction. There are four important components of scientific

management as postulated by Taylor (1914) and these are presented below.

- **Determination of standards of performance:** Taylor (1914) discovered from his experience that the amount of effort that a worker was expected to do each time was not known. In addition, his values of work performance were determined on rule of thumb and not based on a given scientific basis. Hence, Taylor presented his famous time and gesture study to determine the normal of work performance.
- **Functional foreman-ship/functional organisation:** Taylor (1914) called for a radical restructuring of supervision and suggested functional foreman-ship in the organisation where a worker takes orders from eight functional authorities. That is, Taylor proposed making use of specialists known as functional foreman each of whom would be accountable for a specific feature of the employees' task. He further advocated the division of labour between managers and workers that favoured a complete separation of the planning function from the doing function.
- **Piecework system of wage payment:** Taylor (1914) noticed that employees who had nothing to gain from working hard did as little as possible under prevalent arrangement of wage payment. As a result, Taylor (1914) developed the system of 'differential piecework' as a means to inspire employees to strive for and achieve the highest level of efficiency.
- **Mental revolution:** According to Taylor (1914), scientific management includes a complete psychological revolution in the attitudes of employees in the direction of their work and in the attitudes of managers/management towards their duties and the ways in which they handle their day-to-day problems. Taylor (1914) argues that determining standards of work, removing wasteful operation and the piecework system wage payment would have a positive impact on both the employees and the employer/management. Ultimately, this would result in a mental revolution amongst the employees and the management since they would develop a cooperative attitude toward each other.

## **4.4 Human relations theory by Elton Mayo**

The human relations theory highlights the motivational influence of praise and team work. According to Mayo (2004)'s management theory, employees are mostly motivated by relational factors such as attention and companionship than by monetary rewards. Elton Mayo, extensively recognized as the father of human relations theory, also developed a matrix that he used to illustrate the likelihood that a given team would be successful. His matrix demonstrates the role that varying combinations of group norms and group cohesiveness play in team effectiveness. He also explained the character of human behaviour in production and emphasised the importance of communication between the employees and the management. Mayo (2004), who paid more attention on exhaustion, working conditions, accidents, production levels and, rest periods, ultimately postulates that, workers are more motivated by social and relational impulses than by financial or environmental considerations.

Furthermore, Elton Mayo's management philosophy asserts that managers can increase efficiency by treating employees as different individuals rather than interchangeable cogs in a machine (Getha-Taylor, 2010). Those who subscribe to the Human Relations School of Thought think that an organisation's effectiveness is defined by the quality of its employees' connections. As a result, they think managers should concentrate on evaluating organisational behaviour, or how individuals interact with the company (Robinson, 2004). This school's fundamental principle is that the organisation's goals are attained by and with the assistance of its people. This school looks into organisational psychology, informal organisations, conflict, change, motivation, and relationships, as well as a variety of organisational development techniques used to establish connections among distinct groups of people. As a result, this school might be described as concentrating on people and their behaviour in both formal and informal groups (Getha-Taylor, 2010).

The following are the main characteristics of the human relations approach to management:

- A manager must have a basic understanding of human behaviour in all domains, especially in the context of work groups and organisations, because management is all about getting things done through and with people.
- Managers must research inter-personal relationships among employees.
- Only good interpersonal relationships can lead to greater productivity and motivation.
- Management research must include concepts and principles from a variety of behavioural sciences, such as psychology and sociology.

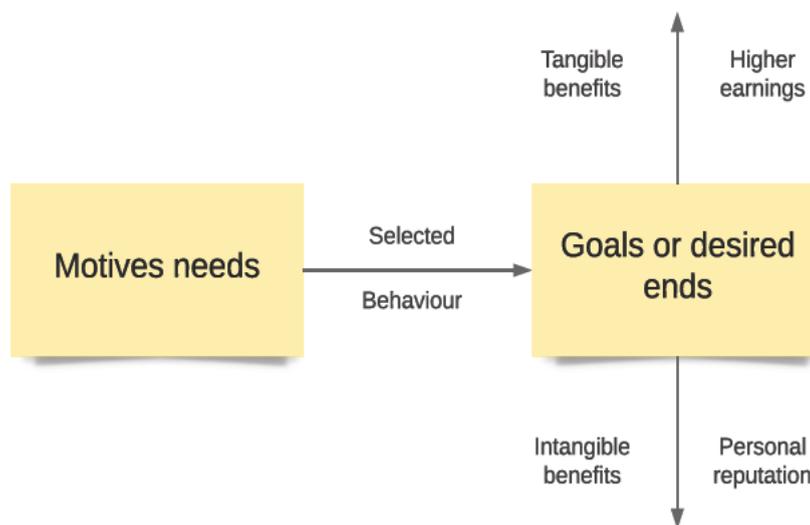


FIGURE 4.3: Human Relations Theory.  
Source: Mayo (2004)

Figure 4.3 presents the key elements that are at the core of the human relations theory. These elements are further summarised below.

- Rather than mechanics or economics, the focus is on people.
- The organisational environment is not the same as an organised social environment.
- Human relations play a significant role in encouraging people.
- Motivation is based on collaboration, which necessitates coordination and cooperation among the participants.

- Human relations within teams must meet individual and corporate goals at the same time.
- Individuals and businesses want to be efficient, meaning they want to get the most out of the least amount of resources.

## 4.5 Contingency management theory

This theory is based on the idea that effective management is directly connected to the character traits that a manager displays in any given situation. This idea led to the view that a set of qualities that are effective for every situation and that different situations call for different management traits. As such, managers must be flexible and accept to change associated with the team, the market and the business, and demand. Fiedler (2015*b*) theory suggests that there is no one management style that is suitable for every situation and every organisation. Instead, there are three general variables that determine business management and structure (Fiedler, 2015*b*). These variables are:

- The total number of employees.
- The technology that is used.
- Leadership at all levels of the organisation.

This means that a manager who subscribes to this theory must be able to identify a management style that is suitable for every given situation. In addition, these managers should also be willing to apply the chosen management style quickly and efficiently when necessary (Fiedler, 2015*b*).

The contingency management theory draws on Fiedler's theories and empirical work (Justis, 1975). The significance of the theory is explained by (Rice and Kastensbaum, 1983:387) in the statement that: "It became obvious that situational demands must also be considered. Yet, it was not at all clear how to develop a theoretical model of management incorporating properties of both the manager and the situation. Fiedler's

contingency model provided the first example of how this could be done. There is little doubt that all of the several contingency approaches now available owe a major debt to the ground-breaking efforts of Fielder". At the same time, Fielder's contingency theory was based on three areas and these are:

- The power of the manager to be to distance themselves from unwanted behaviour
- The subordinate's comprehension of tasks.
- The nature of the manager's personal relationship with members. It is these factors that provide the manager with situational power (Justis, 1975: Rice and Kastenbaum, 1983).

Furthermore, a study by Justis (1975) found that the effectiveness of management is influenced strongly by the perceived task-competency of the manager, the reward dependency of the subordinate upon the manager, and by the interaction of these two variables. The contingency theory has proved that it is a highly accurate measure of an individual's management potential (Waters, 2013). The theory is also measured by manager's response to Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC), where those who score high are categorised as of relationship style, while low scorers are task oriented (Rice and Kastenbaum, 1983). The assessment and evaluation is based on performance during an assigned major task. Each situation is analysed based on the extent of factors which provided power to the manager (Rice and Kastenbaum, 1983).

Contingency theory is mostly described as relationship oriented, or task oriented. Task oriented approach is concerned mainly with goal achievements, while a relationship oriented manager focuses on developing long term relations with people and organisations. Rice and Kastenbaum (1983) and Waters (2013) note that the relationship between manager and members refers to the extent of mutual loyalty and trust between them, while the task structure means the extent of clarity of tasks requested to be completed by members and, position power refers to the degree of authority that the leader possesses in reward and punishment. However, each orientation is contingent to a matching situation in order to be successful, and if the style does not match the situation then it is likely that the manager will not be successful.

The most important point that contingency management emphasises is that people with potential management traits are not able to manage in every situation, and that the environment and context play a major role in management. However, the contingency theory does not clarify why individuals succeed or fail in different management situations (Waters, 2013). Fielder's explanation is that task oriented managers feel much more comfortable managing in extreme situations. On the opposite side are relationship oriented managers who overreact in situations they over control, and over focus on relationships until failure in little control situations. This explanation was criticised by writers and found to be inaccurate (Waters, 2013).

The contingency theory adopts a view that everyone has a management potential. However, the interference of other contextual factors, such as organisation's culture, task assignments, and internal politics, makes various management skills go unnoticed. Many floor staff and mid-line managers possess task management skills, but do not notice it due to distance from senior management. Those that do not recognise their potential, do not succeed in their careers (Waters, 2013). A study by Waters (2013) observed that relationship oriented managers do well during times of conflict, and are able to solve conflict situations regardless of task clearness or power, and try a "win-win" outcome. In addition, task oriented managers focus on short term results and on tasks not relationships, are good in turning back to policies and instructions in place, and depend on their past experiences in similar situations (Rice and Kastenbaum, 1983; Waters, 2013). Finally, the contingency theory suggests that there are managers at every level, and not only at the senior management levels. As a result, it is important to discover those with management potential early in junior positions, and work to develop their personal and professional skills, for this mentorship approach will result in stronger management and better organisations.

Further suggested is the view that the distinction between the types of tasks in contingency theory offers a better analysis of the management style (Waters, 2013). Thus, there are a few points about contingency theory that were raised by critics. Firstly, contingency theory is measured by the manager's judgment of the so called least preferred worker (LPC) to determine if these standards are inflexible to the various situations faced by a worker. Secondly, the manager's various situations, such as the different task

structures, member manager relationship, and power position of manager, are not considered. Thirdly, the three bases of the contingency theory (relationships, tasks, power) could be expanded to other contingencies that affect manager. It is widely believed that contingency theory is supportive of power sharing in decision making, however, other psychological and socio-technological influences must be taken into consideration as well (Heller, 1973). In addition, Rice and Kastenbaum (1983) mentioned that even though the contingency theory recognises the effect of different situations on management, it does not provide the management style needed for different situations. Both also criticise Fielder for constructing a hypothesis, which states that task oriented managers perform better in either favourable or unfavourable situations, and that relationship oriented managers perform better only in situations that are intermediate in favourableness (Rice and Kastenbaum, 1983). They admit that it is hard to measure situational favourableness and go on to suggest some useful ways to measure the impact of the situation on the manager. These measure include observing; the manager's frequency of prompts to followers, followers' extent of sense of dominance by manager, and employees' expectation of the result from complying or not complying with the manager. Similarly, managers could be asked about their employees. Performance could also be indicated through questions determining whether the manager's instructions were followed and executed efficiently and effectively and whether the manager's directions were adhered to more than other managers' and members' directions, as well as what would be the ability of the manager's task organisation instructions. The search for the answers of these questions may include observing how the manager uses incentives or punishment, redirects actions, suggests alternatives, and utilises social influence. At the same time, one can observe the employee's response and level of compliance with the manager's actions. At the end, the manager's overall goal and aim, could be compared to the outcome produced by the team. All of this data would provide indications of the manager's degree of ability to influence the members (Rice and Kastenbaum, 1983).

In summary, organisations and managers that follow the contingency management theory, whether deliberately or unintentionally, will be concerned, mostly, with upholding the alignment of their team and achieving a good fit in all ventures and situations. Finally,

the contingency management theory postulates that, the way an organisation chooses to manage depends on the environment in which the organisation operate.

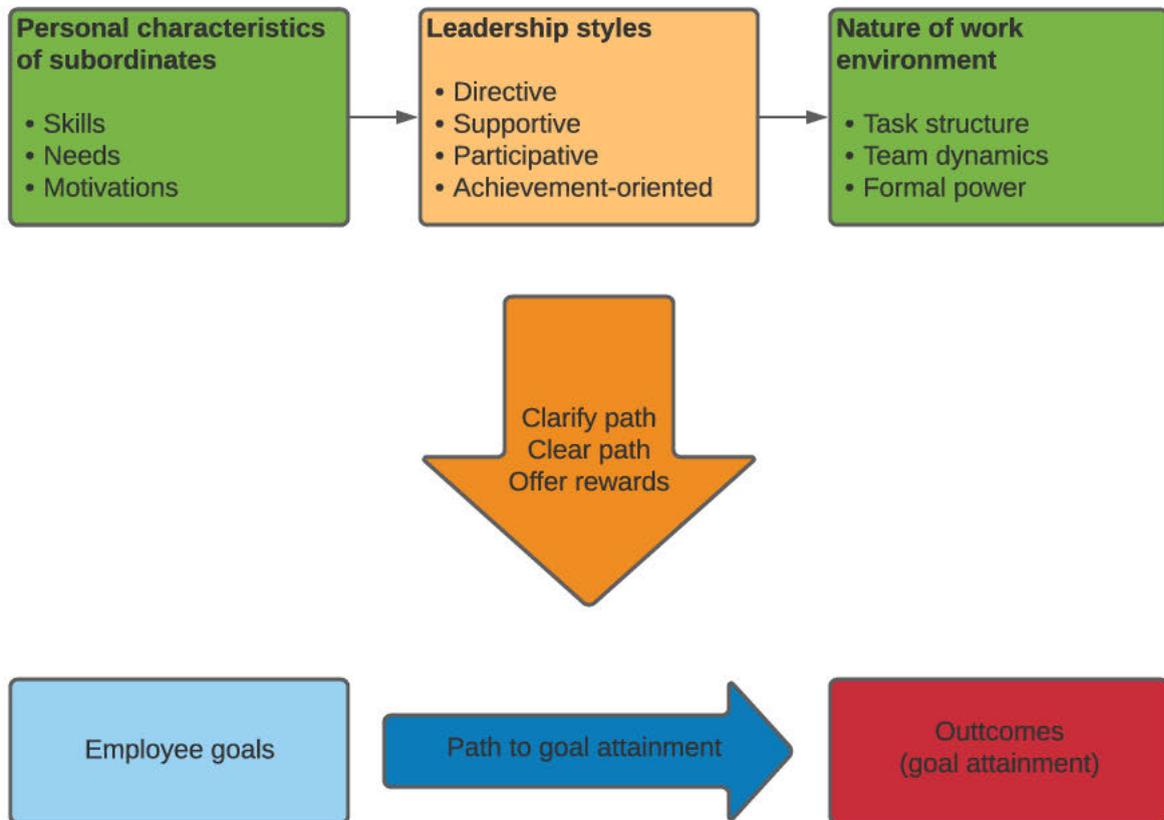


FIGURE 4.4: Contingency Theory.  
Source: Fiedler (2015a)

Figure 4.4 shows that there is no one-size-fits-all approach to organising, leading, and making decisions in a corporation. Instead, internal and external factors dictate the appropriate path of action. Managers who have good relationships with their employees will also be able to have more influence, according to the contingency management theory.

## 4.6 Theory underpinning the study

This study is underpinned by the X and Y theory which offers two opposing ideas in explaining managers' perceptions on how their employees influence their management

style. According to McGregor (1989), if a manager believes that their employees dislike their jobs and lack motivation, they are likely to use an authoritarian management style. This approach is very "hands-on," and it usually requires micromanaging people to ensure that work is done correctly. McGregor coined the term "Theory X" to describe this. Managers are likely to implement a participative management style if they believe that their staff take joy in their work and see it as a challenge. This method is used by managers who think that their staff will take ownership of their tasks and perform them efficiently on their own. A manager's strategy has a significant impact on their ability to motivate their co-workers. As a result, it is vital to understand how perceptions on what motivates employees can affect the management approach. The managers of theory X feel that their staff are idlers who choose to avoid doing their jobs and merely get by. According to theory X, workers must be regulated and threatened with punishment (Allio, 2009). On the contrary, theory Y managers hold the view that employees care about the company, will seek responsibility, and exercise self-control. The majority of the population, according to Bobic and Davis (2003), is capable of being original and creative. This finding backs up the theory that the assumptions in theory Y encourage more collaborative decision-making, which helps the company in the long run (Russ, 2011).

Theory X is of the view that employees need to be told exactly what to do, otherwise, they will not deliver as expected. It also postulates that there is no need to include subordinate employees in the decision-making processes. This study strongly assumes that organisations/managers use different theories and that these can either make or break the organisation. Therefore, this study seeks to investigate the impact of each style of management used by a manager to manage their employees. It should be noted though that, subordinate employees, just as managers, also have different views and preferences as one employee may argue that they prefer theory X as opposed to theory Y or vice versa. This study also assumes that a style or theory of management that a manager chooses has an impact on the employee's job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and directly linked to this is the reality that different employees receive management styles differently such that a certain style of management may be preferred by certain individuals and disliked by certain individuals.

## **4.7 Conclusion**

This chapter discussed four types management theories namely; theory X and Y, scientific management theory, human relations theory and contingency management theory. It also discussed why this study is underpinned by theory X and Y. This was relevant because it explained how certain management approaches impact the relationship between the employer and the employee. The review and discussion on the theories of management led to the establishment that it is imperative to understand, in the application of management theories that, employees and businesses operate differently. A style of management may offend one employee, while another employee may respond to it a positive way. It was also noted that a manager's style plays a significant role in shaping the kind of relationship that an employer and employee have. This chapter also discovered that happy employees are likely to contribute positively to the organisation.

The next chapter outlines the description of the study site.

# **CHAPTER 5**

## **A description of the research site Hulamin and its background**

### **5.1 Introduction**

The rationale behind the detailed description of the study site in this chapter is premised on the fact that Hulamin has been used as a case study and is the only organisation on which the study is based. The chapter is aimed at showing the justification for using only this organisation, especially at PhD level. A case study approach was chosen in order to get in-depth information from the selected organisation (Hulamin). Willis (2014) defines the case study research strategy as a multi-method based evaluation of a real-life scenario that is done from diverse perspectives. Yin (2009) cited in Willis (2014) also states that it is an empirical analysis of a current phenomenon that employs multiple data collection methods. This chapter is to provide readers with an overview of Hulamin and provides a justification on why Hulamin, Pietermaritzburg, was chosen as the study site. Most information about Hulamin was extracted from the company's website, the reports that were provided to the researcher by the organisation and from the reports available online. Thus, this chapter discusses the structure of Hulamin, its location and achievements over the years. According to Hulamin (2016), Hulamin is a leading metal manufacturing company in SA and internationally. The researcher hope that findings

from this study at Hulamin can be used by Hulamin and other manufacturing companies in SA in metal and non-metal sectors to select the best management style that will result in employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

## **5.2 The Company's History**

Hulamin's origin dates to 1935 when Aluminium Limited of Canada (Alcan) launched a sales office in South Africa. Five years later the Aluminium Company of SA was opened. The demand for semi-fabricated aluminium grew during and after the Second World. As a result, an aluminium rolling mill was opened at Pietermaritzburg site in 1949. Hulamin was listed on the Johannesburg Securities Exchange as Alcan Aluminium of SA in 1969 and grew significantly as a business entity over the years and continues to invest in aluminium rolling and extrusion technology in order to meet the needs and requirements of their customers (Hulamin, 2016). Hence, one of the reasons why Hulamin was chosen for this study is that the company has made its name in the industry and been growing since the Hulamin (2016) notes that the company is Africa's leading self-governing producer of fabricated and semi-fabricated aluminum products. The Hulamin Company Report compiled in 2010 also shows that the company is currently split into five divisions, which are: rolled products, extrusions, building systems, roofing solutions and containers and these are all focus on the South African market except for the rolled products division focusing mainly on exports. According to Hulamin (2016), international presence provides the company an opportunity to develop various competitive advantages, such as the establishment of an assorted product range, market knowledge, and that of good after sales relationships and service. In addition, Hulamin has come a long way and developed significantly over the years as well as contributed enormously to the economic growth of South Africa. Hence, the history of Hulamin and the impact it has on the economy of the country motivated the researcher to use the company as the study site. Figure 5.1 provides the key mile stones of Hulamin since the company started its operations. Hulamin has come a long way and the company continues to grow while also contributing to the economic growth.

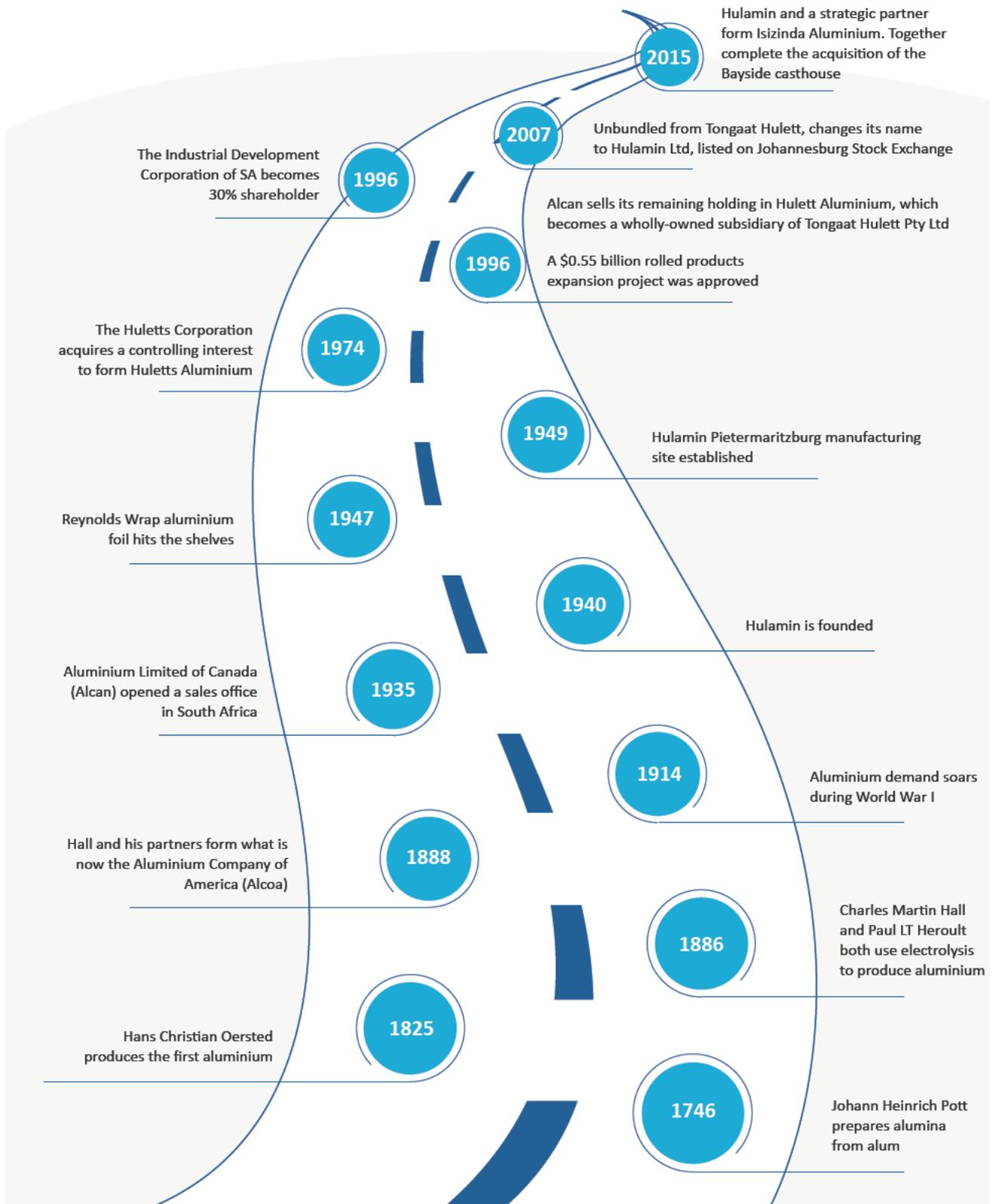


FIGURE 5.1: Journey and key milestones in Hualamin's history.  
Source: Hualamin (2019)

## 5.3 Organisational Structure

It is worthwhile to discuss the structure of Hulamin, in order to understand the type of work they do as well as the hierarchy. Hulamin is made up of seven main divisions and these have sub-divisions under each of them. Right at the top of the organisational structure is the chief executive officer (CEO). Below the CEO, as presented in Figure 5.2 below, consists of seven directors from different divisions and these are projects and engineering, marketing and commercialisation, manufacturing rolled products, chief financial officer (CFO), business technology, corporate affairs executive (CAE) and the human resources executive (HRE).

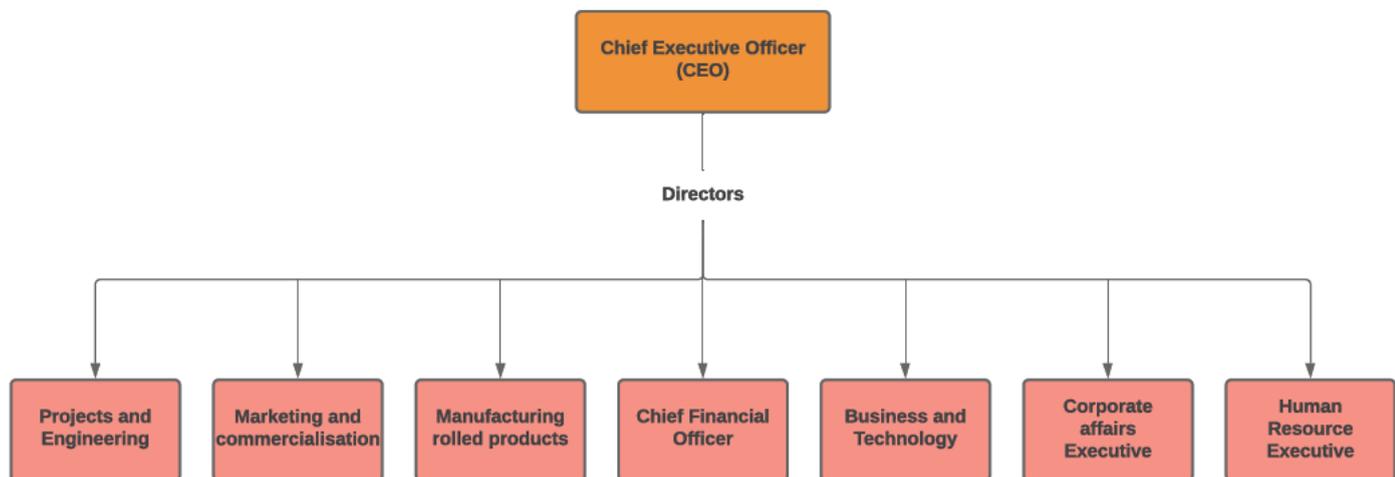


FIGURE 5.2: Directors reporting to the CEO.  
Source: Author's compilation

### 5.3.1 Director of Manufacturing Rolled Products

According to Hulamin (2019), the company's manufacturing facilities that ensure high-quality product delivery Hulamin's include the re-melting and recycling facilities, extrusion presses, and finishing lines. The directorate of manufacturing rolled product oversees the production of rolled items. The aluminum slab is rolled between numerous pairs of rolls to reduce its thickness to plate material ranging from 6 mm to 250 mm, and even lower to 2 mm for cold rolling into sheet and coil with thicknesses as thin

as 0.2 mm. The thinnest foil, with a thickness of 0,006 mm, can be produced with more rolling. Cast aluminum is rolled to change its metallic structure, giving it new features and characteristics such as increased strength and ductility (Hulamin, 2019). Finally, this department consists of a few managers namely the metal manager, rolling manager, finishing manager, business improvement leader and safety, health and environment manager that report to the director of manufacturing rolled products, as shown in Figure 5.3 above, to the director of manufacturing rolled products.

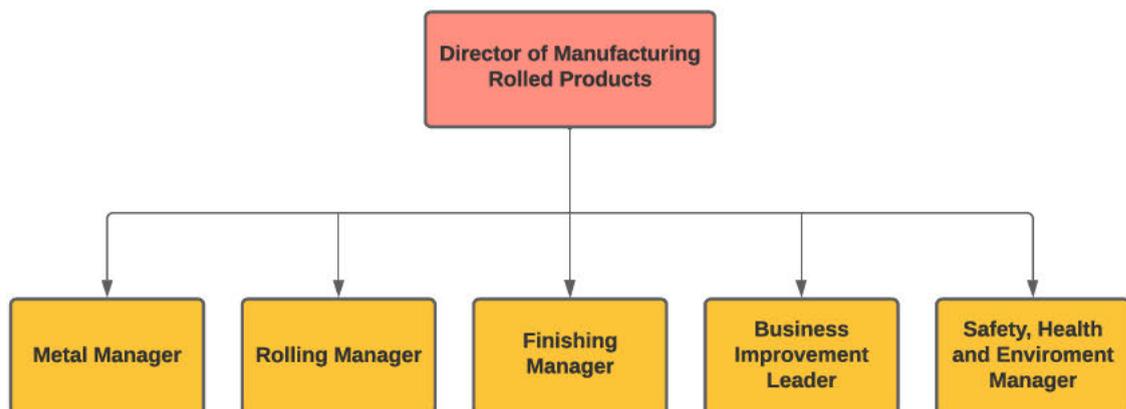


FIGURE 5.3: Director of Manufacturing Rolled Product  
Source: Author's compilation

### 5.3.2 Director of Marketing and Commercialisation

This department oversees marketing, sales, and commercial issues. This involves the handling of responsibilities for metal supply contracts, distribution, logistics, and commercial contracts, among other things. The department, as indicated in Figure 5.4 consists of the logistics and customer manager, supply chain manager and general marketing manager who fall under marketing and commercialisation. There is also the logistics manager, logistics coordinator and the packing technologist who report to the logistics and customer manager. The other managers, as per Figure 5.4, are the company buyer, stores manager, purchasing manager and company buyer who all report to the supply chain manager. Finally, there is the general marketing manager who has, the local foil sales and marketing, can stock market, foil sales and marketing, automotive

markets, local sales and exports circles and closure sheet sales under their management.

