

Employee Perception on Causes and Forms of Conflict in the Botswana Construction Industry: A Comparative Study between Domestic-Owned and Chinese-Owned Companies

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Abstract

The construction industry in Botswana plays a crucial role in the economic development of the nation. While much research in this sector centres on the technical issues, especially the tender/procurement processes as they have evolved over the years, there is limited research on employment relations. This study investigates the lived experiences of employees in the Botswana construction industry in both domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies and aims to capture ‘snapshots’ of their perceptions of the causes and forms of conflict within that sector.

Adopting a pragmatism research paradigm, this research employs a mixed methods research protocol to obtain quantitative and qualitative data from a sample of 632 employees. The overall results reveal that there are statistically significant differences between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies, with respect to how employees perceive income distribution, job security and managerial control as causes of conflict. The empirical results show that there is a positive relationship between employees’ negative workplace perceptions and various forms of workplace deviant behaviours that employees use to retaliate in the event they perceive some form of unfairness, particularly in wages, job security or how managers/supervisors treat them. In domestic-owned companies there is a significant and positive association between disparity of income distribution and personal gain deviant behaviours such as theft as compared to other deviant activities against the production process including sabotage and production deviance; while in Chinese-owned companies there is a significant positive association between all forms of workplace inequities (income distribution, job security, managerial control) and all forms of conflict.

This study contributes to the development of a more rigorous approach to the analysis of industrial relations conflicts in the construction industry in developing economies. This type of comparative research between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies could possibly be transferred to similar industries, such as in manufacturing and retail, where there are also a significant number of foreign-owned companies. This thesis concludes by discussing the various contributions made by this study to both academia and practitioners. It also details several recommendations for future research and for ensuring peaceful and productive employee-employer relationships in the workplace.

Statement of Authorship

Except where explicit reference is made in the text of the thesis, this thesis contains no material published elsewhere or extracted in whole or in part from a thesis by which I have qualified for or been awarded another degree or diploma. No other person's work has been relied upon or used without due acknowledgement in the main text and bibliography of the thesis.



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Dedication

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Publications from the Thesis

Peer Reviewed Conference

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List of Abbreviations

Abbreviations	Title
ANOVA	Analysis one-way variance
EA	Employment Act Chapter 47:01 of 2003
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GFC	Global Financial Crisis
HRM	Human Resource Management
ILO	International Labour Organization
MLHA	Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

Chapter One: Introduction

1.0 Introduction

Employees remain the most important asset of any organisation since they play a critical role in the achievement of both short-term and long-term objectives and enable organisations to compete favourably in the business environment. The kinds of human resource management (HRM) practices and policies that are implemented within these organisations have a direct impact on employees' experiences of work and employment relationships (Guest, 2002; Khatri & Gupta, 2015; Winstanley & Woodal, 2000). Global Construction Perspectives (2013) report that the global construction industry in 2012 was estimated to have a market-value of \$7.5 trillion, which is expected to increase to \$12.7 trillion by 2020. Emerging investors such as China, India and Africa are anticipated to represent 55% of this market by 2020, with Chinese investment in construction overtaking the United States (US) by 2018, and India overtaking Japan to become the third biggest investors in the same year. In this context, with strong growing Chinese investment, the construction industry in Botswana plays a crucial role in the country's economic development, especially in terms of its contribution to employment creation and income generation (Central Statistics Office, 2013b).

What follows is a comparative research study examining domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies in the Botswana construction industry in order to find out if there are any differences in employees' perceptions on the causes and forms of conflict. There is relatively little research on this topic, and a satisfactory answer requires a detailed examination of employees' perceptions in Chinese-owned companies and a comparison with their counterparts in domestic-owned companies. This study has its genesis in the

dominance of Chinese-owned companies within the increasing development of the construction industry in Africa.

This research has the potential to contribute significantly to the existing literature. It also aims to contribute to an understanding of the causes and forms of conflict from an employee perspective. It is reasonable to assume that by gaining an understanding of the employees' perceptions of the causes and forms of conflict, then it is possible to work effectively to minimise the costs incurred when the completion of projects is delayed due to industrial conflict. Also when employees' perceive managerial control, such as close supervision, to be a cause of conflict, these perceptions might translate into higher rates of theft, sabotage and other activities which might well lead to the possible failure of the project. This current research will also provide a framework capable of being adopted for other developing economies.

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the context in which the research is set. The chapter is structured as follows: the first section 1.1 provides the research background of the study. The second section 1.2 discusses the motivation for the research. The research questions are set out in the third section 1.3, and the fourth section 1.4 provides information on the significance and contribution of this study. The fifth section 1.5 outlines the details of the research approach (methodology) adopted in this study. The sixth section 1.6 provides information on the general outline of the thesis and finally, the seventh section 1.7 provides a summary of the chapter.

1.1 Background

A large number of multinational construction companies, ranging from British and other European construction companies to Asian and South African companies extend their

operations into the African continent including Botswana. Datta (2000) attributes this movement of expatriate construction firms into emerging economies to the lowering of trade barriers, and to their capacity and knowledge of construction which advantages them against local competition. However, Davies (2010) observes that European companies are conscious that their once-undisputed influence in Africa is now being challenged by Chinese-owned companies.

Existing literature indicates that the entry of foreign companies, especially the Chinese-owned companies, into the construction industry brought with it some major changes in employment relations in Botswana and in Africa as a whole (Akorsu & Cooke, 2011; Guliwe, 2009; Wood, 2011). These researchers posit that although working conditions in Chinese-owned companies in Africa differ across countries and sectors, there are some common features. These include: tense labour relations, foreign-management hostility towards trade unions, violations of workers' rights, poor working conditions and unfair labour practices (Baraedi, 2009; Deng, 2014; Fitzgibbon, 2015; Guliwe, 2009; Hou, 2015).

The construction industry in Botswana is the most affected industry in terms of employment relations. There have been many media reports in Botswana of tension between employers and employees. For instance, Baraedi (2009) and Gaotlhobogwe (2009) report that anecdotal evidence indicates that most projects are either failing or are not being completed on schedule; they suggest that one of the reasons for these failures and over-runs relates to poor employment relations which often leads to conflict. For example, in 2012 employees at the Francistown Stadium (Botswana) project were in dispute with their employers, and this led to assaults by some managers on some employees when the employees engaged in strike action over unsatisfactory working

conditions and low wages. This scenario reflects the sentiments expressed by James, Rust and Kingma (2012) that if employees perceive that their expectations are not met, conflict arises and it can negatively impact on the welfare of employees, the company and its stakeholders. The scenario also demonstrates that the conflict may have consequences which go well beyond the merely theoretical.

Earlier studies suggest that employee perceptions of equity *and* inequity are equally important and should be carefully considered when a company sets remuneration scales, and lays out its future plans in this area (Adams, 1963, 1965; Al-Zu'bi, 2010; Blader & Tyler, 2003; Choi & Chen, 2007; Della Torre, Pelagatti, & Solari, 2015). Employees who perceive fair and equitable pay, treatment and management-support may be more motivated to perform better or to support a company's goals (Bell & Martin, 2012; Morrell, 2011; Romanoff, Boehm, & Benson, 1986). Hence, reward systems must align remunerations with the company's goals and business strategies, as well as the values and expectations of the employees. As a result, many researchers contend that the key to good employment relations policy is that an employer creates and enables a sense of equity (e.g. a sense of balance, fairness, or justice) between the organisation and its employees (Bell & Martin, 2012; Choi & Chen, 2007; Currall, Towler, Judge, & Kohn, 2005; Della Torre et al., 2015; Morrell, 2011).

Researchers note that there are many factors that influence an employee's perception of equity, such as job security, working conditions, advancement opportunities, management appreciation, relations with co-workers and flexibility of hours or job assignment ahead of pay (Abou-Moghli, 2015; Bell & Martin, 2012; Jones & Skarlicki, 2003; Morrell, 2011; Romanoff et al., 1986). Nevertheless, these researchers note that because job security is linked to stability of income, it is possible that a regular pay slip

may push such negative perceptions below the observable surface. The literature suggests that concepts such as justice and equity are of paramount importance in the workplace; and the consequences of an organisation's mishandling of these concepts can be dramatic (Della Torre et al., 2015; Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007; Folger & Skarlicki, 1999; Gagnon, 2000; Moorthy, Seetharaman, Jaffar, & Foong, 2015; Skarlicki, Barclay, & Pugh, 2008).

Numerous researchers note that any discrepancies in wants and expectations of employers and employees often lead to problems that can have serious implications for both the company as well as employees (Adams, 1963,1965; Bell & Martin, 2012; Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, Conlon, & Wesson, 2013; Fida, Paciello, Tramontano, Fontaine, Barbaranelli & Farnese, 2014; Jaques, 1990). Deviations from employee's expectations of equity will likely result in such negative consequences as negative feelings about their employers, resistance to change, depression, employee grievances, turnover, absenteeism, deliberate low productivity, sabotage and diminished motivation (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999; De Boer, Bakker, Syroit, & Schaufeli, 2002; Everton, Jolton, & Mastrangelo, 2007; Fida et al., 2014; Kickul, 2001; Reynolds, Shoss & Jund, 2015).

There is then, evidence suggesting that a failure to acknowledge or understand such issues as employee expectations of equity may have negative consequences for a company in the form of industrial relations conflict. The purpose of this study, within the broader discipline of employment relations, is to investigate this industrial relations issue, and to do so by addressing it from the point of view of the employee. That is, to study the issues of equity and fairness from the point of view of the employees' perceptions of them. This may lead to an understanding of the employees' perceptions of the causes of

conflict, and may also provide an insight into the larger question of the causes of the various forms of deviant behaviours that employees may resort to as a consequence of any perceived unfairness from employers.

1.2 Research Motivation

The study of employment relations, particularly the relationship between employers and employees in workplace conflict, has long intrigued this researcher and is the driver of this research project. Given the fact that the construction industry is important to the Botswana economy, it is of interest to explore the employment relations aspect. The construction industry is chosen because it is one of the fastest emerging and growing sectors in Botswana with a significant number of unskilled employees (Central Statistics Office, 2013b). Observations by the researcher on some construction sites in Botswana seemed to indicate that employee welfare issues were not taken seriously. For instance, health and safety precautions, such as the use of personal protective equipment, did not appear to be taken seriously by most building contractors (Kabiaru, 2002; Leung, Chan & Yu, 2012; Moeti-Lysson & Boy, 2011; Musonda & Smallwood, 2008; Mwanaumo, Thwala, & Pretorius, 2014).

The Botswana construction industry has experienced an influx of Chinese-owned companies (as indeed have many industries in Africa), and as a result there has been a lot of employment conflict in the sector which can be attributed to the different employment relations styles employed (Baraedi, 2009; Gaotlhobogwe, 2009). Therefore, building on this theme, the presence of both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies in Botswana is a current and significant issue for investigation. Particularly in exploring whether there are differences in employees' perceptions of the causes of conflict (depending upon the ownership of the company), and the way employees retaliate in cases where they perceive

the existence of inequities in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies. Of particular interest is the attitude of the workers themselves, and the degree to which their perceptions of the causes of conflict is a factor in industrial unrest. A comparison of such perceptions across domestic- and Chinese-owned companies might permit some insight into the root causes of the current labour conflict.

While there are studies that explore management, industrial relations and performance in the Botswana mining (Mogalakwe, 2008) as well as tourism industries (Marobela & Moeti-Lysson, 2010; Marobela, 2011), employees' issues have been studied only in the context of the effects on industrial strikes, for example in the Debswana mining companies (Marobela, 2011). On the other hand, employment concerns in foreign-owned construction companies have attracted the attention of the press. In the years between 2009 and 2012, newspapers have reported receiving anonymous letters regarding poor and unethical treatment of employees (Baraedi, 2009; Gaotlhobogwe, 2009). Such newspaper articles highlight a number of areas of significant employee-organisation tension, mostly in foreign-owned companies in Botswana. In one instance, employees testified to being afraid of losing their jobs when they complain or when companies brought or a hired cheaper work force from neighbouring countries (Deng, 2014; Economist, 2011; Gaotlhobogwe, 2009; Hou, 2015).

Van Bracht (2012) observes that the conflict between Chinese investors and African nationals is intensifying; it is on construction sites that Chinese investors are increasingly coming into conflict with Batswana¹ employees; and the latter appear to approach work and the workplace with very different attitudes to that of the Chinese managers. Van Bracht suggests an uneasy relationship between Chinese-owned companies and African employees. In the context of Botswana, Baraedi (2009) reports that Batswana employees

¹ Citizens of Botswana are known as Batswana (Batswana in plural and singular is Motswana.)

are anxious over changing work-patterns and debates are already being held over such issues as the requirement to work on weekends or on nightshifts.

Baraedi (2009) indicates that grievances in the construction and textile industries against Chinese investors are at the forefront of public debate in Botswana from politicians' perspective; for example, Ngwaketse West Member of Parliament Mephato Reatile (MP) complained to Parliament that the Botswana construction industry has been taken over by Chinese contractors. Botswana employees were allegedly subjected to severe beatings in Chinese-owned companies after revealing their miserable working conditions to some visiting parliamentarians (Baraedi, 2009; Gaotlhobogwe, 2009). Likewise, in Chinese-owned companies in Zambia, Sata (2007) notes that the treatment of workers is clearly a major issue as half of the total complaints (50.5%) relate to the issue of poor treatment of Zambian workers, and are mostly about the low pay and verbal or physical abuse by management.

Literature (see for example, Erlinghagen, 2008; Hibbs, 1976; Kalleberg, 2009) suggests that economic and political instability as well as an over-supply of labour in the market will have a serious impact on employees' working and therefore living conditions. Hence, in the context of the current study the political, economic and unemployment rates in the neighbouring countries and the labour market within Botswana, which is currently characterised by high unemployment, might all have an impact on employee perceptions of the causes of conflict in the workplace. This is particularly relevant in developing countries like Botswana, where these global, regional and local factors appear to have at least contributed to employees' worries about their income and job security, and affected relationships with managers and supervisors. This accord with HRM theories such as equity theory and the social-exchange theory, both of which suggest that individuals use

their social environmental cues to interpret reality and select appropriate attitudes and behaviours (Adams, 1963, 1965; Blau, 1964; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). In addition to this, as demand for labour falls and unemployment increases, there will be a downward pressure on pay and benefits. Such significant changes in the external environment of organisations will clearly impact on HRM practices, most notably in the way in which management might behave in the face of economic crisis.

Considering the importance of the construction sector to the Botswana economy and the contribution of its citizens to project-success, it is an understatement to say that little research on people management exists in the sector. Undeniably, a greater focus on the management of people in the construction sector would assist all the players to manage their differences more harmoniously. The enhancement of employee satisfaction might perhaps go some way to meet the concerns of government, trade unions and the nation generally about the number of construction projects which have either been completed late or not brought to completion, largely due to the negative consequences of poor relations between employers and employees.

From the researcher's own observations, it appears that although the government continues publicly to urge employers to comply with the law, both the media and the Parliamentary Select Committee reports reveal that government enforcement and supervision of labour standards are generally weak in all sectors (Baraedi, 2009). There is shortage of labour inspectors with a lack of effective sanctions, while procedures for conflict resolution are unwieldy. In the face of stiff competition and a high unemployment rate in the country, companies are likely to adopt 'flexibility' of employment as a cost-cutting measure.

Unlike the neighbouring countries, such as Zimbabwe and particularly South Africa, in Botswana trade unions are not as effective and efficient when coming to presentation of its members interests. In particular, in the current study context the construction industry is non-unionised and as a result employees do not have a platform to raise their concerns like other sectors such as mining where employees have trade unions that offer a large platform to raise issues with their employers. Therefore, conflict between employers and employees in the construction sector exist outside the traditional industrial dispute mechanisms adopted by trade unions (Dlamini , 2000; Marobela, 2011).