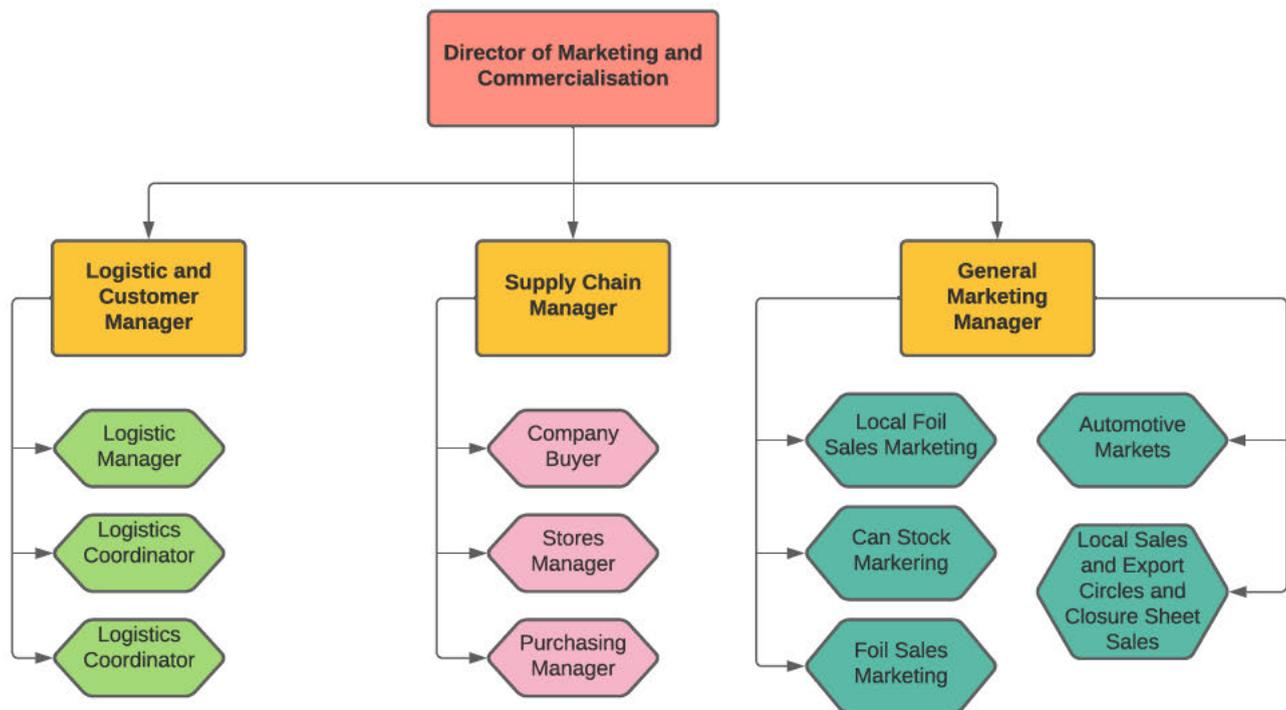


FIGURE 5.4: Director of Marketing and Commercialization  
Source: Author's compilation

### 5.3.3 Chief Financial Officer

Figure 5.5 presents the structure of the department headed by the chief financial officer (CFO) and in charge of the organisation's financial operations. A chief financial officer (CFO) is a senior executive who oversees the company's financial operations. CFO's are frequently responsible for managing cash flow, analysing monetary weaknesses and strengths, and overseeing all areas of the company's financial accomplishment. The financial manager reports directly to the chief financial officer.

In addition, there are managers that serve under the financial manager and these are the financial accountant, assistant accountant, creditors supervisor, and the accounts clerk. Financial managers must not only work with statistics, but also help other people of

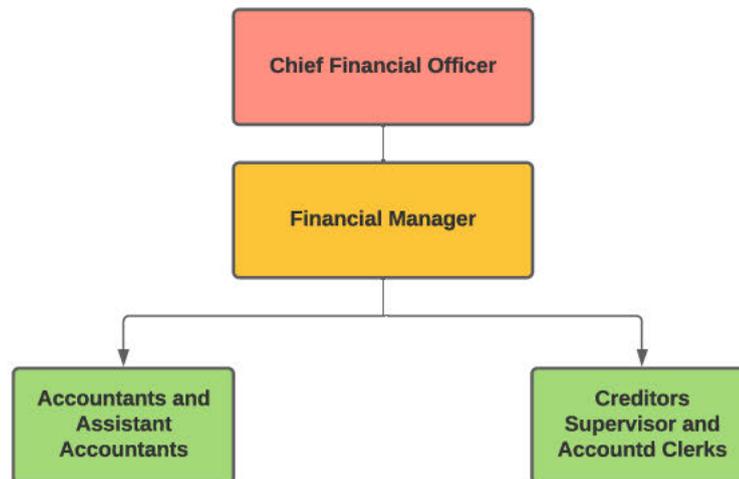


FIGURE 5.5: Chief Financial Officer  
Source: Author's compilation

their organisation grasp their complex reports, which necessitates strong communication skills. Financial managers oversee supervising the finances of large corporations, government agencies, and everything in between. They coordinate accounting and prepare financial reports, cash flow statements, and profit estimates with their teams.

### 5.3.4 Director of Business Technology

According to Hulamin (2019), to ensure that the company accurately understands what customers want, they invest in a team of qualified people. The business technology department then interprets product desires of the customers into alloy specifications, machine setups, and product quality plans, all of which work together to ensure that the company's products meet the needs of its customers. People who fall in this directorate, as shown in Figure 5.6, report to the director of business technology. These company personnel are that integration manager, quality assurance manager, research and development manager, manager of metal services, and the products manager.

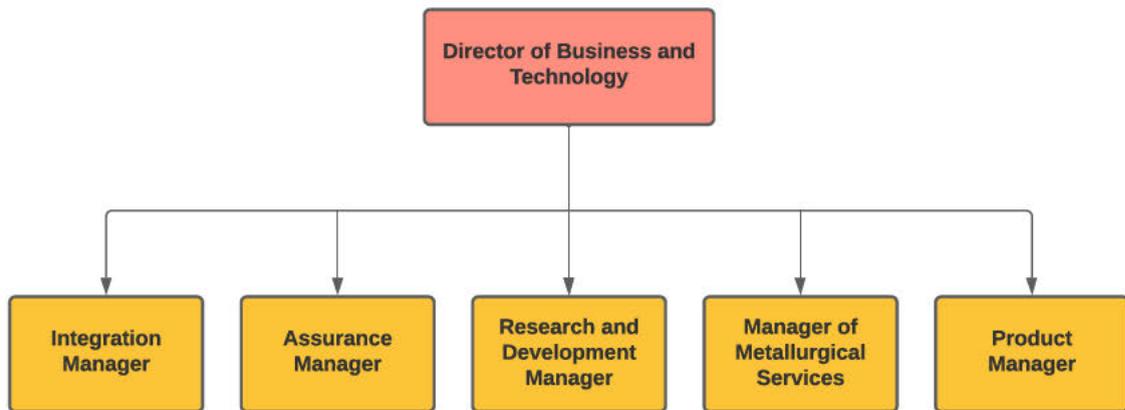


FIGURE 5.6: Director of Business and Technology  
Source: Author's compilation

### 5.3.5 Corporate Affairs Executive

This department, in which the communications manager and business information officer reports to the corporate affairs executive, is in charge of presenting a positive public image to potential recruiters and clientele. It routinely targets investors, consumers, employees, industry analysts, customers, government agencies, and other stakeholders through media campaigns. The structure of this department is presented in Figure 5.7 below.

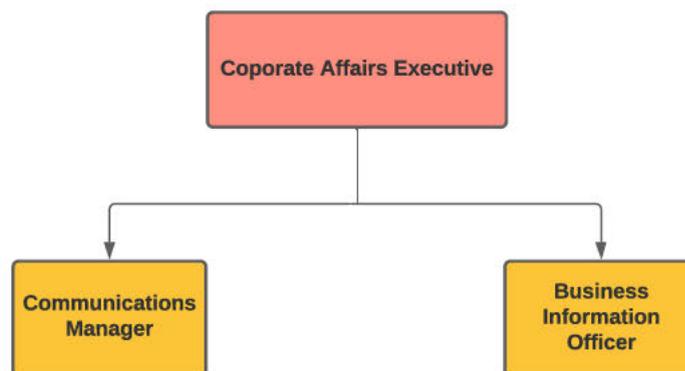


FIGURE 5.7: Corporate Affairs Executive  
Source: Author's compilation

### 5.3.6 Human Resources Executive

This department, whose structure is illustrated in Figure Figure 5.8, is in charge of enhancing employee productivity and safeguarding the firm from any workplace challenges. HR's responsibilities include compensation and benefits, recruitment, firing, and remaining current on any regulations that may affect the firm and its personnel. The following people report to the human resource executive; the training manager, human resources manager, industrial relations manager, human resources manager, and training officer. In addition, the department structure is such that there are the senior human resources officer who report to the human resources executive while the two human resources administrators are under the human resource officer. Finally, there are two occupational health practitioners who have four nursing assistants under them.

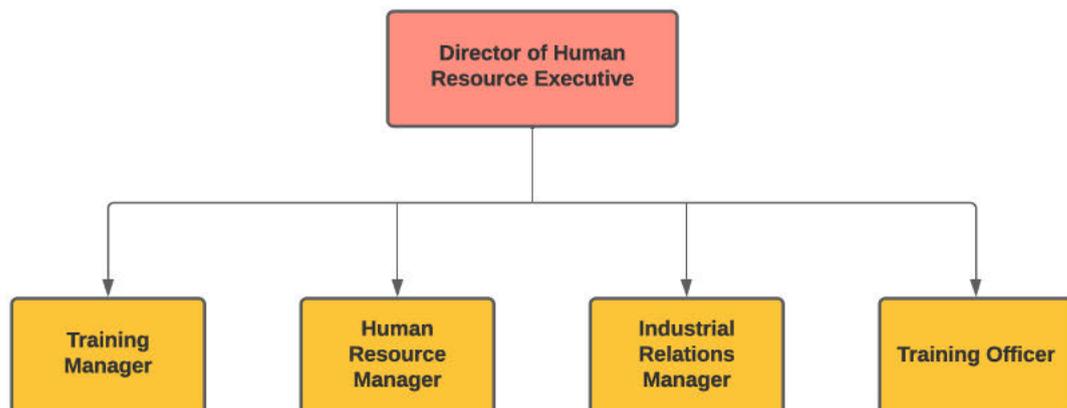


FIGURE 5.8: Human Resources Executive  
Source: Author's compilation

## 5.4 Hulamin's Philosophy

Hulamin was particularly chosen as a study site because of a number of reasons. One of the reasons draws on Hulamin's main purpose, which is to consistently meet or surpass the reasonable expectations of major stakeholders with the stakeholders including employees, customers, suppliers, shareholders and the surrounding communities. Hulamin also contributes to the upliftment of the standard of living in the area though a

number of social corporate responsibility activities (Hulamin, 2010). Finally, Hulamin (2010) notes that the company has grown and adapted to a changing SA and a challenging worldwide economic situation. The purpose, vision and purported impact of the company aligns with the study's focus on the relationships between management styles and job satisfaction and organisational commitment, for the nature and impact of this relationship determines whether Hulamin meets its vision or not. Despite many challenges, Hulamin is now considered as a key player in a highly competitive industry. The company has learned a lot from the challenges they have encountered. It has also developed into an extremely effective and specialised organisation that is able to satisfy the needs of its growing client base. Finally, Hulamin has all the potential to remain a leading player in its sector while taking advantage of and making its own opportunities well into the future.

## **5.5 Hulamin's Core Business**

According to Hulamin (2010), the company is divided into five departments that all focus on the South African market, with the rolled products division slanted towards exports. These divisions are rolled products and extrusions, which together constitute over 90% of the group's business, and three additional downstream companies called building systems, roofing solutions and containers. Within the Hulamin's rolled products division manufactures a range of sheet, plate and foil alloys and is focused on high specification and tight tolerance products. The firm operates a direct chill remelt, twin roll casters, hot, cold and foil rolling mills. It also utilises a number of pieces of finishing equipment, which include coil coating lines, slitting sheets, cut-to-length lines, cleaning and tension levelling lines, circle blanking and foil finishing facilities. Hulamin also has a state-of-the-art plate plant that is equipped with a range of additional equipment that includes a solution heat treatment furnace, sawing stretching brushing and a plate cut to length line (Hulamin, 2010). Hulamin produces aluminum for the following sectors: packaging, automotive, transportation, and general engineering. The company's activities stretch over sixty countries internationally and in that way, spreading operations span every corner of the globe while working to distinguish itself as a proud South African business

and key supplier to South African industry. In having a far-reaching global presence, Hulamin has the opportunity to create many competitive advantages, such as a diverse product range, market knowledge, a good-after sales relationship and service (Hulamin, 2010).

## 5.6 Hulamin's Quality Policy

Hulamin is committed to the operation of a quality management system, complying with the requirements of ISO/TS16949:2002, and other statutory and regulatory requirements, as well as complementary system standards. The purpose here is to ensure that customers' requirements and expectations, with regards to product quality levels and services, are constantly met with the focus of continual improvement (ISO *et al.*, 2015). In order to achieve this objective, Hulamin applies the Integrated (ISO *et al.*, 2015) which provides for the systematic control and verification of all identified processes and measurements to ensure the effectiveness of the quality management system. Even before changing from Hulett Aluminium to Hulamin, the company had a clear policy design for the implementation of the IQS. For instance, the then director of Remelt's rolling operations and manufacturing and the director of sheet and plate products and the director of coated products were responsible for the overall implementation of the quality management system and for specifying and directing the objectives, goals and standards of the company (ISO *et al.*, 2015).

Figure 5.9 presents Hulamin's business model. This model showcases the different units that makes up Hulamin. These units are equally important in the organisation as they all represent the day to day business of Hulamin.

## 5.7 Hulamin's policy on training and development

According to an extract from Hulamin (2010), talent is becoming an increasingly critical driver of both the corporate performance and a company's ability to attract, develop and

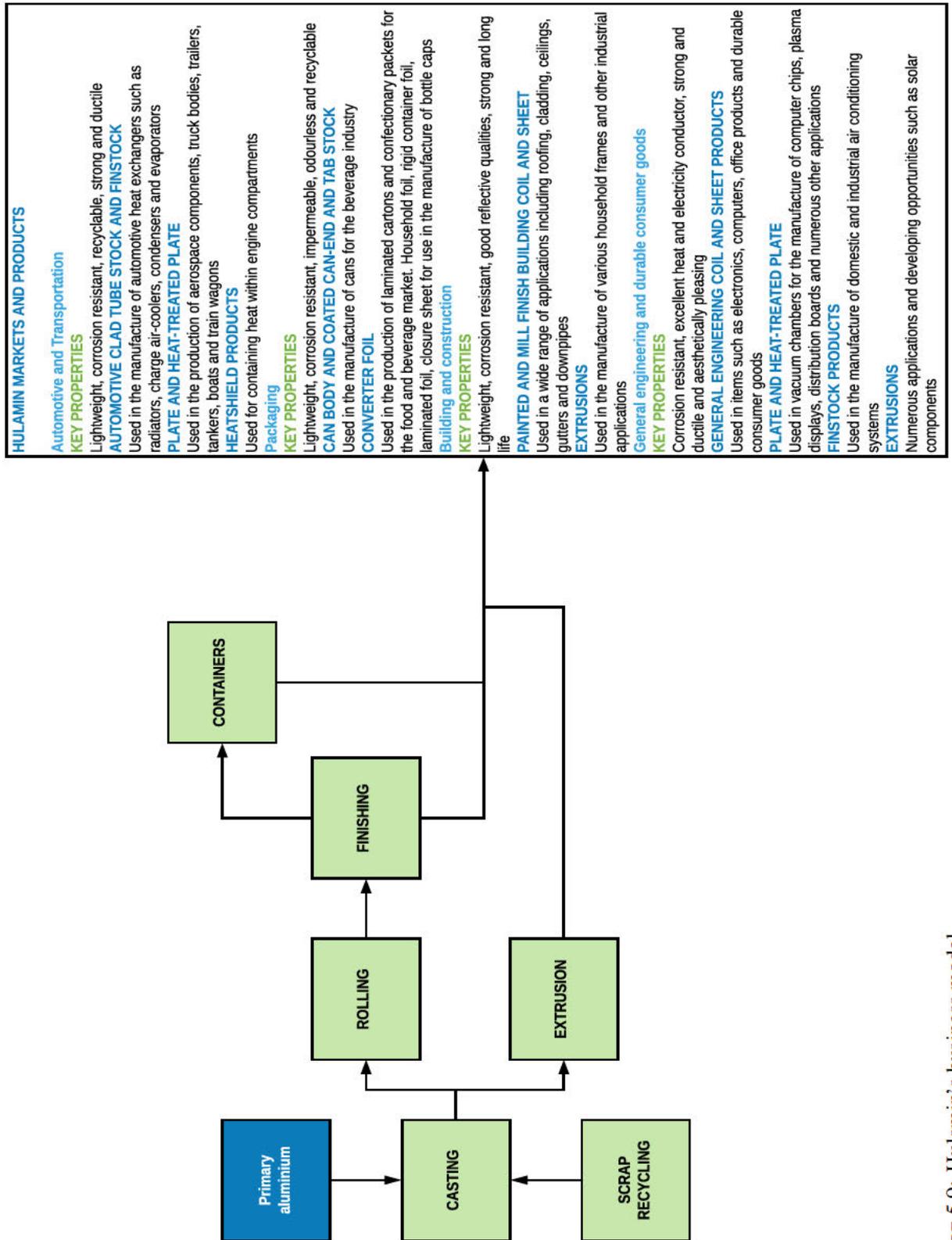


FIGURE 5.9: Hualamin’s business model.  
 Source: Hualamin (2019)

retain talent, and thus will be a major factor towards achieving competitive advantage into the future. The extract also indicates that the changes noted in the way the global economy is becoming more and more knowledge-based have resulted in the growth of the differential value of highly talented people. Therefore, the objective of training and development at Hulamin is to ensure that all employees are equipped with the right skills and knowledge in order to contribute meaningfully to the achievement of company objectives. It is the responsibility of manufacturing area management to lead the training and development efforts within a manufacturing area while strongly supported by specialists in training and development. In addition, Hulamin aims to have a workforce that is highly skilled, well trained, passionate and enthusiastic, and places the company in the best position to compete with its international competitors (Hulamin, 2010: 17).

## **5.8 Conclusion**

This chapter introduced the study site and in doing so outline the history of the company, its structure and the various policies of the organisation. Additionally, this chapter reflected on Hulamin's core business and the reasons for choosing Hulamin as the study site. Thus, the chapter explained why Hulamin was selected as the study site, with the characterization of Hulamin as a leading metal manufacturing company in SA and internationally being one of such reasons. The reality that Hulamin is a big and well-known entity suggests that people who are not in the same line of business will be interested in the findings of this study in particular with regards to the company's priding itself for ethical practices and valuing their employees. This study analyses the relationships between management styles and job satisfaction and organisational commitment and in this way it also evaluates whether Hulamin indeed values its employees through the management styles evident in the company.

The next chapter focuses on the research methodology of the study.

# CHAPTER 6

## Research Methodology

### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the tools and systems that were used to complete this research study. Before explaining how this study was conducted, it is important to first explain the critical issues related to research. Thus, a researcher attempting a research study to answer certain question(s) would be implying that the process is being undertaken within a framework of a set of approaches, and makes use of methods, procedures and techniques that have been tested for their reliability and validity. In addition, the study would be unbiased and impartial as noted by (Lancaster, 2007) cited in (Nxumalo, 2017). This chapter is consequently concerned with presenting the research methods used to collect and analyse data for this research study. According to Haralambos and Holborn (2008:864), any academic subject requires a methodology to reach its conclusions. Hence, every study must have ways of constructing and analysing data in order for theories to be "tested, accepted or rejected".

It is important for a researcher(s) to understand the alternative methodologies and techniques that are available, and the main principles that they can use in selecting the methodologies and techniques for a specific research project (Lancaster, 2007). Hence, it is important for researchers to "understand the characteristics, uses, advantages and disadvantages of each research methodology and methods of data collection" (Lancaster,

2007:74). In addition, an exceptional research methodology achieves the purpose and objective(s) of a research, as it ensures that the research has a clear determination and specifies the resources available for use (Blanche, Blanche, Durrheim and Painter, 2006:34). This chapter discusses the research methodology used for the purpose of answering the research questions of this study. The study used the quantitative method to achieve the most accurate results pertaining to the impact of management styles on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The concepts under focus in this chapter are as follows: research process, research framework, research design, research approach, data collection method, research source, study site, defining the population of interest, sampling, data collection instrument, reliability and validity, limitations of the study, ethical considerations, research hypothesis, purpose of the study, research problem, significance of the study, the objectives of the study and research questions.

## **6.2 The research process**

Before diving deeper into the methods that were used for this study. It is important to begin by discussing the research process that needs to be followed by researchers conducting a research study. The research process is defined by Bouma and Carland (2016) as a series of scientific stages that must be followed to do research. Bouma and Carland (2016) notes that each step is linked to the ones before it. The research process is made up of a sequence of acts or processes that must be taken to do research properly, as well as the order in which these steps should be taken. Figure 6.1 notes that the research process is made up of a variety of interconnected activities namely; theory, hypothesis, research design, devising measures of concepts, selecting research site, select research respondents, administering research/collecting data, processing data, analysing data, discussing findings and conclusion and writing findings/ conclusions.

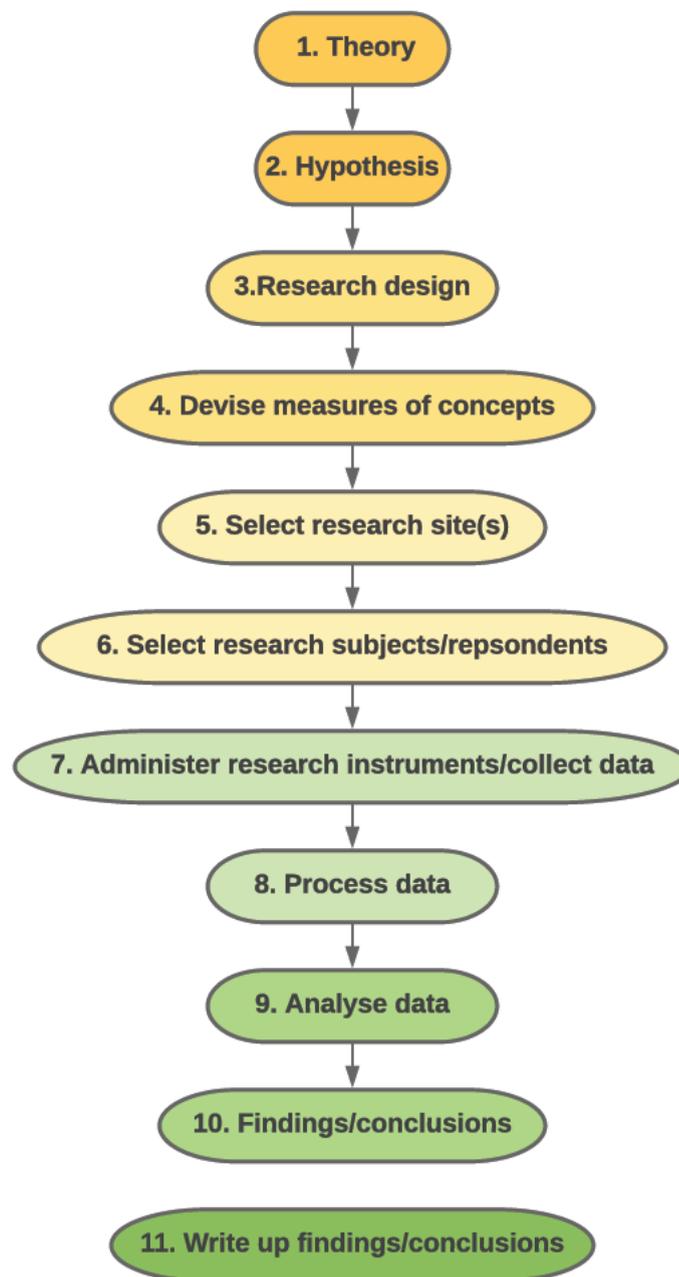


FIGURE 6.1: Process that should be followed by researchers.  
Source: Karl (2017)

### 6.2.1 Step One: Theory

According to Dankasa (2015), various factors must be taken when formulating a theory. These steps are presented and discussed below.

- **Demonstration of variable relationships** - A powerful theory, according to Sutton and Staw (1995) cited in Dankasa (2015), should be simple and interconnected, able to forecast and explain. For this study, the researcher observed that there is quite a number of employees who leave their jobs because of their manager's management styles hence the need to study and investigate the relationship between the above mentioned variables. Theories begin with observations that must be transformed into concepts and linkages. These ideas and interactions are then linked and merged into a larger picture. Without conceptual linkages, insight alone is insufficient to form a theory (Rindova, 2011). As a result, developing a theory entails more than just making a list of variables; the relationship between or among them must be established explicitly (Whetten, 1989).
- **Concepts with a clear definition** - To understand and build a theory, Kuhn (2011: 22) stated that the theorist must bring together and rearrange existing information. "The scientist must usually rearrange the intellectual and manipulative apparatus he has previously relied on, abandoning some components of his old belief and practice while discovering new significance in and new linkages between many others". The concepts used in this study have clear definitions and are easy to understand.
- **The Components of a theory are the elements that make up a theory** - Harmon-Jones and Mills (2019) argue that building a theory is an intellectual activity that requires the application of life experience. This means that the theorist participates in intellectual labor by being personally invested in the thing being developed. Throughout the process, the theorist will use his or her life experience and knowledge to study and interpret the work. Its purpose is to allow the researcher to apply all of the pieces that make up a theory.
- **Level of a theory** - The stages at which the generalisation is made must be specified properly when creating a hypothesis. According to Klein, Dansereau and Hall (1994) members of a group under study must be homogeneous, independent, or heterogeneous to demonstrate the level of a theory. For the purpose of this study, all the study participants were from Hulamin and are not in management positions.

If a group is chosen as the unit of study for building a theory, the prediction should be made based on the group's makeup.

Various distinguishable elements must be examined in a study to establish a decent theory. For the purpose of this study, different variables were examined to test if they can produce results that will speak to the reasons why employees leave their organisations. During that process, management styles were one of the reasons why employees leave their organisations for other opportunities. When the relationship between the two variables was studied, a further variable was introduced to investigate if it plays part in acting as a moderating factor between the two variables, that variable is referred to as job satisfaction. Wacker (2004) proposed that a theory should be unique in the sense that it should be distinguishable from other theories; it should be conservative in the sense that it should only be replaced by a new superior theory, and it should be conservative in the sense that it should stand the test of time. A good theory should be capable of producing hypotheses and models, as well as being generalizable and adaptable to other fields.

### **6.2.2 Step Two: Hypothesis**

The researcher refines the problem in this step. As discussed in Chapter 1, research hypothesis is a prediction made by researchers with regards to how a study or experiment will turn out. As the ultimate goal of any inquiry, this assumption must be at the centre of any valid experimental design (Mourougan and Sethuraman, 2017). The hypothesis statements developed for this study was as follows;

H<sub>0</sub> The autocratic management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>1</sub> The autocratic management style has an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>0</sub> The democratic management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>1</sub> The democratic management style has an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>0</sub> The laissez-faire management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>1</sub> The laissez-faire management style has an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>0</sub> The paternalistic management style does not have an influence on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>1</sub> The paternalistic management style has an influence on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>0</sub> The persuasive the management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>1</sub> The persuasive management style has an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

### **6.2.3 Step Three: Research design**

The researcher must then determine a research plan. The research design determines how the materials for the study will be gathered. Depending on the research objectives, one or more research methods, such as an experiment, a survey, or an interview, are chosen. The Research design for this study is discussed in 6.4 below.

### **6.2.4 Step Four: Devise measures of concepts**

The researcher must devise a measure of the topics they want to explore as part of the operationalisation process. This usually requires converting abstract sociological concepts into more tangible indicators that respondents can comprehend.

### **6.2.5 Step Five: Select research site**

As discussed in Chapter 1, a researcher should have knowledge of the company of interest when choosing a study site. This research's study site is Hulamin, which is situated in the city of Pietermaritzburg in the KwaZulu-Natal province. The site is examined within the case study approach.

### **6.2.6 Step Six: Select research respondents**

The first step in deciding the ideal respondents, researchers should understand their study objectives. The target audience should have first hand knowledge of the issues researchers are seeking to address. The research population were all the employees of Hulamin who are not in management positions.

### **6.2.7 Step Seven: Administer research/collect data**

The researcher collects data and records information while the research plan is being finalised. For the purpose of this quantitative study, a questionnaire was used to collect data. It is important to note that at this point, researchers can run into some practical issues. The research approach, for example, may not be appropriate. The interviewer may be unwilling to allow the research to go as intended. Furthermore, an erroneous interpretation could skew the study's results. As a result, when collecting data, researchers must be aware of effective data gathering strategies to get necessary and relevant information for research.

### **6.2.8 Step Eight: Process data**

This step requires researchers to condense all of their components and concepts into a written narrative that is both comprehensible to the reader and faithful to their goal.

### **6.2.9 Step Nine: Analyse data**

The process of gathering and arranging data in order to draw useful conclusions from it is known as data analysis. As discussed in Chapter 1, data analysis is a method of extracting information from data that combines analytical and logical reasoning. Data analysis' major goal is to make sense of data so that the knowledge acquired may be used to make better decisions.

### **6.2.10 Step Ten: Findings and conclusion**

The study findings must be reported as the final phase of the research process description. Statistical results were generated from the responses given by the employees from different departments who are not in managerial positions at Hulamin.

### **6.2.11 Step Eleven: Write findings/ conclusions**

The researcher also outlines some recommendations drawing on her analysis and the actions that should be taken with regards to management styles, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

## **6.3 Research framework**

Figure 6.2 shows the philosophical world views, research approaches, research designs and research methods that researchers can use when conducting a study. This is a foundational structure or paradigm that guides collaborative research endeavours. When conducting a research study, researchers use the framework as a structure and a direction to develop methodology, prioritising the right and relevant topics and structuring logical research presentation structure. Lithner (2008) adds that a research framework depicts the structure of the research strategy and aids in the formulation of suitable research questions. Research framework as noted by Wiener (2007) contains the study

project's major topics as well as the hypothesised links amongst them. A framework aids researchers in determining the best technique and tactics to use in a given situation based on what they are seeking to learn (Wiener, 2007). The topics in the Figure 6.2 i.e. philosophical world views, research methods, research approaches and designs are further discussed below.