1.3 Research Questions

The identified concern with employee practices in the Chinese-owned construction firms appears as significant in a growing part of the Botswana construction sector. Thus, the main research question is stated as:

What are the reasons for the perceived differences (or lack of differences) in terms of both causes and forms of industrial conflict among employees in the Botswana construction industry as they are found in domestic-owned as opposed to Chinese-owned companies?

The following sub-questions will assist in answering the main research question:

- i. What differences in employee perceptions of the causes of conflict in the workforce exist between those employed in domestic-owned as compared to Chinese-owned companies?
- ii. What differences exist in terms of the manifestation of conflict between the employees of domestic-owned as opposed to Chinese-owned companies?

1.4 Significance and Contribution of Research

This research is intended to develop a better understanding from an employee perspective of the perceived causes of (industrial) conflict, and the various forms of deviant employment behaviours that employees may engage in. The research aims to study causes and forms of conflict in the context of the Botswana construction industry, an industry in which employee-relations issues have not been extensively researched (Palalani, 2000). The research aims to contribute to the employment relations literature by providing a unique database on employee perceptions within that industry.

Research on Botswana construction in general as reviewed by Palalani (2000) indicates that most of the published research has focused on developed countries, with only a very few studies of the relevant issues in developing countries. This study will contribute to existing knowledge in a number of ways. Firstly, it aims to address a lack of empirical research (particularly robust, scholarly research) into the industrial relations conflict of the Botswana construction industry – an area in which, to the best of this researcher’s knowledge, there exists no earlier research that focuses on the causes and forms of conflict in what is also a non-unionised industry of a developing country.

Secondly, extending wider than the construction industry, the research aims at an understanding what employees perceive as being the causes of conflict. This can help to anticipate and to manage work-related behaviour in situations where the potential for conflict exists. Thirdly, since the research will necessarily involve addressing such issues as job security, equity and ‘fairness’, it hopes also to describe an ethical framework within which both employer and employee can operate to their mutual advantage.

Fourth, this research will have the potential to become a basis for the development of a more rigorous approach to the analysis of industrial relations conflicts in the construction industry in developing economies. This type of comparative research between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies could be transferred to similar industries, such as in manufacturing and retail, where there are also a significant number of foreign-owned companies.

Fifth, it is expected that the outcomes from this research will provide insights and understandings of value to organisations/company managers about the ways in which employees' perception of unfairness (in terms of income distribution, job security and managerial control or HR practices) can feed into and exacerbate situations where the potential for conflict exists. Further, a better understanding of the role of employee-perceptions can provide a platform from which management can work to reduce or eliminate those deviant and damaging behaviours sometimes resorted to by frustrated and angry employees.

Sixth, the findings of this study can provide useful information and theoretical understandings to assist policy-makers to develop policies which can be more beneficial to the construction industry and employment in general. In practical terms, this study informs public policy and practice in that the findings are expected to provide the government with information that can assist it to employment regulations, develop human resources policies and procedures that will eventually lead to the successful completion of projects in a timely manner. As a result, the research is expected to improve employment relations and by understanding causes of conflict in the construction sector, improve the control of process and outcomes which could be beneficial to both parties involved in the employment bargain. The flow-on advantages of this include cost savings, confidentiality,

preservation of relationships, and a better range of possible solutions to effectively resolve conflict.

Finally, this study attempts to build a fluent dialogue between quantitative and qualitative approaches, and has the potential to take advantages of triangulation and complementarity. By using mixed methods, this thesis has the potential to achieve triangulation in empirical evidence, and to overcome some of the limitations within singular methods. The study will therefore adopt a holistic approach through a pragmatic philosophy by utilising a range of methods and tools in order to present a comprehensive view as possible, of the many factors that contribute to workplace conflicts (as established by past research) in a context that is specifically African. It will provide a comprehensive picture of how employees' perceptions of the causes of conflict can lead to various forms of deviant employment behaviours if those perceptions are not acknowledged and addressed. This is particularly the case in non-unionised industries like construction.

1.5 Research Approach

In order to examine and understand whether there are differences in employees' perceptions of the causes and forms of conflict in domestic-owned as opposed to Chinese-owned companies, a pragmatism paradigm has been chosen for this study with a mixed methods approach. The purpose of the mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) approach is to explore what employees perceive as being the causes of conflict as well as the relationship between causes of conflict and forms of conflict that occur in their workplaces. Primary data was acquired by means of a survey questionnaire, which assisted the researcher to obtain invaluable perceptions from a significant sample of the workforce population in order to address the research questions.

The second stage involved undertaking semi-structured interviews drawn from a self-nominated sub-sample of potential respondents. The purpose of the interviews was to allow participants to reflect on the results of the survey and provide their reasons for their perceptions. The researcher was particularly interested in those findings that elaborated upon perceptions on causes and forms of conflicts. The detailed justification of the research paradigm, methodology and methods for this research are discussed in Chapter four.

1.6 Structure of Thesis

Figure 1:1 depicts the organisation of the thesis from the first chapter to the last. This study is conducted in Botswana, which has a young and emerging modern economy; hence a brief overview of the country's background and other relevant information has been provided. The philosophy chosen, as reflected in the concurrent mixed methods approach is an attempt to make this study as robust as possible. The findings are presented and discussed in relation to existing literature and recommendations.

This thesis is organised into seven chapters including this introductory chapter.

Chapter two presents the literature review of the study, and draws on theoretical perspectives and relevant data and discussions from research studies, scholarly papers, general literature and academic opinion from the perspectives of employment management, organisational behaviour, psychology and cross-cultural studies. The following are the areas explored through this research literature: definition of conflict in the context of workplace, employee perceptions of workplace equality, the causes of conflict and forms that this conflict may take. The review assists the researcher not only to identify openings in the literature but to add to the (sadly) limited research in this field

in developing economies, especially in Africa. A conceptual framework is designed based on the literature review and this framework will be used for the analysis of this study.

Chapter three presents the background of Botswana as the context for this research. The chapter provides the geographical, political, economic, socio-cultural and labour policies relevant to this study.

Chapter four provides a detailed description of the research design. It describes the pragmatism methodology and epistemology that underpin the research strategy. This chapter details and justifies the use of the research methodology adopted to explore the chosen research questions. As indicated above, the research methodology involves an assessment of the research question featuring a survey and semi-structured interviews. This two-fold approach is undertaken in order to provide the desirable degree of breadth and depth of analysis of the data collected.

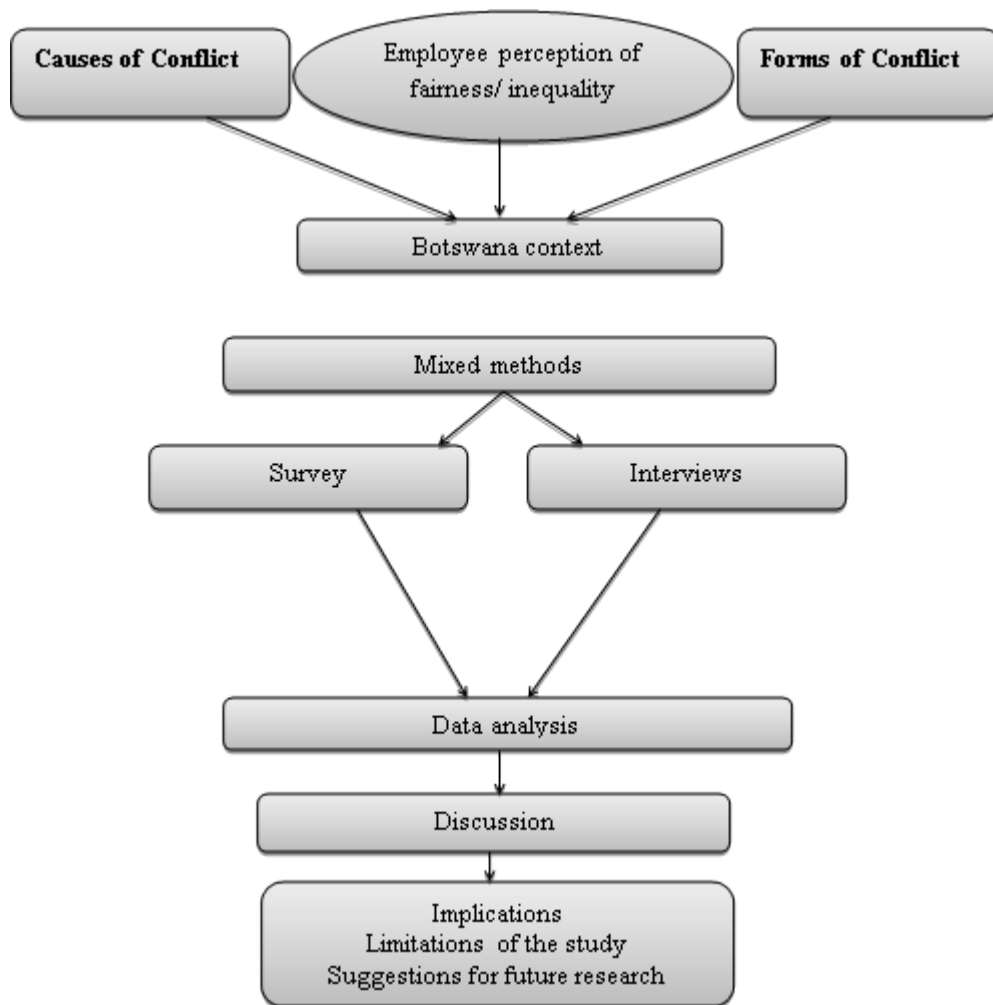
Chapter five presents the findings of the questionnaire and interviews. The reporting of findings in this chapter is congruent with the overall conceptual framework and research model, which are both underpinned by pragmatism methodology. The reporting combines the quantitative data (questionnaire) with the qualitative data (interviews). Data was analysed using various methods, including descriptive analysis, inferential analysis and multivariate analysis. Descriptive analyses included mean scores, while inferential analysis included independent samples T-tests, ANOVA and multiple regression analysis.

Chapter six presents the discussion of the findings and incorporates both the theoretical and empirical evidence extracted from the literature concerning causes and forms of conflict, and draws upon the foundation laid in the existing literature. This thesis has identified three broad factors from the literature that are considered to be the causes of conflict in the workplace, thus income distribution, job security and managerial control.

Additionally, the results that demonstrate relationship between causes and various forms of conflict are presented in addressing the major research question.

Chapter seven concludes the thesis by discussing the implications of the results, the contribution and limitations of the research findings, and indicates what possible future research that could be undertaken to advance the knowledge-base in this area.

Figure 1:1: Study design



1.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a brief explanation of how employees' perceptions on equity and fairness can result in workplace conflict and how employees might retaliate. The chapter also outlined the research questions based on the background discussion. It has outlined the significance of the study, and described the research approach. The concluding section discussed an outline of the remaining chapters in this thesis. The next chapter examines in detail the causes of conflict, and the various forms of retaliation which the employees' perception of unfair treatment may lead; all relevant literature is reviewed, and a conceptual framework is set out.

Chapter Two: Theoretical Considerations and Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

This chapter will establish a framework for exploring the perceived causes of conflict and the types of deviant behaviours engaged in by employees in conflict situations. It consists of seven sections. The first section provides a brief explanation of conflict. The second section reviews research undertaken to understand employees' perceptions of how equity or fairness can lead to workplace conflict and eventually affect their behaviours. This section provides a brief account of how equity and social-exchange theories influence employees' perceptions. The third section discusses the key constructs of this study. These key constructs are the three causes of conflict: income distribution, job security and managerial control. The fourth section focuses on the deviant workplace behaviour that employees engage in once they perceive that there is conflict as a result of unfairness procedures. The forms of conflict as deviant behaviours that are discussed in this section are production deviance, theft/stealing and sabotage. The fifth section indicates the relationship between each of the three key conflict constructs employed in this study and the forms of those conflicts, which together generate the specific conceptual framework for this research study which aim to address the research questions. The sixth and seventh sections examine the context literature to which the conceptual framework is applied. Section 2.6 looks at Chinese Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in Africa in respect to employment relations. Section 2.7 reviews the Chinese investment's impact on African employment relations. The last section provides a chapter summary.

Throughout this chapter, where appropriate, reference will be made to literature on the construction industry and industrial relations in Africa. Both are critical contextual aspects of this study.

2.1 Conflict in an Industrial Relations Context

Extant literature suggests that there are many different approaches to explaining what causes the behaviour of people in an organisation. However, researchers increasingly agree that concepts such as motivation, leader behaviour, power, interpersonal communication, group structure, learning, attitude development, perception, change processes, job design and work stress are important (Adam, 1963, 1965; Choi & Chen, 2007; Currall et al., 2005; Della Torre et al., 2015; Morrell, 2011; Tsui, 1997; Winstanley & Woodal, 2000). In this literature review, all such concepts are framed within the context of conflict in industrial relations.

Conflict is a much-discussed term over a broad range of disciplines. Coser (1956, p. 8) defines social conflict as “a struggle over values and claims to scarce status, power, and resources in which the aims of the opponents are to neutralize, injure, or eliminate their rivals”. The terms of this definition reach out to include political and military power; restricting the context to that of industrial relations, we find that workplace conflict emerges when one party to it – whether an individual or a group of individuals – finds that its goals, values, or opinions are being thwarted by an interdependent counterpart (Thomas, 1992; Thompson & McHugh, 2002; Van Tonder, Havenga, & Visagie, 2008; Wall & Callister, 1995). Van Tonder et al. (2002) are more specific, and list resource availability, affirmative action programs, the scope and content of workload, the introduction of new management techniques, and differences of a cultural and racial nature as possible sources of conflict at the organisational level. An important point is

brought up by De Dreu and Gelfand (2008, p. 6) who note that workplace conflicts are inherent to organisations and are, to a large extent, an autonomous process that is difficult to channel and control. This amplifies the implications of the idea (cited above) of the ‘interdependency’ of the parties in (industrial) conflict.

Dahl (1957, pp. 202-203) stresses the part played by power in conflicts: “A has power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something that B would otherwise not do”. Ferner, Edwards and Tempel (2012) and Thompson and McHugh (2002) agree, and note that power and conflict go hand in hand, because those who possess the dominant power can influence the work relationships to benefit themselves. As such, power is used for the sake of the entity that possesses it, not for the benefit of the other entity. Thus, power can broadly be defined as involving both the capacity to act of your own volition and in your own interests as well as the ability to control resources and bring about desired behaviours in others. Blalock (1989) returns us to the idea of interdependence, arguing that with its basis around dependency created by a need or desire for certain resources, the notion of power is a key part of conflict processes, and is involved in both the initiation of conflict as well as the outcomes of particular conflictual incidents.

The centrality of such elements as self-interest and power in contexts where both parties have a mutual interdependence (but not necessarily identical aims) is clearly to be seen in the specific context of industrial relations. Thompson and McHugh (2002, p. 125) note that in cases where power is misused (say, by the employer), then employee resistance may break out at different stages, and since that resistance can itself create power, this establishes a ceaseless process of shifting alliances and tensions. Power, that is, is discontinuous and shifting, rather than being continuous and stable. For instance, there could be conflict between an individual or group, and their line manager/employer, if

extra work is delegated to the employee, but no or insufficient extra compensation is offered. The individual or group will attend to its own self-interest and seek to rebalance the power relationship. Employees may then resort to a variety of behaviours to redress their workplace frustration. In situations where the aggrieved party has no access to union support, or where government regulations are either absent or unenforced, then these efforts may include counterproductive behaviours that range from reluctant and minimal compliance to hostility, organisational aggression or sabotage (Fox & Spector, 2005; Storms & Spector, 1987).