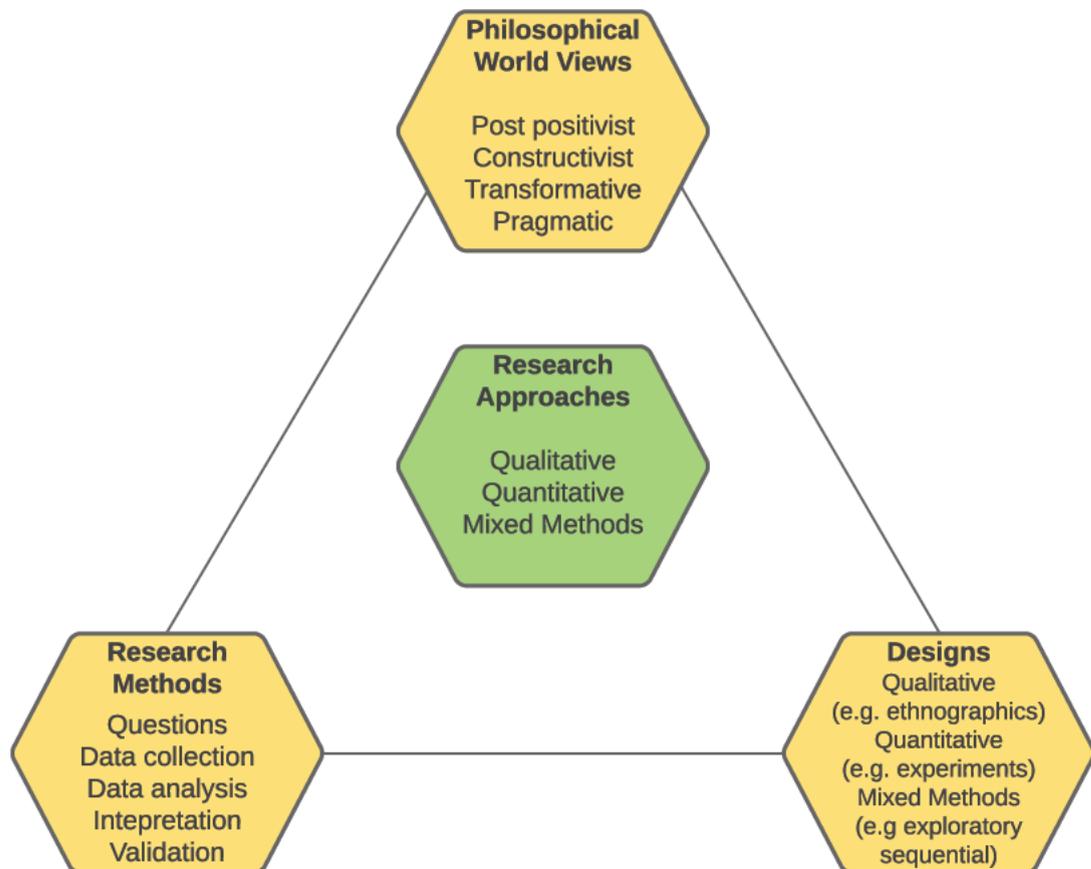


FIGURE 6.2: Research Framework for a research study.  
Source: Creswell (2013)

### 6.3.1 Philosophical world views

According to Creswell (2013) researchers need to be aware of the three major dimensions; ontology, epistemology and methodology, when one is conducting or planning to conduct research. Bryman (2007) states that epistemology and ontology are concerned with what is generally referred to as an individual's perspective that has an important impact on the

perceived relative significance of the reality aspects. Ontology, according to Furlong and Marsh (2010) refers to the study of being from a scientific and philosophical perspective. Furlong and Marsh (2010) adds that it is primarily concerned with the fundamental structure of the universe and what it means to live in that reality. The epistemological premise is focused on the study of the nature of the universe and how humans know what they know. Ontology, epistemology, and methodology are intricately intertwined, as the term 'methodology' is derived from the researcher's ontological and epistemological stand- point. Finally, the study design and data analysis approach are at the heart of methodology (Hay, 2007).

Furthermore, the term 'research methodology' is frequently used to refer to a study's whole data collection approach. It is vital to note that certain epistemologists demand that survey methods must be used (Hay, 2007). These philosophical world views are sometimes referred to as paradigms. A research paradigm is an all-inclusive structure of interrelated thinking and exercise which describes the nature of examination along the three dimensions that were mentioned above. Kahn (1990) provides a background on the word paradigm as noted in the statement that it originated from the Greek word called *paradeigma* which refers to a pattern. Creswell (2013) adds that a research paradigm is also called the philosophical world views because world views are overall philosophical alignments about the world. A research methodology considers the four key types of research paradigms, which are pragmatism, post-positivism, constructivism and transformative. Table 6.1 below recaps the four research paradigms and these are outlined in the subsections that follow.

According to Hay (2007), a research paradigm is an all-inclusive structure of interrelated thinking and exercise which describes the nature of examination along the three dimensions that were mentioned above. Creswell (2013) added that research paradigm is also called philosophical world views because world views are overall philosophical alignments about the world and the type of research that researchers bring into the study. Research methodology frameworks the four key types of research paradigms namely, pragmatism, post-positivism, constructivism and transformative.

<b>Post Positivism</b>	<b>Constructivism</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Determination</li> <li>• Reductionism</li> <li>• Imperial observation and measurement</li> <li>• Theory verification</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understanding</li> <li>• Multiple participant meanings</li> <li>• Social and historical construction</li> <li>• Theory generation</li> </ul>
<b>Transformative</b>	<b>Pragmatism</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Political</li> <li>• Power and justice orientation</li> <li>• Collaborative</li> <li>• Change-orientation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Consequences of actions</li> <li>• Problem centred</li> <li>• Pluralistic</li> <li>• Real-world practice orientation</li> </ul>

TABLE 6.1: Research Paradigms  
Source: Author's compilation

Table 6.1 recaps the four research paradigms; post-positivism, constructivism, transformativism and pragmatism. These paradigms are further discussed below.

### 6.3.1.1 Post-positivism

The post-positivist method refers to a scientific, critical, empirical and systematic and controlled research on a natural phenomenon that is directed by theory and hypothesis concerning the assumed relations amongst such phenomena (Wildemuth, 1993). Post-positivism is also associated with the belief that only scientific investigation is unconditionally objective, certain, valid, and accurate (Mertens, 2014). Nonetheless, post-positivists hold various views and these include the view that realism is quantifiable using the properties that are sovereign from the researcher and composed based on their research instrument and impartiality (Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit, 2004). A further explanation by Henning *et al.* (2004) states that positivists implement the scientific methods to organise the process of generating data with the help of quantification in order to improve the exactness in the description parameters and association between them. Creswell (2013) also notes that post positivism supposition signifies the traditional form of research, which is more motivated towards quantitative than qualitative research methods. Finally, Henning *et al.* (2004) maintains that post-positivism asserts that even though the purpose of enquiry exists, it cannot be viewed with total correctness by observation, which highlights that complete impartiality is nearly impossible to achieve.

### **6.3.1.2 Constructivism**

Constructivism refers to a learning viewpoint that is originated from the principle that people are all constructing their own views about the world that humanity live in through a reflection of their own experiences (Creswell, 2013). As a result, constructivists believe that the world is essentially and mentally built (Creswell, 2013). People hypothesise meaning when putting together, reading and listening to texts. People also build their own meanings on the basis of data which they bring to the task and develop when performing it (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). Constructivists are also of the view that the human reality is shaped by dialogue and an understanding of the procedure through which people form and modify meanings (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). Finally, constructivists maintain that there are various ways to arrange the world just as there are numerous viewpoints for any event (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). Therefore, an evaluation of the above views suggests that, constructivists do not explore or look for the truth but try to find and understand the rules that people use to make sense of the world in which they live and work in by investigating what happens in people's minds (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). In addition, constructivists' assumptions are also more likely to use the qualitative method of research (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016).

### **6.3.1.3 Transformative**

According to Chouinard (2010), the transformative paradigm is driven by a robust human rights and social fairness agenda which is aimed at uplifting the marginalised communities that include ethnic minorities, the poor, women and people with disabilities. This paradigm arose in response to persons who were forced to the societal margins throughout history and have found a means for bringing their voices into the investigation world. The transformative assume that a research question should be tangled with the politics and political adjustments confronting the social oppression of people who are marginalised in society (Creswell, 2013). Consequently, the transformative paradigm consequently puts emphasis on the scopes of power, culture social justice and honour (Chouinard, 2010).

#### **6.3.1.4 Pragmatism**

Pragmatism proclaims that any theory which demonstrates itself to be more fruitful in controlling and forecasting the world than its opponents can be considered to be nearer to the truth. In this way, pragmatists are of the view that the truth is not ready made but created from a combined action by or links made between people and reality. The pragmatists also hold the view that any research that is founded on objective, observable phenomenon or subjective meanings is most likely to produce valued knowledge that rest on the research questions of the related study (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016).

In addition, Creswell (2013) argues that the approach linked with pragmatism advocates for pluralist methods to advance knowledge about a social problem and hence its usage of a mixed approaches to research. Creswell (2013) notes further that the mixed approaches researchers advocate for the use of several methods, different assumptions and different world-views, and different forms of data collection and methods of analysis. This research was based on the insights of employees on the management styles and as such, the knowledge derived from it is valuable to answering the research question. Therefore, to answer the research question supporting this study, a quantitative research approach guided by theory and hypotheses was followed. Collected data was also analysed scientifically before arriving at a conclusion, hence the post-positivism approach was adopted. The research also considered the ontological and epistemological concerns significant thereof.

#### **6.3.2 Rationale for the research philosophy underpinning the study**

This research study is underpinned by post-positivist view. The quantitative research paradigm dominated scientific inquiry until the late twentieth century. However, several perspectives gained traction towards the end of the twentieth century. For example the notion that the positivist paradigm is the only approach that could explain all that happens in the world rose and it underpins quantitative research paradigms (Chilisa and Kawulich, 2012). The positivists hold the view that there is only one truth and explanation for a phenomenon based on empirical methods and quantitative methodologies. They contend

that any study should, to some extent, be generalisable to similar settings (Chilisa and Kawulich, 2012). At the same time, the foundation of a quantitative problem-solving strategy is the use of a rigorous and well-controlled techniques. This rigor implies that the researcher is in charge of any other variables that may have an impact on the study. As a result, the majority of these studies are conducted in laboratories. In addition to the rigor, these studies have a high level of validity, generalisability, and dependability (Chilisa and Kawulich, 2012). It should be noted that there are three factors of a research paradigm that indicate whether a topic should be solved quantitatively or qualitatively. These factors are as follows:

- Exiology, or ethics and morality concerning what is believed to be true,
- Epistemology, or methods of knowing that reality,
- Ontology, or our belief about reality's nature.

One must use a systematic strategy to learn about the ontology, epistemology, and axiology of a studied problem in order for them to arrive at a solution. This methodology could be quantitative, qualitative, or a mix of both. As a result, the selection of a correct methodology is crucial for achieving the optimum result/s. In addition, researchers should be familiar with both the quantitative and qualitative methodologies in order to make the best decision about what to use in their research (Chilisa and Kawulich, 2012). Numerical analysis are used in quantitative research to quantify variables and solve problems. Ontology is a real truth that only exists in one form in quantitative study. The quantitative method utilised by the investigator to ascertain the truth is epistemology. The majority of quantitative research is experimental, with a focus on hypothesis testing. Hypothesis testing requires determining the cause-and-effect relationship between variables. However, the ease of the application of the quantitative research paradigm to traditional research methods resulted in the quantitative research paradigm rising to prominence. In addition, quantitative research is also more generalisable than qualitative research (Chilisa and Kawulich, 2012).

## 6.4 Research design

A research design is, as noted by McMillan and Schumacher (2001) cited in Nxumalo (2017), a methodical plan to study a scientific problem. It is the processes used to conduct research that focuses on when, from how and under what conditions data were obtained. The aim of a research design is to provide the most valid and precise answers as possible in relation to set research questions (Creswell and Poth, 2016). A research design may be qualitative and/or quantitative. According to Creswell and Poth (2016), several authors provided a number of definitions for a research design over the years and below are some of the definitions.

Jahoda, Deutsch and Cook (1951) cited in Saleem, Shabana and Batcha (2014) define research design as the "glue that holds all the essentials in a research study together". Jahoda *et al.* (1951) cited in (Saleem *et al.*, 2014:499). Jahoda *et al.* (1951) cited in Saleem *et al.*, (2014:499) states that, "a research design is the arrangement of conditions for the collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy and procedure". In addition, a research design considered as a strategy for finding research participants and gathering data from them (Welman, Kruger, Mitchell and Huysamen, 2005:52). This study design outlines the study type, research question, independent and dependent variables, hypotheses, experimental design, and, if applicable, data collection methods and a statistical analysis plan. Hence, Welman *et al.* (2005:52) assert that a "research design is the plan, structure and strategy of investigation conceived so as to obtain answers to research questions and to control variance".

For the purpose of this study, a descriptive research design was used in order to attain the research objectives and answer the research questions. The descriptive research is used by the researcher in order to report the current situation in a descriptive way. Nonetheless, it is important for the researcher to understand other research design methods before selecting a suitable method. The two research design methods are explained below.

### **6.4.1 Exploratory research**

The exploratory method involves the formulation of a problem for more precise investigation and its primary purpose is to achieve new insights into a phenomenon. Burns and Groove (2014) define exploratory research as a research method that is used to discover fresh insights, expand knowledge of a topic and generate new ideas. In addition, it is applied when there are few or no studies to which references can be made for information. Yin, (1994: 285) confirms the afore-mentioned characteristic of this method in the statement that, researchers utilise exploratory research as a first step when a problem is wide and not well defined. "Exploratory studies are an excellent way to learn more about what is going on, gain new ideas, ask questions, and evaluate phenomena in a new light".

### **6.4.2 Descriptive research**

This method of research design describes phenomena as they exist. The aim of this method is to recognise and gain information on characteristics of a particular issue. Thus, a descriptive research design explains the current situation in connection with the research problem (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007). The researcher also observes and describes their findings (Yin, 1994). This research method answers the questions, who, what, where, when and how. It is used to study the current situation (Yin, 1994). Furthermore, Speziale, Streubert and Carpenter (2011) note that descriptive research entails a direct examination, analysis, and description of a specific phenomenon that is as devoid of unjustified assumptions as possible, with the goal of providing the most intuitive presentation possible (Marshall and Rossman, 2014). Finally, Marshall and Rossman (2014) also state that descriptive research is used to document the phenomenon of interest in real-life situations. Hence, descriptive research was used to obtain information concerning the relationship between managerial styles and employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment at Hulamin company in Pietermaritzburg, South Africa. It should also be noted that there are differences between exploratory and descriptive research. The differences are summarised and presented in Table 6.2.

<b>Research design</b>	<b>Exploratory</b>	<b>Descriptive</b>
Overall design	Flexible design	Rigid design
Sample design	Non-probability sampling design (purposive or judgement sampling)	Probability sampling (random sampling)
Statistical design	No pre-planned design for analysis	Pre-planned designed for analysis
Observational design	Unstructured instrument for collection of data	Structured and well thought instruments for collection of data

TABLE 6.2: Difference between exploratory and descriptive research  
Source: Author's Compilation

### 6.4.3 Purpose of a research design

As mentioned above, a research design is used to guide the researcher (s) in the right direction of study and keeps them from going down the incorrect route. A research design specifies the nature of study, hypothesis, objectives, data collection and research methodology, and methods of analysis. It is the research process' overall approach. Pandey (2002) discusses the reasons for selecting a research design as follows:

- To reduce the costs of the research study because the phenomena already exists and as such, conducting a descriptive study will not cost as much as researching/creating a problem that never existed.
- To enable the smooth scaling as the method ensures a smooth process of data collection.
- To collect the appropriate data and method since this method is used to ensure that data that the collected data is relevant.
- To provide a blueprint for plans as the method provides a model for data collection planning.
- To provide an overview to other experts because it provides a summary of the subject to other knowledgeable and skilled people.
- To provide a direction because this method provides a road map to other experts.

Experimental research manipulates factors to get a result, whereas descriptive research summarises the characteristics of the study group or a specific occurrence. This is the main difference between descriptive and experimental research. However, a descriptive research is appropriate for gathering information about a certain population or event while experimental research is valuable for discovering cause-and-effect relationships, correlations, and other factors. Descriptive research aims to characterise the study group's features in order to answer the question "what is," where as experimental research aims to modify factors in order to support or disprove the hypothesis. As a result, when faced with a "what if" scenario, it reacts (Pandey, 2002).

## **6.5 Research approach**

The research approach is frequently informed by a research study or the formulation of a hypothesis and testing hypotheses through data analysis (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). While deductive reasoning is connected with positivism, inductive reasoning is related with interpretivism. Both approaches incorporate the development of theory through the application of various research methods (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016).

### **6.5.1 Deductive approach**

The deductive approach entails the development of a hypothesis through a scientific test that allows for the generalisation of a phenomenon that has been observed (Wilson, 2014). The deductive technique aids, through the testing of hypotheses from a theory, in establishing the causal relationship between variables. It also emphasises the importance of revising a theory after a careful examination of the results or findings (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). The deductive technique also allows for the collection of quantitative data using a closed-ended questionnaire that is subjected to scientific rigor without the researcher's intervention. For the purpose of this study, a deductive approach was used to test theory. The hypotheses were developed to test the relationship between management styles, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The researcher started with a fascinating

social theory and unpacked its significance. Deductive reasoning is the method of study that most people associate with scientific inquiry. The researcher examines previous work, reads current theories regarding the topic under investigation, and then puts those theories to the test (Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

### **6.5.2 Inductive approach**

The inductive approach is concerned with the staging of an event and gathering of evidence through various methods in order to comprehend the attributes of occurrences (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Qualitative research employs an inductive approach in order to assist individuals in making better decisions. It assists in determining what, where, and how phenomena occur (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012). A researcher that utilises an inductive approach in a study begins by collecting data that is related to the research issue. The researcher will take a break from data collection to get a bird's eye view of her results after obtaining a considerable amount of data. At this step, the researcher searches for patterns in the data and strives to develop a theory that may explain those patterns. In addition, researchers using an inductive method start with a set of observations and work their way up to a more general set of assertions about the data. They also advance from the specific to the general as noted by Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2012). Inductive approach was not suitable for this quantitative study.

### **6.5.3 Differences between inductive and deductive approaches**

According to Lee, In and Lee (2015), inductive research begins with data collection, then analyses the data to establish patterns, and finally develops a broad focus and formulates a theory based on the observed patterns. Deductive research is, however, the opposite of inductive research in that it begins with theorising and hypothesising, then collects and analyses evidence on the hypotheses generated, and finally confirms or rejects the hypothesis based on the examined facts. Lee *et al.* (2015) observes that, while there are differences between inductive research and deductive research, both approaches can complement one other. This indicates that the inductive and deductive approaches to

learning appear to be diametrically opposed and yet, they can really work in tandem. In other cases, researchers will structure their investigations in such a way that one portion is inductive and the other deductive. Finally, a researcher may begin a study with the intention of conducting just inductive or deductive research, only to discover later that the other approach is required in order to elucidate the findings (Lee *et al.*, 2015).

## **6.6 Data collection method**

A research approach is referred to as a procedure and plan that includes the steps of comprehensive assumptions and detailed methods of collecting data, analysing data and interpreting data. One can easily define a research approach by dividing it into two categories, which are the data collection and data analysis or reasoning. According to Guba, Lincoln *et al.* (1994), there are two approaches or methods of research, namely quantitative and qualitative, which researchers can use when conducting a research study. This study used a quantitative research method. The research approach used for this study was determined by the research problem and the kind of data needed to solve this problem. According to Malhotra, Birks, Palmer and Koenig-Lewis (2003), quantitative research is appropriate for measuring both behaviour and attitudes. Quantitative research methods measure data by applying some form of statistical analysis. This method pays more attention to using specific definitions and carefully operationalising what concepts and variables mean (Tewksbury and Scheufele, 2009:38).

Qualitative methods pay more attention to the processes and meanings that are not measured using quantity, frequency and amount of intensity (Collis and Hussey, 2013). Qualitative research is mostly appropriate for small samples, while its outcomes are not measurable and quantifiable. This method is aimed at providing a deeper understanding of the phenomenon within context (Guba *et al.*, 1994). Furthermore, qualitative researchers emphasise the socially built nature of reality that states the association between the researcher and the phenomenon being investigated. On the contrary, quantitative researchers highlight the measurement and analysis of casual relationships between variables. Qualitative research places prime worth on complete understanding, people's

views about a particular topic and their people's experiences (Tewksbury and Scheufele, 2009:34). This type of method provides scholars with a broad understanding of how to pursue issues and problems in a different ways and, in so doing lay a foundation for future theoretical advances, modifications and even initiations. Finally, (Tewksbury and Scheufele, 2009:34) underscore that, "qualitative research is an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem". A quantitative research design, in contrast, adopts a positivist philosophy of knowing the emphasised objectivity through the use of numbers, statistics and experimental control to quantify phenomena (McMillan and Schumacher,2001:32). Statistical analysis is widely used in quantitative research to connect what is known with what might be learned through investigation. It is necessary to understand, while collecting and assessing data using quantitative approaches, the relationships between variables based on descriptive or inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics are used to draw judgments and estimate parameters about groups of people (Trochim, 2006). Inferential statistics are based on descriptive statistics and assumptions that apply to the full population using data from a sample (Trochim, 2006). Finally, quantitative analysis can also use graphs, plots, charts, and tables to produce visual representations of data. Quantitative analysts make decisions based on logic, facts, and reasoning (Trochim, 2006). The interpretation of raw data is guided by the general rules presented to evaluate the statements made and assess the validity of the instrument. In quantitative analysis, protocols are also used to adjust for or foresee as many threats to validity as possible. If a researcher feels that selecting one method will not yield good results, they can make us of the mixed approach which is a combination of both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Schoonenboom and Johnson, 2017). Teddlie and Tashakkori (2011) adds that the mixed method is used when combining two or more methodologies and it offers a better understanding of the study problem than when one method is used alone .

Table 6.3 summarises the key differences between qualitative and quantitative research.

	<b>Quantitative Research</b>	<b>Qualitative Research</b>
<b>Type of data collect</b>	Numerical Data	Non-numerical narrative and visual data
<b>Period of data collection</b>	Shorter Period	Longer period
<b>Research Problem</b>	Hypothesis and research procedures stated before	Research problems and methods evolve as understanding of topic deepens
<b>Manipulation of Context</b>	Yes	No
<b>Research Procedures</b>	Rules on statistical procedures	Relies on categorizing and organizing data into patterns to produce a descriptive, narrative synthesis
<b>Participant Interaction</b>	Little interaction	Extensive interaction
<b>Underlying belief</b>	We live in a stable and predictable world that we can measure, understand and generalise about	Meaning is situated in a particular perspective or context that is different for people and groups; therefore, the world has many meanings

TABLE 6.3: Overview of quantitative and qualitative research characteristics

Source: Author's compilation

## 6.7 Research source

Researchers have the option, when conducting a systematic inquiry, of being directly involved in the data collection process or relying on data that would have already been obtained. The first option of direct involvement is known as primary research, while the second option of using already existing data is known as secondary research. Primary research differs from secondary research based on how active the researcher is in the data collection process (Hox and Boeije, 2005). For this study, both primary and secondary sources were used to collect data.

### 6.7.1 Primary data collection

Creswell (2013) states that a researcher using the primary research method focuses on collecting data directly rather than depending on data that would have been collected

from research done previously by someone else. Hox and Boeije (2005) define primary data as data collected expressly for the research subject at hand using procedures that are most appropriate for the problem. Based on the main data collected, new data is added to the existing store of social knowledge on each occasion (Hox and Boeije, 2005).

Primary quantitative research methods are divided into the following four groups:

- **Survey research** - this is a data collection method that is used to collect data from a predefined group.
- **Correlational research** - the type of non-experimental research that is aimed at measuring two variables. The purpose of correlation research is to get insights and assess the statistical relations amongst two variables.
- **Causal-Comparative research** - in this type of research, researchers use the comparison method to investigate the impact of an independent variable on dependent variable.
- **Experimental research** - this type of research includes a variable and an hypothesis that can be tested by researchers.

#### 6.7.1.1 Survey research

Survey research refers to a process of collecting data using surveys that a researcher send to survey the participants. The data that is collected using surveys is then statistically analysed in order to draw meaningful conclusions. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2014), there are two types of surveys that researchers can use to collect data and these are:

- **Cross-sectional surveys** - where a researcher collects data from a target population at one point in time (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014).
- **Longitudinal survey** - where a researcher collects data at different points of time with the aim of observing the changes that might happen over time (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014).

Surveys are also used to ask a sample of participants some questions (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). A researcher conducting a survey research can ask numerous survey questions, collect the data from the participants and analyse the collected data in order to produce statistical results (Bryman, 2007). Therefore, surveys enabled the researcher to know more about the large population based on a sample of the population (Bryman, 2007).

### 6.7.1.2 Correlational research

Correlational research refers to research that is conducted with the aim of establishing an association between two objects. The researcher observes the way in which one affects the other and the changes thereof. This research method, which requires at least a minimum of two groups in order to conduct this quantitative research method successfully, gives value to a naturally occurring relationships (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014).

Furthermore, MacDonald, Wong and Dionne (2014) note that correlational research is a form of study that includes observing two variables in order to find a statistically significant link between them. The goal of correlational research is to find variables that are related to each other to the point where a change in one causes a change in the other. There are three forms of correlational research as noted by MacDonald *et al.* (2014) these are:

- **Positive Correlational Research:** a research strategy that uses two statistically correlated variables to see if an increase or decrease in one causes a similar change in the other. For instance, a rise in worker pay can lead to an increase in the cost of goods and services, and vice versa.
- **Negative Correlational Research:** this is a research strategy that involves two statistically opposing variables, where an increase in one variable causes an opposite effect or a drop in the other. An example of a negative correlation is reflected in a situation where a price of products and services leads to a fall in demand and vice versa.

- **Zero Correlational Research:** this is a type of correlational study that involves two variables, which are not statistically related. A change in one of the variables may not cause a corresponding or alternate change in the other variable in this scenario. In addition, variables with ambiguous statistical correlations are accommodated by zero correlational research.

### **6.7.1.3 Causal-comparative**

The casual method of research rests mainly on the comparison factor. This method is used by researchers in order to draw conclusions based on the cause-effect equation among two or more variables where one variable is dependent on the other variable (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). The aim of causal-comparative research is to find a cause-and-effect link between two or more groups (Gay, Mills and Airasian, 2011). Thus, causal-comparative investigations entail comparisons, which is in contrast to correlation research that focuses on relationships.

### **6.7.1.4 The experimental research**

Experimental research is dependent on theory. It is founded on one or more theories and involves conducting an analysis with the purpose of demonstrating or invalidating the statement (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). It is an hypothesis (or numerous hypotheses) that outlines a predicted link between two or more variables guides experimental study (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014).

## **6.7.2 Secondary quantitative research methods**

Secondary quantitative research refers to a study that draws on existing data. Researchers may rely on knowledge and research outcomes that have already been gained and published. This secondary data is summarised and organised in order to increase the whole effectiveness of the research (Creswell, 2013). A secondary quantitative research method comprises of the collection of quantitative data from the existing sources

such as the, libraries, internet, research reports and government resources (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). Finally, the cost of primary research is significantly higher than the cost of secondary research and this because it uses existing data, which is either collected directly by organisations or delegated to a third-party agency, rather than conducting primary research.

## **6.8 Study site**

A researcher should have knowledge of the company of interest when choosing a study site. This research's study site is Hulamin, which is situated in the city of Pietermaritzburg in the KwaZulu-Natal province. The site is examined within the case study approach. Garbers, 1996 (1996: 288) defines a case study as an example of an in - depth description and explanation of the specific phenomenon, event or group within the context of a specific reality, environment or meaning. In addition, a case study involves a detailed, contextual analysis of similar situations in other organisations, "where the nature and definition of the problem happen to be the same as experienced in the current situation" (Garbers, 1996: 288). The reasons for choosing Hulamin as the case study include the fact that Hulamin is one of the biggest manufacturing companies in South Africa. Secondly, the company was easily accessible for the researcher. Thirdly, and lastly, the company was chosen by the researcher based on cost-effectiveness and its time-saving capacity. Hulamin, is located in Pietermaritzburg, KwaZulu-Natal and Midrand, Gauteng, and supported by sales offices in South Africa, Europe and the United States of America (Hulamin, 2016). According to (Hulamin, 2016), the company is the only major aluminum rolling operation in sub-Saharan Africa and one of the largest mineral beneficiating exporters in South Africa. (Hulamin, 2016) states that 60% of the sales are exported to leading manufacturers around the world, focusing on specific product and end-use markets. Finally, Hulamin is dedicated to the growth of the Southern African aluminum industry and to making a meaningful contribution to sustainable development in Southern Africa (Hulamin, 2019), hence the decision to choose it as a case study.

## 6.9 Defining the population of interest

A population refers to parent group consisting of the entire mass from which a sample is selected (Wilson and Dewaele, 2010). A definition by Cooper and Schindler (2006:402) of the population states that a “population can be viewed simply as a large pool of cases or elements from which a researcher draws a sample”. (Wilson and Dewaele (2010:190) also argue that, the definition of a population mostly depends on the researcher’s research questions and the framework with which they wish to study. The population of interest for this study were the employees of Hulamín, based in Pietermaritzburg in the KwaZulu–Natal province of South Africa. The population at Hulamín Pietermaritzburg is as follows;

The employees are distributed in different departments as follows:

<b>Department</b>	<b>Number of Employees</b>
Aluminium Reclamation Dept 22	42
Camps Drift Hot Mill Dept 25	72
Camps Drift Remelt Dep 23	85
Camps Drifts TRC Dept 26	30
Coil Coating Line Dept 28	75
Coil Processing Dept 34	145
Coil Mills Dept 33	95
Foil Rolling Dept 35	65
Foil Finishing Dept 36	25
Plate Plant Dept 14	74
<b>Total</b>	<b>708</b>

TABLE 6.4: Number of employees in each department

Source: Author’s compilation

Table 6.4 provides a break down of the population. The distribution consists of the Aluminium Reclamation Dept 22 that has 42 employees while the Camps Drift Hot Mill Dept 25 has 72 employees. There is also Camps Drift Remelt Dept 23, which has 85 employees and Camps Drift TRC Dept 26 that had 30 employees. Coil Coating Line Dept 28 is made up of 75 employees and the Coil Processing Dept 34 has the highest number of employees in the organisation, who stood at 145 employees during the time of the study. The other departments are Coil Mills Dept 33 has a second highest number of 95 employees while the Foil Finishing Dept 36 has the lowest number of 25 employees.