When these definitional elements are contextualised to the concerns of the current study, it can be seen that conflict is likely to be produced by the differential level of power that either party (employers or employees) possesses, and the ends to which that power is directed. For instance, if the employers want to maximise profits, employees may perceive this as exploitation, particularly when there may already exist perceptions of unfairness in the rewards system or negotiation processes. Also, in times of economic uncertainty, employees may feel that their position, in terms of their capacity to remedy it, is one in which they are relatively powerless, and may seek alternative ways to restore some balance in the self-interest/power/interdependence equation (Mead, Baumeister, Gino, Schweitzer, & Ariely, 2009; Mohamed, 2014; Thompson & McHugh, 2002). What the specific causes of possible conflicts might be, and what particular behaviours employees may adopt as tactics in response to their perceived powerlessness, will be elaborated in the following sections.

2.2 Employees Perceptions of Workplace Inequality

‘Perception’ has been defined as a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment (Robbins &

Judge, 2012). Hence, Kahneman and Miller (1986) note that employees mentally alter experiences of an event in a manner that allows them to interpret the event while retaining prior beliefs and expectations. For instance, after receiving a poor job appraisal results, an employee who believes himself to be very hard-working may imagine that his efforts have not been fully recognised, since he/she did not receive a better score. Equity is commonly defined as anything of value earned through providing or investing something of value (Romanoff et al., 1986). Hence, fairness is achieved when the return on equity is equivalent to the investment made. As it relates to compensation/remuneration, fairness (or equality) is achieved when pay equates to the value of the work performed. Inequity (or unfairness or inequality), on the other hand, occurs when the value of the work performed does not match the value of the compensation/remuneration received, or is not perceived to do so. Kahneman and Miller (1986) note that as a result this implies that when a person is confronted with a situation or stimuli, the person interprets the stimuli into something meaningful to one based on prior experiences. However, what an individual interprets or perceives may be substantially different from reality. For instance, Meng and Wu (2015) and Robbins and Judge (2012) suggest that employees' perceptions and impressions of their treatment by management based on their own experiences may shape their future behaviour or inclination towards a particular social behaviour.

Adams (1963) proposes that perceived inequity would result in either, (a) altering inputs contributions (effort in work), (b) altering outputs (rewards), (c) cognitively distorting contributions and/or rewards, (d) leaving the field (absenteeism, turnover), (e) attempting to change the inputs or outcomes of others or (f) changing comparisons. Additionally, Adams' (1965) equity theory argues that when employees perceive their outcomes to be unfair in comparison to referent others, they attempt to restore justice. One method of

restoring justice is to reduce inputs, what Adams (1965, p.280) calls “organisation-targeted aggression”, or act in a counterproductive manner to rebalance the input–output ratio. Thus, Scholl, Cooper and McKenna (1987) and Berkowitz, Fraser, Treasure and Cochran (1987) argue that perceptions of inequity (or workplace inequality) are likely to influence a variety of workplace attitudes and behaviours.

Studies on organisational justice have shown that individuals’ perceptions of fairness related to outcomes are important to the individual and to their employing organisation (Adams,1963; Altahayneh, Khasawneh & Abedalhafiz, 2014; Bakhshi, Kumar & Rani, 2009; Chory & Hubbell, 2008; Leventhal, 1980; Malik & Naeem, 2011; Mohamed, 2014; Mukherjee & Bhattacharya, 2013). Mohamed (2014) notes that organisational justice is to the extent to which employees perceive workplace procedure, interactions, and outcomes to be fair in nature. Also, organisational justice can refer to an individual’s personal evaluation about the ethical and moral standing of managerial conduct within an organisation (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001; Cropanzano, Bowen, & Gilliland, 2007; Schilpzand, Martins, Kirkman, Lowe & Chen, 2013). Distributive justice, on the other hand, refers to fairness in the allocation of outcomes such as pay, bonuses and promotion in the workplace (Choi & Chao, 2007), and procedural justice comprises the perceived fairness of the means used to determine those rewards and also, of the existence of clearly defined norms related to the distribution of rewards (Burton, Sablynski & Sekiguchi, 2008; Folger, 1977). Interestingly, Mueller, Iverson and Jo (1999) define distributive justice as employees’ evaluation concerning the rewards and outcomes given to them as a result of the energy they spend working for an organisation. Therefore, the perception of the employees concerning the level of distributive justice is based on the energy they allocated in the organisation. As a results, when employees perceive the company compensation systems as fair there will likely have strong confidence in the company’s

capacity to continue treating them fairly in the future (i.e. procedural justice), thereby improving employee attitudes toward the organisation as a whole (i.e. organisational justice) (Choi & Chen, 2007).

According to Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter and Ng (2001) and Greenberg (1990b), distributive justice involves employee assessments of fairness of rewards and inducements received in exchange for contributions at work. Greenberg (1990a) finds that individuals perceive unfairness when they receive allocations that do not reflect the equity norm, hence unfairness occurs when the ratio between inputs and outputs is unbalanced. Unfairness perceptions elicit emotional distress that is relieved through behaviour which deviates from organisational rules to balance the ratio skewed by the lack of (perceived) distributive justice. John, Loewenstein and Rick (2014) find that individuals perceive unfairness when the unbalanced ratio between inputs and outputs is made salient by social comparisons. Likewise, Buchanan (2008) and Mead et al. (2009) find that individuals engage in dishonest behaviour even when it is contrary to self-interest in the attempt to restore the skewed ratio by decreasing outputs without employer agreement.

Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) note that when employees perceive that organisational decisions are made through fair procedures, they report high levels of job satisfaction, commitment and trust. On the other hand, Aquino et al. (1999) note that those who feel that their distributions are unfair are likely to blame the source of the decision, and to target the person (perceived to be) responsible for the unfair distribution. Therefore, one may expect distributive injustice to lead to supervisor-targeted and organisation-targeted aggression. In addition, researchers concur that equity is generally deemed useful for distributing valued outcomes in the arena of economic activity (e.g. pay), where the emphasis is on both motivating and rewarding individual achievement

(Chen, 1995; Gagnon & Cornelius, 2000; Moorthy et al., 2015).

According to Williams, Pitre, and Zainuba (2002) the theoretical reasoning behind equity theory suggests that some forms of justice perceptions influence useful undertakings that positively affect organisations. One of the essential elements underlying equity theory is that people are sensitive to the relationship that is established between reward and contribution in reference to groups and societies (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Till & Karren, 2011). Greenberg (1990b) adds that equity-based justice is rooted in the sense of proportion, the sense that the outcomes individuals receive (remuneration, or any other valued outcome) should be awarded in proportion to their inputs (how hard they work, how productive they are). Ryan and Wessel (2015) assert that employees make judgments on personal well-being by comparing their own status with a perceived local environmental norm, which is significantly influenced by the average level of living in society as a whole. Therefore, an individual whose income is unchanged may still feel poorer, even though his or her objective circumstances are the same.

Earlier research and theory on social exchange and distributive justice suggested that when employees receive rewards that are commensurate with their own sense of their knowledge, skills, and abilities, they are more likely to think that their outcomes such as pay, benefits, and terms of work are fair and just (Greenberg, 1990a). Blau (1964) notes that according to the social exchange theory, employees and employers are involved in forming an interdependent relationship whereby one party's behaviour influences the other. Therefore, if employees feel that outcomes are not congruent with their human capital, they will make lower distributive justice judgments. Interestingly, Sims (1994) notes that with so many changes such as downsizing and increased reliance on temporary workers, it is very unclear as to what employees and organisations owe one another,

because the traditional assurance of job security and steady rewards in return for hard work and loyalty no longer exist.

Understanding justice is important because employees' fairness perceptions impact employees' work attitudes and behaviours. Researchers note that employee perceptions of justice influence many key organisational outcomes including job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Al-Zu'bi, 2010; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, et al., 2013; Sharoni, et al., 2012; Qin, Ren, Zhang, & Johnson, 2015). More specifically, the central element of trust is the expectation held by one party that the other would treat him/her just or fairly (Adler, 2007; Chory & Hubbell, 2008; Williamson & Williams, 2011). Therefore, the behaviour and attitude of employees towards their work and the organisation are significantly influenced by their perceptions of fairness, trust, and organisational justice in the workplace (Wilmot, 2007). A perception of fairness and justice offers the opportunity for the employees to feel that sense of belonging which is considered to be a significant indicator of organisational commitment.

Tallman, Phipps and Matheson (2009) observe that perceived procedural justice helps employees to consider whether managerial and organisational decisions are legitimate, and that this legitimacy promotes the commitment of the employees to their organisations. Consequently, with these ideas, scholars have also theorised and found that this obligation to do well for the organisation by employees generates organisational commitment and also translates to them refraining from engaging in workplace deviance (Liao, Joshi, & Chuang, 2004; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008).

The literature has shown that pay disparities between employees often lead to resentment. For example, Asiedu (2004) and Klerck (2008) note that local employees compare their wages to those of expatriate employees doing the same jobs, which can often lead to

resentment, and this perception may ultimately affect the company's performance. Studies show that in host countries like China (Elfstrom & Kuruvilla, 2014; Lyddon, Cao, Meng, & Lu, 2015), Botswana (Mogalakwe, 2008) and Mexico (Paik, Parboteeah, & Shim, 2007), there is discontent among local workers in respect to working in foreign-owned companies. In the above studies, these researchers note that there is evidence of resentment towards expatriates due to the perception that inept expatriates are more favourably treated than are (competent) locals in terms of their remuneration and other benefits; and the working conditions of the latter group are often substantially worse than those of expatriates. This is particularly the case when the perception exists that expatriates do not in fact possess attributes superior to local employees in terms of work qualifications, expertise and experience (Asiedu, 2004; Klerck, 2008).

Psychological contract

The psychological contract refers to employee's belief (or perception) about obligations or promises between the employee and his/her employing organisation, rather than between the employee and organisational agents (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Thus, perceived mistrust will be a primary motivator in any reflection upon the organisation. Morrison and Robinson (1997) note that fulfilment of the psychological contract is always assumed to be the responsibility of the employer, and this may include employer obligations and commitments to provide organisational justice including transactional and relational. The transactional contract consists of the perceived obligations between the employee and the organisation that are short-term, well specified, and economically oriented, such as pay and adequate termination notice. The relational contract consists of perceived obligations that are long-term oriented and based on interpersonal attachment and trust (De Meuse, Bergmann, & Lester, 2001; Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994).

Hence, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) in their review on trust in leadership through a social exchange lens, note that followers perceive their relationship with their leader as more than a transaction, that the relationship involves care and concern exhibited by the leader towards the follower/subordinate; in effect constituting a relationship-based perspective.

According to Rousseau (1990) employees' psychological contracts are assumed to develop from beliefs as individual employees feel obligated to make particular contributions in exchange for particular benefits. Hence, Rousseau notes that psychological contracts are perceived obligations, and not merely expectations. Furthermore, it is argued that a psychological contract is perceptual, dynamic, and evolving in nature as employees understand and interpret their employment relationships in their own way (Rousseau, 1995). With regard to the employment relationship, Isaksson, Bernhard and Gustafsson (2003, p. 3) define the psychological contract as "the perception of reciprocal expectations and obligations implied in the employment relationship". In the context of psychological contracts, individuals exchange resources (time, effort) with their employer for valued outcomes such as pay and opportunities. Chambel, Lorente, Carvalho and Martinez (2016) suggest that by separating the concept of resource exchange into economic and non-economic categories, it is then possible to connect the theory of social exchange to two psychological contract elements: transactional and relational. Transactional and relational contracts have been classified by MacNeil (1985) and Rousseau (1990) according to the focus, time frame, stability, scope and tangibility of the promise. Transactional contract promises are characterised by specific, economically oriented exchanges between the employer and employee, which happen during a specific period of time (e.g., competitive wages; Rousseau 1990). Relational contract promises are characterised by open-ended non-economic agreements focused on maintaining the long-term relationship between the employer and employee

(e.g., training and development; Rousseau 1990).

Also, Edwards and Edwards (1979) note that in the employment relationship managers seek competitive advantage and employees seek advantage in their employment conditions. As a result individuals and companies often seek to express their objectives, their work and relationship with each other. Hence, it can be argued that psychological contracts act as an important factor which impacts upon effective work performance, employee commitment, loyalty, enthusiasm for the organisation and its objectives.

Some scholars acknowledge that the content of psychological contract refers to the concrete terms that are part of the perceived relationship (e.g., Chambel et al., 2016; Rousseau & Tijouriwala, 1998; Schein, 1965). These authors comment further that concrete terms are embodied by employee and employer obligations. Also, scholars such as, Callea, Urbini, Ingusci and Chirumbolo (2016) note that a key concept in the psychological contract concerns the employee's belief that the organisation will live up to its promises and obligations. However, Hiltrop (1995) and Nadin and Williams (2011) observe that the traditional working relationship that offered long-term job security, stability and predictability to the relationship between employees and employers has dramatically altered in the past decades. Hence, the range and level at which these obligations are perceived are guided by the social, legal, normative and implicit contracts. The drastic change in the employment relations has been fundamentally challenged by factors such as organisational fluidity, increased uncertainty, complexity (i.e., mergers and lay-offs), turbulence inside and outside organisations, especially in the larger global context (Alcover, Rico, Turnley, & Bolino, 2016; Nadin & Williams, 2011).

Chambel and Alcover (2011) note that organisations employ temporary employees in order to be flexible in managing human resources to reduce employee costs and to

simplify administrative complexity. Hence, an employee with a vague legal employment contract may easily perceive more employer obligations than an employee with a clear legal contract. This might lead to an elevated experience of breach and violation of contract by the employee in such vague contracts, since the perceived employer obligation may not be similar to how the employer perceives the obligation. Conway and Briner (2002) note that in instances where part-time employees perceive themselves to be treated differently from full-time employees in terms of the inducements they receive and the contributions they give, then this is likely to affect how they perceive their psychological contract. Therefore, in the context of the current study, in Botswana, factors such as high unemployment and high presence of illegal immigrants who have been displaced from their home countries due to political instability might have an influence on employees' perceptions as they might view their psychological contracts. Such employees will more likely have temporary contracts with vague legal statements.

When the employer fails to fulfil the expectations of the employee or the promises made to him, it is nothing but a violation or breach of the psychological contract. Morrison and Robertson (1997) refers to violation of the psychological contract as emotional and affective reactions that may arise when the individual feels that the organisation failed to uphold properly its end of the psychological contract, for whatever reason. Nadin and Williams (2011) note that psychological contract fulfilment has been found to associate positively with job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours and performance and to associate negatively with the intention to quit. Hence, indicators and reactions of the experience of contract breach and violation are visible in individual short-term reactions (including experience of job satisfaction and job insecurity) and long-term reactions (including employee wellbeing and general health) (Callea et al., 2016; De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000;

Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, 2003). They are also visible in labour-related actions, such as high levels of absenteeism, lodging of organisational grievances by the employee, referring disputes by the employee, industrial actions (protected or unprotected industrial actions) and strong union activities (Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008; Chao, Cheung, & Wu, 2011; Marobela, 2011; Morrison & Robertson, 1997; Zribi & Souai, 2013). Therefore, such findings indicate that the psychological contract breach is negatively related to three forms of employee contributions to the organisation: day-to-day performance, organisational citizenship behaviours, and intentions to remain with the organisation (Bordia et al., 2008; Morrison & Robertson, 1997).

Building upon theoretical frameworks about how employees perceive fairness judgements from the perspective of equity theory, social exchange theory and psychological contracts; one could assume that when employees perceive a discrepancy between what they were promised by the organisation and what they received, they attempt to eliminate or reduce the imbalance. When employees' perceptions of unfairness arise the individual perceives himself or herself as a victim of unfair treatment that violates some moral code or ethical principles by the employers. Hence, it can be concluded that a perceived unfairness affects directly the employee's exchange theory with the organisation by creating a disparity between the promises and the actual compensation obtained (Chambel & Alcover, 2011; De Cuyper & De Witte, 2007; Parks, Kidder, & Gallagher, 1998; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Similarly, employees may interpret job insecurity as unfair when they perceive themselves as victims (as opposed to being fired owing to poor performance) and which they may perceive to violate moral principles (e.g. by breaking the promise or expectation of long-term employment). Therefore, in the current study there could be a strong relationship between employees' perceptions of violation of the psychological contract and deviant workplace behaviours.