The Foil Rolling Dept 35 has 65 employees and the Plate Plant Dept 14 consists of 74 employees. At the time of the study, the total number of employees was 708.

## 6.10 Sampling

Sampling refers to a small group that is selected by a researcher as representative of the whole population (Sekeran and Bougie, 2009). For example, the population may be all the people living in South Africa while the sample thereof will be some of the people living in SA (for example black women only). A sample should obtain accurate and reliable information about the population and make intensive and exhaustive study possible with much less time, money and material. Sekeran and Bougie (2009:266) define sampling as “the process of selecting a sufficient number of the right elements from the population, so that a study of the sample and an understanding of its properties or characteristics make it possible for us to generalize such properties or characteristics to the population elements”. Krejcie and Morgan(1979: 236) also note that the process of designing a sample frame includes the purpose of the sampling design, the costs involved and the execution of the sampling process. Finally, a sample is a subset of the entire population from which data is collected by the researcher (Yin, 1994).

According to Krejcie and Morgan (1979) table, if the population is 708, the ideal sample size will be between 248 and 254. The formula to determine the sample size was used to determine the exact appropriate sample size. The formula to determine the sample size  $s$ , provided that the population is known, and is given by Krejcie and Morgan (1979).

$$s = \frac{\chi^2 NP(1 - P)}{d^2(N - 1) + \chi^2 P(1 - P)},$$

where  $\chi^2$  is the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level,  $N$  is the population size,  $P$  is the population proportion (assumed to be 0.5), and  $d$  is the degree of accuracy as a proportion (assumed to be 0.05). Since  $N = 708$ , we have that

$$s = \frac{3.84 \times 708 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}{0.05^2 \times 707 + 3.84 \times 0.5 \times 0.5} = 249.$$

Hence, the recommended sample size for this study was 249 employees.

As discussed in Chapter 1, stratified sampling method was used to divide the sample according to departments. When using this method, according to Parsons (2014), elements of the target population are separated in various groups. The sample size for this study was initially 249 employees. A sample size was divided by the number of departments at Hulamin ( $249/10=24$ ), this was done to ensure that all departments are equally represented and have a fair chance of participating in the study. From each department, all the employees who are not in management positions were asked to write their names on a piece of paper which they put in a container provided by the researcher. Once all the names were inside the container, one person chosen by the researcher was requested to randomly select 24 names of people who are going to participate in the study from each department. The chosen 24 people from each department were then given questionnaires to complete and return to the researcher. During the capturing stage, the researcher discovered that 7 of the 249 questionnaires were incomplete, as a result, 242 questionnaires were recorded for this study.

Yin (1994) highlighted some advantages and disadvantages of sampling as discussed below.

### **6.10.1 Advantages of sampling**

- It has a greater adaptability - sampling ensures that researchers adapt quickly to certain conditions.
- It is an economical technique - if researchers were to study the whole population, the study would be very expensive and time consuming.
- It has high speed for generalisation - some populations are too big and thus attempts at measuring their characteristics may be difficult
- This technique has great accuracy - the reality that a sample represents a section of the population from which it was selected allows for a high degree of accuracy.
- It has a greater speed in conducting a research work - sampling is time consuming.

- It has a greater scope in the field of research.
- It reduces the cost of observation or data collection.

### **6.10.2 Disadvantages of sampling**

It is also important to note the disadvantages of sampling when conducting a research study.

- Scope of biases - even though the aim of a sample is to represent the whole population, the results may be biased in favour a certain group
- Problem of representative sample - this arises from difficulties in selecting a truly representative sample.
- Need of eligible researchers - sampling requires that researchers have knowledge about what research is and how to conduct research and as a result a less skilled and unmotivated researcher will undermine the veracity of the sampling and research as a whole.
- Instability of sample subjects or changeability of units in a heterogeneous population affects sampling.

## **6.11 Types of sampling methods**

There are two types of sampling methods that researchers can choose from and these are the probability and the non-probability sampling. This study used the probability sampling method. According to Wilson and Dewaele (2010:194), probability sampling allows every item in the population to stand a chance of being included in the sample. Probability sampling enables the researcher to calculate the nature and extent of any prejudices in the estimate to determine what difference in the estimate is due to the sampling process. The purpose of probability sampling, as noted by Yin (1994), is to make sure that the participants are a representative subset of the research population

and therefore, any results can be generalised to that target market. Non-probability sampling assumes that the population's features are uniformly distributed, leading the sampler to feel that any sample chosen accurately represents the entire population (Yin, 1994). Non-probability sampling is based on the assumption that the characteristics of the population are evenly distributed, thus compelling the sampler to believe that any sample chosen would accurately represent the entire population. In addition, probability sampling is based on the principle of randomisation, in which every entity has an equal chance of being included in the sample while non-probability sampling is based on the assumption that the characteristics of the population are evenly distributed, which leads the sampler to believe that any sample chosen would accurately represent the entire population (Yin, 1994). The discussions that follow focus of each sampling method and the associated methods as indicated in Figure 6.3. Other methods that are not presented in Figure 6.3, such as systematic sampling, expert choice, snowball sampling and mobile population sampling are also discussed.

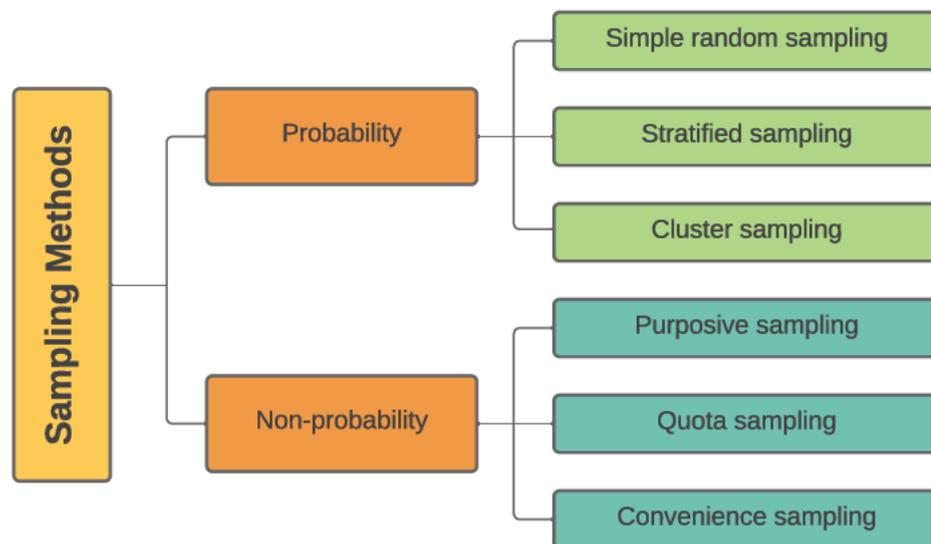


FIGURE 6.3: Types of sampling methods.  
Source: Sarstedt *et al.* (2018)

### **6.11.1 Probability sampling**

As stated above, probability sampling, often known as random selection, is the process of picking a sample from a population using the principle of randomisation (Yin, 2009). The probability sampling method was chosen for this study. The choice to use probability sampling is based on the nature of the study undertaken and the advantages associated with the method. In particular, stratified sampling was used by the researcher. The methods used in probability sampling are discussed in detail below.

#### **6.11.1.1 Simple random sampling**

Researchers utilise a simple random method when each member of the population stands an equal chance to be selected to form a sample (Yin, 2009). The method only takes a single random selection and little prior knowledge about the population and is therefore, the simplest of all the probability sampling methods. Finally, the randomisation ensures that the research undertaken on this population yields great internal and external validity (Yin, 2009).

#### **6.11.1.2 Stratified sampling**

Stratified sampling involves the picking of samples from a group of people. A researcher using stratified random sampling separates the population into a subpopulation (strata: defined as a demographic characteristic, such as female and male) based on extra information. A random sample is then taken from each of population strata (Yin, 2009).

#### **6.11.1.3 Cluster sampling**

Cluster sampling refers to a sampling method in which the population is divided into pre-existing groups (clusters) and a random sample of each cluster is drawn from the population. According to Brown and Manly (1998), a geographical region, schools, buildings and other distinct characteristics are the most used variables in the clustering

of a population. Finally, it should also be noted that the heterogeneity of the cluster is an important aspect of a good cluster sample design (Brown and Manly, 1998).

#### **6.11.1.4 Systematic sampling**

A sampling interval is used to select components at random. The sampling interval instructs the researcher on how to select items from a sampling frame by skipping elements and then selecting one for the sample. Systematic sampling and temporal aggregation are the procedures of sampling a time series at regular intervals and summing or average time series observations across a time interval, respectively (Yin, 2009).

### **6.11.2 Non Probability sampling**

In non-probability sampling, not all elements in the population stands a chance of being chosen to form a sample (Aaker, Vohs and Mogilner, 2010). The general observation, as argued by Aaker *et al.* (2010), is that the results obtained from non-probability sampling may contain uncertainties and biases. Sekeran and Bougie, (2009:276) agree with Aaker *et al.* (2010) and note further that results in the non-probability study cannot be confidently generalised to the population. According to Sekeran and Bougie, (2009:276), there are four forms of non-probability sampling procedures, which are judgmental or purposive sampling, convenience sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling. For the purposes of this study, this method of sampling was not chosen.

Non-probability sampling is a sampling strategy that does not give a basis for estimating the likelihood of universe components being included in the study sample, hence the decision not to use it in this study. Non-probability sampling also relies on subjective judgment and a convenient selection of population units. For personal interview surveys, non - probability sampling methods save money, yet the generated samples often appear as probability sample data, which would not be suitable for this study.

### **6.11.2.1 Purposive (Judgement) sampling**

The subjects in purposive sampling are chosen by the researcher on a subjective basis. The researcher's judgment is used to make the decision. In addition, respondents are not chosen at random, but rather based on the interviewers' judgment. As a result, the likelihood of inclusion for each given sample unit is unknown (Kish, 1995).

### **6.11.2.2 Convenience (Haphazard) sampling**

The sample is made up of people who are easily accessible and willing to participate in the survey. Volunteer subject samples should be included here. It is used in fields where the representativeness of their specimens is not a major concern (Kish, 1995).

### **6.11.2.3 Quota sampling**

Quota sampling is a sort of purposive sampling in which enumerators are given specific quotas to build a sample that is nearly proportional to the population on a few demographic parameters (Kish, 1995; Ayhan, 2011). Quota sampling is a stratified sampling approach that does not use random stratum selection (Ayhan, 2011).

### **6.11.2.4 Expert choice**

Expert choice is a judgment sampling in which experts choose "typical" or "representative" specimens, units, or parts for testing. Experts underscore the appropriate method for selecting representative specimens or determining the most representative units (Kish, 1995; Ayhan, 2011).

### **6.11.2.5 Snowball sampling**

A snowball sample is a more specialised sort of purposive sample in which respondents are invited to propose other respondents (Ayhan, 2011). Snowball samples are non-

probability samples because it is difficult to predict the likelihood that any individual from the wider population will be included in the sample (Weisberg, 2005). Enumerators evaluate these units when an incomplete list of a special population is available. Later, the enumerator inquires about a possible nearby address that matches the characteristics of the response. This address will thereafter be visited and counted as a sample unit. The extension of an existing list by adding new addresses is akin to a snowball sliding downhill (Ayhan, 2011).

#### **6.11.2.6 Mobile population sampling**

Mobile population sampling, which is one of the particular domains, frequently uses non-probability sampling approaches. One of the main reasons for this is that probability sampling requires a list of the mobile target population (Ayhan, 2011). The second major factor is the population's mobility, which makes it difficult to reach as a sample unit.

## **6.12 Data collection instruments**

There are various data collection methods that quantitative researchers can use to collect data. Nevertheless, it is important for researchers to ensure that they use the best and suitable data collection method for their study. Aaker *et al.*, (2010: 204) notes further that “the choice of a data collection method is one of the critical points in the research process”. As a result, a researcher selects the most appropriate data collection strategy based on the type of information required to meet the study's objectives (Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler, 2014). For this particular study, the researcher used questionnaires to collect data. The questionnaire was subjected to a pilot testing prior to its use for data collection. A pilot study refers to an initial small scale research that a researcher conducts in order to test the effectiveness of an approach or research instrument in a given study. The pilot study will then assist the researcher in deciding how to best conduct a large scale research project (Van Teijlingen, Hundley *et al.*, 2010). After the pilot study the researcher will, as noted by Van Teijlingen *et al.* (2010), identify or refine the following:

- Estimate how much time to allocate on data collection. During the pilot study process the researcher observes the amount of time each participant takes to complete the questionnaire and the questions they ask during data collection and this determines the actual research time estimation.
- Research question - the researcher also paid attention on the amount of clarity questions that participants asked so that the questionnaire can be amended if need be.
- Identify the resources necessary for completing the larger version based on observations on the respondents' activities. Thus, three out of the five respondents did possess a pen during the pilot study and as a result, the researcher noted the needed to bring more pens when collecting data from the larger sample and post-pilot study
- Figure out the methods best for pursuing the study after the pilot study and here, the method for pursuing the study was confirmed

Leon, Davis and Kraemer (2011) state in a further explanation on the importance of conducting a pilot study by mentioning that, it is also used to examine the feasibility of an approach, which is intended for use in a bigger scale study. Hence, a pilot testing was conducted in order to strengthen the research question, approximate the time allocations in the completion of questionnaires by respondents and working out the other resources that would be needed in order to achieve a hassle free completion of questionnaires during the large-scale survey. A total of 20 participants completed the questionnaire. An analysis of the outcome led the researcher to re-adjusted the budget. However, the questionnaire was not amended because the results from the pilot study indicated that the questionnaire would successfully to assist in the collection of data and meet the objectives of the study.

Figure 6.4 presents the two steps involved in ensuring that the questionnaire assist the researcher in answering the research questions. As mentioned above, the pilot testing was conducted in order to strengthen the research question, approximate the time allocations in the completion of questionnaires by respondents and working out the other resources



FIGURE 6.4: Data collection  
Source: Author's compilation

that would be needed in order to achieve a hassle free completion of questionnaires during the large-scale survey. After conducting a pilot study, a researcher can then finalise the questionnaire.

Finally, the data collection processes as per the chosen method were followed, sampling was carried out first and it drew on the views by Bougie and Sekaran (2019:296) that, “sample sizes larger than 30 and less than 500 are appropriate for most research”. Chi square tables and a table for determining sample size from a given population were used to determine the sample size. Questionnaires were handed out to the selected respondents for completion and the enumerator followed up and collected the filled questionnaires. The enumerator kept a record of the questionnaire distribution and made follow ups on non- responses in an attempt to guard against low response rate. According to Lewis-Beck, Bryman and Liao (2004: 1012), self-administered questionnaires are one of the most widely and frequently used in the collection of data for a research study. For this study, the questionnaire was developed through following the steps advocated by Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle and Mena (2012: 249).

### 6.12.1 Preliminary considerations

The nature of the research problem and research objectives were made clear. The research questions were developed, and the population and the sample defined. The researcher also decided on a primary method of collecting data.

### **6.12.2 Clarifying the concepts**

According to Hair *et al.* (2012: 249), a researcher should ensure that the concepts are clearly defined and decide on the level of measurement. The concepts used in the study are indeed clearly explained throughout the study.

### **6.12.3 Decide on the nature of the questions, format and order**

The types and forms of questions and their order should be described. The researcher should also check the phrasing wording and coding and decide on the grouping and the length of the questionnaire (Hair *et al.*, 2012: 249). The researcher followed this stipulations and divided the questionnaire into different sections with each of the sections having its own clear and concise questions.

### **6.12.4 Pretest the questionnaire**

It is the responsibility of the researcher to identify any shortcomings of the questionnaire and improve it if there is any need (Hair *et al.*, (2012: 249). A pilot study was done to eliminate any short comings of the questionnaire.

### **6.12.5 Questionnaire administration**

The researcher should determine the best practice in administering the type of questionnaire to be used (Hair *et al.*, 2012). To that effect, there was a well-defined process in place to deal with completed questionnaires and cut-off date and follow-up procedures were put in place as part of questionnaire administration as indicated by Hair *et al.*, (2012:249).

### **6.12.6 Questionnaire design**

As mentioned above, questionnaires were used to collect data for this study. A questionnaire is extensively used and a valuable means for collecting data. It is a set of written questions to which participants record their responses, generally within somewhat closely defined alternatives. In addition, Barr, Davis and Johnson (1953) note that, “a questionnaire is a systematic compilation of questions that are submitted to a sampling of population from which information is desired”. It is thus, an effective method to collect data when the researcher has knowledge of what is required and how variables of interest should be measured. It should be noted that there are different types of questionnaires. Sekeran and Bougie (2009:197) highlight two kinds of questionnaires and these are the structured and non-structured questionnaires. Non-structured questionnaires are made up of open-ended questions. Lancaster(2007:138) states that open-ended response questions are the most beneficial when the researcher is conducting exploratory research and especially if the range of responses is not known. In addition, structured questionnaires are made up of closed-ended statements or fixed-alternative statements. These are the most common types of structured statements where the respondent is given a statement and required to respond by choosing between a number of alternatives, hence the name sometimes given to these questionnaires is multiple choice questionnaires (Lancaster, 2007:138).

### **6.12.7 Merits of questionnaire method**

- It is very economical since a questionnaire is a cheaper method of collecting data with a large amount of data being able to be collected in a short period of time. This means that researchers can save a lot of money as travel costs will be reduced and the printing a questionnaire is not as expensive as printing interview questions and travelling to meet the respondents.
- It is a time saving process as mentioned above in that a questionnaire can be used to collect volumes of data in a short period as long as the respondents are available to participate. This saves time for both the researcher and the participants.

- It covers a wide research area in that a questionnaire can be used to cover research in a large scale.
- It is highly suitable for special types of responses tailor-made for a large population and covering many questions.
- It is most reliable in special cases where there is a large population and the data that needs to be collected needs to cover various areas.

### **6.12.8 Ten steps and three phases in a questionnaire development**

There are stages that a researcher must follow during the development of a questionnaire, as indicated in the below Figure 6.5. The first phase relates to the theoretical significance and existence of the concepts under study. The second phase takes into consideration the representativeness and appropriateness of data collection whereas the third phase focuses on the statistical analysis and evidence of the theory. According to Slavec and Drnovšek (2012), the first three steps signify the first phase of questionnaire development. The fourth to seventh steps frameworks the data collection and pilot study. The final steps demonstrate the third phase and all involve the statistical analysis and evidence of the concept under study (Slavec and Drnovšek, 2012).

Therefore, this study's questionnaire was designed, pilot-tested and used for data collection following the three phases outlined by Slavec and Drnovšek (2012). The questionnaire for this study was also made up of closed questions and distributed to all employees at Hulamin (excluding those in management positions). It is worth mentioning that the questionnaire items were crafted by the researcher. The validity and reliability of these were consequently tested. Finally, the created questionnaire was split into nine sections in line with the research objectives. These sections are discussed in the following subsections.

### **6.12.9 Questionnaire sections**

The questionnaire was made up of nine sections (section A to Section I).

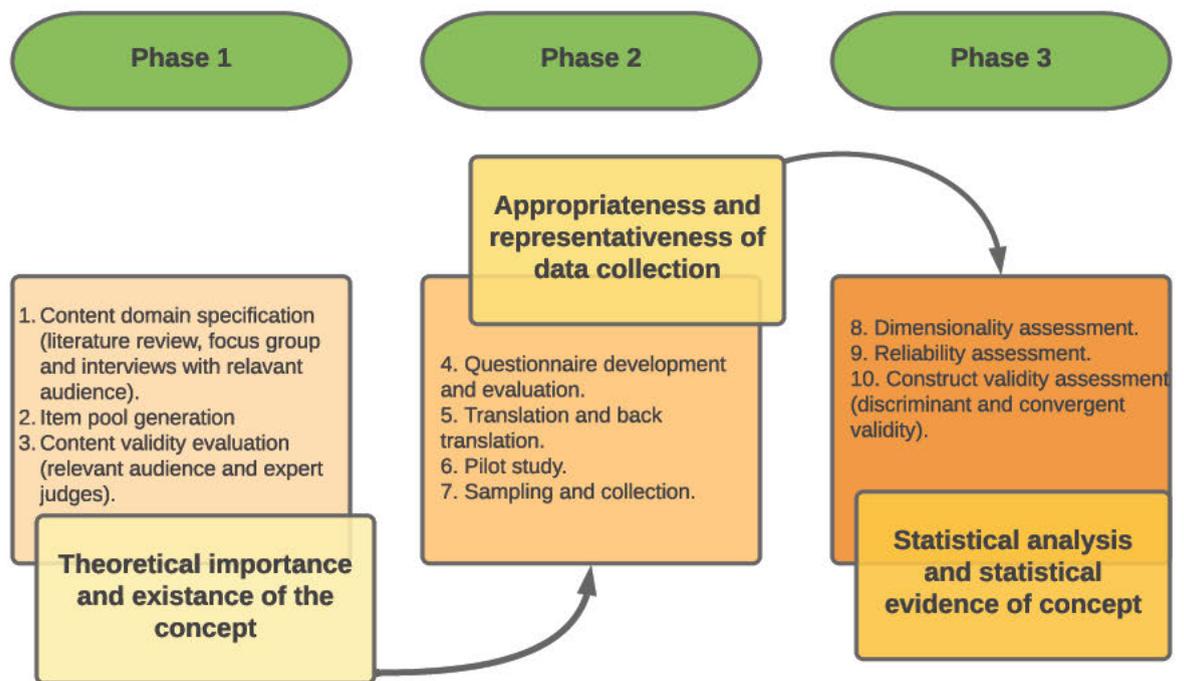


FIGURE 6.5: Ten steps and three phases that researchers need to consider when developing a questionnaire.

Source: Slavec and Drnovšek (2012)

### 6.12.9.1 Section A

This section focuses on the participants' demographic information. The data required in this section include age, race, gender, educational level and work experience. This section allowed the researcher to understand the characteristics on the participants. This was also helpful in comparing the experiences of the participants based on the demographics.

### 6.12.9.2 Section B

The section sought data related to the investigation on whether the manager of the participant used the autocratic management style. The questions under this section were developed using the characteristics of an autocratic manager, which are thoroughly discussed in chapter 2. This section consisted of six questions, which were answered

using the likert scale. The responses ranged from agree, strongly agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree.

#### **6.12.9.3 Section C**

Similar to the previous section, this section sought data aimed at investigating on the particular style of management that the manager would be using. The section also introduces the democratic management style to respondents. The questions under this section were created using the characteristics of the democratic management style discussed in chapter 2. This section is also made up of six questions that were answered using the likert scale. There were various responses and these were agree, strongly agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree.

#### **6.12.9.4 Section D**

Section D was designed to gather data aimed at investigating if the manager of the respondent uses the laissez- faire management style. The questions under this section were developed using the characteristics of the laissez- faire, which is discussed in detail in chapter 2. This section consists of five questions which were answered using the likert scale. The responses that the participants could choose are agree, strongly agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree.

#### **6.12.9.5 Section E**

This section was designed to gather data aimed at investigating if the manger possesses any characteristics of a paternalistic manager. The characteristics of a paternalistic manager are discussed in chapter 2. Similar to the previous section, this section consisted of five questions, which were answered using the likert scale. The to choose from are agree, strongly agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree.

**6.12.9.6 Section F**

The purpose of this section was to investigate if the manager in question used the persuasive management style, which is discussed in chapter 2. This section is made up of four questions that were answered using the likert scale with responses that the participants could choose being agree, strongly agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree.

**6.12.9.7 Section G**

This section gathered response data aimed at examining if the employees are satisfied with their jobs at Hulamin. It was important, after observing the style of management their managers use, to investigate if the employees are satisfied with their jobs. This section consists of four questions that were answered using the likert scale. The responses that the participants could choose are agree, strongly agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree.

**6.12.9.8 Section H**

The purpose of this section was to investigate if the participants are committed to Hulamin and determine whether their commitment to the company is based on their satisfaction with their jobs or that they commitment to the organisation is based on other reasons. This section consists of five questions, which were answered using the likert scale. The participants had to choose from the responses agree, strongly agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree.

**6.12.9.9 Section I**

The last section sought data meant to investigate if there is a link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment or whether the employees did not need to be satisfied with their jobs in order to commit to the organisation. This is the shortest section

as consists of two questions, which were answered using the likert scale in which the responses are agree, strongly agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree.

### **6.13 Reliability and validity**

Reliability and validity refer to the degree to which measurements do not have any errors and consequently give consistent findings (Golafshani, 2003). Statisticians have developed procedures that express the probabilities and correctness of the results as a way of measuring the likelihood of the researcher's results being misleading. These procedures assist researchers with demonstrating the rigour and usefulness of the data collected (Golafshani, 2003). On the one hand, reliability refers to the consistency of the measurements or the degree to which an instrument measures the same with every use under the exact same conditions (Roberts and Priest, 2006). It is usually estimated using internal consistency and the correlation between different results of a test, or instrument. These correlations are commonly measured using Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficient; a statistical test that 'splits' all the results in half and calculates the correlations between the two sets. From this, a single value between 0-1 is generated and the closer the coefficient generated is to 1, the higher the reliability estimate of your test" (Heale and Twycross, 2015). Validity, on the other hand, refers to the degree to which a measure is accurately measured in a study (Roberts and Priest, 2006). In quantitative studies, there are two broad measurements of validity and these are the internal and external validity. Internal validity estimates the extent to which findings about casual relationships can be agreed on based on the research design. External validity refers to the degree the results of a research study can be generalised to other populations, settings or situations; this measure is commonly applied to laboratory research studies (Slack and Draugalis Jr, 2001).

Comparing several versions of the same measurement can be used to establish the measurement's reliability. Validity is more difficult to evaluate, although it can be done by comparing the results to other relevant data or hypotheses.

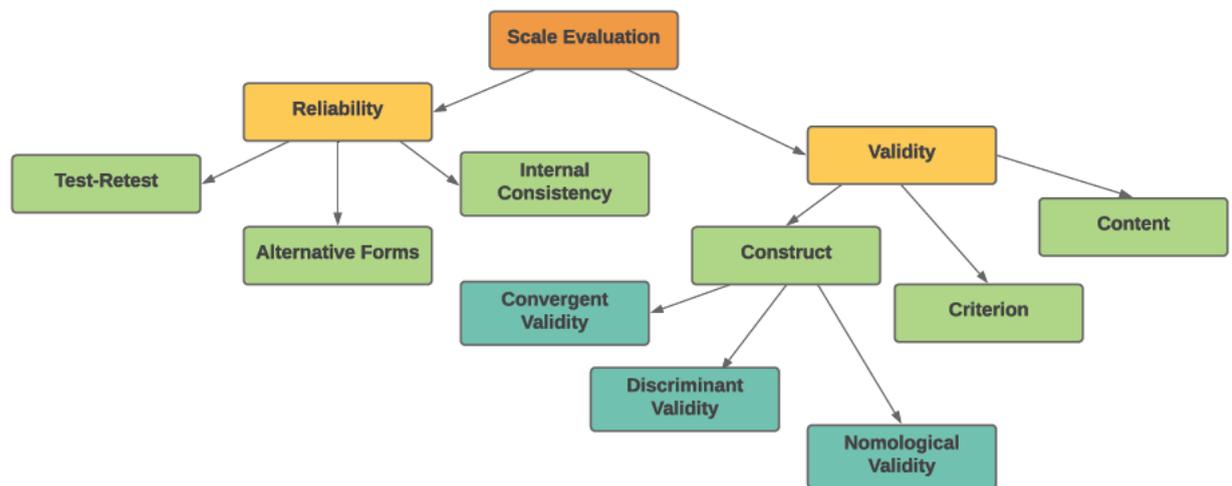


FIGURE 6.6: Research Reliability and Validity.  
Source: Slideserve (2012)

Figure 6.6 shows that a variety of approaches are commonly used to estimate reliability and validity. Various statistical methods can be used to estimate various forms of reliability (Test-retest, alternative forms and internal consistency). A measurement's validity can be judged using three different sorts of evidence (construct, content and criterion). Expert judgment or statistical approaches can be used to assess each kind.

The questionnaire was pre-tested amongst a group of twenty employees at Hulamin, Pietermaritzburg. Some suggestions, mainly in terms of layout and format was noted and acted upon in order to improve the questionnaire. The researcher decided that 30 minutes was enough to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire was evaluated against the literature and similar questions used in other studies to measure the same or related constructs which assisted in addressing issues such as terminology, question wording and layout in certain places.

### 6.13.1 Reliability

There are various factors that threaten the reliability of a study. Bryman (2007) highlighted some these threats to reliability and these are outlined as follows:

- Participant error – people make mistakes, respondents expected to make mistakes. For this research study, the researcher was available to answer any questions that respondents might have had during the completion of the questionnaire.
- Observer error – the researcher might incorrectly observe situations.
- Subject or participant bias – bias may happen especially if the researcher knows some of the participants or the organisation. For this study, the researcher did not know any of the respondents before data collection.
- Observer bias – the researcher observations may be biased.

To ensure reliability, the Cronbach's alpha (coefficient) statistics were utilised to check the reliability of all variables used in the questionnaire. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2014), Cronbach's alpha value of 0.7 to 0.8 is normally satisfactory. A Cronbach's alpha value of 0.4 is unacceptable, whilst a value higher than 0.9 suggests potential for possible similarities amongst the items. This is discussed further in Chapter 7.