The perceived psychological contract violation or break could potentially explain in a concrete and original way the relationship between the perception of the injustice and the development of deviant behaviour at work; insofar as the very evaluation of the injustice explicitly incorporates the quality of the relationship that the employee establishes with his organisation.

2.3 Causes of Industrial Conflict

The causes of workplace conflict that will be covered in this study are discussed in this section. Among the many causes of conflict, this study will mainly focus on the causes of conflict based on Hyman (1989)'s typology; thus income distribution, job security and managerial control. The main reason for choosing the Hyman typology, despite having been used within unionised industries, such as steel and manufacturing is that it best fits the context of the current study as there are indications that these are the major causes of conflict within the Botswana construction industry (as will be explained in Section 3.2). In addition, this typology has been tested in the non-African context (Boxall, 2013; Jonker-Hoffrén, 2011; Sisson, 2015). It will therefore be interesting to replicate this typology in the sub-Saharan Africa context. Understanding and conceding that conflict exists – with its causes, signs and consequences in the workplace – is one of the most important aspects of employment relations (Collins, 1971; Deutsch, 1973; John, Loewenstein & Rick, 2014; Long & Shields, 2010; Putnam & Poole, 1987; Wall & Callister, 1995).

2.3.1 Income Distribution

Research has established that pay is a significant outcome for most employees, as such employees often regard pay as an indicator of their achievement and recognition

(Goodman, 1974; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Haushofer & Fehr, 2014; Pitesa & Thau, 2014; Shaw, 2014; Tang, 2007; Tang & Chiu, 2003). However, Hyman (1989) observes that what is income to the employee is a cost to the employer, which the latter will naturally seek to minimise. Wages and other economic benefits represent income and security to an employee; though they represent costs to an employer (Holley & Jennings, 1994). Hyman (1989) and Leana and Meuris (2015) argue that the interests of workers in fair income distribution affects them as consumers, and of allocation of resources for improving conditions in industry affects them as workers. From this emerges the situation as noted by Hill, Howard and Lansbury (1982) that neither employers nor employees will be satisfied completely with distribution of their combined effort and this division of revenues between the employers and employees is the most obvious and enduring source of conflict between the two groups.

Diener and Oishi (2000) and Sharma, Mazar, Alter and Ariely (2014) note that in modern societies, wage and salary income is the means to purchase the basic necessities of life. Dzimbiri (2010) argues that the employer would wish to re-invest profits while employees want good bonuses out of the profit, hence salary will always be a major cause of disputes in the organisation due to the diverse interests of the parties with regard to salaries. Thus, both employees and employers are utility maximisers. Employers want to earn more profit by cutting down on their costs, salaries being one of them. While Arnolds and Boshoff (2000) and Currall et al. (2005) explain how employees, on the other hand, want a better living, hence seeking more money and fringe benefits.

Research has shown that any perceived unfairness in income distribution lead to conflict (Chambliss, 1973; Greenberg, 1993; Hyman, 1989; John et al., 2014). For instance, John et al. (2014) note that one source of workplace unfairness, or at least an indicator of it, is

differential pay-rates for similar work. Thus, low wage earners, upon discovering that others earn more for doing the same work, will feel a sense of unfairness and may be more likely to behave dishonestly to level the playing field (Oppler, Lyons, Ricks, & Oppler, 2008; Pitesa & Thau, 2014).

Long and Shields (2010) argue that monetary rewards can improve employee motivation and performance because they can satisfy a wide range of low and high-level needs. As a result, Tomlinson and Greenberg (2005) suggest that policies and procedures that are used to guide employee behaviours are used as indicative of an organisation's climate. Therefore, these policies should be set up to reward appropriately and punish inappropriate behaviour, because it has been established that employees often react to unfairness or injustice by engaging in workplace deviance (Oppler et al., 2008). Also, it is not only that the reward and punishment should be fair, but the methods through which rewards and punishments are determined must also be fair. For example, Stajkovic and Luthans (2001) study includes more than 7,000 employees with identical job responsibilities and find that objective performance improvements measured in real-time by a meter at each employee's work station were highest among employees in a monetary incentive intervention program compared to those who received social recognition or performance feedback instead. This supports the point that individuals want jobs primarily for the rewards to themselves in material goods, power and prestige (Collins, 1971) and not as means to self-improvement.

Earlier studies have established that there is a relationship between the income that one earns and level of conflict that one perceives (Collins, 1971; Chambliss, 1973; Edwards & Scullion, 1982; Kuang, 2008; Mung, 2008; Pitesa & Thau, 2014). For example, Collins (1971) notes that all rewards are directly linked to the salary one earns which if not

satisfied will brew conflict and inefficiency at the workplace. It is at this point therefore that employees seek a salary adjustment to account for the increased cost of living while employers would not be willing to spend a lot of money on labour (especially non-skilled), thus seeking to reduce their operational costs. Some researchers argue that the struggle for wealth, power and prestige is carried out primarily through organisations which therefore dictates that there be an equilibrium point between the employees' and employers' struggle (Chambliss, 1973; Hyman, 1989; Collins, 1971). Chambliss' (1973) Marxist framework emphasises the belief that owners (capitalists, the Bourgeoisie) can accumulate vast resources and can control the livelihood of others (workers, the Proletariat), which allows them to dominate society. The dominant class exploits and oppresses the subject class. As a result, there is a basic conflict of interest between the two classes resulting in the strong-rich exploiting the poor-weak. From such a perspective, money is made through the exploitation of the worker. A quotation from Edwards and Scullion (1982, p.5) supports the argument that indeed employers exploit employees based on profit motivation:

Labour power is bought at its exchange value, and the exchange may be perfectly fair in that the established market wage rate is paid. But labour power creates value for the employer only in use: the employer's aim is to maximise the difference between the exchange value and the use value of labour power.

Various researchers are of the view that in foreign-owned companies wages are low especially in developing countries. They are often blamed for paying native workers less than they pay the workers' counterparts in the home country for comparable work, or value the safety of foreigners less than of home country residents (Akorsu & Cooke, 2011; Asiedu, 2004; Fajana, 2008; Ferner et al., 2012; Geva, 1999; Harrison, 1996; Kuang, 2008; Olomolaiye & Ogunlana, 1988). Ferner et al. (2012) note in most of the US multinational corporations they often transfer their home country employment and

operational strategies to host countries, hence this might bring in new changes to the host nations. In contrast, Hijzen, Martins, Schank and Upward (2013) note that foreign-owned companies may be inclined to use better pay and working conditions to motivate the workforce to compensate for the greater importance of monitoring costs or to overcome problems in managing industrial relations in a context of different legal and cultural traditions. Eweje (2009) found that union leaders in African countries (Nigeria, South Africa and Zambia) are convinced that foreign companies in Africa are there as commercial enterprises with profit motives and not for the well-being of their employees and affirms Chambliss' (1973) assertion. Hijzen et al. (2013) note that in non-competitive labour markets, differences in pay and working conditions between foreign-owned and domestic companies may occur even for individuals with similar characteristics doing a similar job.

Researchers hold different views as to whether or not foreign companies offer better wages when compared to domestic entities. For example, Aitken, Harrison and Lipsey (1996) and Lipsey and Sjöholm (2001) findings support the view that foreign-owned firms pay premium wages. Furthermore, other researchers present evidence to support the argument that multinationals share profits with local and foreign workers (Budd, Konings & Slaughter, 2002; Budd & Slaughter, 2000). For example, in a study of Mexico, the US and Venezuela, Aitken et al. (1996) show that average wages in foreign-owned establishments are about 30% higher than in domestic establishments. Also, Hijzen et al. (2013) in their findings indicate that foreign-owned firms pay considerably more on average than local firms, with pay differences varying from 29% in Germany to 44% in the UK, 79% in Portugal, 116% in Indonesia and 280% in Brazil. On the other hand, some scholars have found that in some instances there were no differences in wages paid to employees in foreign-owned and domestic-owned companies (Heyman et al., 2007;

Martins, 2004). For example, Martins (2004) shows that in Portugal the foreign wage premium disappears after controlling for worker selection and may even reduce individual wages for workers in foreign firms relative to their counterparts in domestic firms.

Chan (1998) notes that most companies adopt a so-called 'secretive wage system', which makes knowing a fellow worker's wages a violation that involves a penalty. Consequently, this practice ensures that workers do not have recourse for grievances or any channels for collective protests. The International Labour Organization (1999) report asserts that in much of the world construction work is not regarded as decent² work. Hence conflict exists because the interests of workers and those of employers collide and what is good for one is frequently costly for the other.

2.3.2 Job Security

The literature on job security suggests that the effects of job insecurity are pervasive and overwhelmingly negative (Bryson, Cappellari, & Lucifora, 2009; Erlinghagen, 2008; Kalleberg, 2009; King, 2000; Kuhnert, 1988; Probst & Ekore, 2010). Job insecurity refers to subjective perceptions about employment conditions, specifically, about losing job stability and continuity of employment relationship with the organisation (Bernardi, Klärner, & Von der Lippe, 2008). Also, Pfeffer (1998) defines job security as the extent to which an organisation provides stable employment for employees. Hyman (1989) asserts that labour is generally treated like any other market commodity and is employed when it is profitable for an organisation to do so. Should a firm be able to yield a greater return from employing more capital relative to labour then employment numbers will be cut. Therefore, job security is important because employees do not want to be employed

² Decent work has been defined by the International Labour Organization and endorsed by the international community as being productive work, for women and men in conditions of freedom to express concerns, equity, fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for workers and human dignity (International Labour Organization, 1999).

today and unemployed the next day. Employees want to be sure they will not lose their jobs at any time without any justified cause (Erlinghagen, 2008; Kuhnert, 1988). Employees remain the most important asset of any organisation since they play a critical role in aiding organisations achieve both short and long-term objectives and compete favourably in the competitive business environment.

Numerous researchers agree that job insecurity can be described as a subjective perception of direct threat to the future of one's job (Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2002; De Bustillo & De Pedraza, 2010). Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) note that job insecurity takes place when there is involuntary loss. These researchers define job insecurity as a perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation. Indeed job insecurity reflects an individual's perception in relation to the stability and continuity of his/her employment with an organisation (Probst, 2003, 2006). Studies have found perceived job insecurity to be positively related with job dissatisfaction, lower organisational commitment and performance, increase psychosomatic complaints, and reduced life satisfaction (Benach, Vives, Amable, Vanroelen, Tarafa & Muntaner, 2014; Cheng & Chan, 2008; Sverke et al., 2002). For example, the works of Sverke et al. (2002) find that job insecurity is negatively correlated with job satisfaction, trust, job involvement, and positively correlated with employees' turnover intentions. Scholars also argue that job insecurity has negative effect on employee behavioural outcomes including in-role behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour, turnover intention, and absenteeism (Davy et al., 1997; King, 2000; Staufenbiel & König, 2010).

Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles, and König (2010) deliberate on the effects of job insecurity on job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, deviant behaviour, and negative

emotions of employees and found that job insecurity is negatively related to satisfaction and as such it has both direct and indirect effects on work behaviours and emotions. In relation to temporary employees, Isaksson et al. (2005) contend that there is significant relationship between temporary work and perceptions of job insecurity and that majority of temporary employees report high value of job insecurity. Mostly, job insecurity has been associated with negative job-related outcomes. For example, when faced with perceived job insecurity, employees report lower and reduced motivations due to decreased job satisfaction and organisation commitment.

Job insecurity may even foster a strong tendency or desire to depart from the organisation (Davy et al., 1997; Probst, 2003; Probst, Stewart, Gruys, & Tierney, 2007). Scholars such as Aquino and Douglas (2003) and Bies and Tripp (2005) assert that job insecurity imposes a serious threat to the continuity of an individual's affiliation with the organisation; hence the threat to one's social identity may trigger counterproductive behaviour targeted at the organisation. Additionally, employees who have a poor perception of job security, they may worry about losing not only their salary, but also their connections with colleagues and even their social status (Ma, Liu, Liu, & Wang, 2015). The perception of having a job but not knowing whether it is secure has been classified as one of the more stressful burdens that an employee can shoulder, this then means that employees are bound to react or respond to this situation hence causing disputes (Reisel et al., 2010; Skarlicki et al., 2008). These scholars note that employees' perception of job insecurity is accompanied by strong emotional responses because unemployment implies the loss of income and support and of some characteristics related to work, such as sense of belonging, sense of achievement and self-esteem.

Ideally, job security could be ameliorated by union membership or strong unions,

nonetheless, authors such as Kessler and Linda (2008) and Marobela (2011) have different views. Interestingly, even in countries that have trade unions, employees are very reluctant to join. For instance, Kessler and Linda (2008) note that casual or contingent workers are themselves conscious of the insecurity of employment, and are hardly enthused about joining the union. Moreover, employers' hostility to unionisation has a chilling effect on unions' capacity to organise, while the unions have done little to educate employees on the usefulness of trade unions (Ferner, Almond, Colling, & Edwards, 2005). Specifically, Kessler and Linda (2008) and Lu and Fox (2001) are of the view that work in construction industry has become increasingly temporary and insecure, and employees' protection where it existed has been eroded as large numbers are excluded from social security schemes.

Various scholars agree that to some degree working in the construction industry has become increasingly temporary and insecure, and employees' protection where it existed has been eroded as large numbers are excluded from social security schemes (Lu & Fox, 2001; Vaid, 1999). Vaid (1999) notes that in a survey of 2,600 construction workers in five towns in India, 90% work in construction because they had no choice and do not want their children to work in the industry as the working conditions are very poor. In China, construction work was ranked the lowest out of 69 occupations and those entering the industry do so as a last resort when all else has failed and they exit at the first opportunity (Ding, Zhang, Wu, Skibniewski, & Qunzhou, 2014; Lu & Fox, 2001).

Based on social exchange frameworks, employees expect their employer to offer a reasonably secure job in exchange for loyalty as part of the so-called 'old' psychological contract that exists between employee and employer (Bernhard-Oettel, De Cuyper, Schreurs & De Witte, 2011). Hence, if this contract is violated it will lead to negative

work attitude and eventually cause conflict in the organisation. Studies show that once employees perceive that the organisation cannot secure their job, they will hold the organisation responsible for endangering job security (Chao, Cheung & Wu, 2011; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002). Eweje (2005) notes that employment security may also distinguish high accident-rate companies from low-accident-rate companies, employees with feelings of greater job insecurity positively associated with the actual number of injuries and days of work missed because of an injury (Grunberg, Moore, & Greenberg, 1996).

The issue of job insecurity in the construction sector is grounded in the complex nature of project-based contracts and the fact that the tenure of employment of majority of employees depend to a large extent on availability and the duration of projects. Temporary employees who are directly engaged by organisations for a limited time period often perceive their employment as insecure due to lack of prospects of job continuity (Bernhard-Oettel et al., 2013; Kalleberg, 2003; Kraimer, Wayne, Liden, & Sparrowe, 2005; McGovern, Smeaton, & Hill, 2004). With this temporary nature of work, Klerck (2009) and Horwitz (2012) observe significantly less skilled and unorganised employees who generally experience deterioration of working conditions and a decline in employment and job security. Similarly, Kinnunen and Natti (1994) note that blue collar employees are vulnerable to job insecurity. Therefore, the temporary nature of work suggests that job insecurity may be an antecedent of counterproductive behaviour due to its stress on employees.

Studies have established that there is a strong relationship between employment levels and job security (Hibbs, 1976; Hijzen, Martins, Schank, & Upward, 2013; International Labour Organization, 2001; Probst & Ekore, 2010). For instance, Hibbs (1976) contends

that low unemployment offers great strategic advantages to an aggressive labour force, as tight labour market means that management can have difficulties in replacing potential strikers, who in any case can anticipate good prospects for securing permanent employment elsewhere if employers are able to replace them successfully. However, in times of higher unemployment rate where there is an excess supply of labour, job security is a big concern or the psychological threat is heightened. Also, Probst and Ekore (2010) note that in Nigeria due to a high unemployment rate above 40%, resulting in scarcity of alternative jobs, it is more difficult for employees to express their discontent through industrial action because of significant job insecurity. Furthermore, the International Labour Organization (2001) notes that due to the high unemployment rate in most developing countries, construction employees stay in the job because there are few or no alternatives since the employer would easily replace them if they left the job. Similarly, Hijzen et al. (2013) suggest that in many low-income countries labour standards are not effectively enforced compounding the challenges faced by these employees. As such, there have been increasing demands from human right activists to compel multinational enterprises (MNEs) operating in developing countries to put in place accountability mechanisms to ensure that core labour standards are respected (Hijzen et al., 2013; Sata, 2007).

Commenting further on employment levels and its impact on job security, Tillett (1999) notes that there is a power imbalance between managers and employees when the employee needs the employment more than the employer needs the employee. In this context, the power imbalance is skewed to the employer. Therefore, during high unemployment and high employee supply (especially the unskilled employees whom employers see as not exhibiting creativity), the employer has the power to choose from a large pool of unemployed. In support of the above, Tripp, Bies and Aquino (2007) argue,

individuals feel a psychological need to restore justice because “allowing such violations to go unchecked may worry victims that the sense of community order becomes damaged, that they are one step closer to chaos”. In these circumstances, engaging in forms of conflict may lessen strain as it allows employees to feel that they have ‘evened the score’.

Görg and Strobl (2003) note that jobs are less secure in foreign-owned companies because they are ‘footloose’ or have more elastic labour demand. This provides a rationale for foreign-owned companies to offer higher wages than their local competitors to compensate for lower job security. Dill and Jirjahn (2014) suggest that the extent of job security in foreign-owned companies may depend on the incentives provided to employees. Iyanda (1999) and Fajana (2008) affirm that although foreign-owned companies help to raise productivity in developing countries, they create fewer employment opportunities than domestic-owned companies since the former use more modern capital-intensive technology than the latter, and as a result, the employment generating capacity and job security of foreign-owned companies is lower than that of domestic-owned companies. Therefore, when this is applied in the context of the current study it may be inferred that foreign-owned companies, in this case Chinese-owned companies in Botswana, will have lower job security than their domestic counterparts.

Probst and Brubaker (2001) point out that there is evidence of consistent adverse associations among precarious employment, job insecurity and occupational safety outcomes such as: injury rates, safety knowledge, and safety compliance. Thus, there appears to be a growing consensus that job insecurity can negatively affect the safety of employees. Therefore, the significance of job security is critical to influencing work-related outcomes. For instance, job security is an important determinant of employee health (Kuhnert, Sims, & Lahey, 1989); for the physical and psychological wellbeing of

employees (Burke, 1991; Kuhnert & Palmer, Job security, 1991); for employee turnover (Arnold & Feldman, 1982); and for employee retention and job satisfaction (Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989; Huczynski & Buchanan, 2007; Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursière & Raymond, 2016).

2.3.3 Management Control

The third cause of conflict relates to the nature of the employment relationship which Hyman (1989) sees as subordinating the employee to a structure of managerial control designed to maximise his or her productive effort. Hyman (1989) points out that it is the exercise of managerial control or authority to define the nature, tasks and activities of work that is a persistent cause of conflict. To achieve dignity, a key worker's interest is power: "the ability of an individual or group to control his [or her] physical and social environment; and, as part of this process, the ability to influence the decisions which are and are not taken by others" (Hyman, 1975, p. 26). Mas (2008) argues that instead of employers seen as seeking profit maximisation through competing for workers in neutral labour markets, employers should be seen as controlling and dominating labour through their superior economic and socio-political power.

Eisenhardt (1985) notes that the key objective of the control human resource strategy is to reduce labour costs and increase efficiency by enforcing employee compliance with specified rules and procedures and by basing employee rewards on predetermined measurable output standards. In other words, employees gain rewards by conforming to specific policies, and receive negative sanctions for nonconforming behaviours. Consequently, Chambliss (1973) contends that the ruling class derives its power from its ownership and control of the forces of production. Thus, employers are likely to exploit those with no power so that workers produce at maximum production levels while paying

them as little as possible. This exploitation of power diminishes potential employee creative contributions in the workplace. Inequitable treatment received at work impacts on performance, trust, satisfaction and motivation of employees (Budd & Slaughter, 2000; Malik & Naeem, 2011).

Deery and Iverson (2005) assert that the role of management is to realise the full usefulness of labour power, to transform the potential to work into actual productive activity. Hence the managers' task is to establish structures of control or methods of consent that elicit co-operation in pursuit of its objectives. Therefore, employees need to be monitored closely to prevent any deviant behaviour from occurring. However, employees are likely to retaliate when they feel that the managers do not trust them (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Hence, Aboyassin (2008) and Krot and Lewicka (2012) emphasise that trust is a key element of effective communication and team-work between co-workers, managers and employees; and between employees and managers.

Subsequently, the idea of equitable treatment has been recognised as behaviour important to leadership (Ferris, Spence, Brown, & Heller, 2012; Gordon, Gilley, Avery, Gilley, & Barber, 2014; Loi, Loh, & Hine, 2015; Meng & Wu, 2015; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). It is very imperative that managers and supervisors treat all employees equally regardless of other factors. Fair and ethical treatment is something that employees should be able to expect, given their time and energies invested in their organisations (Colquitt & Rodells, 2015; Cropanzano et al., 2007; Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Omari & Paull, 2013; Simha & Cullen, 2012). The employees' psychological contracts represent the contributions that they perceive they owe their employer and the inducements that they believe are owed to them (Robinson et al., 1994; Robinson, 1996). Hence, any perceived breach of the psychological contract can trigger the negative behaviours that will

encourage employees to behave badly.

Bies and Moag (1986) note that interactional justice is primarily concerned with interaction among people and their perceptions of the justice of such interactions. This perception of justice in the process of procedure execution is influenced by the attitude of the executors towards the employees and how they are treated by them. Scholars comment further that interpersonal justice reflects the perceived fairness of the interpersonal treatment received during an authority's enactment of these procedures. Given this, authorities should work to treat others with respect and refrain from making statements that might be construed as being disrespectful of the employees' right to justice. In work done by researchers such as Aryee, Chen, Sun and Debrah (2007), Hoobler and Brass (2006) and Moorman, Niehoff and Organ (1993) note that supervisors who themselves experience interactional injustice (i.e. unfavourable interpersonal treatment) are more abusive toward their subordinates. Aryee et al. (2007) also found that supervisors' authoritarianism, defined as the extent to which people embrace dominance and control as legitimate forms of leadership, moderate the relationship between supervisors' interactional justice and abusive supervision; the relationship is stronger when supervisors were higher in authoritarianism. Einarsen et al. (2007) and Ashforth (1997) note that interactional injustice evokes frustration and resentment that may be displaced against targets other than the source of injustice (i.e. subordinates), but that this is more likely to occur when supervisors hold a firm belief that subordinates should demonstrate unquestioning obedience to authority figures. Since supervisors hold the power over important resources (e.g. rewards, feedback); victims of abusive supervision may fear confronting their hostile supervisor because they may subsequently be ostracised or terminated (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001; Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007; Uhl-Bien & Carsten, 2007).

Abuse due to lack of interactional justice is possible when superiors exercise power. Galinsky, Gruenfeld and Magee (2003) note that individuals with greater power are more likely to act in abusive ways that are consistent with their own individual desired ends compared to those with less power. Galinsky et al. (2003) note that power evokes behavioural discipline; in that more powerful individuals are freer to take goal directed action compared to those with less power. For instance, Tepper Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, & Hua (2009) note that in some instances abused subordinates who have lower intentions to quit or are more dependent on their employer, have more to lose by performing acts of abuse like workplace deviance.

Previous studies indicate that the follower's perceptions of the leader's actions and practices including interactional justice, affect the subordinate's trust in the leader (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Thau, Bennett, Mitchell & Marrs, 2009). Litzky, Eddleston and Kidder (2006) add that an injustice in managerial actions may lead to employee engaging in counterproductive behaviour. Social exchange theory provides a classical explanation for the relationship between supervisory mistreatment and workplace deviance (Blau, 1964), supervisory mistreatment promotes retaliatory behaviours (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Tepper, 2007); thus, when employees are abused by their supervisors they are more likely to seek retributions that harm the organisation and its members in some way (Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Skarlicki & Folger, 2004).

Hence, the social exchange theory highlights that mistreated employees engage in harmful behaviours as a result. Brockner and Wiesenfeld (1996) and Penney, Hunter and Perry (2011) are of the view that strongest reactions to injustice occur when an individual perceives both unfair outcomes and unfair procedures, hence these two factors have a multiplicative effect on perceived injustice. Eschleman, Bowling, Michel and Burns

(2014) argue that although employees are generally expected to respond to abusive supervision with retaliatory behaviours, there is likely variability in subordinates' responses. Some researchers (e.g. Penney et al., 2011; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Wei & Si, 2013) argue that if organisational decisions and managerial actions are deemed unfair or unjust, the employees affected experience feelings of anger, outrage, and resentment, and these feelings may result in counterproductive employee behaviour like theft. In contrast, if organisations are perceived as just, fair and supportive there are fewer employee absences and incidents of tardiness, less employee theft, and less workplace violence (Andersen, 2005; Jones, 2009; Otake & Wong, 2014). Therefore, scholars suggest that it is important to take into consideration the justice perceptions seriously as it has been shown to affect employee trust, a foundation to effective management-employee relationships (Abou-Moghli, 2015; Buttner & Lowe, 2015; Penney et al., 2011; Storms & Spector, 1987).

The employee's perception of how well they are supported by the organisation depends primarily on the interactions with their supervisors based on two key variables: (a) the fairness of how they are treated by their supervisors and (b) the overall support received from their supervisors (Boddy, 2014; Eisenberger, et al., 2014; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002; Tepper et al., 2009). Based on this premise, employees who are promoted into a supervisory position need to possess skills to enable effective relations with their employees; unfortunately, a majority of people who are brought into these positions do not have the necessary skills or the proper training to manage effectively (Witherspoon & White, 1996). Generally, employees opinions are not considered especially when dealing with employees who are not that very well educated,

thus supervisors tend to use their superiority to undermine the opinions of their subordinates (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Dzimbiri, 2010).

Good treatment (or, more accurately, perceived good treatment) by the organisation is reciprocated by a similar degree of good behaviours by the employee, such as in the form of organisational citizenship behaviours, while poor treatment is reciprocated with deviant behaviour (Miarkolaei, 2014; Omari & Standen, 2007; Otake & Wong, 2014; Reynolds et al., 2015; Saks, 2006). The latter has been called retaliation behaviour, whereby employees retaliate with deviant behaviour in order to restore the imbalance created by their employers (Hollinger & Clark, 1983). Supervisors need to clearly understand the influence they possess with their employees in contributing to their success as well as the organisation. This influence is important because Shelton (2000) notes that employees are sensitive to supervisors' verbal and nonverbal behaviours.

Various researchers argue that when employees perceive that managers and supervisors have failed to take actions that would solve problems for the employees, create opportunities and provide recognition or rewards; then, the anger experienced by the employee begins to erode the supervisor/employee relationship (Omari & Paull, 2015; Whitman, Halbesleben, & Holmes, 2014). Problems experienced with co-workers who are not performing adequately are ultimately attributed to a supervisor's inability to apply a corrective or disciplinary strategy. Employees experience negative emotions about the absence of positive reinforcement when they know their performance or that of a peer deserves attention. Garcia, Wang, Lu, Kiazad and Restubog (2015) suggest that individuals may engage in deviant behaviours in response to abusive supervision because (a) they become motivated to retaliate against abusive supervision; or (b) they become

motivated to displace their aggression on to the organisation or other convenient targets such as co-workers (co-worker-directed deviant behaviour).

Hertzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1957) compiled data from 15 studies in which employees were asked what contributed to their feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their jobs. Supervision was mentioned as a potential source of satisfaction more frequently than security, job content, company and management, working conditions, opportunity for advancement, and wages. Since employees receive direction from their supervisors and the relationship between supervisor and employee is critical, the supervisor's leadership style is a strong determinant in job satisfaction. Supervisors' style of leadership has become a fundamental variable when investigating job satisfaction. Fleishman and Harris (1962) note that employees favour supervisors who incorporate a thoughtful or understanding style of leadership. Employees reacted positively when supervisors created an environment where employees are comfortable communicating with management and are active in organisational decision-making processes (Engelhard & Nägele, 2003; Galperin, 2012).

In summary, deducing from both the equity and social exchange theories and psychological contract, there is a tendency for workers to withdraw from commitment to their employment if their expectations at the time of joining the organisation are not met over time. First is at the organisation level, which involves the policies dealing with salary, promotion and other benefits. The second is at the group level, which involves the relations with the immediate supervisor and co-workers. Therefore, if employees' expectation from every level is clear at the beginning of the engagement and is met on employment, they will be satisfied and are likely to commit to employment in a positive productive manner.

2.4 Forms of Conflict

An analysis based on several theoretical perspectives has been used to scrutinise workplace deviance. From the perspective of equity and justice theories, deviant behaviour is considered a premeditated act motivated by the need to reinstate equity or seek retributive justice (Aquino et al., 1999; Everton et al., 2007; Giese & Thiel, 2015; Greenberg, 1990a; Mirshekari & Darbandi, 2014). Giese and Thiel (2015) note that without completely ruling out abusive employers and reluctant employees at work, simple misunderstandings might translate into perceptions of violations of psychological contract and equity of exchange. Hence these perceived violations are met with various coping strategies on the part of employees that, from their perspective, aim to restore equity or ultimately terminate the exchange relationship.

Reynolds et al. (2015) review of literature on organisational citizenship and counterproductive work behaviours, maintain that once employees perceived loss of control, perceptions of inequity and injustice, threats to self-esteem and workplace stress, employees are likely to express their discontentment through various forms of conflict. Aquino et al. (1999) observe that interactional justice was negatively related to organisational deviance and that distributive and interactional justice was negatively related to interpersonal deviance (i.e. negative behaviours directed towards members within the organisation). Also from social exchange theory, an unfavourable or unsupportive work environment may be countered with workplace deviance (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004).

Bennett and Robinson (2000) and Bolin and Heatherly (2001) define workplace deviance as employee voluntary behaviour that violates significant organisational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organisation, its members, or both. Likewise,

Giocalone and Greenberg (1997) note that employees can steal from their organisations or from other employees or both, sexually harass, sabotage production, gossip, behave violently and use alcohol or drugs on the job. Bennett and Robinson (2000) suggest categorising such deviant behaviours into two primary families based on the target of the behaviour: organisational deviance and interpersonal deviance. Organisational deviance is deviant behaviours directed toward the organisation; examples of which include tardiness, wasting organisational resources, and stealing from the organisation. Interpersonal deviance refers to deviant behaviours that are directed toward other employees in the organisation; examples include gossiping, verbal abuse, and stealing from co-workers.