### **6.13.2 Validity**

According to Ihantola and Kihn (2011), threats to validity include:

- History - An unrelated occurrence has an impact on the outcome.
- Mortality - The death, absence, or other reasons for the loss of subjects during study. This is especially troublesome if the therapy results in death; mortality would contaminate the treatment groups' post-test mean
- Maturation - The study's results change throughout time as a natural result of the passage of time.
- Testing - The results of the pre-test have an impact on the results of the post-test.

In addition, Bryman (2007) identifies the different types of validity which are:

- Measurement validity

- Internal validity
- Ecological validity
- External validity
- Content validity

The different types of validity are outlined below.

#### **6.13.2.1 Measurement validity**

Measuring validity involves determining whether or not a measure that is developed for a specific concept really reflects the concept is intended to be presented (Adcock and Collier, 2001). For this study the researcher conducted a pilot study to determine whether the constructs were indeed measuring what they were intended to measure. Leedy and Ormrod (2014) note further that pre-testing may include four to thirty participants and it is carried out before the actual data collection takes place. A total of 20 participants took part in this phase of the study.

#### **6.13.2.2 Internal validity**

This type of validity relates primarily to the issue of causation and is concerned with whether a conclusion that combines a causal relationship among two or more variables holds water. If it is suggested that x causes y, then the researcher needs to make sure that x is responsible for changes in y and that something else is not producing that causative relationship.

#### **6.13.2.3 Ecological validity**

Ecological validity correlates to the question on whether or not social scientific research captures the daily life conditions, attitudes, values, and knowledge base (Crist, 2015). Before conducting the study, the researcher conducted a study on the manufacturing

sector and resides in Pietermaritzburg. Thus, she understands how the research study links and is applicable to the everyday life of the manufacturing sector employees.

#### **6.13.2.4 External validity**

According to Bryman (2007), external validity is concerned with determining whether the outcomes of a study can be generalised further than the specific research setting. Crist (2015) notes further that external validity replicates how the findings from the study will be relevant to other people or settings. The results of this study were generalisable as probability-sampling technique was used.

#### **6.13.2.5 Content validity**

Content validity measures the degree at which the measuring tools effectively cover the objectives of the study (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). To ensure content validity, the researcher began the study with a review of literature on the subject matter. This was followed by a pilot study, which was used to strengthen the design of the questionnaire prior to the large-scale questionnaire survey.

### **6.14 Data analysis**

Data analysis refers to an act of exploring raw data collected with the purpose of addressing a research objective and answering research questions (Cavana, Delahaye and Sekeran, 2001). Data analysis also involves, “exploring the raw data collected in an attempt to identify the underlying themes, insights, and relationships within the phenomenon being researched” (Cavana *et al.*, 2001:20). The analysis of the coded responses obtained from the study’s questionnaire was done using IBM-SPSS for Windows, Version 25. The questionnaire was on a Likert-based scale and it asked respondents to rate items on a level of agreement ranged from strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, or strongly disagree (Bertram, 2007). In this study, descriptive and inferential statistics were used

to analyse the data. This research study made use of several statistical methods, within the contexts of descriptive and inferential statistics, to evaluate the data based on the number of objectives and hypotheses contained in the study. The statistical techniques that were used in this study are explained hereunder.

### **6.14.1 Frequency distributions**

A frequency distribution involves arranging values taken by variables in a sample (Romesburg, 2004). According to Van den Bergh (1981), a frequency distribution enables researchers to comprehend whether the scores are high or low, and whether they are focused in one area or scattered out across the entire space of possible responses. Furthermore, it enables the researcher to identify the location of any specific score relative to all the other scores in the set.

### **6.14.2 Correlational analysis**

Correlational analysis specifies the variables in a data set that are associated with each other (Crouch and Housden, 2012 :236). Correlation analysis refers to a statistical approach that is used to calculate the depth of a relationship between two quantitative variables. For a example, a high correlation indicates that two or more variables have a solid relationship with each other, while a low correlation means that the variables are almost not related (Crouch and Housden, 2012 :236).

### **6.14.3 Factor analysis**

Beavers, Lounsbury, Richards, Huck, Skolits and Esquivel (2013) describe factor analysis as a statistical method that is used to examine the relationships within a group of detected variables, as measured through questions or items. Beavers *et al.* (2013) further explain that it is important to note that factor analysis is not a singular statistical technique, but rather a group of statistical evaluations that share similar methodology and functionality. Finally, McDonald (1985:1) offers a comprehensive definition and

outline of the analytic methods stating that: Factor analysis in the broad sense comprises both a number of statistical models which yield testable hypotheses and also, a number of simplifying procedures for the approximate description of data which do not in any sense constitute dis-conformable hypothesis, except in the loose sense that they supply approximations to the data they supply approximations to the data, and sometimes we can say that the approximations are very bad.

#### **6.14.4 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)**

In the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) process, an assessment is made on whether the hypothesised model fits the data, or whether there exists an association between the observed variables and their related fundamental latent or unnoticed constructs (Child, 1990). In addition, (Brown and Moore, 2012: 361) point out that, "confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a type of structural equation modelling that deals specifically with measurement models; that is, the relationships between observed measures or indicators and latent variables or factors. The goal of latent variable measurement models (factor analysis) is to establish the number and nature of factors that account for the variation and co-variation among a set of indicators". Finally, Holtzman and Vezzu (2011) note that the CFA is useful in proving that all the variables are correctly linked with the right aspects of the construct under measurement.

#### **6.14.5 Regression analysis**

The regression analysis was used to test the relationship between the management styles, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. Davison and Tsai (1992) defines regression analysis as a powerful statistical tool for investigating the relationship between two or more variables of interest. In this study, the variables are management styles, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. Davison and Tsai (1992) adds that regression analysis is a proven way of determining which variables have an impact on a certain issue. Regression analysis allows researchers to confidently establish which elements are most important, which factors may be ignored, and how these factors

interact. Freund, Wilson and Sa (2006) also defines regression analysis as a statistical procedure for estimating relationships between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables. Freund *et al.* (2006) adds that regression analysis can be used to determine the strength of a relationship between variables and to predict how they will interact in the future. Davison and Tsai (1992) notes that to completely understand regression analysis, researchers must first understand the following terms:

- **Dependent Variable:** This is the primary thing that researchers are attempting to comprehend or forecast. In this case, the dependent variables are job satisfaction and organisational commitment.
- **Independent Variables:** These are the variables that the investigator believes influence their dependent variable. In this study, the independent variables are management styles.

## **6.15 Limitations of the study**

The limitations of this study are based on the amount of data to be collected (number of employees) and the unit of analysis (only one company). As a result, the researcher's findings cannot be applied to other industries. A similar study with a larger number of employees from different companies, on the other hand, would yield more accurate results regarding the impact of the manager's management style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Future research could look at the entire KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) province, all companies in the same industry as Hulamin, or South Africa as a whole. Future studies could also look at industries other than the aluminum industry. People in management positions may also be interviewed to gain a better understanding of why and how managers choose a particular management style, as well as their perspectives on how a particular management style affects employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This will allow managers to share their experiences with the style they intend to use and how it has impacted employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The limitations of this study are discussed further in Chapter 9.

## **6.16 Ethical considerations**

The ethical guidelines for doing research at the University of KwaZulu-Natal were followed in this research study. Childress and Beauchamp (1994) stress the importance of considering ethical issues before conducting a research study. Ethics are defined in Childress and Beauchamp (1994) as a broad term of understanding and studying the moral life. It is concerned with views about the right and proper behaviour. Ethics are an essential principle of decent human behaviour (Stevens, 2010). Thus, ethical approval for this research was obtained from the University of KwaZulu-Natal Ethics Committee and a gate keeper's letter was obtained from Hulamin. The researcher also sought informed consent from respondents in order to ensure that human dignity is upheld. The researcher allowed the respondents to make the decision to participate based on adequate knowledge of the study they had been given. Privacy and confidentiality were upheld by reminding participants of their right to keep from the public certain information about themselves and agreement to limit access to private information. Finally, respondents remained anonymous with pseudonyms used in this study to protect the respondents' privacy.

## **6.17 Research hypothesis**

Creswell (1999:35) notes that an "hypothesis is a formal statement that presents the expected relationship between an independent and dependent variable." Toledo, Flikkema and Toledo-Pereyra (2011) also define an hypothesis as a clear statement of what is proposed to be investigated and that it should be stipulated prior to conducting the research and openly stated in the report on the outcomes. In addition, Toledo *et al.* (2011) state that research hypotheses are used to ensure a well-developed and sound research study. Thus, a research hypothesis contributes towards the establishment of a solution to a given research problem. There are two types of research hypothesis and these are the inductive and deductive, non-directional and directional and alternative hypothesis and null hypothesis (Toledo *et al.*, 2011). According to Toledo *et al.* (2011), discarding the null hypothesis and taking the alternative hypothesis is the starting point

towards building a good research study (Toledo *et al.*, 2011). The types of hypotheses are discussed below.

### 6.17.1 Inductive and deductive

Figure 6.7 shows that reasoning can be divided into two types: inductive reasoning and deductive reasoning. Both modes of thinking contain premises and conclusions, but they are incompatible with one another.

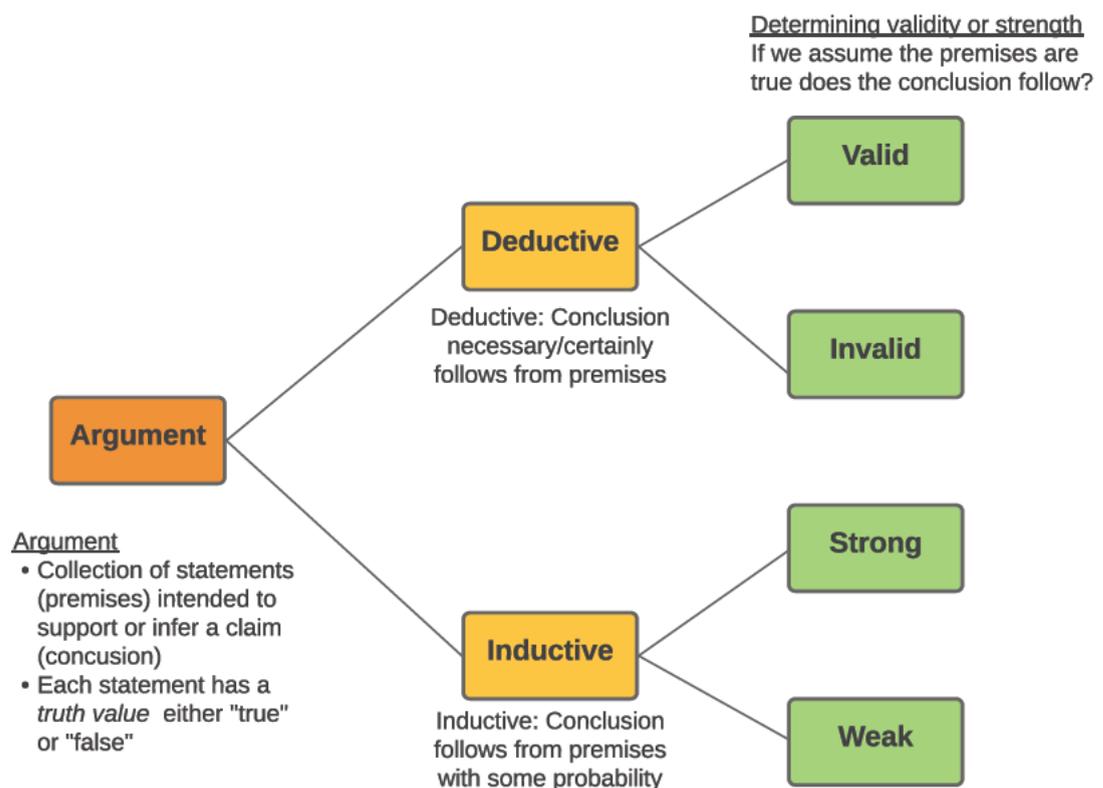


FIGURE 6.7: Inductive and deductive reasoning.  
Source: JavaTPoint (2012)

According to Hayes, Heit and Swendsen (2010), inductive reasoning involves data that is already available or observing a particular trend in order to make assumptions. Hayes *et al.* (2010) argue that inductive reasoning can be viewed as a "bottom up" approach. For example, a lecturer in the School of Management observes that black female students passed their management exam, maths exam and their accounting exam with flying

colours, and thus, an inductive reasoning would underline that black female students are clever. However, deductive reasoning refers to the act of making a general declaration and supporting it with specific situations of information. This approach is also referred to as the “top down” approach to coming up with conclusions. Hayes *et al.* (2010) explains it in the context where one considers the statement: “all oranges are fruits” and that when new information is added to this statement such as “all fruits grow on trees” then, one can deduce that all oranges grow on trees.

### **Nature of Hypothesis:**

- It can be tested – a hypothesis should be verifiable.
- Hypotheses are not moral or ethical questions. Ethical statements are not supposed to be ethical questions.
- It is a prediction of consequences. Hypotheses statement should be assumptions of outcomes.
- It is neither too specific nor too general and should not be too general.
- It is considered valuable even if proven false. A hypothetical statement should be considered valuable even in a case where they are proven to be false.

Figure 6.8 presents the process that researchers should follow when testing an hypothesis. According to Figure 6.8 generating research hypothesis begins with coming up with initial ideas, then followed by initial observations and searching for existing literature. Statements of the problem are then created followed by research hypotheses. Hypothesis statements for this particular study are presented below.

### **6.17.2 Hypothesis One**

H<sub>0</sub> The autocratic management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>1</sub> The autocratic management style has an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

### Generation of Research Hypothesis

Problem statements become research hypotheses when constructs are operationalized

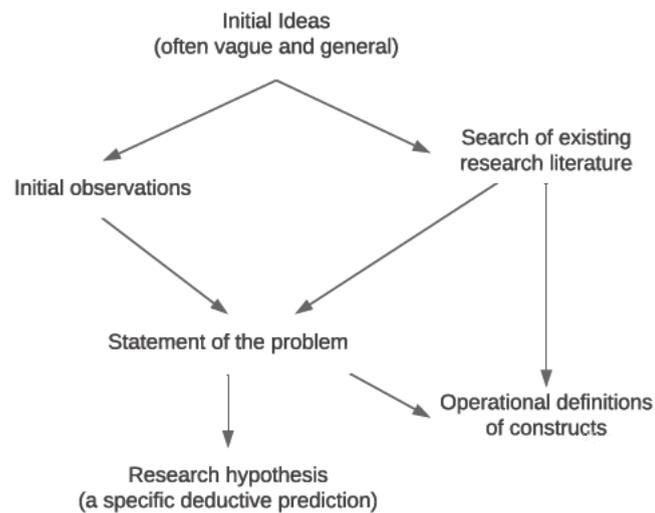


FIGURE 6.8: Research hypothesis testing process.  
Source: Hayat (2017)

#### 6.17.3 Hypothesis Two

$H_0$  The democratic management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

$H_1$  The democratic management style has an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

#### 6.17.4 Hypothesis Three

$H_0$  The laissez-faire management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

$H_1$  The laissez-faire management style has an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

### **6.17.5 Hypothesis Four**

H<sub>0</sub> The paternalistic management style does not have an influence on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>1</sub> The paternalistic management style has an influence on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

### **6.17.6 Hypothesis Five**

H<sub>0</sub> The persuasive the management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

H<sub>1</sub> The persuasive management style has an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

## **6.18 Purpose of the study**

As discussed in chapter 1, employees are a valuable asset to an organization because they help it achieve its goals. As a result, managers must work hard to improve their employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Managers can accomplish this in a variety of ways, including identifying and implementing the appropriate management style. Any interaction between employers and employees is required for an organisation to achieve its goals (Ogunola *et al.*, 2013). As a result of the diversity of the South African workforce, it was worthwhile to investigate how current management styles affect job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the South African workforce (demographics). The findings of this study will assist managers in selecting the best management style for their organisations, which will most likely result in increased employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

## **6.19 Research problem**

As stated in chapter 1, one of the reasons that employees leave their jobs is due to the character, behavior, and attitude of their line managers (Ganguly and Chaudhuri, 2019). Managers with dreadful traits, as Ganguly and Chaudhuri (2019) argue, can demotivate employees, and as a result, employees may leave the organization. According to previous research, organizations that encourage their employees to work eagerly are the most successful (Zahiri *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, employees who are proud to work for the organization are the most committed and work hard to achieve the organization's goals (Zahiri *et al.*, 2016). According to Adam (2019), 57% of employees leave their jobs because of their managers. Increased employee turnover has an unavoidable negative impact on productivity, and replacing experienced employees can be costly. Employee turnover has a negative impact on customer satisfaction because some customers prefer to work with employees they already know and trust and may be uncomfortable dealing with new employees they do not know. As a result, as noted by Alkhawaja (2017), management styles have a direct impact on employee turnover, leading to the study's goal of determining the relationship between the aforementioned independent variables (management styles), mediating variable (employee job satisfaction), and dependent variables (organisational commitment).

## **6.20 Significance of the study**

In South Africa, there is a paucity of literature on the impact of management style on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. From a South African viewpoint, this study will create a better understanding of the various management styles in relation to employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Previous research in Europe and the USA has found that job happiness has a favourable impact on job performance (Eby *et al.*, 1999). Furthermore, job satisfaction provides a pleasant mood that leads to a positive attitude at work. Employees that are happy with their jobs are more likely to be imaginative, creative, adaptable, and loyal to their employers (Smith and Shields, 2013). As a result of the conclusions of this study, businesses will be able

to increase their productivity by retaining satisfied and committed staff. It is intended that managers will devote more time and effort to selecting the best management styles for their companies. The number of employees leaving the firm will decline as managers choose an acceptable management style, while the number of satisfied and dedicated employees will increase.

## **6.21 Research objectives**

The study's logic is that managers must utilise proper strategies in order to foster positive working relationships with their staff while also achieving the organisation's objectives and goals. Existing research underlines that employees who have a positive working connection with their managers are more likely to be content with their positions and, as a result, become committed to the company. The objectives of this study are:

1. To establish the impact of autocratic management style on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor
2. To investigate if democratic management style influence organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor
3. To examine if laissez-faire management style impacts organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor
4. To investigate if paternalistic management style influence organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor
5. To examine the impact of persuasive management style on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment with or without jobs satisfaction as a moderating factor

## 6.22 Research questions

In order to achieve the objectives of this study, the researcher attempted to discuss and address the following questions;

1. Does the autocratic management style have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor?
2. What impact does democratic management style have on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor?
3. Does the laissez-faire management style impact organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor?
4. Does the paternalistic management style influence organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor?
5. What impact does the persuasive management style have on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor?

## 6.23 Conclusion

This chapter explored various aspects of the data collection and analysis processes. The chapter noted that data was gathered using the quantitative method using a questionnaire, whose creation was also discussed here. The researcher created statements in the form of closed-ended questions for the questionnaire. The closed ended questions put the researcher in a better position to have firm control over the respondent's responses. This also prevented the chances of the respondent from getting carried away and as a result, providing irrelevant information. Finally, the chapter also explained the data analysis processes and statistical tools used in the study.

The next chapter discusses the research findings.

# CHAPTER 7

## Research Findings

### 7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided a detailed presentation of the research methodology. This chapter discusses the statistical results generated from the responses given by the employees from different departments who are not in managerial positions at Hulam. The discoveries of the study are guided by the research questions of the study. The aim of this chapter is to describe, identify and explore the relationship between management styles, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The research study's experimental results are summarised in this chapter. Descriptive and inferential statistics are presented in this chapter in the form of tables and figures with accompanying discussions and explanations of the outcomes. Tables and figures are accompanied with captions explaining the contents, particularly what the tables are summarising. This is a requirement as posited by Myers, Well and Lorch (2010).

### 7.2 Biographical information

Results in Table 7.1 show that the study sample was made up of 242 respondents of which 54.1% ( $n = 131$ ) were females and 45.9% ( $n = 111$ ) were males. This means that there was a fair gender balance in the composition of the research sample. Most of the

<b>Biographical information</b>		<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
A1: How long have you served in your current position at Hulamin?	Less than 1 year	16	6.60%
	1 to 2 years	23	9.50%
	3 to 5 years	59	24.40%
	3 to 10 years	45	18.60%
	more than 10 years	99	40.90%
A2: Please describe your current position	Secretary/Admin/Clerk	2	0.90%
	Recruitment/Selection officer	2	0.90%
	Senior officers	11	4.90%
	Recruitment/ Selection advisor	3	1.30%
	General worker	189	83.60%
	Machine operator	12	5.30%
	Shift leader	2	0.90%
	Engineer	2	0.90%
	Logistics	1	0.40%
Foreman/Supervisor	2	0.90%	
A3: Age	Less than 25 years	15	6.20%
	25 to 35 years	75	31.00%
	36 to 45 years	93	38.40%
	46 to 55 years	46	19.00%
	56 to 65 years	13	5.40%
A4: Department	HR	1	0.40%
	IT	3	1.20%
	Fitting	8	3.30%
	Production	133	55.00%
	Finishing	97	40.10%
A5: Gender	Male	131	54.10%
	Female	111	45.90%

TABLE 7.1: Biographical information of research respondents.

Source: Author's compilation

respondents, 189 out of 242 constituting (83.6%), were general workers. While 40.9% had worked for the company for more than 10 years. The respondents were mainly in the middle ages with 31% between 25 to 35 years old, 38.4% between 36 and 45 years and 19% between 46 and 55 years old. The study sample was also mainly made up of workers from production (55.0%) and finishing (40.1%).

### 7.3 Reliability analysis

The research instrument (questionnaire) had eight Likert-scaled sections numbered from B to I and each section was made up of items which addressed a specific measurement or construct. The reliability of these constructs was analysed in table 7.2 by the use of Chronbach's Alpha statistic. As a rule of thumb, items in a construct are considered to be reliably representing the intended measurement if they have a Chronbach's Alpha statistic greater or equal to 0.700.

Construct	Number of items	Chronbach's Alpha	Comment
Autocratic Management Style (B)	6	0.678	Moderate internal consistency
	5, with B4 omitted	0.751	High internal consistency
Democratic Management Style (C)	6	0.711	High internal consistency
Laissez-faire Management Style (D)	5	0.422	Low internal consistency
Laissez-faire (+)	2 (D2 and D3)	0.704	High internal consistency
Laissez-faire (-)	3 (D1, D4, D5)	0.683	Moderate internal consistency
Paternalistic Management Style (E)	5	0.909	High internal consistency
Persuasive Management Style (F)	4	0.493	Low internal consistency
	3, with F3 omitted	0.720	High internal consistency
Job Satisfaction (G)	4	0.619	Moderate internal consistency
	3, with G2 omitted	0.747	High internal consistency
Organisational Commitment	5	0.352	Low internal consistency
	3, H3, H4 omitted	0.674	Moderate internal consistency
Link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (I)	2	0.773	High internal consistency
All Likert scaled questions	37	0.858	High internal consistency

TABLE 7.2: Reliability statistics of the study constructs show reasonable internal consistency in the items that make each construct.

Source: Author's compilation

The findings show that the reliability statistics of the study constructs show reasonable internal consistency in the items that make each construct. The six items of the construct of "Autocratic Management Style" had moderate internal consistency (Chronbach's Alpha=0.687) which improved when question B4 ("*I normally deliver work on time*") was left out (Chronbach's Alpha=0.751). This looks reasonable as it was the only

question which did not address the conduct of the manager as the other five items of Section B of the questionnaire did. It would therefore be reasonable to compute a latent factor to represent the construct of “Autocratic Management Style” using the five items of Section B that have high internal consistency.

The six items of Section C “Democratic Management Style” had high internal consistency (Chronbach’s Alpha=0.711) hence reliable in measuring the intended construct. An overall measure of the construct of Democratic Management Style can thus be computed as a mean of the six items of Section C.

The five items of the construct of “Laissez-faire Management Style” in Section D had very low internal consistency (Chronbach’s Alpha=0.422). It is clear that items D2 (“My manager gives me freedom.”) and D3 (“I am given authority to determine goals, make decisions and resolve problems.”) address worker’s freedom or taking responsibility while items D1 (“My manager offers little or no direction to me.”), D4 (“My manager does not provide any training programs for me.”) and D5 (“Sometimes I fail to meet the deadlines due to lack of support from my manager.”) address issues which borders on manager’s neglect of subordinates. Since these two sets of questions have low internal consistency it is necessary to view them as two sides to the Laissez-faire Management Style, is, the positive side (D2 and D3) and the negative side (D1, D4 and D5). These two sub-constructs of Laissez-faire Management Style will be viewed as Laissez-faire(+) and Laissez-faire(-). The five items of the construct of “Paternalistic Management Style” of Section E had very high internal consistency (Chronbach’s Alpha=0.909) hence they reliably jointly represent the intended measurement.

The four items of Section F which measure “Persuasive Management Style” had low internal consistency (Chronbach’s Alpha=0.493) which improved (Chronbach’s Alpha=0.720) when item F3 (“My manager has the ability to persuade me to do the work.”) was left out. The overall measurement (latent factor) of the construct will thus be based of the three items with high internal consistency. Section G of the questionnaire, which had four items, measured the construct of “Job Satisfaction”. The section had high internal consistency (Chronbach’s Alpha=0.747) when item G2 (“Given the opportunity, I would NOT change my job.”) was dropped. The item was originally

negatively worded as “Given the opportunity, I would change my job” but was reverse coded so that it falls in line with the other items which were positively worded. Even after reverse coding, the item did not indicate internal consistency with the other three items. This means that the construct of "Job Satisfaction" is represented better with the three items that were retained after reliability analysis.

The construct of “Organisational Commitment” with five items did not have adequate internal consistency (Chronbach’s Alpha=0.352). However, after leaving out items H3 and H4, a moderate internal consistency was achieved (Chronbach’s Alpha=0.674). Item H4 was negatively worded and had to be reverse coded and reworded positively. The overall measure of Organisational Commitment is better represented by the summary of the three items that were not excluded during the reliability analysis. The link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment only had two items which had high internal consistency (Chronbach’s Alpha=0.773) and generally all 37 items of the research instrument have high internal concordance (Chronbach’s Alpha=0.858).

## **7.4 Analysis of the construct of autocratic management style**

The autocratic management style is one in which the manager wields as much decision-making authority as possible. The manager does not consult employees, and employees are expected to obey orders as they are given. Motivation in this regard comes in the form of structured rewards and strict rules and penalties (Khan, Khan, Qureshi, Ismail, Rauf, Latif and Tahir, 2015). The statistics from an analysis of incidences of autocratic management traits at Hulamin are presented in Table 7.3.

The results in Table 7.3 show that item B4 is not consistent with the other items in the measurement of the autocratic management style construct. This item is about personal appraisal of the respondent while the other items assess the manager. Item B4 will be left out in the computation of the latent factor of the construct.

Autocratic Management Style		Disagree/ Strongly Disagree	Neutral	Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	Std Dev	Latent Factor Coefficient
B1: My manager does not involve me in the decision making of the organisation	Count %	140 57.9%	22 9.1%	80 33.1%	2.64	1.35	0.821
B2: My manager simplifies the work for me	Count %	64 26.4%	39 16.1%	139 57.4%	3.26	1.24	0.386
B3: I am not allowed the opportunity to input to organisational goals	Count %	126 52.3%	43 17.8%	72 29.9%	2.69	1.19	0.836
B4: I normally deliver work on time	Count %	13 5.4%	33 13.6%	196 81.0%	4.00	0.80	-
B5: I like the fact that my manager does not include me in the decision making of the organisation	Count %	153 63.2%	31 12.8%	58 24.0%	2.45	1.31	0.706
B6: My manager does not communicate organisational changes/developments with me	Count %	135 56.0%	27 11.2%	79 32.8%	2.69	1.40	0.757
Cronbach's Alpha						0.751 (B4 omitted)	

TABLE 7.3: Results show that item B4 is not consistent with the other items in the measurement of the autocratic management style construct

Source: Author's compilation

Nevertheless, most respondents indicated that they delivered work on time (81.0%) and that their managers simplify work for them (57.4%). Very few of the respondents were of the view that their managers did not involve them in the decision making of the organisation (33.1%) or did not allow them the opportunity to have some input to organisational goals (29.9%). As far as inclusion in the decision making of the organisation is concerned, very few felt excluded (24.0%). Most respondents were also of the opinion that their managers communicated organisational changes/development to them (only 32.8%) thought the managers did not communicate such changes/developments). Figure 7.1 shows a ranking of the item of the construct of autocratic management style which shows that autocracy is not a dominant management style in the organisation under study as few respondents agreed or strongly agreed to the existence of autocratic tendencies amongst their managers.

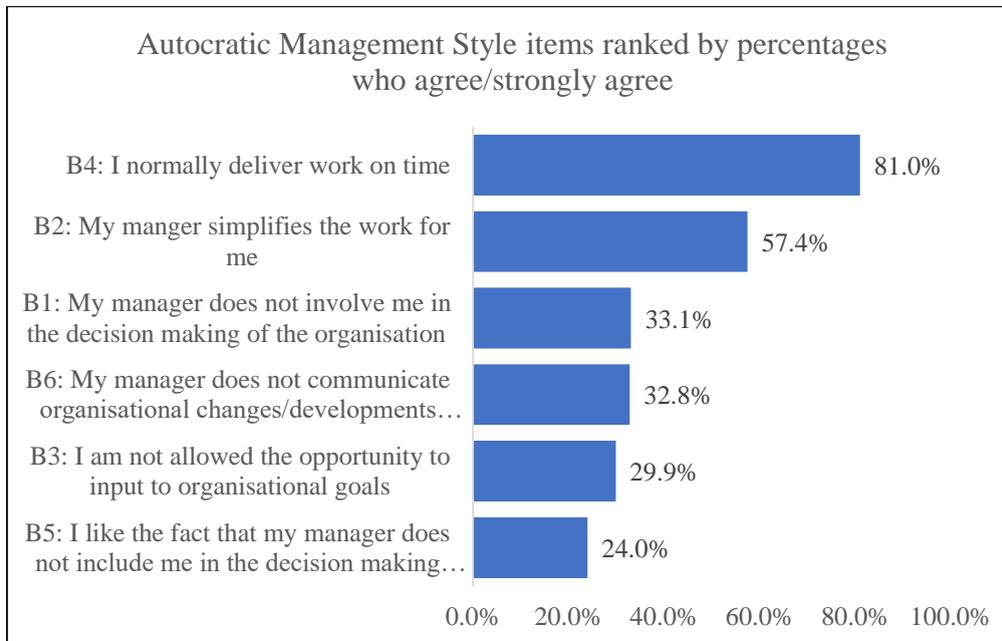


FIGURE 7.1: Autocratic management style items ranked by percentages.