Examining the two deviant forms of behaviours in which employees can express their discontentment, Edwards and Scullion (1982) recognise that covert or unorganised conflict as related to employee behaviour does not result in an outright or publicly expressed action. Instead of displaying resistance as a group, conflict is expressed in an individualistic and usually private manner. Covert forms of conflict which could be adopted include; absenteeism, sabotage and theft/pilfering (Gittell, Von Nordenflycht, & Kochan, 2004; Hodson, 2001; Lee & Rupp, 2007; Mas, 2008). Edwards, Collinson and Della Rocca (1995) note that covert forms of conflict, which they label as worker resistance may have increased during the 1990s as employees found it more difficult to express their dissatisfaction through industrial action because of the higher levels of unemployment and greater job insecurity. For example, Kersley et al. (2013) note that absenteeism and resignations were used by employees as alternative means of expressing discontent when other forms of expression are either unavailable or less attractive.

Keenoy and Kelly (2001) contend that unorganised conflict is most likely to occur in situations where employees have no other means, such as an effective trade union to

process their grievances. As blue-collar employees hold low positions in the organisational hierarchy, they may fear being punished when engaging in overt aggressive behaviour. Therefore, they may prefer directing their hostility towards co-workers and exhibit *displaced* aggression (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). It might also be suggested that such environmental factors as high unemployment, job insecurity and weak labour market power may result in a greater use of covert forms of conflict. Hence, in the context of the current study, the intent is to investigate if the above mentioned conflict forms are evident in the Botswana construction.

Bushman, Baumeister and Phillips (2001) suggest that individuals engage in harmful behaviours because they view them as a way to feel better in response to provocation. Additionally, Jones (2009), Shoss, Jundt, Kobler and Reynolds (2015) and Spector and Fox (2002) emphasise that employees are motivated to engage in counterproductive work behaviour because they believe that these behaviours will make them feel better in response to negative workplace events such as unfair treatment from supervisors.

The discrepancies in wants and expectations of employers and their employees can also have serious company as well as individual implications. Robinson and Bennett (1997) propose that deviant behaviour is frequently a product of a perceived specific event(s) that prompts or aggravates the employee to take a specific action. These events include employee perceptions of financial pressures, social pressures, unfair treatment, poor work conditions, organisational changes, or other stressors that lead employees to feel a sense of unfairness, a sense of outrage, or both. A sense of unfairness leads to a desire to resolve unfairness, whereas a sense of outrage leads to a desire to express the feelings of outrage. Both of these impulses may result in acts of workplace deviance.

Additionally, some authors are of the view that certain characteristics of the work environment influence organisations to employee deviance (Henle; 2005; Hershcovis et al., 2007; O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2005). That is, workplace deviance is solely a product of the organisation in which employees work; for example if employees do not believe that their organisations are caring and honest, they are more likely to engage in a negative behaviour. When there is high level of conflict within the organisation, especially between manager and employees, the level of pressure and burnout of the individual increases as a result of accumulation of stressors, job stress and consequently, aggressive behaviours and deviance escalates (Mahdian & Yari, 2014; Zitek, Jordan, Monin, & Leach, 2010).

Researchers have attempted to explain reasons that create potential for deviant behaviours and its variants and how employees are likely to express their discontentment (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Dawes, Fowler, Johnson, McElreath, & Smirnov, 2007; Fox & Spector, 2005; Greenberg, 1990a; Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992; Keenoy, 2001; Ketchen, Craighead & Buckley, 2008; Mackey, Frieder, Perrewé, Gallagher, & Brymer, 2014). Hodson (2001) observes that today, some element of power and control is pursued by workers through various forms of solidarity and resistance (such as reduced work effort, absenteeism, and sabotage). Furthermore, Mohamed (2014) and Peterson (2002) emphasise that employees who perceive unfairness in the workplace may exhibit varying degrees of negative behaviour.

Specifically, Spector and Fox's (2002) job stressor model suggests that employees often respond to stressors with counterproductive work behaviour. For example, Farhadi, Fatimah, Nasir and Shahrazad (2012) note that employees who are targets of deviance

may experience more turnover, damaged self-esteem, increased insecurity at work, also psychological and physical pain.

Keenoy and Kelly (2001) categorise forms of conflict into covert and overt conflict, overt or organised conflict implies a coherent, calculated strategy and is used to refer to those behaviours which are conscious, coordinated, deliberate and usually public attempts to express a grievance or advance or sustain a claim on another actor. Examples of overt conflict include strikes, overtime or other work bans; work-to-rule, 'go slow' and sit-ins. Along these lines, Kelloway, Francis, Prosser and Cameron (2010) add that these behaviours can be a form of individual or collective protest. For example, when employees purposefully do work incorrectly or slowly, come to work late, steal from the organisation, or behave in rude and disrespectful ways to others, they are said to be engaging in counterproductive work behaviour (Shoss et al. 2015). Interestingly, in a study conducted by Hollinger (1991) on organisational deviance, about one third of 9175 employees in three different industry sectors engaged in property deviance (e.g. theft, sabotage), with closer to two thirds admitting to engaging in production deviance (e.g. absenteeism, lateness, long breaks). In a study on supermarket theft by employees conducted by Boye and Slora (1993), they reported substantial percentages of employees admitting to engaging in cash/property theft (35%), theft support (29%) and counter productivity (69%).

The next three sub-sections address the three main categories of retaliation or workplace deviant behaviours that are likely to be exhibited by employees in the context of this current research; production deviance, theft/stealing, and sabotage. Note that strikes is not be covered as the literature indicates that for a non-unionised sector like Botswana construction this type of retaliation is more risky for employees to use, and also due to the

high unemployment rate employees do not want to jeopardise losing their jobs by engaging in strikes, rather they will prefer more covert strategies.

2.4.1 Production Deviance

Jones (1980, p. 71) and Spector et al. (2006, p. 449) use the term “production deviance”, which means the purposeful failure to perform job tasks effectively, the way they are supposed to; for example purposeful failing to perform job tasks effectively, such as working slowly when there are deadlines. In a similar context, Albanese and Van Fleet (1985) note that employees can engage in ‘go slow’ which refers to a worker’s deliberate slowing of output. Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) note that production deviance encompasses behaviour that violates organisational norms that are in respect to minimum expected quality and quantity of work to be accomplished as part of one’s job. Production deviance may take several forms, from overt behaviour such as refusal to take on an assignment, to covert acts, such as deliberately delaying work that needs to be completed (Klotz & Buckley, 2013).

Production deviance would be safer than sabotage, since the destruction of property is more likely to be sanctioned by the organisation and could result in arrest depending upon the severity of the act (Klotz & Buckley, 2013; Spector, et al., 2006). For instance, withdrawal behaviour (e.g. taking longer breaks than allowed) and passive aspects of production deviance (e.g. working slowly) may reflect attempts by employees to limit their exposure to stressful situations and prevent subsequent strain, as well as attempts to let initially strong negative emotions subside (Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010; Loi et al., 2015). Spector et.al. (2006) argue that although considered a minor form of deviance, production deviance may be quite costly to an organisation, since a loss of control over production standards may inflate production costs and chip away at inventory control.

Edwards and Scullion (1982) note that absenteeism may be a direct response to the pressures of the managerial control system without immediately challenging it. However, International Labour Organization (2001) argues that in some developing countries, construction employees occupying semi-skilled and unskilled positions are very reluctant to use absenteeism to express their discontent, because the unemployment rate is very high, hence it may be difficult for them to find alternative jobs. Since there is no job security for these employees, dismissing them is a great mechanism for employers to use because if a worker is absent from work, she/he can be easily replaced as many job seekers are readily available. Therefore, in the context of the current study which is a non-unionised sector, employees would be very reluctant to use methods, such as absenteeism or strikes. Hence, 'go slow' or production deviance is more likely to be a preferred option for employees in precarious employment arrangements, such as construction industry in Botswana because production deviance is less visible and can be difficult to prove.

2.4.2 Theft

Henry and Mars (1978) note that employee theft or stealing is a rarely used term instead, people use words like 'fiddling' or 'pilfering'. This linguistic form seems to make the theft of company goods or property more acceptable to employees, employers and receivers of any stolen goods. Greenberg and Alge (1998) note that employee theft of company property, thus taking something that one is not entitled to, is a frequent deviant occurrence in organisations and is one of the most common forms of organisational deviance, at least as perceived by management. Greenberg (1990a, 1993) affirms that stealing can provide a regular source of income. When workers perceive their pay as unfair they are more likely to engage in employee theft, presumably to reinstate the fairness (Gross-Schaefer, Trigilio, Negus, & Ro, 2000; Loewen, Dawes, Mazar,

Johannesson, Koellinger & Magnusson, 2013). Also, Probst and Ekore (2010) concur that most employees in the construction industry in developing nations are paid low wages, therefore employees could engage in theft as a way to compensate for the unfair income distribution when they perceive that they are not being rewarded for the labour power that they provide to the employer.

Greenberg (1990a) notes that such behaviour confirms that employees are inclined to reciprocate what they perceive employer deviant behaviour or underpayment. Based on the works of researchers (e.g. Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989; Asiedu, 2004; Horwitz, 2012) it can be projected that in the construction industry employees can engage in theft as a result of low pay and poor job security. Jerdon (1997) concludes that the dimensions of the employee theft problem are notable; under the 20/20/60 rule, some 20% of employees will never steal, 20% will always steal regardless of circumstances, and 60% will steal if the need and opportunity present themselves. Greenberg and Alge (1998) and Jensen and Patel (2011) conclude that many employees want to be present themselves as moral in their behaviour, hence they tend to justify their acts as the legitimate taking of company property rather than as illegitimate theft. Therefore, based on Adams (1965) equity theory employees may attempt to offset the inequities through stealing if other behavioural responses, such as reducing output or quitting, are too costly. This is one factor that will be investigated in the research to see if employees in the Botswana construction industry do steal, and if so why.

2.4.3 Sabotage

Crino (1994) and Spector et al. (2006) point out that employee sabotage refers to behaviours that can damage or disrupt the organisation's operation that creates delays in production, damages property, the destruction to relationships, or the harming of

employees or customers. Some scholars suggest that employee sabotage is most often an act of retaliation motivated by perceptions of injustice (Ambrose, Seabright & Schminke, 2002; Bordia et al., 2008; Wang, Liu, Luo, Ma & Liu, 2014). Crino (1994) notes, an employee who has been shown disrespect, passed over for promotion, given additional responsibilities with no pay increase, denied adequate resources to do the job, or did not receive what he or she considered adequate credit for work performed from co-workers or management fits the profile of the classic disgruntled saboteur. Employees who engage in such behaviour (e.g. sabotage) may, therefore, be seeking revenge against the company for the perceived wrongful actions of their managers viewed as agents of the corporation (Jones, 2009; Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002). For instance, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) note that those employees who experience incivility in the workplace may express their anger in subtle acts of retaliation against their employers, including withdrawal from work or sabotaging the abuser in a covert manner.

Probst and Ekore (2010) note to some extent employees do sabotage the work and the result is substandard construction, for example the buildings may collapse and a lot of fatalities may occur. Therefore, based on Hyman's (1989) framework, particularly, income distribution and management control and Adams (1965) equity theory, employees may use sabotage to express their discontent or the perceived unfairness easily as compared to using illegal strikes which may result in loss of employment. Ambrose et al. (2002) note that in a service environment, the destruction of relationships between the organisation and its customers could be construed as employee sabotage. Thus, the boundaries of sabotage continue to change in the modern workplace.

2.5 Conceptual Framework

Based on the literature review, the research proposes the conceptual framework as set out in Figure 2:1, to guide the understanding of employee perception of causes and forms of conflict, and also to discover if there are any other factors that contribute to conflict and other ways used to express discontent. From the proposed conceptual framework, once there is conflict, it implies that employees are not satisfied and they will resort to other ways of expressing their discontentment either through theft³, sabotage and to a lesser extent production deviance as ways of showing that they are not happy with the employer.

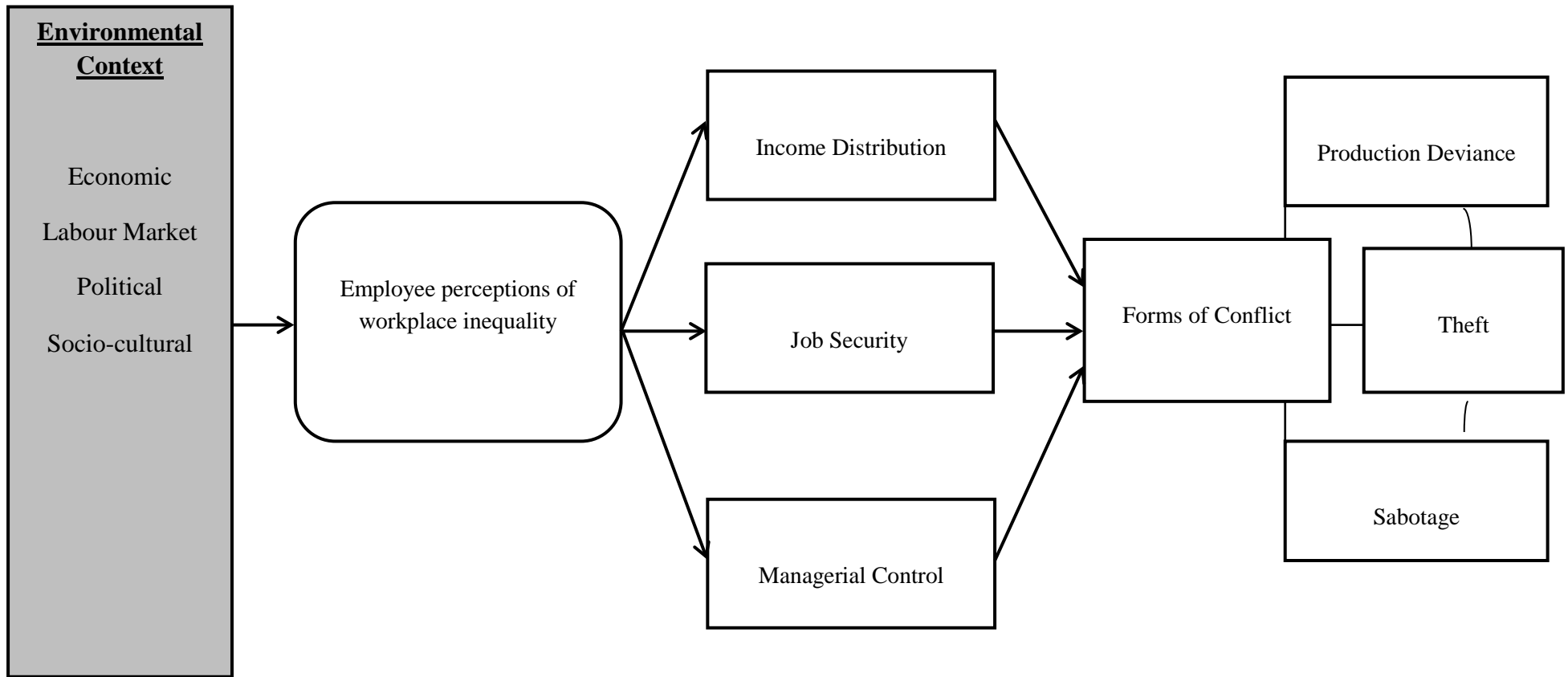
Based on the conceptual framework displayed in Figure 2:1, the environmental factors on the left hand box (political, socio-cultural, economic and labour market) contribute to the state of the employer-employee relationship, especially on *how* and *what* employees perceive as causes of conflict in the workplace (Benach, et al., 2014; Ellonen & Nätti, 2015; Erlinghagen, 2008; Gregg, Machin & Fernández-Salgado, 2014, Hall & Cooper, 2012; Hess & Maidment, 2014; Idemudia, 2009; Orogun, 2010). The economic factor is evident in the high unemployment rate in Botswana, as well as economies of scale around the major construction projects, such that the vast majority of domestic-owned construction companies may not have enough resources to enable the timely completion of projects resulting in both downward pressure on economic development and upward pressure on unemployment (Mogalakwe, 2008; Palalani, 2000); see Section 3.1.3. The labour market factor is related to the pay and working conditions of employees in specific industries and their impact on income distribution and job security. Section 3.1.5 sets out the Labour markets conditions in the Botswana construction industry. The

³ “Theft” is referred to as “stealing” in the direct translated word from the Setswana language that is used in the survey and interviews.

political factor is crucial in developing countries, as in Africa where political instability remains an ongoing issue as detailed in respect to Botswana in Section 3.1.2. Finally, the social factor refers to social relations of people that impact on the form of managerial control within specific cultures. This can apply particularly in this study to Chinese cultural attitudes adopted by Chinese-owned companies in Africa and especially Botswana as set out in Sections 2.6 and 3.1.4, respectively.

Adams (1963) suggests that perceived fairness usually includes the elements of distributive and procedural fairness, which have their roots in equity theory. Therefore, based on the proposed conceptual framework, when employees' experiences or perceptions are negative, this may lead to deviant behaviour. That is, when employees have perceptions of inequity in their work situation, they are more likely to violate organisational norms. Numerous studies assert that once employees perceive unfairness, they engage in workplace hostility as a form of retaliation and that can represent an attempt to restore justice in an unfair situation (Bies & Tripp, 2005; Greenberg, 1990a; Reynolds, Shoss & Jund, 2015). Thus, this framework proposes that employees are more likely to engage in deviant behaviour when they have inequity perceptions on how income is distributed, job security and how management interact with them.

Figure 2:1: Conceptual framework



Source: Authors' elaboration on the basis of the literature review and Hyman's (1989) typology on the causes of conflict

The next two sections provide a review of scholarly research on Chinese investment in Africa and how its presence in Africa impacts or influences African employment relations.

2.6 Chinese Foreign Direct Investment in Africa and Employment Relations

Chinese FDI initially concentrated in the markets of advanced economies; however, during the past decade, Chinese firms have expanded their operations throughout the developing world (Deng, 2009; Wang, 2002). In particular, Chinese FDI flows to Africa increased from just \$200 million in the year 2000 to \$2.9 billion in 2011, turning China into the largest developing country investor in Africa (UNCTAD, 2013). For this reason, China has become a major economic partner of sub-Saharan African countries (Alden & Davies, 2006; Schneidman, 2007). Between 2003 and 2010, the average annual change in Chinese FDI in Africa was 80%. As such, Chinese firms not only initiated new projects in mining sectors, but they have also invested heavily in manufacturing and consumer projects in several countries in Africa (Gill, Huang & Morrison, 2007; Kurlantzick, 2006; Tuman & Shirali, 2015).

Studying the investment behaviour of Chinese firms, researchers argue that the Chinese state guides firms to invest in host countries with abundant supplies of oil and natural resources. This strategy of state guidance of FDI is intended to ensure adequate supplies of energy and other inputs in support of China's fast-paced economic development (Athreye & Kapur, 2009; Broadman, 2007; Gonzalez-Vicente, 2012). Consistent with this strategy, Chinese government ministries have granted soft loans to Chinese mining firms that are considering investing in foreign mining sectors or requiring regulatory approval

for the use of foreign exchange in outward FDI (Buckley, Clegg, Cross, Liu, Voss, & Zheng, 2007; García, 2013). Accordingly, studies have found a positive association between natural resources and Chinese FDI. For example, Chinese firms are engaged in African energy production and exports in Angola and Sudan (as well as Ecuador and Peru) (García, 2013). Chinese FDI has also sought mineral resources in selected Latin American and African countries, and most visibly in Peru and Zambia (Gonzalez-Vicente, 2012; Kotschwar, Moran, & Muir, 2011). As Chinese FDI flows to Africa are guided by the Chinese state, it is argued that the dynamics of Chinese work settings would be replicated in their foreign subsidiaries.

Employment relationships are usually conceptualised in terms of workers' relationship to the organisation for which they work, where the organisation is viewed as an impersonal 'other'. However, in societal settings, personal relationships are the basic unit of the social structure (Hui, Lee, & Rousseau, 2004). In such settings, workers are more likely to conceptualise their employment as a relationship with specific organisation members, in particular with their immediate supervisors (Chang, 1976; Hui et al., 2004; Pearce, 2001). As a result, workers in developing and transitional societies appear to rely more heavily upon person-specific relationships, in particular with their immediate manager from whose personal base of power workers access valued resources and opportunities (Pearce, Branyiczki, & Bakacsi, 1994). In China, this process takes on specific cultural meaning because of the role of personal relationships in the social structure. Thus, the social relations of people in traditional Chinese society are central elements in employer-employee relationships. The Chinese social structure is an endorsement of hierarchical role relationships as defined by the five fundamental relationships in Confucianism: emperor-subject, father-son, husband-wife, elder-younger and friend-friend (Farh, Hackett, & Liang, 2007; Hui et al., 2004). These five relationships specify the important

components of the relational network in Chinese society and prescribe role behaviour for all those within the network. The Chinese culture has been marked by Confucianism and collectivism, with an emphasis on respect for hierarchy, in-group harmony, reciprocity and loyalty (Chen, 1995). As a result, some scholars argue that there is cultural proximity between African and Asian employees; for example, the cultural proximity between the African concept of *Ubuntu* (i.e. the person is person through other person) and the Chinese concept of *Guanxi* (i.e. interpersonal relationships in Chinese context). This suggests that HRM practices may evolve in the direction of an Afro-Asian nexus based on various global, indigenous and contingency factors (Chen, Chen, & Huang, 2013; Horwitz, 2012; Karsten & Illa, 2005; Xing, Liu, Tarba, & Cooper, 2016).

Studying employment relationships in the Chinese context, Hue et al. (2004) note that in the work environment, Chinese relate to an organisation through the particular relationships that exist between individuals and their superiors. They tend to approach organisations ‘thinking interpersonally’, in contrast to the Western view of the employment relationship that is based upon ‘thinking organisationally’. Consistent with this assertion, Chen, Tsui and Farh (2002) contend that in Chinese organisations employee loyalty to a supervisor is more strongly related to citizenship behaviour than is employee loyalty to the organisation. The psychological basis of this behaviour is the belief that this supervisor has offered trust, respect, protection and support in the manner of one’s father. As such, traditional Chinese values exert an important influence on contemporary Chinese HRM practices (Warner, 2010).

Given these analyses, Chen (2004) notes further that there is a cohesive form of Chinese business practice among overseas Chinese communities that consists of a distinctive leadership style which is characterised by paternalism and authoritarianism; by nepotism;

and reliance upon personal relationships rather than bureaucratic structures. It is also characterised by high centralisation, conflict avoidance, and the resolute commitment of most stakeholders in Chinese-managed companies to collective values and the acceptance of an unequal distribution of organisational power. Likewise, Wright, Szeto and Geory (2000) posit that Chinese managers are inclined toward authoritarian leadership styles, tending to reject employee participation in day-to-day operations.

Chan (1998) notes that in China most of the employees are the victims of labour rights violations, since, following investigations, most of the allegations – such as company illegally cutting employees pay, deducting and keeping of employees’ ‘deposits’, beatings, abuses and humiliation – were found to be true. Workers have to forfeit the ‘deposit’ if they quit without management permission before their contract expires, or if they are fired. In some cases, the factory simply keeps a portion of the worker’s wages each month, promising to return the money at the end of the year. For example, Akorsu and Cooke (2011) note that in Chinese- and India-owned companies’ adverse effect on employment standards have been found where long hours of work, pay below minimum regulatory wages and under-cutting local pay rates have reduced employment with little pressure from host countries such as Ghana.

2.7 Chinese Impact on African Employment Relations

In spite of the differences in the development of employment relations across the region, almost all African countries are equally confronted with the challenge posed by the massive changes and transformation in the economic and political spheres. These changes, which are taking place globally, are also radically influencing employment relations in Africa (Akorsu & Cooke, 2011; Ferner et al. 2012).

There is a general view shared by different authors that seem to suggest that most of the foreign companies, and more especially the Chinese-owned companies, have brought about some major changes in the industrial relations in Africa as a whole (Alden & Davies, 2006; Cooke, 2014; Guliwe, 2009; Li, 2010; Wood, 2011). Previous studies indicate that Chinese employers are among the lowest paying in Africa compared with others in the same sector (Baah & Jaunch, 2009; Gadzala, 2010; Wood, 2011; Wood, Mazouz, Yin & Cheah, 2014). Gadzala (2010) noted that in Zambia, African workers in Chinese copper mines are paid 30% less than those in other copper mines in the country; similarly Baah and Jaunch (2009) noted that in Zimbabwe and Ghana, most workers at Chinese companies were simply forced to work overtime and to work long hours (9 -12 hours per day for seven days per week) in contravention of the national labour laws. Workers know that a refusal to work such long hours would lead to automatic dismissal.

Interestingly, Chan (1998) finds that in China itself, despite the already low minimum wage, managers engage in a wide range of manipulations to get away with paying less than the minimum wage. This sets a cultural context for Chinese-owned firms. For example, according to a survey carried out by the Guangdong (China) provincial trade union, 35% of the workers interviewed did not get any higher pay per hour for overtime work and when the numbers of hours worked were calculated, it was revealed that 32% of the workers surveyed were paid below the legal minimum wage. In the African context, Li (2010) notes that in Zambia, wildcat strikes protesting against low wages have occurred in most of the mining companies, forcing a re-evaluation and restructuring of company practice in line with employee demands. Chen (2009) and Alden and Davies (2006) argue that most of Chinese-owned companies operating mostly in developing nations tend to be flexible in their adherence to employment regulations and often tailor their employment relations towards practices in their country of origin.

Wood (2011) notes that in Mozambique, although labour laws have generally been changed in areas such as a strengthening minimum wage regulation, this has been widely ignored by employers, especially Chinese employers. Additionally, Guliwe (2009) concurs that a common feature of working conditions at Chinese-owned companies is the absence of employment contracts and the random determination of wages and benefits by the owners or managers. Also, there is no record of employment contracts, which makes enforcement of local labour laws difficult. Secondly, such companies may follow (or even exacerbate) poor existing practices in the country of operation (Moeti-Lysson & Boy, 2011). This may result in subsidiaries taking advantages of local institutional shortcomings to engage in cost-cutting, the payment of lower wages and the general repression of the labour-rights of the employees. China's presence in particular indicates a new form of imperialism based on FDI, and is challenged by commentators and academics as being sometimes negligent of Africans' human rights (Jackson, 2014). For example, Guliwe (2009) and Wood (2011) note that although working conditions at Chinese companies in Africa differ across countries and sectors, there are some common trends, such as tense labour relations, hostile attitudes by Chinese employers towards trade unions, violations of workers' rights, poor working conditions and unfair labour practices. Lee (2009) and Wood et al. (2014) note that in most of the Chinese multinational companies in Africa, HRM strategies may reflect a low wage, low skill and administrative model rather than a strategic and value-adding one. Similarly, Farrell, Laboissiere and Rosenfeld (2006) find that HRM approaches are not concerned with issues of regulation, labour and trade union rights.

Hence, Zheng (2015) notes that Chinese companies need to focus on host-country skill training and development, and also adhere to and uphold employment laws and labour practices in the host country. For instance, Alden and Davies (2006) contend that an

equivalent debate is emerging with regard to the Chinese practice of employing its own nationals in construction projects in Zambia, which has often led to conflict based on pay differences between Chinese employees and the locals. The failure to employ African workers rather than Chinese workers in Chinese infrastructure projects, be they technicians or semi-skilled workers or even unskilled labourers, is an important oversight with economic, as well as political implications. (Cooke, Wood & Horwitz, 2015).

Cooke (2014) notes that in Ghana very few non-unionised, workers in the IT/telecom industry possess a high level of bargaining power due to skill shortages. However, it is the opposite in the manufacturing, construction, and mining industries as these industries employ primarily low-skilled workers who are paid low wages and have little job security. Cooke (2014) notes that despite unionisation and the ratification of International Labour Organization (ILO) conventions (e.g. Chinaware in Ghana), labour standards remain poor, often with little health and safety protections, and the industrial accident level is relatively high and injuries are often inadequately compensated. This behaviour may fit well with Shen (2007) who argues that labour standards and authoritarian leadership in Chinese-owned companies are to a certain extent influenced by the low labour standards in China, and that the (generally negative) attitudes of senior managers toward unions in the host country subsidiaries (including recognition and involvement in negotiating employment terms) were mainly influenced by the home-country industrial relations system.

Chen (2009) maintains that this could be due to workers' rights being a new concept in China. For instance, Dube (2008) reports that in Zambia, a Chinese manager at a copper smelter was admitted to hospital after being assaulted by workers demanding better working conditions. It is also reported that trade unions in Zambia accuse the Chinese-

owned companies of failure to observe the country's labour laws (Lee, 2009). Lee points out that in April 2005, the single most deadly disaster in 35 years happened at the Chinese-owned Beijing General Research Institute of Mining and Metallurgy in Chambishi, Zambia. All the 52 people who died in the incident were Zambian casual workers who were paid only \$15 to \$30 a month for working in such a hazardous environment. Li (2010) alleges that the Zambian copper mines which are operated by Chinese-owned companies have some fatalities which may be attributed to the fact that workers are coerced into working two or three hours of overtime each day with only one or two days off every month. This is a breach of the Zambian labour law that stipulates at least one day off a week.

In addition to the already existing problem of high unemployment in most developing countries, the Chinese companies add more burden to the high labour supply as these companies tend to bring in their own labour (Alden & Davies, 2006; Corkin & Burke, 2006; Cooke, 2014). For instance, Cooke (2014) notes that in the construction industry, and to a lesser extent the mining industry, Chinese firms import workers from China instead of using local workers. Corkin and Burke (2006) and Cooke (2014) identify several reasons for the preference of Chinese workers as an alternative to hiring local workers: Chinese workers share a similar culture and language with the Chinese managers; they are more willing to work long hours to maximise their earning while working overseas; they are more highly skilled and able to perform multi-skill tasks; they are less likely to leave the job or to take a confrontational approach to dealing with disagreements with the management; and they are easier to manage as they all live in the same compound as the managers. Thus, there is a higher barrier to them leaving or disagreeing due to the sunk cost of being in a different country and with the sole purpose to make money while living in the same compound.

Tang (2010) finds that in Angola, there is a general feeling that culture and the language barrier contributed to the problems between Angolans and some of their Chinese employers as the majority of the Chinese that come to southern Africa do not speak English or Portuguese. In contrast to Chinese-owned companies, European or American companies send their staff from Portugal or Brazil to Angola because of the linguistic and cultural affinities. Therefore, in this study it is anticipated that these cultural values would have an influence on how employees, especially Batswana who work in Chinese-owned companies, perceive the causes of conflict. This then becomes a matter of cultural differences between foreign company owners (in this case Chinese) and employees of which the vast majority are Batswana.

2.8 Chapter Summary and Research Propositions

This chapter review of the existing literature points to the existence of a gap in the understanding of the relationship between causes and forms of conflict, especially as it applies to non-unionised industries like construction. The insights and knowledge gained from the literature expose a major academic gap in relation to the study of the causes and forms of conflict in the Botswana construction industry. This research aims to address that gap in the literature, and it is anticipated that it will contribute to informed professional debates and discussions in the field. This chapter has considered at length as to why and how employees perceive income distribution, job insecurity and managerial control as causes of conflict and what forms of conflict are used as retaliation. In order to address sub-questions (i) and (ii) in Chapter One, this section sought to identify from the literature the major causes of conflict and the counterproductive behaviours that employees use if they perceive that the organisation is being unfair. The above literature review has explored employee perceptions as to what causes conflict and the deviant

workplace behaviours that can take place, as retaliation by employees to balance the unfairness perceived. The way employees perceive the employment relationship has been explained by equity theory and social exchange theory. Employees enter into a relationship with an employer based on the concept of a give-and-take agreement. In this exchange, the employee believes he or she is delivering a set of contributions to the organisation (e.g. effort, loyalty) and consistently expects to receive a set of equally valuable incentives (e.g. job security, support, respect). Each employee during this exchange engages in a psychological comparison, and based on that comparison determines if the critical incentives are being delivered by the employer. When the fulfilment of obligations between the employee and employer is in balance, a positive relationship results. However, when the exchange is out of balance, negative consequences may arise such as deviant workplace behaviours. The study aims to compare domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies in the construction industry in relation to this balance (or lack of balance).