## 7.5 Analysis of the construct of democratic management style

Democratic managers delegate authority to subordinates and also give them support to carry out their responsibilities (Sharma and Singh, 2013). Usually such managers know what the employees need and makes provisions, which ensure that such needs are met. Often, this style of management has the vision to realise what people need and ensures that they get it. The results of the six items that address this kind of management are presented in Table 7.4 below.

Results in Table 7.4 show that most respondents (72.7%) had good work relationships with their managers and their managers encouraged them to grow on the job and to prepare for promotion (63.1%). Few respondents (46.7%) were of the view that their managers included them in the decision making of the organisation. As far as being kept informed about everything that affects the work, (57.3%) of the respondents felt that their managers kept them informed and (59.9%) agreed that their managers created a sense of belonging in the workplace. Finally, (67.8%) of the respondents agreed that their managers had a final say in the decisions of the organisation.

Democratic Management Style		Disagree/ strongly Disagree	Neutral	Agree/ Strongly agree	Mean	Std Dev	Latent Factor Coefficient
C1: My manager does include me in the decision making of the organisation	Count %	84 35.0%	44 18.3%	112 46.7%	3.09	1.25	0.347
C2: My manager keeps me informed about everything that affects my work	Count %	46 19.1%	57 23.7%	138 57.3%	3.47	1.02	0.738
C3: My manager encourages me to grow on the job and to prepare myself for promotion	Count %	51 21.1%	31 12.8%	160 66.1%	3.66	1.17	0.853
C4: My manager created a sense of belonging in the workplace	Count %	53 21.9%	44 18.2%	145 59.9%	3.52	1.18	0.814
C5: My manager has the final say	Count %	32 13.4%	45 18.8%	162 67.8%	3.80	1.05	0.178
C6: I have a good work relationship with my manager	Count %	36 14.9%	30 12.4%	176 72.7%	3.73	1.06	0.796
Cronbach's Alpha						0.711	

TABLE 7.4: Results show that all items have internal consistency (Chronbach's Aplha=0.711) and the latent factor for the democratic management style construct will be based on all six items.

Source: Author's compilation

Furthermore, Figure 7.2 shows a ranking of the item of the construct of democratic style which shows that democratic style is a dominant management style in the organisation under study as a number of respondents agree agreed/ strongly to existence of democratic management style characteristics amongst their managers.

## 7.6 Analysis of the construct of laissez-faire management style

The laissez-faire management style is characterised by avoidance of making decisions by managers who abdicate their roles and authority to subordinates and such managers tend not to address the needs of subordinates (Robert and Vandenberghe, 2021). The extent of such management traits at Hulamin is studied in this section. The questionnaire

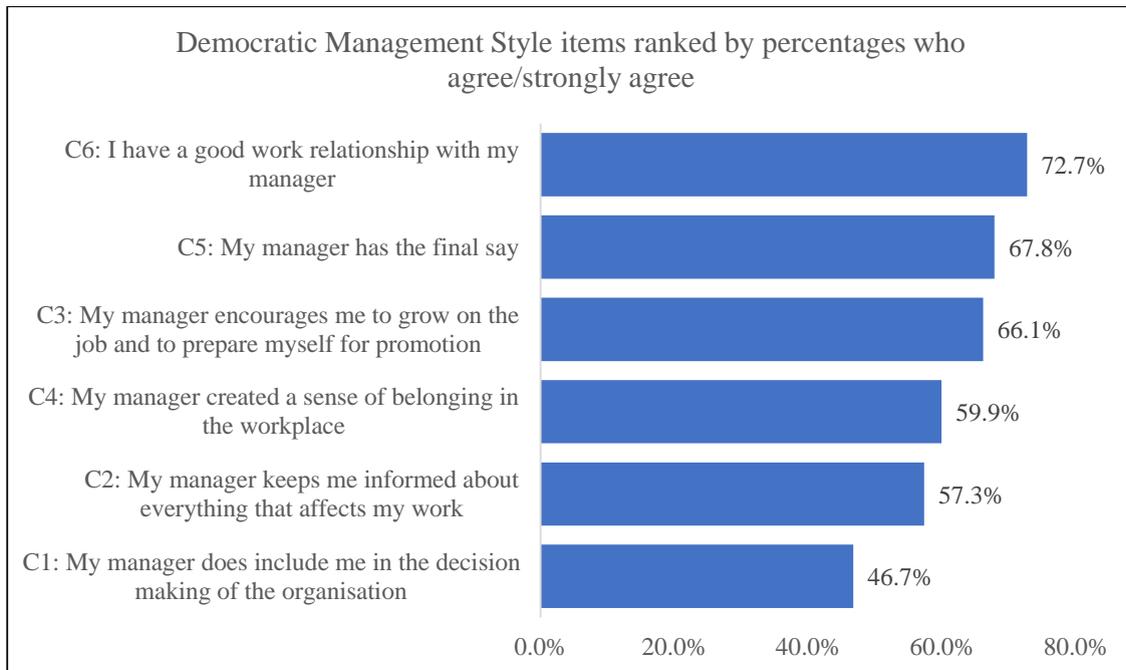


FIGURE 7.2: Democratic management style items ranked by percentages.

Source: Author's compilation

items that address this leadership style had split into two sub-scales as proposed under reliability analysis.

The results from an exploratory factor analysis, as reflected in Table 7.5, showed that the laissez-faire management style construct can be divided into two sub-constructs as was discussed under reliability analysis. The items under latent factor 1 are more negative

Laissez-faire Management Style	Latent Factor	
	Factor 1	Factor 2
D1: My manager offers little or no direction to me	0.750	
D4: My manager does not provide any training programs for me	0.754	
D5: Sometimes I fail to meet the deadlines due to lack of support from my manager	0.835	
D2: My manager gives me freedom		0.878
D3: I am given authority to determine goals, make decisions and resolve problems		0.852
<b>Extraction Method:</b> Principal Component Analysis		
<b>Rotation Method:</b> Varimax with Kaiser Normalization		

TABLE 7.5: Exploratory factor analysis of the laissez-faire management style construct.

Source: Author's compilation

aspects, while those under latent factor 2 are about the freedom or positive aspects associated with the Laissez-faire management style.

The two sub-constructs of the Laissez-faire management style will be tentatively named Laissez-faire (+) for the positive aspects (D2, D3) and Laissez-faire (-) for the negative aspects (D1, D4, D5) of the Laissez-faire management style.

### 7.6.1 Analysis of the positive aspects of the laissez-faire management style

The results reflected in Table 7.6 shows that most respondents (65.3%) indicated that they were given authority to determine goals, make decisions and resolve problems in their organisations. Further, (52.5%) of respondents indicated that their managers offered them freedom.

<b>Laissez-faire (+) Management Style</b>		Disagree/ strongly Disagree	Neutral	Agree/ Strongly agree	Mean	Std Dev	Latent Factor Coefficient
D2: My manager gives me freedom	Count %	51 21.1%	64 26.4%	127 52.5%	3.48	1.14	0.879
D3: I am given authority to determine goals, make decisions and resolve problems	Count %	56 23.1%	28 11.6%	158 65.3%	3.49	1.14	0.879
Cronbach's Alpha						0.704	

TABLE 7.6: Results show that the two items have internal consistency and the latent factor for the laissez-faire(+) management style construct will be based on both these items.

Source: Author's compilation

## 7.7 Analysis of the negative aspects of the laissez-faire management style

Table 7.7 shows that (39.7%) of the respondents indicated that their managers did not provide any training programmes for them and (39.7%) indicated that they sometimes

failed to meet the deadlines. Only (27.4%) strongly agreed that their managers offer little or no direction to them.

<b>Laissez-faire (-) Management Style</b>		Disagree/ strongly Disagree	Neutral	Agree/ Strongly agree	Mean	Std Dev	Latent Factor Coefficient
D1: My manager offers little or no direction to me	Count %	132 54.8%	43 17.8%	66 27.4%	2.71	1.15	0.773
D4: My manager does not provide any training programs for me	Count %	108 44.6%	38 15.7%	96 39.7%	2.98	1.23	0.715
D5: Sometimes I fail to meet the deadline due to lack of support from my manager	Count %	104 43.0%	42 17.4%	96 39.7%	3.05	1.26	0.855
Cronbach's Alpha						0.683	

TABLE 7.7: Results show that the three items have moderate internal consistency and the latent factor for the laissez-faire(-) management style construct will be based on these three items.

Source: Author's compilation

## 7.8 Analysis of the construct of paternalistic management style

Paternalistic management, which is prevalent in Chinese business organisations, entails a powerful authority that shows consideration for subordinates (Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang and Farh, 2004). This section looks at the extent to which such type of management exists at Hulamin.

Table 7.8 shows that (66.8%) of the respondents indicated that their managers encouraged them to be innovative in the way they do their work and (63.5%) agreed that their managers took care of their work challenges. Further, (64.4%) of the study respondents indicated that their managers considered their best interest while (53.5%) agreed that their managers took care of their personal challenges.

Finally, Figure 7.3 shows a ranking related to the construct of paternalistic management style. These rankings show that paternalistic is a dominant management style in the

Paternalistic Management Style		Disagree/ strongly Disagree	Neutral	Agree/ Strongly agree	Mean	Std Dev	Latent Factor Coefficient
E1: My manager considers my best interests	Count %	47 19.7%	38 15.9%	154 64.4%	3.51	1.08	0.853
E2: My manager takes care of my work challenges	Count %	50 20.7%	38 15.8%	153 63.5%	3.51	1.11	0.911
E3: My manager takes care of my personal challenges	Count %	66 27.4%	46 19.1%	129 53.5%	3.28	1.19	0.863
E4: When I am at work, I feel like I am at home	Count %	89 36.8%	56 23.1%	97 40.1%	3.05	1.26	0.813
E5: My manager encourages me to be innovative in the way I do my work	Count %	40 16.6%	40 16.6%	161 66.8%	3.70	1.08	0.852
Cronbach's Alpha						0.909	

TABLE 7.8: Results show that the five items have very high internal consistency (Chronbach's Alpha=0.909) and the latent factor for the paternalistic management style construct will be based on these five items.

Source: Author's compilation

organisation under study as few respondents agreed or strongly agreed to the existence of paternalistic tendencies amongst their managers.

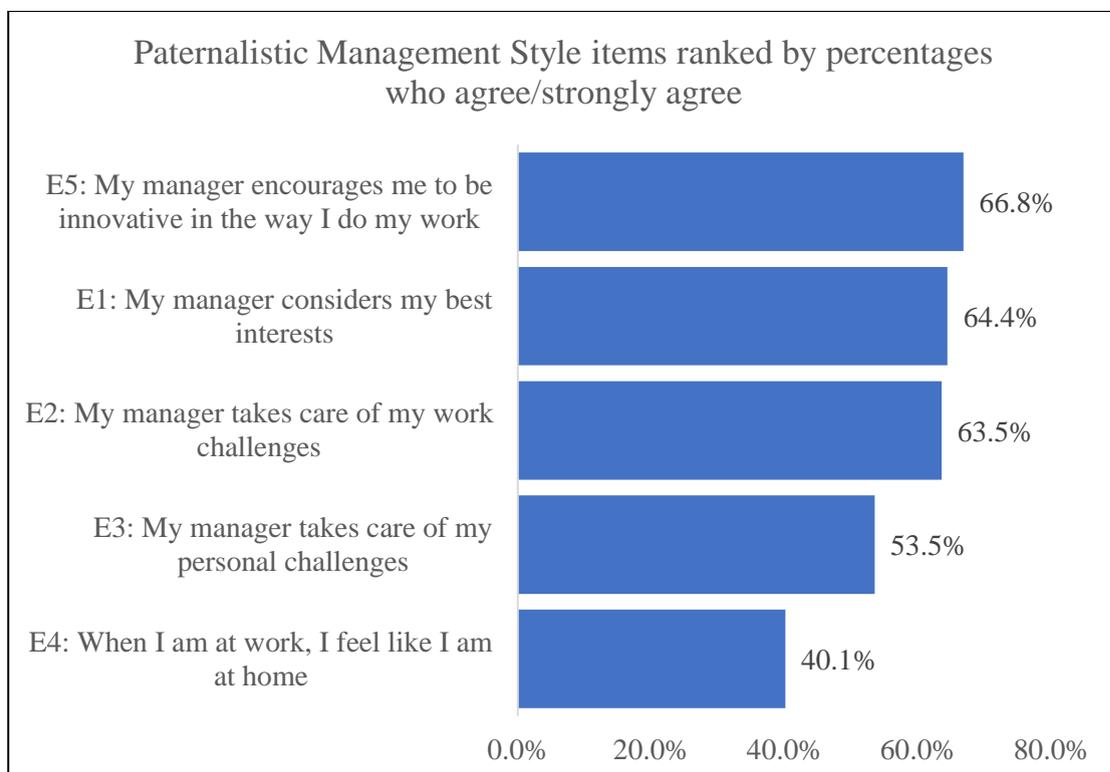


FIGURE 7.3: Paternalistic management style items ranked by percentages.

Source: Author's compilation

## 7.9 Analysis of the construct of persuasive management style

Results that highlight the level of incidence of the persuasive management style are presented in this section in the form of frequencies attached to levels of agreement to items that make up this scale. Table 7.9 shows that most respondents (64.9%) indicated that their managers normally have the ability to persuade them to do the work and (54.2%) indicated that they do everything their managers way. Very few respondents (36.9%) are of the view that their managers involve them in the decision making of the organisation. (46.7%) agree that opportunities for their initiatives and commitments are overlooked.

Persuasive Management Style		Disagree/ strongly Disagree	Neutral	Agree/ Strongly agree	Mean	Std Dev	Latent Factor Coefficient
F1: My manager does not involve me in the decision making	Count %	120 49.8%	32 13.3%	89 36.9%	2.89	1.18	0.84
F2: I do everything my managers way	Count %	46 19.1%	63 26.1%	132 54.8%	3.45	0.96	0.81
F3: My manager has the ability to persuade me to do the work	Count %	33 13.6%	52 21.5%	157 64.9%	3.69	1.03	-
F4: Opportunities for my initiative and commitment are overlooked	Count %	83 34.3%	46 19.0%	113 46.7%	3.28	1.25	0.770
Cronbach's Alpha						0.720	

TABLE 7.9: Results show that the four items have adequate internal consistency (Chronbach's Alpha=0.720) and the latent factor for the persuasive management style construct will be based on these four items.

Source: Author's compilation

Figure 7.4 shows that the majority of respondents (66.8%) agree their managers encourage them to be creative in their work. Furthermore, 64% indicated that their managers act in their best interests. 63% of employees agree that their manager addresses their personal issues. Lastly, 40.1% of employees stated that when they are at work, they feel at home.

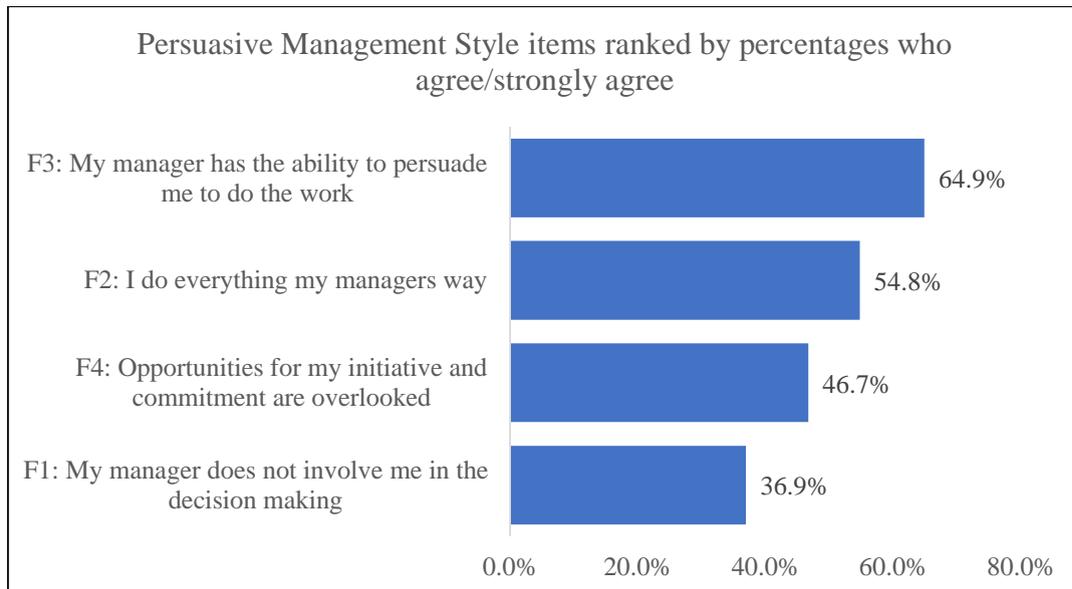


FIGURE 7.4: Persuasive management style items ranked by percentages.  
Source: Author's compilation

## 7.10 Analysis of the construct of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been commonly defined as a positive emotional state resulting from appreciation of one's work experiences (Ćulibrk, Delić, Mitrović and Ćulibrk, 2018). There were four questionnaire items in the job satisfaction scale in this study, the results of which are presented in Table 7.10 and Figure 7.5. Table 7.10 shows that most respondents (70.5%) indicated that they were motivated to do their jobs and (64.0%) of these agreed that their managers had created a healthy working environment for them. Further, (52.1%) indicated that they were happy and satisfied with their job while very few (12.0%) were of the view that if they were given the opportunity, they would not change their jobs, with (64%) indicating a view on the contrary. This cannot be read as a desire to leave the organisation as these could be ambitious employees eyeing promotion. Table 7.10 also shows that most respondents (70.5%) were motivated to do their jobs and (64.0%) agreed that their managers had created a healthy working environment for them. It is evident from the table that (52.1%) were happy and satisfied with their jobs. Nevertheless, very few (12.0%) of the respondents were of the view that if they were given the opportunity, they would not change their jobs.

Job satisfaction		Disagree/ strongly Disagree	Neutral	Agree/ Strongly agree	Mean	Std Dev	Latent Factor Coefficient
G1: I am happy and satisfied with my job	Count %	79 32.6%	37 15.3%	126 52.1%	3.30	1.21	0.748
G2: Given the opportunity, I would NOT change my job	Count %	155 64.0%	58 24.0%	29 12.0%	2.21	1.03	-
G3: I am motivated to do my job	Count %	41 17.0%	30 12.4%	170 70.5%	3.73	1.11	0.843
G4: My manager has created a healthy working environment for me	Count %	50 20.7%	37 15.3%	155 64.0%	3.58	1.24	0.855
Cronbach's Alpha						0.619	

TABLE 7.10: Results show that three of the four items of job satisfaction moderate internal consistency (Chronbach's Alpha=0.619) and the latent factor for the construct will be based on these three items that exclude item G2.

Source: Author's compilation

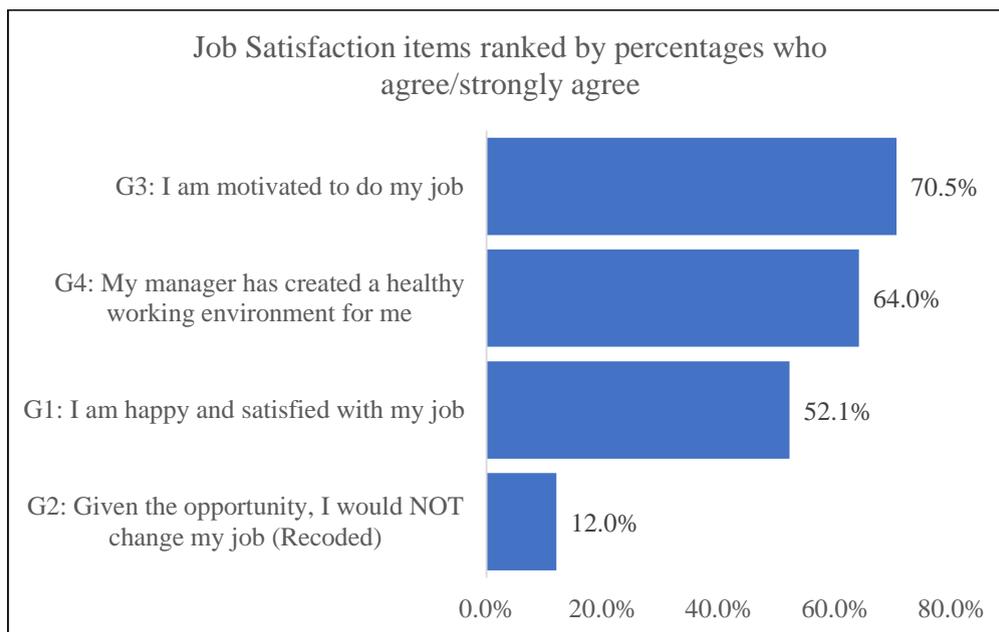


FIGURE 7.5: Job satisfaction items ranked by percentages who agree/strongly agree.

Source: Author's compilation

## 7.11 Analysis of the construct of organisational commitment

Organisational commitment has been regarded as an extension of job satisfaction, since it involves positive attitudes that employees have towards their organisation. These positive attitudes lead to employee attachment to the organisation and invoke employee readiness to make sacrifices for the organisation. The levels of such organisational commitment among employees at Hulamin are quantified in this section and presented in Table 7.11 and Figure 7.6. Table 7.11 show that most respondents (90.0%) indicated

Organisational commitment		Disagree/ strongly Disagree	Neutral	Agree/ Strongly agree	Mean	Std Dev	Latent Factor Coefficient
H1: I am dedicated to my work at Hulamin	Count %	25 10.4%	21 8.7%	195 80.9%	4.02	0.94	0.849
H2: My work is important to me	Count %	7 2.9%	17 7.1%	217 90.0%	4.26	0.73	0.842
H3: I am not planning to leave Hulamin anytime soon	Count %	46 19.2%	52 21.7%	142 59.2%	3.46	1.22	-
H4: If I was to get a similar position elsewhere, I would leave Hulamin	Count %	104 43.3%	86 35.8%	50 20.8%	2.62	1.11	-
H5: I am committed to assisting the organisation achieve its objectives	Count %	12 5.0%	21 8.7%	208 86.0%	4.15	0.85	0.645
Cronbach's Alpha						0.674	

TABLE 7.11: Results show that only three of the five items of organisational commitment have moderate internal consistency and the latent factor will be based on these three items. The other two items neither had internal concordance with the other items nor between themselves.

Source: Author's compilation

that their work is important to them with (86.0%) indicating that they were committed to assisting the organisation achieve its objectives. A number of respondents amounting to (80.9%) indicated that they were committed to assisting the organisation achieve its objectives. In addition, (59.2%) of the respondents indicated that they were not planning to leave Hulanin any time soon while only (20.8%) agreed that if they were to get a

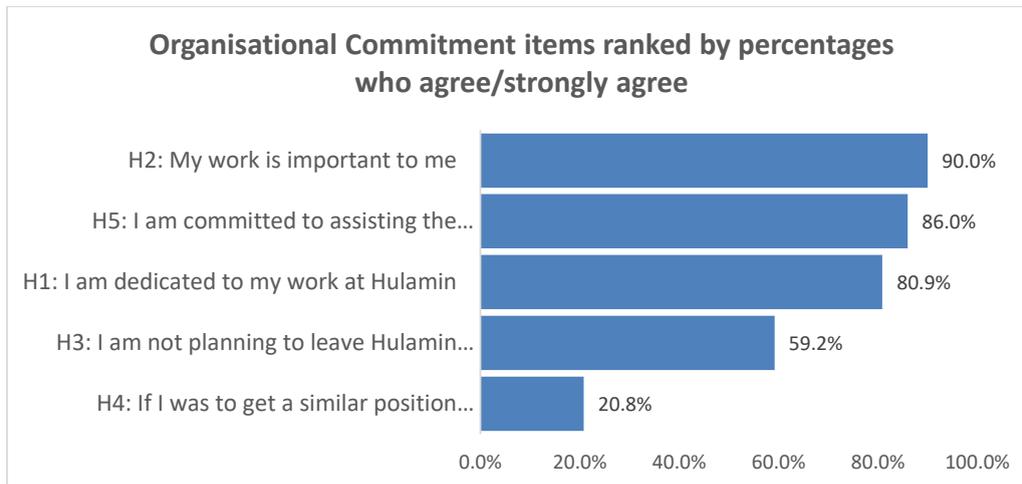


FIGURE 7.6: Organisational commitment items ranked by percentages who agree/strongly agree.

Source: Author's compilation

similar position elsewhere, they would Hulamin. In general, there is high levels of organisational commitment at the organisation.

## 7.12 Analysis of the construct of link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment

The results from an analysis of the construct on the link between job satisfaction or-

Link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment		Disagree/ strongly Disagree	Neutral	Agree/ Strongly agree	Mean	Std Dev	Latent Factor Coefficient
I1: I am committed to Hulamin because I am happy and satisfied with my job	Count %	39 16.2%	49 20.3%	153 63.5%	3.69	1.14	0.903
I2: My work relationship with my manager stimulates me to commit to Hulamin	Count %	40 16.6%	61 25.3%	140 58.1%	3.56	1.12	0.903
Cronbach's Alpha						0.773	

TABLE 7.12: Results show that the two items of the link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment have internal concordance and the latent factor of the construct will be based on both these items.

Source: Author's compilation

organisation commitment are presented in Table 7.12. These show that most respondents (63.5%) indicated that they are committed to Hulamin because they were happy and satisfied with their jobs. A further (58.1%) of the respondents agreed that their relationship with their managers stimulated them to commit to Hulamin.

## **7.13 Analysis of the effects of management style on organisational commitment**

The effects of the five management styles on organisational commitment with employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor are analysed in the following subsections. Two models are fitted in each case, one with the regression of organisational commitment on management style only, and the other one with the regression of organisational commitment on management style and job satisfaction.

### **7.13.1 Correlations of management style variables, organisational commitment and employee job satisfaction**

The correlations in Table 7.13 show that job satisfaction is highly correlated to the democratic ( $corr = 0.709$ ), the laissez-faire (+) ( $corr = 0.678$ ) and the paternalistic ( $corr = 0.869$ ) management styles. We might expect job satisfaction to have a moderating effect on these predictors of organisational commitment.

Organisational commitment has rather low correlations with autocratic ( $corr = -0.220$ ), laissez-faire (-) ( $corr = -0.019$ ) and persuasive ( $corr = -0.173$ ) management styles. We would expect the effects of these management styles on organisational commitment to be easily affected by job satisfaction.

Correlations		Autocratic Management Style	Democratic Management Style	Laissez-faire (+) Management Style	Laissez-faire (-) Management Style	Paternalistic Management Style	Persuasive Management Style	Job Satisfaction
Democratic Management Style	<i>Corr</i>	0.048						
	<i>p-value</i>	0.467						
	<i>N</i>	234						
Laissez-faire (+) Management Style	<i>Corr</i>	-0.296	0.573					
	<i>p-value</i>	0	0					
	<i>N</i>	240	236					
Laissez-faire (-) Management Style	<i>Corr</i>	0.437	-0.214	-0.134				
	<i>p-value</i>	0	0.001	0.038				
	<i>N</i>	239	235	241				
Paternalistic Management Style	<i>Corr</i>	-0.043	0.687	0.616	-0.11			
	<i>p-value</i>	0.515	0	0	0.093			
	<i>N</i>	235	230	236	235			
Persuasive Management Style	<i>Corr</i>	0.645	-0.121	-0.261	0.62	-0.092		
	<i>p-value</i>	0	0.066	0	0	0.159		
	<i>N</i>	238	234	240	239	234		
Job Satisfaction	<i>Corr</i>	-0.117	0.709	0.678	-0.16	0.869	-0.137	
	<i>p-value</i>	0.072	0	0	0.013	0	0.034	
	<i>N</i>	239	235	241	240	236	239	
Organisational Commitment	<i>Corr</i>	-0.22	0.443	0.479	-0.019	0.485	-0.173	0.501
	<i>p-value</i>	0.001	0	0	0.769	0	0.008	0
	<i>N</i>	237	233	239	238	233	237	238

TABLE 7.13: Correlations of management style variables, organisational commitment and employee job satisfaction.

Source: Author's compilation

### 7.13.2 Impact of the autocratic management style on organisational commitment with employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor

The first objective was aimed at establishing the impact of an autocratic management style on organisational commitment with and without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The null and alternative hypothesis to address this research object are given below with result from the collected data as discussed.

$H_0$ : Autocratic management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

$H_1$ : Autocratic management style has an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

The results, which are presented in Table 7.14 show that autocratic management style had a significant negative impact on organisational commitment without job satisfaction as a moderating factor ( $B = -0.157, t = -3.458, p\text{-value} = 0.001$ ) as well as with job satisfaction as a moderating factor ( $B = -0.118, t = -2.960, p\text{-value} = 0.003$ ). It is evident that job satisfaction had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment but its presence in the regression model does not significantly alter the negative impact of autocratic management style on organisational commitment. This means that there was no moderating effect of job satisfaction on the effect of autocratic management style on organisational commitment since the inclusion or omission of the job satisfaction did not alter the significance of the relationship between organisational commitment and autocratic management style.

Decision: The alternative hypothesis, which holds that the autocratic management style has an impact on organisational commitment with and without job satisfaction as a moderating factor, is rejected in this study. This decision is based on the findings that found that the autocratic management style had a significant negative impact on an organisational commitment without and with job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The null hypothesis is accepted in this study. The null hypothesis assumes that the autocratic management style does not affect organisational commitment, with and without job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment		Coefficients		$t$	$p\text{-value}$
		$B$	Std. Error		
Without Moderation of Job satisfaction	(Constant)	4.570	0.131	34.795	< 0.001
	Autocratic Management Style	-0.157	0.045	-3.458	0.001
With Moderation of job satisfaction	(Constant)	3.300	0.187	17.681	< 0.001
	Job satisfaction	0.329	0.038	8.640	< 0.001
	Autocratic Management Style	-0.118	0.040	-2.960	0.003

TABLE 7.14: Autocratic Management Style has a significant negative impact on organisational commitment with or without job satisfaction as a moderating factor. Job satisfaction has a significant positive impact on organisational commitment. Source: Author's compilation

### 7.13.3 Impact of the democratic management style on organisational commitment with employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor

The second objective was aimed at investigating if the democratic management style influence organisational commitment with and without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The null and the alternative hypothesis to address the research objective are presented below together with results from collected data.

*H<sub>0</sub>: The democratic management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.*

*H<sub>1</sub>: The democratic management style has an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.*

The results presented in Table 7.15 show that the democratic management style had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment in the absence of job satisfaction as a moderating factor ( $B = 0.408, t = 7.509, p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ).

Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment		Coefficients		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
		<i>B</i>	Std. Error		
Without Moderation of Job satisfaction	(Constant)	2.693	0.197	13.672	< 0.001
	Democratic Management Style	0.408	0.054	7.509	< 0.001
With Moderation of job satisfaction	(Constant)	2.657	0.190	14.019	< 0.001
	Democratic Management Style	0.171	0.074	2.315	0.021
	Job satisfaction	0.249	0.054	4.561	< 0.001

TABLE 7.15: Democratic management style has a significant positive impact on organisational commitment with or without job satisfaction as a moderating factor. However, the impact is reduced in the presence of Job satisfaction which also has a significant positive impact on organisational commitment.  
Source: Author's compilation

In addition, the democratic management style still had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment with job satisfaction as a moderating factor ( $B = 0.171, t = 2.315, p\text{-value}=0.021$ ). Job satisfaction also had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment ( $B = 0.249, t = 4.561, p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ), but its presence

in the regression model did not significantly affect the impact of the democratic management style on organisational commitment. This means that there is no significant moderating effect of job satisfaction on the effect of the democratic management style on organisational commitment.

Decision: This study accepts the alternative hypothesis that assumes that democratic management style has an impact on organisational commitment with and without job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The results in Table 7.15 show that the democratic management style had a significant positive impact on an organisational commitment both in the absence of and with job satisfaction as a moderating factor. As a result, the null hypothesis, which assumed that democratic management style does not affect organisational commitment with or without job satisfaction as a moderating factor, is rejected in this study.

#### **7.13.4 Impact of the laissez-faire management style on organisational commitment with employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor**

The third objective was aimed at examining if the laissez-faire management style impacts on organisational commitment with and without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The null and the alternative hypothesis to address the research objective are presented below together with results from collected data.

*H<sub>0</sub>: Laissez-faire management style does not have impact on organisational commitment with employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor .*

*H<sub>1</sub>: Laissez-faire management style had an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.*

The results, which are presented in Table 7.16 show that the negative aspects of the laissez-faire management style (Laissez-faire (-)) had no significant impact organisational commitment in the absence of job satisfaction as a moderating factor ( $B = 0.027, t = 0.687, p\text{-value} = 0.493$ ). With job satisfaction as a moderating factor,

laissez-faire (-) still had no significant impact on organisational commitment ( $B = 0.042, t = 1.090, p\text{-value} = 0.277$ ). In addition, job satisfaction had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment ( $B = 0.225, t = 4.379, p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ), but its presence in the regression model did not significantly affect the impact of both Laissez-faire (-) and Laissez-faire (+) aspects of the laissez-faire management style on organisational commitment.

Decision: The null hypothesis is accepted in this study because the results show that both negative and positive aspects of the laissez-faire management style had no significant impact on organisational commitment in the absence of job satisfaction as a moderating factor. Job satisfaction had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment, but its inclusion in the regression model did not affect the impact of both the laissez-faire (-) and laissez-faire (+) aspects. The alternative hypothesis is then rejected in this study.

Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment		Unstandardized Coefficients		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
		<i>B</i>	Std. Error		
Without Moderation of Job satisfaction	(Constant)	2.936	0.191	15.378	< 0.001
	Laissez-faire (+) Management Style	0.322	0.038	8.449	< 0.001
	Laissez-faire (-) Management Style	0.027	0.040	0.687	0.493
With Moderation of job satisfaction	(Constant)	2.609	0.199	13.104	< 0.001
	Laissez-faire (+) Management Style	0.176	0.050	3.543	< 0.001
	Laissez-faire (-) Management Style	0.042	0.039	1.090	0.277
	Job Satisfaction	0.225	0.051	4.379	0.001

TABLE 7.16: Positive aspects of the laissez-faire management style have a significant positive impact on organisational commitment with or without job satisfaction as a moderating factor. However, the negative aspects of the laissez-faire management style have no significant impact on organisational commitment.

Source: Author's compilation

### 7.13.5 Impact of the paternalistic management style on organisational commitment with employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor

The fourth objective was aimed at investigating if a paternalistic management style influence organisational commitment with and without employee job satisfaction as a

moderating factor. The null and the alternative hypothesis to address the research objective are presented below together with results from collected data.

$H_0$ : The paternalistic management style does not have an influence organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor .

$H_1$ : The paternalistic management style has an influence on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.

The results, which are presented in Table 7.17 show that the paternalistic management style had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment in the absence of job satisfaction as a moderating factor ( $B = 0.325, t = 8.426, p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ). In the presence of job satisfaction, the paternalistic management style had no significant impact on organisational commitment thus job satisfaction had a significant moderating effect on the effect of the paternalistic management style on organisational commitment

Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment		Coefficients		$t$	$p\text{-value}$
		$B$	Std. Error		
Without Moderation of Job satisfaction	(Constant)	3.038	0.137	22.136	< 0.001
	Paternalistic Management Style	0.325	0.039	8.426	< 0.001
With Moderation of job satisfaction	(Constant)	2.905	0.144	20.155	< 0.001
	Paternalistic Management Style	0.145	0.077	1.899	0.059
	Job satisfaction	0.210	0.078	2.699	0.007

TABLE 7.17: Paternalistic management style had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment without the moderating effects of job satisfaction. However, in the presence of job satisfaction, paternalistic management style had no significant impact on organisational commitment thus job satisfaction is a significant moderating effect on the impact paternalistic management style had on organisational commitment.

Source: Author's compilation

Decision: In the absence of job satisfaction as a moderating factor, the results presented in Chapter 7 show that the paternalistic management style had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment. The paternalistic management style had no significant impact on organisational commitment in the presence of job satisfaction. The alternative hypothesis is accepted on the basis that the paternalistic management style influences organisational commitment. As a result, the study rejects the null hypothesis.

### **7.13.6 Impact of the persuasive management style on organisational commitment with employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor**

The fifth and last objective was aimed at examining the impact of a persuasive management style on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment with and without jobs satisfaction as a moderating factor. The null and the alternative hypothesis to address the research objective are presented below together with results from collected data.

*H<sub>0</sub>: The persuasive management style does not have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.*

*H<sub>1</sub>: The persuasive management style have an impact on organisational commitment with or without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor.*

The results, which are depicted in Table 7.18, show that the persuasive management style effects had a significant negative impact on organisational commitment without the moderating effects of job satisfaction ( $B = -0.075, t = -2.696, p\text{-value} = 0.008$ ). However, in the presence of job satisfaction, the persuasive management style had no significant impact on organisational commitment ( $B = -0.123, t = -1.880, p\text{-value} = 0.061$ ). Therefore, job satisfaction had a significant moderating effect on the impact the persuasive management style had on organisational commitment. Job satisfaction had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment ( $B = 0.340, t = 9.040, p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ) and moderates the effect of the persuasive management style on organisational commitment.

Decision: This study accepts the null hypothesis, which holds that persuasive management style has no effect on job satisfaction or organisational commitment. According to the findings in Chapter 7, the persuasive management style had a significant negative impact on organisational commitment, with no moderating effects from job satisfaction. However, when job satisfaction was present, the persuasive management style had no significant impact on organisational commitment. The alternative hypothesis, which

assumes that persuasive management style has an effect on organisational commitment with or without the moderating effects of job satisfaction, is then rejected in this study.

Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment		Coefficients		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
		<i>B</i>	Std. Error		
Without Moderation of Job satisfaction	(Constant)	4.548	0.152	29.872	< 0.001
	Persuasive Management Style	-0.123	0.046	-2.696	0.008
With Moderation of job satisfaction	(Constant)	3.194	0.200	15.966	< 0.001
	Persuasive Management Style	-0.075	0.040	-1.880	0.061
	Job satisfaction	0.340	0.038	9.040	< 0.001

TABLE 7.18: The persuasive management style effects on organisational commitment with and without the moderating effects of job satisfaction.

Source: Author's compilation

### 7.13.7 Impact of all management styles together on organisational commitment with employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor

It is important to analyse the effects of the predictor variables (management styles) on the response (organisational commitment) while considering them in a multiple regression model. The results, as presented in Table 7.19 below show that, in the presence of the moderating variable (job satisfaction) the management styles that significantly impact on Organisational Commitment are the autocratic ( $B = -0.162, t = -3.047, p\text{-value} = 0.003$ ), democratic ( $B = 0.234, t = 3.101, p\text{-value} = 0.002$ ), Laissez-faire (+) ( $B = 0.114, t = 2.218, p\text{-value} = 0.028$ ) Laissez-Faire (-) ( $B = 1.41, t = 2.882, p\text{-value} = 0.004$ ) and paternalistic ( $B = 0.152, t = 2.863, p\text{-value} = 0.005$ ) management styles. However, when job satisfaction is included in the model, there will be only three management styles significantly impacting on organisational commitment, namely, the autocratic ( $B = -0.158, t = -2.953, p\text{-value} = 0.003$ ), the democratic ( $B = 0.219, t = 2.816, p\text{-value} = 0.005$ ) and the laissez-faire (-) ( $B = 0.143, t = 2.919, p\text{-value} = 0.004$ ) management styles. This result also means that the organisational styles also have moderating effects among themselves, apart from the moderating effect of job satisfaction.

Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment		Unstandardized Coefficients		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
		<i>B</i>	Std. Error		
Without Moderation of Job satisfaction	(Constant)	2.551	0.249	10.251	< 0.001
	Autocratic Management Style	-0.162	0.053	-3.047	0.003
	Democratic Management Style	0.234	0.075	3.101	0.002
	Laissez-faire (+) Management Style	0.114	0.052	2.218	0.028
	Laissez-faire (-) Management Style	0.141	0.049	2.882	0.004
	Paternalistic Management Style	0.152	0.053	2.863	0.005
	Persuasive Management Style	-0.036	0.059	-0.604	0.546
With Moderation of job satisfaction	(Constant)	2.550	0.249	10.241	< 0.001
	Autocratic Management Style	-0.158	0.053	-2.953	0.003
	Democratic Management Style	0.219	0.078	2.816	0.005
	Laissez-faire (+) Management Style	0.103	0.053	1.919	0.056
	Laissez-faire (-) Management Style	0.143	0.049	2.919	0.004
	Paternalistic Management Style	0.109	0.074	1.469	0.143
	Persuasive Management Style	-0.040	0.059	-0.671	0.503
	Job Satisfaction	0.068	0.081	0.842	0.401

TABLE 7.19: All Management Style effects on organisational commitment with and without the moderating effects of job satisfaction.

Source: Author's compilation

## 7.14 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the findings of the study with the aid of figures and tables that reflected the statistical results derived from the analysis of gathered data. The figures and tables made it easy to show the existence of certain management traits in the organisation under study, as well as relationships between management traits, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In general, job satisfaction was found to moderate the effects of some of the management styles on organisational commitment. However, on its own, job satisfaction was found to have significant positive effects on organisational commitment. Furthermore, the multiple linear regression model showed that the various management styles also had moderating effects on each other as some were not significant on their own and turned out significant when considered with the other predictor variables.

The next chapter discusses the findings in relation to the objectives of the study and the research questions, and literature around the subject matter.

# CHAPTER 8

## Discussion of Findings

### 8.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research findings presented in Chapter 7 in line with the study's research questions and objectives and comparisons will be made with already existing literature. The study sample was made up of 242 respondents and of these, 54.1% (n = 131) were female and 45.9% (n = 111) were male. This means that there was a fair gender balance in the composition of the research sample. Most of the respondents, that is 189 out of 242 were general workers (83.6%) and 40.9% of the employees had worked for the company for more than 10 years. The respondents were mainly in the mid-life status with 31% found to be between 25 and 35 years old, 38.4% between 36 and 45 years and 19% between 46 and 55 years old. The study sample was also mainly made up of staff from production that constituted 55% of the respondents and finishing who stood at (40.1%). An analysis from a gender perspective indicates that these demographic results were not consistent with the observations made by Abrahams (2014) that gender imbalance is still a major challenge in this sector as men dominated most of the machinery positions. The number of male employees might be higher than females in other companies in the studied sector, but the findings of this study indicate that Hulamin has been successful in promoting a gender balance in the workplace. The findings are discussed below, with each objective having a dedicated section.

## 8.2 Objective One

The first objective sought to establish the impact of the autocratic management style on organisational commitment with and without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The analysis, presented in Chapter 7 is hereby discussed with comparisons to what subsists in literature. Results presented in Chapter 7 showed that the autocratic management style had a significant negative impact on organisational commitment without job satisfaction as a moderating factor as well as with job satisfaction as a moderating factor. It was noted that job satisfaction has a significant positive impact on organisational commitment but its presence in the regression model did not significantly alter the negative impact of the autocratic management style on organisational commitment. These findings concur with Wong, Chan, Chong, Ng and Wong (2014) who found a moderately unfavourable relationship between autocratic management and job satisfaction. They argue that employees' advice is never sought under this management style and as such, they may feel underappreciated, unmotivated, and uncommitted to the organisation. Further studies by Hayers (2000) concur with this as noted in the observation that employees who were under stress reported that they were working under an autocratic management style and that this management style rarely offered the employees an opportunity to participate in decision-making processes as well as put them under pressure owing to the tight management and control from the managers (Hayers, 2000). As a result, employee commitment was impacted negatively owing to the autocratic style of management's diminishing effect on commitment to the organisation even in cases where there existed high levels of job satisfaction.

With job satisfaction as a moderating factor, autocratic management style still impact on organisational commitment. These findings are in agreement with the observations by both Nunn (2000) and Norizan (2012) that job satisfaction does not guarantee or sway organisational commitment and organisational commitment does not always imply that employees are satisfied with their jobs. Nunn (2000) and Norizan (2012) note further that various past experiential research indicates that there is a low association between job satisfaction, commitment, and the intention to leave an organisation, which suggests that there exists no direct relationship here. The reality is that there are satisfied and

committed employees who decide to leave the organisation just as there are dissatisfied and uncertain employees who steadfastly remain at their jobs. Therefore, the findings by Nunn (2000) and Norizan (2012) seem to be in tandem with the current study's findings, which posit that, under the autocratic management style, employees can be satisfied with their jobs, but still have negative attitudes towards organisational commitment. There may be other factors at play but the failure, by job satisfaction, to sway the negative effects of the autocratic management style on organisational commitment has been evident in this study. Norizan (2012) pointed out that people have different reasons on why they commit to organisations, and these factors may be both personal or work related.

Furthermore, a study by Gopinath (2020) shows that a high level of job satisfaction increases the level of organisational commitment amongst employees. Bhatti, Maitlo, Shaikh, Hashmi and Shaikh (2012) argue that there is a highly significant relationship between job satisfaction and the autocratic management style. An analysis of a direct causal relationship between these variables in this study's data was pursued and the results showed that their relationship does not in turn affect the effect of the autocratic management style on organisational commitment. Thus, 81% of the respondents indicated that they normally delivered work on time under the autocratic management style while 57.4% stated that their managers simplified work for them. This concurs with Brewer *et al.* (2000) who argue that this style of management ensures that the work is done on time because the managers do not waste time on human resources needed to get the task done but on getting the task done.

The findings from this study revealed that this style of management is not a dominant management style at Hulamin as very few of the respondents (33.1%) were of the view that their managers did not involve them in the decision-making processes of the organisation while 29.9% chose the view that the managers did not allow them the opportunity to have some input on the organisational goals. As far as inclusion in the making of the organisation's decisions is concerned, very few and 24.0% of the respondents felt excluded. Most of the respondents were also of the opinion that their managers communicated organisational changes/developments with only 32.8% who thought that the managers did not communicate such changes/developments. This corresponds with the findings by Brewer *et al.* (2000) cited in Okon and Isong, 2016:

54) which contend that autocratic managers try to simplify work to achieve maximum control. In this style of management, the manager does not consult employees nor are they allowed to give any input. Employees are only expected to follow orders without receiving any explanations. The managers try to simplify work to gain supreme control.

### **8.3 Objective Two**

The second objective sought to investigate if the democratic management style influences organisational commitment with and without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The results, as discussed in Chapter 7 section 7.5, show that the democratic management style had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment in the absence of job satisfaction as a moderating factor as well as with job satisfaction as a moderating factor. Job satisfaction on its own also has a significant positive impact on organisational commitment, but does not significantly affect the impact of the democratic management style on organisational commitment. This concurs with Wong *et al.* (2014) who found a positive link between the democratic style of management and job satisfaction, and further argued that democratic managers improve job satisfaction to some extent. A study by Zhang (2018) also shows that, the democratic management style has the greatest work satisfaction. Alkhasawneh (2019) found a relationship between the democratic management style and organisational commitment. According to Rafferty and Griffin (2006), democratic management style and organisational commitment have a favourable relationship. In addition, Scholl (1981) notes that people who prioritize loyalty have a higher normative commitment to their organisations. Tseng and Kang (2008) also found that democratic management style is linked to long-term commitment, which implies as postulated by Garg and Ramjee (2013) that, a manager with a democratic style will create trust and empathise with employees' development.

Khumalo (2015) notes the positive impact that the democratic management style has on organisational commitment. In addition, the majority of authors (Aranya *et al.*, 1986; Boshoff and Mels, 1995; Harrison and Hubbard, 1998; Johnston *et al.*, 1987; Knoop, 1995; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2006; Morrison, 2008; Norris and Niebuhr, 1984;

Ting, 1997) indicate a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The results in Chapter 7 show that most of the respondents (72.7%) had good work relationships with their managers and with 63.1% of the employees under study stating that their managers encourage them to grow on the job and to prepare for promotion. However, a few respondents (46.7%) were of the view that their managers included them in the decision making of the organisation.

In addition, an analysis of the response data on whether the Hulamin employees were kept informed about everything that affects the work shows that 57.3% of the respondents felt that their managers kept them informed while 59.9% agreed that their managers created a sense of belonging in the workplace. A rather high number and 67.8% of the respondents agreed that their managers had a final saying on the decisions of the organisation. This seems to be at variance with the views made by Okon and Isong (2016) in their argument that democratic managers keep their employees informed about everything that affects their work and share the decision-making and problem-solving responsibilities. This style requires the manager to be the coach who has the final say but gathers information from staff members before making a decision. The reality is that being a democratic manager does not mean leaving the final say to everybody and instead, it means acknowledging everyone's contribution and considering such contributions in the final decision but not necessary having the decision script spelt out by subordinates. Amini, Mulavizada and Nikzad, (2019: 46) uphold the same thought in their argument that, a democratic manager is "able to influence people in a consistent manner conducive to basic democratic principles and processes, such as self determination, inclusiveness, participation and serious thought".

Therefore, a typical democratic manager develops plans to assist employees on how to evaluate their own performances, encourages employees to grow on the job and be promoted, allows employees to establish goals, and recognises as well as encourage achievement (Okon and Isong, 2016: 54). Under this management style, managers strive to keep employees knowledgeable about matters that affect them. In opposition to the autocratic management style, the democratic management style is more desired by employees as it creates a form of belonging. However, this style might not be most desirable for the organisation (Brewer *et al.*, 2000).

## 8.4 Objective Three

The third objective was mainly concerned with an examination of how the laissez-faire management style impacts organisational commitment with and without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The results which are presented in Chapter 7 show that the negative aspects of the laissez-faire management style (laissez-faire(-)) had no significant impact on organisational commitment in the absence of job satisfaction as a moderating factor ( $B=0.027$ ,  $t=0.687$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.493$ ). This concurs with Amini *et al.* (2019) whose study indicates a very low (9.5%) impact of laissez-faire on organisational commitment in the absence of job satisfaction. With job satisfaction as a moderating factor, laissez-faire(-) still had no significant impact on organisational commitment ( $B=0.042$ ,  $t=1.090$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.277$ ). Job satisfaction had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment ( $B=0.225$ ,  $t=4.379$ ,  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ), but its presence in the regression model did not significantly affect the impact of both laissez-faire(-) and laissez-faire(+) aspects of the laissez-faire management style on organisational commitment. The above results concur with those found in a study conducted by Zhang (2018) in which laissez-faire had a very low impact on both job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The laissez-faire management style is the source of employee work satisfaction with the weakest relationship. Depending on the circumstances and the employees, the laissez-faire approach can have both advantages and downsides. Allowing employees to direct themselves can be an excellent method, especially when the employees are extremely talented and educated. The manager can still offer support and advise when necessary, but the employees would be mainly free to make their own decisions. It should also be noted that in Zhang (2018) study, the job satisfaction weight score for laissez-faire management was low and thus indicating that job satisfaction for is low within a laissez-faire management regime that in one under democratic management. According to Beer and Eisenstat (2000), a laissez-faire management style leads to employee misunderstandings, which implies that managers who utilise this style of management will see low staff commitment from their employees.

Furthermore, the results in Table 7.6 show that most respondents (65.3%) indicated that they are given authority to determine their goals, make decisions and resolve problems in

their organisations. In addition, a moderate 52.5% of the respondents indicated that their managers give them freedom. On the general aspects of the laissez-faire management style, Amini *et al.* (2019) argue that laissez-faire managers do not directly supervise employees and do not provide regular feedback to those under their supervision and note further that highly experienced and trained employees requiring little supervision can work well under the laissez-faire management style. However, not all employees possess these characteristics.

Table 7.7 shows that 39.7% of the sampled respondents indicated that their managers did not provide any training programmes for them and that they sometimes failed to meet deadlines. A low (27.4%) agreed that their managers offered little or no direction to them. This agrees with observation made by Okon and Isong (2016) that a laissez-faire manager lacks direct supervision over employees and fails to provide regular feedback to those under his supervision. Nonetheless, while the laissez-faire management style lacks impact on organisational commitment, it is popular and being used by a lot of companies nowadays (Okon and Isong, 2016). This is an easy-going approach to management that supposedly inspires employees to be more productive. The managers who adopt this style have to be confident with their employees' capabilities and skills. All authority is given to the employees and they determine goals, make decisions, and resolve problems on their own.

Therefore, a laissez-faire manager abandons responsibility, delays decisions, gives no feedback, and makes little effort to assisting followers in order that they may satisfy their needs. There is no exchange with employees or any attempt to help them grow. Okon and Isong (2016) argue that the laissez-faire management style might not be good for employees lacking the needed skills, adherence to deadlines and motivation. Furthermore, this style can lead to poor performance and outcomes.

## 8.5 Objective Four

The fourth objective was to explore the effects of the paternalistic management style on organisational commitment with and without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The results that address this objective, as discussed in Chapter 7, are discussed in this section. The paternalistic style of management was found to have a significant positive impact on organisational commitment in the absence of job satisfaction as a moderating factor ( $B=0.325$ ,  $t=8.426$ ,  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ). With job satisfaction as a moderating factor, the paternalistic management style had no significant impact on organisational commitment ( $B=0.145$ ,  $t=1.899$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.059$ ). Job satisfaction had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment ( $B=0.210$ ,  $t=2.699$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.007$ ), and was found to be a significant moderating factor on the effects of the paternalistic style of management on organisational commitment. This means that the paternalistic management style is amenable to job satisfaction. The two variables had a very high positive correlation of 0.869, which means that they would mimic each other in the way they affect organisational commitment. Rehman and Afsar (2012) argue that paternalistic management style plays a vital role in improving employee organisational commitment. Their study indicates that a paternalistic management style had a strong impact on organisational commitment. They further explained that the reasons for this positive relationship was that employees felt at home under this type of management style as their manager created a homely work environment for them. Most employees would prefer a kind and fatherly manager. According to Ünler and Kılıç (2019), a paternalistic management style may be more effective in fostering subordinates' work attitudes (organisational commitment and job satisfaction). Fatherly benevolence, morality, and authority are all characteristics of paternalistic leadership. Paternalism fosters trust between leaders and employees, as well as employee motivation and commitment to the organisation (Uhl-Bien, Tierney, Graen and Wakabayashi, 1990).

The findings in Chapter 7 also showed that 66.8% of the respondents indicated that their managers encouraged them to be innovative in the way they do their work while 63.5% indicated that their managers took care of their work challenges. The results also showed that 64.4% of the respondents indicated that their managers considered their best

interest and 53.5% agreed that their managers took care of their personal challenges. This concurs with Hawley (2004) who argued that a paternalistic type of management style pays more attention to the social health of the organisation. This involves communicating and listening to the feelings of the employees. According to Hawley (2004), the paternalistic approach is an old management style and some organisations no longer use it. Nonetheless, Hawley (2004) asserts that this approach has some resemblance to the autocratic management style, which was discussed earlier. Therefore, the paternalistic management style is a management style in which the manager takes into account the best interests of the employees as well as that of the organisation (Okon and Isong, 2016). In addition, communication under the paternalistic management style is downward with feedback and questioning authority being absent as employees respect their superiors and group harmony (Okon and Isong, 2016). The manager also takes care of both the job-related challenges and personal challenges of the employees. The relationship between the manager and the employees is just like that of the father to child. Finally, the manager has control over the employees and at the same time allows them to be innovative in the way they do their job.

## **8.6 Objective Five**

The fifth objective sought to examine the impact of the persuasive management style on organisational commitment with and without employee job satisfaction as a mediating factor. The statistical results for this objective have already been discussed in Chapter 7. Nonetheless, the results presented in Chapter 7 show that the persuasive management style had a significant negative impact on organisational commitment without the moderating effects of job satisfaction ( $B=-0.075$ ,  $t=-2.696$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.008$ ). However, in the presence of job satisfaction, the persuasive management style had no significant impact on organisational commitment ( $B=-0.123$ ,  $t=-1.880$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.061$ ), and thus job satisfaction had a significant moderating effect on the impact that the persuasive management style had on organisational commitment. Job satisfaction has a significant positive impact on organisational commitment ( $B=0.340$ ,  $t=9.040$ ,  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ). This is in agreement with Chowdhury (2014) who indicates that the persuasive management

style has a greater impact on employee organisational commitment without job satisfaction as a moderating factor. Chowdhury (2014) argues that employees do not necessarily have to be satisfied with their job in order to commit to the organisation.

A persuasion management style might explain the logic behind a decision and then encourage everyone to ask questions so that everyone understands the reasoning completely. Employees exposed to the persuasive management style often feel that they are a trusted and valued member of the company. In addition, employees may be content with their positions and loyal to the organisation as a result of their increased involvement in critical company decisions, which minimises antagonism and conflict between management and employees. The statistical findings also revealed that most of the respondents (64.9%) thought that their managers had the ability to persuade them to do their work while 54.2% of the respondents indicated that they did everything according to their managers way. Very few respondents (36.9%) held the view that their managers involved them in the decision-making process of Hulamin. Only 46.7% of the respondents agreed that opportunities for their initiatives and commitments are overlooked. In fact, Okon and Isong (2016) argue that, with the persuasive management style, the manager shares some characteristics with an autocratic manager. The most important feature of a persuasive manager is that they uphold control over the entire decision-making process. A manager drawing on the persuasive management style uses their skill to interpret a situation, people's actions and dialogue and then strongly urges them to do a task or achieve certain objectives in accordance with the manager's way. In this type of management, employees are not actively involved in the decision making process and hence, opportunities for employees' initiative and commitment are overlooked, thus leading to low levels of motivation and job satisfaction. The persuasive style of management is a favourite choice for managers who need input from experts, but still can keep the final decision-making up to themselves. However, this does not work well when employees do not support management (Okon and Isong, 2016).

## **8.7 Impact of all management styles on organisational commitment with employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor**

This section discusses the effects of the various styles of management on organisational commitment with job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The multiple regression results presented in Chapter 7 showed that in the absence of job satisfaction as a moderating variable, the management styles that significantly impacted on organisational commitment were the autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire(+), the laissez-Fair(-) and the paternalistic management styles. However, when job satisfaction was included as a moderating factor only three management styles, the autocratic, democratic and the laissez-faire(-) styles, were found as having a significantly impact.

The results in Chapter 7 revealed that there are management styles that are not affected by the moderation of job satisfaction in the way they affect organisational commitment. These are; the autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire and the paternalistic management styles. Three management styles were significantly affected by the moderating effects of job satisfaction in the way they impacted on organisational commitment. These are; the autocratic, the democratic and the laissez-fair management styles. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) indicate that, in general, there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This study confirmed this and went on to examine the management styles in which job satisfaction mitigate and moderates in their effect organisational commitment.

It is evident that, based on a style of management, employees may either be committed to their organisation or not. With some styles of management, employees do not need to be satisfied with their jobs in order to commit and that is, their level of commitment is not affected whether they are satisfied with their jobs or not. With other management styles, the presence of job satisfaction over rides the effects of management style on employees' organisational commitment. It has been noted by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) that management style is one of the critical antecedents to employee job satisfaction and ultimately organisational commitment. Williams and Hazer (1986) found a straight

link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, whereby job satisfaction is a precursor of organisational commitment. This study concluded the same. In addition, various authors such as; Norris and Niebuhr (1984); Aranya *et al.* (1986); Johnston *et al.* (1987); Boshoff and Mels (1995); Knoop (1995); Harrison and Hubbard (1998); Kreitner and Kinicki (2006) and Morrison (2008) note that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Finally, Klein and Ritti (1970); Mathieu and Zajac (1990); Benkhoff (1997) and Lum *et al.* (1998) argue that job satisfaction is one of the attitudinal concepts that has been shown to be related to organisational commitment.

At the same time, Mowday *et al.* (2013a), argue in a way that seems to respond to the above authors that, organisational commitment is “more global, reflecting a general affective response to the organisation as a whole” while job satisfaction “reflects one’s response either to one’s job or to certain aspects of one’s job”. It is important to note that this study did not just concentrate on the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction, but explored if such a relationship could have a bearing on how management style influences organisational commitment. The general result was that; indeed, some management styles play second fiddle to job satisfaction when it comes to their influence on organisational commitment.

## **8.8 Conclusion**

This chapter discussed the findings that were presented in Chapter 7 in relation to the study’s objectives and the views presented in existing literature. The findings, as linked with literature, showed that there is a relationship between some management styles and employee organisational commitment, with some management styles overshadowed by job satisfaction.

The next chapter presents both a detailed conclusion of the research study and recommendations that will provide valuable guide on which type of management styles to promote in organisations.

# CHAPTER 9

## Conclusion and recommendations

### 9.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary and conclusion of the research study. The researcher also outlines some recommendations drawing on her analysis and the actions that should be taken with regards to management styles, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In addition, the limitations of the study are discussed in relation to their impact on the study and means that can be used to overcome these limitations. Lastly, contribution of the study to the body of knowledge and future research opportunities are discussed.

### 9.2 Objective One

The objective sought to establish the impact of the autocratic management style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment and with job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The research findings show that there was a negative relationship between the autocratic management style and job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The findings indicated that, employees under this management style were not satisfied with their jobs and not committed to the organisation. This management style proved to be the less desired style of management. A study done by (Parvin and Kabir, 2011:114) indicated that job satisfaction is motivated by several factors, as noted in their statement

that, “There are a variety of factors that can influence a person’s level of job satisfaction. Some of these factors include the level of pay and benefits, the perceived fairness of the promotion system within a company, the quality of the working conditions, leadership and social relationships, the job itself”. Parvin and Kabir (2011) observe further that, employees who are contented with their jobs are most likely to be satisfied to the extent of holding on to their jobs, and that job satisfaction is nonetheless different from motivation. The popular definition by Locke (1970) suggests that job satisfaction is linked with the internal state and total well-being on an employee at work.

Parvin and Kabir (2011:114) assert that, “The overall well-being of an employee includes psychological, physiological, emotional and environment circumstances which could result in the employee feeling satisfied or dissatisfied with the job”, and thus underlining the significance of well-being towards employee job satisfaction. It should also be noted that most of the employees under this management style indicated that they always meet their work deadlines. This is because their managers dictate processes and method of work. Managers who use the autocratic management style ensure a smooth process by creating a highly structured work environment for their employees and in most cases do not encourage their employees to be creative. The autocratic managers also create and implement rules that are clearly outlined and communicated to their employees in order to ensure that their employees meet the deadlines and follow the processes. The aforementioned approach provides direction to employees and ensures that they know what is expected of them. Therefore, employees working under this management style should ensure that they know the process and methods as explained to them by their managers. Nevertheless, managers under this style should hear the views of their employees and encourage them to be innovative. Managers should also provide both training and tools for their employees so that they get motivated to do their work. This will ensure that the employees are satisfied with their jobs and most probably make them commit to the organisation.

### **9.3 Objective Two**

The second objective sought to investigate if the democratic management style influences organisational commitment with and without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor. This objective aimed at investigating if there is a relationship between democratic management style and employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment and if job satisfaction can act as a moderating variable. The findings revealed that the democratic management style had a positive impact on organisational commitment with and without job satisfaction as a moderating factor. This means that employees working under this management style do not need job satisfaction in order to commit to the organisation and when they are satisfied with their jobs, they still commit to the organisation. This may be due to several reasons, which include that, unlike in the autocratic management style, every employee is given an opportunity to share their ideas and the manager shares the problem solving responsibilities and decision making responsibilities with their employees.

In this management style, managers encourage team work, which produces an environment that encourages team spirit and cooperation. In addition, this management style enables managers to encourage employees to be innovative and to grow. Employees are likely to commit to this management style because of their managers style. Managers in this style keep communication lines open to their employees. Most respondents indicated that they had a good relationship with their managers and noted further that although their managers had the final say, they were informed about the decisions that impact their work and the organisation. Hence, employees commit to the organisation under this management style because the manager treats and sees subordinates as partners in progress and competent employees. This is concretised by Obi (2003) as noted in the statement that employees under this management style are most satisfied with their jobs because their comments, opinions and comments are valued in the decision-making processes.

## 9.4 Objective Three

The third objective was concerned with examining how the laissez-faire management style impacts organisational commitment with and without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The aim of this objective was to examine if the laissez-faire management style impacts both the organisational commitment and job satisfaction and if it impacts on organisational commitment with employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The findings revealed that the laissez-faire management style had no impact on organisational commitment in the absence of job satisfaction. With job satisfaction as a moderating factor, there is still no positive impact between the laissez-faire management style and organisational commitment. A manager that uses the laissez-faire management style offers their employees the authority to determine their goals and resolve problems. Under this management style, there is no supervision, the employees are highly experienced and do not require training. Unlike in the two management styles discussed above, managers under this style provide little or no support to their employees. Managers trust their employees to make the right decisions, determine their goals and solve any problem that they may encounter. One can argue, based on the definition of this management style that, the managers who adopt this management style hire or are likely to hire highly skilled and experienced personnel in order to archive the goals of the department or the organisation. In addition, employees who do not like to be micro managed are likely to be satisfied with their jobs and to commit to the organisation because there is no manager that is watching their every move. Instead, they manage themselves.

The results, which are presented in Table 7.7, show that 39.7% of the respondents indicated that their managers did not provide any training programmes for them and that they sometimes failed to meet the deadlines. This might be due to the employees working on their own pace and without any manager who would be pushing them. In addition, 27.4% of the respondents agreed that their managers offered little or no direction to them. This resonates with the observations by Okon and Isong (2016) that, a laissez-faire manager lacks direct supervision of employees and fails to provide regular feedback to those under their supervision. Highly experienced and trained employees who require

little supervision should fall under the laissez-faire management style, which is not always the case as not all employees possess those characteristics.

It should be noted that the laissez-faire management style is a popular management style which is being used by a lot of companies nowadays (Okon and Isong, 2016). This is an easy-going approach to management that inspires employees to be more productive. The managers who adopt this style are confident with their employees' capabilities and skills. Furthermore, all authority is given to the employees and they determine the goals, make decisions, and resolve problems on their own. Thus, a laissez-faire manager abandons responsibility, delays decisions, gives no feedback, and makes little effort to exchange views with employees in an attempt to help them grow. It is less wonder then that, (Okon and Isong, 2016) argue that the laissez-faire management style might not be good for employees that lack the needed skills, adherence to deadlines and motivation. Furthermore, this style can lead to poor performance and outcomes because inexperienced employees may find it difficult to work under this management style while some employees' productivity would be reduced as they may require constant direction from their managers. As much as this style may be ideal for employees who do not want to be micro-managed, managers should be willing to direct and assist employees who would rather be managed as opposed to not providing any direction or little direction.

## **9.5 Objective Four**

The fourth objective was to explore the effects of the paternalistic management style on organisational commitment with and without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The results that address this objective, as discussed in Chapter 7, are summarised in this section. The findings revealed that, in the absence of job satisfaction, there was a positive impact of the paternalistic management style on organisational commitment. There was no significant relationship with job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The reality is that most managers using the paternalistic management style encourage the employees to be innovation and pay more attention on the well-being of their employees. They are also concerned with their employees views and their social needs. The goal

of managers who use this management style is to see their employees happy. Nevertheless, this management style has characteristics of both the autocratic management style and democratic management style: for managers under this style give employees an opportunity to contribute to the decisions of the organisation but make the final decisions.

Employees, working under this management style, do not need to be satisfied with their jobs in order to commit to the organisation. This may be due to the fact that managers make their employees feel at home such that, if they would not be satisfied with their jobs, they would still commit to the organisation because of their managers management style. This means that the paternalistic management style is amenable to job satisfaction. Rehman and Afsar (2012) argue that the paternalistic management style plays a vital role in improving employee organisational commitment. A study conducted by Rehman and Afsar (2012) indicates that paternalistic management style had a strong impact on organisational commitment and the reasons for this positive relationship are that employees feel at home and their managers create a homely work environment for them. Hence, most employees would prefer a kind manager. Managers who use this management style should consider hiring employees who are professional, skilled, and qualified for the job. This will ensure that even when managers provide a homely work environment, they still do their assigned tasks and excel in their jobs. Employees under this management style may easily forget that they are at work, when their managers discipline them and they may feel dissatisfied. Hence, it is important to separate the home environment from the work environment. It should also be noted that this management style may display itself first glance as a democratic management style because employees are given an opportunity to ask questions and state their comments on the decisions of the organisation. Employees are, thus likely to commit to the organisation because their managers show care for their needs and assist them in improving their morale.

## **9.6 Objective Five**

The fifth objective sought to examine the impact of the persuasive management style on organisational commitment with and without employee job satisfaction as a mediating factor. The findings revealed that the persuasive management style had a negative impact on organisational commitment without job satisfaction as a moderating factor. In the presence of job satisfaction there was no significant impact on organisational commitment. This is a tricky management style which requires managers to build a strong work relationship with their employees, which is based on trust. This management style may not survive if these levels of relationships are not established. In addition, both the managers and the organisation should be able to persuade employees. The negative relationship between this management style and organisational commitment was probably due to the fact that it is sometimes difficult to convince employees to believe in management's ideas and carry out the work to a certain standard. If the manager does not have a good relationship with their employees, the managers are likely to be blamed for failure. This style can either work or not work for an organisation, and it allows for quick decision-making and increased productivity. Normally, the manager has a good relationship with their employees. Unfortunately, under this management style the team is likely to fail if the manager is not persuasive enough. Therefore, managers need to know their employees well, have a good relationship with them and make them aware of the policies and conduct of the organisation in order to succeed under this management style. The persuasive management style shares similarities with the autocratic style of management, which is characterised by a strong and central control of the business of the organisation. The difference is that persuasive managers motivate employees to ask questions as opposed to telling them to "do this and that or else". Hence, persuasive managers use different techniques to persuade their employees rather than use penalties and rewards, which are mostly used by organisations today.

## **9.7 Recommendations**

### **9.7.1 Objective One**

The first goal was to determine if the autocratic management style influenced job satisfaction and organisational commitment, with and without job satisfaction acting as a moderator. According to the study's findings, autocratic management style has a negative relationship with job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Employees under this management style were found to be dissatisfied with their jobs and uncommitted to the organisation. This management style proved to be the least desired management style. Managers who use this management style should consider adjusting it; for example, they should include their employees in department or organisational decision-making to some extent. However, this should be determined by the gravity and urgency of the issue at hand. When managers are forced to make quick decisions, they should do so without consulting their subordinates.

### **9.7.2 Objective Two**

The second goal was to determine whether democratic management has an effect on organisational commitment, both with and without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The results showed that democratic management had a positive impact on organisational commitment with and without job satisfaction as a moderating factor. This means that employees working under this management style do not require job satisfaction in order to commit to the organisation, and even when they are satisfied with their jobs, they continue to commit to the organisation. This could be due to a variety of factors, including the fact that, unlike in autocratic management, every employee is encouraged to share their ideas, and the manager shares problem-solving and decision-making responsibilities with their employees. Even though this is the preferred style, managers should consider including some elements of the autocratic management style in situations where quick decisions are required.

### **9.7.3 Objective Three**

The third goal was to look into how a laissez-faire management style affects organisational commitment, both with and without employee job satisfaction as a moderator. The data showed that in the absence of job satisfaction, a laissez-faire management style had no effect on organisational commitment. The findings also revealed that in the absence of job satisfaction, the laissez-faire management style had no effect on organisational commitment. Even with job satisfaction as a moderating factor, the laissez-faire management style has no positive impact on organisational commitment. A manager who employs a laissez-faire management style gives their employees the authority to set their own goals and solve problems. This style has no effect on employee satisfaction, implying that managers must do more to ensure that this style has a positive impact on both employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Managers under this management style should provide guidance to their employees, ensure that they receive adequate training, and show an interest in their future careers.

### **9.7.4 Objective Four**

The fourth goal was to look into how the paternalistic management style influenced organisational commitment, both with and without employee job satisfaction as a moderating factor. The findings showed that, in the absence of job satisfaction, the paternalistic management style increased organisational commitment. There was no significant relationship with job satisfaction as a moderating factor. In reality, most managers who use the paternalistic management style encourage their employees to be innovative and pay more attention to their employees' well-being. They are also concerned about their employees' opinions and social needs. This management style appears to be effective on paper, but when some employees leave for work, they expect to leave their personal lives at home. A paternalistic manager is more of a father figure to their employees; they want to see them succeed and grow, but it can be too much at times. As a result, some employees may leave the organisation to work for a manager who is not going to father

them. Managers who follow this management style must know when to draw the line. They should focus on work-related issues rather than employees' personal lives.

### **9.7.5 Objective Five**

The fifth goal was to look into how the persuasive management style affected organisational commitment with and without employee job satisfaction as a moderator. The findings showed that the persuasive management style had a negative impact on organisational commitment in the absence of job satisfaction as a moderating factor. When job satisfaction was present, there was no significant impact on organisational commitment. Persuasive management is a tricky management style that necessitates managers developing a strong work relationship with their employees that is founded on trust. If these levels of relationships are not established, this management style may not survive. Managers who follow this management style may only be able to persuade their employees to give their all if their employees trust and believe in them. Managers who follow this management style must know when to draw the line. They should focus on achieving the goals of the organisation and less on how their employees perceive them.

### **9.7.6 Proposed management styles**

The democratic and paternalist management styles appear to be the only ones that have a positive impact on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. As a result, this study suggests that managers employ either the democratic or paternalistic management styles. The findings of this study show that employees prefer to work in an organisation where they feel they belong, where they can be creative and innovative, and where they can have a say in how the organisation makes decisions. According to research, democratic management is one of the most effective management styles because it allows lower-level employees to exercise authority that they will need in future positions. Employees under managers who use these management styles are satisfied with their jobs and are or are likely to commit to the organisation, according to the findings of this study.

### 9.7.6.1 Proposed models

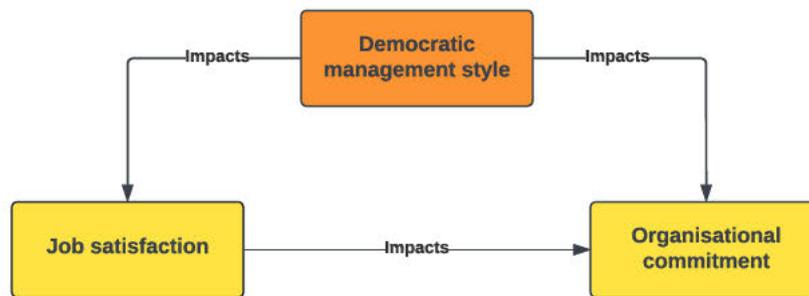


FIGURE 9.1: Proposed model 1  
Source: Author's compilation

Figure 9.1 displays a relationship between democratic management style, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The democratic management style has an impact on organisational commitment with and without job satisfaction as a moderating factor. To achieve both job satisfaction and organisational commitment, managers must adopt or use the democratic management style to manage their organisations.

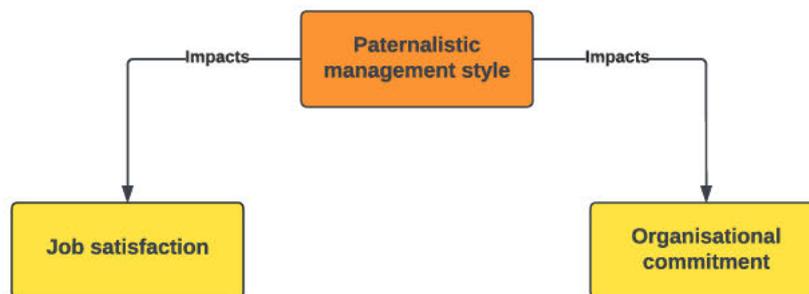


FIGURE 9.2: Proposed model 2  
Source: Author's compilation

Figure 9.2 displays a relationship between paternalistic management style, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The paternalistic management style has an impact on organisational commitment without job satisfaction as a moderating factor. With job satisfaction as a moderating factor, there is no significant relationship. Employees under this management style do not need to be satisfied with their jobs in order to commit to the organisation. To achieve both job satisfaction and organisational commitment,

managers should consider adopting or use the paternalistic management style to manage their employees.

### **9.7.7 Rejected management styles**

The findings from this study show that the autocratic management style had a significant negative impact on organisational commitment without job satisfaction as a moderating factor as well as with job satisfaction as a moderating factor. Job satisfaction has a significant positive impact on organisational commitment but its presence in the regression model does not significantly alter the negative impact of the autocratic management style on organisational commitment. This means that there is no moderating effect of job satisfaction on the effect of autocratic management style on organisational commitment. Most employees under this management style are not satisfied with their jobs and not willing to commit to the organisation. Therefore, this is not an ideal style of management.

It should be noted that the occurrence of a crisis necessitates quick choices and decisive measures and as such, the autocratic style might be beneficial. However, it frequently pits employees against overbearing managers, resulting in dysfunctional and even hostile workplaces. The study results showed that, under the laissez-faire management style the negative aspects of the laissez-faire management style (laissez-faire (-)) have no significant impact on organisational commitment in the absence of job satisfaction as a moderating factor. With job satisfaction as a moderating factor, laissez-faire (-) still has no significant impact on organisational commitment. Job satisfaction has a significant positive impact on organisational commitment, but its presence in the regression model does not significantly affect the impact of both laissez-faire (-) and laissez-faire (+) aspects of the laissez-faire management style on organisational commitment. Even though this management style is not preferred by most employees but it can empower people by allowing them to work how they want, but it can also limit their development and lead to missed possibilities for company success. As a result, it is critical to keep this management style under check.

The results also showed that the persuasive management style effects has a significant negative impact on organisational commitment without the moderating effects of job satisfaction. However, in the presence of job satisfaction, the persuasive management style has no significant impact on organisational commitment. Therefore, job satisfaction has a significant moderating effect on the impact the persuasive management style has on organisational commitment. Job satisfaction also has a significant positive impact on organisational commitment and moderates the effect of the persuasive management style on organisational commitment. This style is quite different from others because it requires the manager to have a good relationship with their employees. In addition, this management style has a good possibility of working if the manager builds a trusting relationship with their employees.

### **9.7.8 Contribution of the study to the body of knowledge**

It was stated in Chapter 1 that 57 percent of employees left their employment because of their managers in 2019. An increased number of employee turnover results in unavoidable productivity loss, and replacing experienced employees can be quite costly. The negative impact of employee turnover can also be seen in the fact that some stakeholders prefer to work with employees they know and trust rather than dealing with new employees they are unfamiliar with. The fact that management styles have a direct impact on employee turnover was discovered in the literature, leading to the goal of this study, which is to look at the impact of management styles on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. One of the ways managers can boost employee job satisfaction is to adopt the ideal management style and use it appropriately.

As discussed in Chapter 2, there had been very little research done in South Africa on the impact management styles on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. As a result, this research contributes to the understanding of how to choose the best management style(s) and how each style impacts employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. More research should be done to encourage a meaningful engagement between employers and employees. Employees should be able to openly

communicate with their managers. Employees that are negatively affected by their manager's management style may become unsatisfied with their positions and may decide to leave the company. Consequently, managers should be able to choose a management style that encourages employee job satisfaction as well as organisational commitment. Job satisfaction can lead to organisational commitment, and organisational commitment can lead to job satisfaction, according to the literature examined. However, this is not always the case, as job satisfaction is not always accompanied by organisational commitment. Employees who are happy in their jobs, for example, have been known to leave the company. The truth is similar in terms of organisational commitment, in that there have been situations where individuals are unsatisfied with their positions yet remain devoted to the company for various reasons.

Having said that, one can see how a manager's management style can affect job satisfaction rather than organisational commitment. Even though some authors say that the two variables (job satisfaction and organisational commitment) should be treated separately, an organisation must work toward achieving both since job satisfaction and organisational commitment have several benefits. In a nutshell, this research has added to the growing body of knowledge about the impact of a manager's management style on employee job satisfaction and their decision to stay with the company or not.

## **9.8 Study Limitations**

The aspects of research methodology that impact the interpretation of the study findings are referred to as study limitations (Price and Murnan, 2004). Several researchers such as Price and Murnan (2004), Wang, Bolland and Grey (2015), and Brutus, Aguinis and Wassmer (2013) agree that new researchers are not proud to clearly state their study limitations because they are concerned that doing so will undermine the validity of their research. Price and Murnan (2004) argues that it is not the case because a statement of study limitations allows the reader to better understand the study's conditions and the challenges that the researcher has faced. It will also assist future researchers who are intending to do a similar study. The inclusion of research limitations demonstrates the

author's comprehensive and holistic understanding of the research process and topic. In this section, the study limitations for this particular study are discussed in detail.

### **9.8.1 Sample size**

According to Price and Murnan (2004), sampling is one of the most frequently mentioned limitation. It is difficult to get a sample that will be sufficient for the study. There are so many factors that contribute to this reality. For example, budget, time constraints, and shortage of relevant information. The intended sample size for this study was initially 249, but only 242 questionnaires were captured. The 7 questionnaires that were not captured might have had a significant impact on the findings of this study. According to Wang *et al.* (2015), various sampling techniques are also susceptible to error and bias, which may influence outcomes.

### **9.8.2 Availability of previous research**

In general, studies are based on prior knowledge or theoretical concepts about a particular topic (Wang *et al.*, 2015). Shortage of information that talks about management as a separate concept from leadership made it difficult for the researcher to find more specific academic research. Price and Murnan (2004) notes that lack of knowledge or other prior studies may limit the scope of the analysis, resulting in inaccuracies in the author's arguments and an increased margin of error in many aspects of the research and methodology.

### **9.8.3 Research Methodology**

The complexity of modern research leads to potential methodological limitations (Wang *et al.*, 2015). Most frequently, it is concerning data collection and analysis, as these aspects can have a significant impact on outcomes. Data collection techniques vary and, while appropriate for the study design, have significant limitations in terms of privacy, distractions, or inappropriate levels of detail. The researcher made sure that

the data collection method that was used for this study was appropriate and through a pilot study, made sure that the information collected was potentially valid and reliable. However, a mixed method of collecting data would have provided more understanding of the topic and it would have provided the participants more time to reflect and share their experiences.

Any research study is bound to have limitations. As a result, acknowledging various limitations as part of the research process is widely accepted in academia. The problems can range from sampling and literature review to methodology and bias. For this study, limitations in sampling size, shortage of literature, and the data collection method were identified. The researcher remained objective and was in control of any potential bias or inaccuracy at all stages of the research process.

## **9.9 Future research**

Future research can include performance. It can also focus on a link between four (4) variables (management styles, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and performance). This is likely to expand on the understanding of how the three variables studied here contribute to employee performance and to the success of the organisation. Another study can separate managers in terms of their gender in order to investigate if women managers use a certain styles of management compared to males, and perhaps compare both styles, and possibly decide on the best style that is preferred by most employees. It will also be important to design the research method in such a way that it captures all the insights (the research may make use of the mixed method of collecting data). Finally, future research can also explore and compare management styles used by different sectors.

## **9.10 Conclusion**

The study discovered out that various managers used different management styles to manage their employees. A management style that a manger chooses may have an impact on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Sometimes, employee job satisfaction may lead to organisational commitment. A manager's choice of management style must be used well in order to work well with the employees as they are a great asset to the organisation. Employees ensure the smooth running of the business and require their managers' guidance in order to move into the right direction in order to achieve the goals of the organisation. Some of the management styles discussed in this study had similar characteristics. For example, the persuasive management style has some similar characteristic with the autocratic management style where decisions are made by managers. In the paternalistic and democratic management styles, employees are given an opportunity to ask questions, comment on the decisions of the organisation and participate in the activities organised by the organisation such as, training and development. It is clear that management styles have an impact on how satisfied employees are with their jobs and on organisational commitment. Finally, the chapter outlined recommendations for each objective.

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# Appendix A

## Interview questions

### SECTION A: Employee details

1. How long have you served in your current position at Hulamin?

- Less than 1
- 1–2
- 3–5
- 6–10
- More than 10

2. Please describe your current position

- Secretary/Administrator
- Recruitment/Selection officer
- Senior officers
- Recruitment/ Selection advisor

3. Please specify your age

- 25 - 30
- 35 - 45

50 - 60

4. Please specify the department you fall under

Finance

HR

IT

Fitting

Production

Finishing

5. Please specify your gender

Male

Female

## SECTION B: Autocratic Management Style

Please select the most appropriate option applicable to you

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
My manager does not involve me in the decision making of the organisation					
My manger simplifies the work for me					
I am not allowed the opportunity to input to organisational goals					
I normally deliver work on time					
I like the fact that my manager does not includes me in the decision making of the organisation.					
My manager does not communicate organisational changes/developments with me					

## SECTION C: Democratic Management Style

Please select the most appropriate option applicable to you

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
My manager does include me in the decision making of the organisation					
My manager keeps me informed about everything that affects my work					
My manager encourages me to grow on the job and to prepare myself for promotion					
My manager created a sense of belonging in the workplace					
My manager has the final say					
I have a good work relationship with my manager					

## SECTION D: Laissez-faire Management Style

Please select the most appropriate option applicable to you

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
My manager offers little or no direction to me					
My manager gives me freedom					
I am given authority to determine goals, make decision and resolve problems					
My manager does not provide any training programs for me					
Sometimes I fail to meet the deadlines due to lack of support from my manager					

## SECTION E: Paternalistic Management Style

Please select the most appropriate option applicable to you

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
My manager takes into account my best interests					
My manager takes care of my work challenges					
My manager takes care of my personal challenges					
When I am at work, I feel like I am at home					
My manager encourages me to be innovative in the way I do my work					

## **SECTION F: Persuasive Management Style**

Please select the most appropriate option applicable to you

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
My manager does not involve me in the decision making					
I do everything the way my managers way					
My manager has the ability to persuade me to do the work					
Opportunities for my initiative and commitment are overlooked					

## **SECTION G: Job Satisfaction**

Please select the most appropriate option applicable to you

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
I am happy and satisfied with my job					
Given the opportunity, I would change my job					
I am motivated to do my job					
My manager has created a healthy working environment for me					

## SECTION H: Organisational Commitment

Please select the most appropriate option applicable to you

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
I am dedicated to my work at Hulamin					
My work is important to me					
I am not planning to leave Hulamin anytime soon					
If I was to get a similar position elsewhere, I would leave Hulamin					
I am committed to assisting the organisation achieve its objectives					

## SECTION I: Link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Please select the most appropriate option applicable to you

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
I am committed to Hulamin because I am happy and satisfied with my job					
My work relationship with my manager stimulates me to commit to Hulamin					

# Appendix B

## Informed Consent

### UKZN HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (HSSREC)

APPLICATION FOR ETHICS APPROVAL  
For research with human participants

#### INFORMED CONSENT RESOURCE TEMPLATE

##### Information Sheet and Consent to Participate in Research

Date: 11 October 2019

Greetings,

My name is Mbalenhle Mandisa Nxumalo from University of KwaZulu Natal, Pietermaritzburg campus in the School of Management, IT and Governance.

You are being invited to consider participating in a study that involves research questionnaires. The aim and purpose of this research is to find the link between the management styles and employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The role of employee job satisfaction, acting as a mediating variable in the relationship between management styles and organisational commitment, will also be investigated. The study is expected to enroll 249 employees. The duration of your participation if you choose to enroll and remain in the study is expected to be 30 minutes. There will be no monetary gain from participation. Confidentiality and Anonymity of records will be maintained by the researcher and the School of Management, I.T and Governance, University of Kwazulu-Natal. All data collected will be used solely for research purposes and will be disposed of after 5 years. The study is funded by the NRF - DAAD in country scholarship.

We hope that this study will contribute towards better understanding of the dynamics of management styles in relation to employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment from a South African perspective. The findings of this study will assist organisations maximize their productivity through satisfied and committed employees. It is hoped that the managers will also put more efforts on choosing the best management styles for their organisations.

This study has been ethically reviewed and approved by the UKZN Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (approval number\_\_\_\_\_).

In the event of any problems or concerns/questions you may contact the researcher at [210553146@stu.ukzn.ac.za](mailto:210553146@stu.ukzn.ac.za), Cell: 0790846375 or the UKZN Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee, contact details as follows:

**HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION**  
Research Office, Westville Campus  
Govan Mbeki Building  
Private Bag X 54001  
Durban  
4000  
KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA  
Tel: 27 31 2604557- Fax: 27 31 2604609  
Email: [HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za)

# Appendix C

## Gatekeeper's Letter



### CONSENT FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This letter confirms that Hulamín hereby grants permission to Mbalenhle Mandisa Nxumalo, student number 210553146 to conduct her research at Hulamín Operations Pty Ltd.

Study title - The perceived impact of management styles on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment: A case study of Hulamín, Pietermaritzburg

The student should note Hulamín Safety and Human Resources policies and procedures before conducting his/her studies and ensure that a Hulamín representative accompanies them throughout the process.

Yours Sincerely

  
Pinky Hillman

Organisational Development Manager

01<sup>st</sup> October 2019

# Appendix D

## Ethical Clearance



04 November 2019

Miss Mbalenhle Mandisa Nxumalo (210553146)  
School Of Man Info Tech & Gov  
Pietermaritzburg Campus

Dear Miss Nxumalo,

**Protocol reference number:** HSSREC/00000725/2019

**Project title:** The perceived impact of management styles on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment: A case study of Hulamin, Pietermaritzburg

### Full Approval – Expedited Application

This letter serves to notify you that your application received on 17 October 2019 in connection with the above, was reviewed by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

**Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.**

This approval is valid for one year from 04 November 2019.

To ensure uninterrupted approval of this study beyond the approval expiry date, a progress report must be submitted to the Research Office on the appropriate form 2 - 3 months before the expiry date. A close-out report to be submitted when study is finished.

Yours sincerely,



Professor Urmilla Bob  
University Dean of Research

/dd

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee  
Dr Rosemary Sibanda (Chair)  
UKZN Research Ethics Office Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building  
Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000  
Website: <http://research.ukzn.ac.za/Research-Ethics/>

Founding Campuses: ■ Edgewood ■ Howard College ■ Medical School ■ Pietermaritzburg ■ Westville

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