From the above review, the research introduces some propositions based around three causes of conflict that will be investigated in the context of comparing domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies:

1. Income distribution that is perceived as equitable will have a significant positive impact on employee-employer relationships. As a result:
 - Low wages are likely to produce more forms of conflict.
 - Working long hours and not being paid fairly is likely to cause conflict.
 - As domestic-owned companies offer lower wages, more of their employees will engage in deviant behaviours.

- Substantial number of employees of Chinese-owned companies will perceive unfair payment.

Most research in this field articulates that a fundamental aspect of any job is pay. It determines employees' living standards, as well as the living standards of their families. From an employee perspective, an employee's earning capacity may be regarded as a measure of a person's worth to an employer. In capitalist society, pay is regarded as a measure of personal status, though from an employer's view it may determine profitability or even the viability of a business (Deery & Iverson, 2005; Greenberg, 1990a; Hill et al., 1982; Hyman, 1989). Therefore, if there is a perceived inequity with regard to return for effort to produce output then conflict exists.

2. Job security varies with the differences in organisational variables such as an organisation's activity and ownership. In the context of the construction sector in Africa:

- There is better job security in domestic-owned construction companies as compared to Chinese-owned companies.
- In Chinese-owned companies, job security is the main cause of conflict as compared to domestic-owned companies.

Blau (1964) proclaims that based on the social exchange theory if employees expectations are perceived to be fair and clear at the beginning of the engagement and is met on employment they will be satisfied and are likely to remain in employment. However, if employees are dissatisfied they may resort to deviant behaviours, such as 'go slow', absenteeism, theft or sabotage (Colbert et al., 2004).

3. Management control influences conflict. As a result:

- Firms that adopt an authoritarian managerial approach are more likely to provoke conflict or high levels of discontent.
- When relationship between supervisors and employees are healthy conflict is minimal.
- Management of Chinese-owned companies is more likely to adopt an authoritarian leadership style, hence attract high occurrences of conflict in the workplace
- In domestic-owned companies employees are less likely to have poor interpersonal relationship with supervisors and managers.

Burton, Mitchell and Lee (2005) recognise that organisational climate is influenced by leaders' attitudes in the workplace. As such, Tepper, Moss and Duffy (2011) note that management will seek to reduce the imprecision of the exchange relationship through minimising employee discretion or autonomy. However, because the interests of employees frequently do not coincide with those of employers, the underlying relationship will be conflictual. Mawritz, Dust and Resick (2014) suggest that subordinates may emotionally cope with perceived hostile climates and abusive supervision by venting their negative emotions through deviant actions that harm their organisations (e.g. stealing from the organisation) or deviant behaviours that allow them to avoid their supervisors or their work situation (e.g. taking long breaks, coming to work late). When employees have put forth extra effort or overcome obstacles to reach objectives, they expect and want some acknowledgement from management (Dessler, 1999).

In addition, this research also introduces some propositions based on literature review of the three specific forms of conflict; production deviance, theft and sabotage:

1. Employees in Chinese-owned as compared to those in domestic-owned companies are more likely to employ retaliation such as using production deviance, theft or sabotage when they perceive that they are being treated unfairly in terms of wages.
2. Employees in Chinese-owned companies are more likely to engage in various forms of conflict when they perceive lack of job security.
3. Employees in domestic-owned companies are less likely to retaliate when they experience some form of inequity from managers/supervisors.

Empirical evidence demonstrates that employees may retaliate against perceived injustices (Greenberg & Alge, 1998; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), threats to identity (Aquino & Douglas, 2003), violations of trust (Bies & Tripp, 2005), and personal offense (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2006). When individuals feel they have been mistreated, retaliation is a deliberate, rational response (Bies & Tripp, 2005), and abusive supervision is related to retaliation (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). For this reason, Giacalone and Greenberg (1997) and Gino and Mogilner (2014) argue that naturally (inherently) honest employees can be pushed (impelled) to behave inappropriately if they perceive their work environment as unjust, or if they feel that management has treated them poorly. As such, managers can sometimes create an environment in which they unknowingly contribute to their employees' deviant acts (Greenberg & Barling, 1999).

The next chapter presents a brief introduction of the Botswana context and all the relevant information that might help provide clear understanding for the study context.

Chapter Three: Botswana Context

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the background of Botswana as a context of this research. The chapter provides the geographical, historical, political, economic, socio-cultural and labour policies relevant to this project. This chapter will also provide some general information, such as the contribution and importance of the construction industry to the socio-economic development of the country.

3.1 Botswana Profile

3.1.1 Geography and History

Botswana is a small landlocked nation located in the southern part of Africa and covers an area of approximately 582,000 square kilometres. Botswana shares borders with Zimbabwe, Zambia, Angola, Namibia, and South Africa. The Kgalagadi (Kalahari) Desert occupies much (about two-thirds) of its land area. Botswana is described as semi-arid, with the majority of the population residing in the country's eastern region where the climate is less harsh and the land more fertile than elsewhere.

Botswana is in many ways an exceptional African state, as it has a small and relatively socially cohesive population. The population is approximately 2.1 million as of 31 August 2011, (Central Statistics Office, 2012), with 35% of the people living in the two urban cities of Gaborone and Francistown. Botswana is one of the world's greatest development success stories (Pegg, 2010; Siphambe, 2007). After achieving independence from Britain in 1966, the nation enjoyed over four decades of uninterrupted civilian leadership. Free and fair elections, progressive social policies, significant capital investments and a

constitution that guarantees fundamental rights and freedoms have combined to give Botswana an impressively stable political environment. Botswana is blessed with vast natural resources; with diamonds, being the most significant contributor to the country as it provides constant revenue for the state since independence. Scholars such as, Curry (1987), Good (1993, 1999) and Mogalakwe (2008) note that after independence, the government invested capital from diamond revenue in social and economy development initiatives, building infrastructure and developing health and education systems. The diamond industry established itself as the main engine of growth and the country developed rapidly under a state-led development strategy.

3.1.2 Political

All of Botswana's neighbours have experienced periods of turmoil over the last 20 years. The black majority populations of Zimbabwe, Namibia and South Africa engaged in protracted liberation struggles and efforts to gain equality with their white minority populations. Zambia has provided material support to these struggles, drawing the wrath of the neighbouring minority regimes, and has experienced economic, political, and social difficulties of its own (Tsie, 1996; Fashoyin, 1998). Tsie (1996) notes that Botswana has a unique political status in sub-Saharan Africa and southern Africa, in particular because Botswana has stood firm as a peaceful nation. Primarily, for these reasons Botswana has increasingly attracted skilled and unskilled migrants both legal and illegal from most of African and Western countries. Morapedi (2007) notes that Botswana was a sought after destination for immigrants from other southern African countries even prior to its independence. After independence, it hosted many refugees, mostly Zimbabweans. Botswana has created opportunities for many political refugees to come in the country and a refugee camp has been established at Dukwi, in the northern part of the country.

Literature reveals that Botswana has enjoyed and continues to enjoy long standing peace and stability. Botswana has been renowned globally as a success story of good governance, democratic rule and successful development in the otherwise poorly governed and slow growth sub-saharan Africa (Allen & Heald, 2004; Maundeni, 2002; Molomo, 2001; Pegg, 2010; Siphambe, 2007). The Botswana political structure is built on multiparty democracy and elections are contested every five years since 1966. Ramsay and Parsons (1998) note that while Botswana has had freely contested democratic elections since independence, one party has always won and there has never been a credible opposition party to give serious challenge to the ruling party Botswana Democratic Party (BDP). Sebudubudu (2010) argues that equity and social justice are also critical tenets under a democratic/well governed government and advocates that Botswana still has a lot to do in the area of democracy and good governance so that the current relatively high levels of unemployment and poverty can be reduced to allow all citizens to enjoy a better quality of life.

Sebudubudu (2010) notes that there has also been improved citizen confidence in the precedence of the rule of law. For instance, several citizens and organisations which have felt deprived or discriminated against have taken the state to court and on a number of instances won their cases. One interesting example is the opposition party Botswana National Front's (BNF) case against the state on the "Tshiamo Box" during the 1984 election. The BNF logged a case claiming electoral fraud in one region in 1984 which was upheld by the court. The resulting by-election was won by the leader of opposition the late Dr. Kenneth Koma.

3.1.3 Economy

Numerous scholars note that at independence, Botswana was regarded as one of the poorest countries in Africa (Hope, 1995; Mogalakwe, 2003; Marobela, 2011; Siphambe, 2007). However, since independence, in 1966, the country has developed at a remarkable pace owing, in large part, to rapid expansion in the production and export of minerals (Good, 2005). From a Least Developed Country (LDC) status at the time of independence, Botswana reached Middle Income Country (MIC) status within three decades, in 1997 (Hillbom, 2008). During this time per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) increased more than five-fold (in fact per-capita income has almost continuously improved since the 1980s, aside from a shock related to the Global Financial Crisis in 2008). Hillbom (2008) notes that the government has shown great prudence in the management of diamond incomes, keeping expenses constant in boom years and building up foreign exchange reserves, thereby able to compensate for bust years. As a result, this strategy, combined with proper management of the exchange rate, has also meant that real exchange rate appreciation has been under control, which has been positive for the export sector.

Despite its middle-income status, Botswana continues to grapple with significant social challenges including unequal distribution of wealth, high levels of poverty, unemployment and HIV/AIDS prevalence (Allen & Heald, 2004; Good, 1999; Hillbom, 2008; Phaladze & Tlou, 2006). Botswana is among the countries that have the highest income inequality in the world, with a Gini coefficient of 0.61, hence portraying a relatively unequal distribution of wealth (Central Statistics Office, 2012). Good (2005) notes that only higher income groups, possessing more income-generating assets (productive assets, human assets, or both), are in a position to benefit from the increased national income. Hence, Adelman (2003) notes that for a country to achieve the

characteristics of development, poverty must be alleviated, income levels be considerably improved, and resources and opportunities be distributed by a modern state in order for all segments of society to benefit.

The 2008 Global Financial Crisis (GFC) affected the world in many ways, not only economically, but also in terms of individual rights. Botswana illustrates one of the harmful effects of the GFC on the civil society as there have been only about 10% salary increments between 2008 and 2014. Hillbom (2014) notes that the GFC affected Botswana at the peak of economic prosperity in terms of GDP growth and job creation, driven mainly by the mining sector. With the economy declining in 2008/09 because of the fall in diamond trade during the GFC, Botswana saw a need to diversify the economy to avoid dependence on one commodity, especially a finite resource. Therefore, the drive and quest for diversification has given rise to other sectors such as construction. This sector plays an important part in the economic development of the country which is required if problems such as high unemployment rates and poverty levels are to be addressed.

3.1.4 Culture

Perhaps the starting point is to examine how culture is defined by various scholars. Definitions of culture are too numerous to fully examine, as they differ according to the author's discipline. For instance, anthropologists may look at culture differently from management scientists, although they may have certain views in common. Hofstede (1984,p. 21) defines culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another, the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influence a human group’s response to its environment.” Furthermore, Hofstede (1980, p.43) notes that:

Culture is not a characteristic of the individual; it encompasses a number of people who were conditioned by the same education and life experience. When we speak of the culture of a group, a tribe, a geographical region, a national minority, or a nation, culture refers to the collective mental programming that these people have in common; the programming that is different from that of other groups, tribes, regions, minorities, or nations.

Hofstede (1984) recognises four dimensions which distinguish one culture from another. These dimensions are individualism/collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity/femininity. He implies a clear important distinction between (a) the action itself as played out in the social system and (b) the shared ideas that shape and influence social action. Also, Lopez and Guarnaccia (2000) define culture as a dynamic process that depicts a way of life of a group of people that is both a product and a function of inherited ideas, values, and ways of relating, as well as the life experiences and innovations of individuals and small groups.

Each of the above definitions points to the fact that culture is learned, shared, trans-generational, symbolic, patterned and adaptive. Therefore, it can be summarised that culture consists of, among other things, a collection of values, institutions, and practices that sustain a group of people and that give them an identity that distinguishes them from other groups (Hofstede, 1981, 1984; Lopez & Guarnaccia, 2000). The stability of such values, institutions, and practices is a function of the degree of the stability of the group with regard to the intensity, duration, and nature of its interaction with other social groups. Hence, Hofstede (1981, 1984) and Lopez and Guarnaccia (2000) reveal that differences in culture diversely influence trust relationships of stakeholder groups of the corporate entity.

However, the Hofstede study has been critiqued and challenged by subsequent research. McSweeney (2002) criticises Hofstede's treatment of culture as being territorially unique, implicit and systematically causal. Furthermore, McSweeney (2002) and Vaiman and Brewster (2015) argue, based on an acknowledgement by Hofstede in 1991, that there were cultural differences within each IBM (International Business Machines) national unit and between them; also that there is no cultural uniformity as he had originally claimed. This argument seems to contradict a crucial part of culture and thus undermine Hofstede's national culture mapping claims. Also, Triandis (1994) critiques one of the cultural dimensions espoused by Hofstede, i.e., collectivism/individualism, to illustrate that it cannot be applied in every culture. For instance Triandis (1994, p. 45) illustrates this argument with an example: 'I may be very individualistic [from a national perspective], but when my university gives me the job to represent it at a meeting [from an organisational perspective], I act collectively in that setting'. Therefore, one can deduce that what these critics have in common is that using the word 'culture' for both nations and organisations, as Hofstede does, is misleading: a nation is not an organisation, and the two types of culture are of a different nature. Moreover, Hofstede's model was based on data collected before the 1980s. Therefore scholars have questioned whether the model correctly reflects the present day and changes that happened over time (Brookes, Croucher, Fenton-O'Creevy, & Gooderham, 2011; Søndergaard, 1994). For the purposes of this study, the Hofstede characterisation that underlies the comparison between African and Chinese cultures that underlie employee relations remain valid in a broad sense evoked in the analysis undertaken.

In relation to culture in an African context, Mkabela (2005) notes that in most African communities, with particular reference to Bantu people of southern Africa, for instance, they view human existence in relation to the existence of others as an important part

within the communities. Beugré and Offodile (2001) note that despite Africa diversity, cultural patterns such as respect for elders, consensus decisions, respect for authority, family orientation, collectivism, etc., appear to characterise most African countries. Merriam and Ntseane (2008) point that although there are a number of ethnic groups and 22 recognised languages, certain cultural values appear to be common to most Batswana (the term used to refer to the people of Botswana). English is the official language (the language of business) of Botswana, but the most common language is Setswana⁴, a Bantu language understood by over 90% of the population. The country has indigenous key tribal institutions such as Bogosi⁵ and these are treasured in Batswana's culture and lifestyles.

Bolt and Hillbom (2013) note that Batswana are collectivistic; identity is determined by the collectivism or group to which one belongs, not by individual characteristics. Like most of the southern African cultures, Botswana also embraces spirituality, connectedness, and Botho⁶. The principle of Botho plays an important role in the way Batswana interact in society, as it is through this principle that society is able to derive morality and morality being a sense of behavioural conduct that differentiates intentions, decisions and actions between those that are good and bad. For instance Sabone (2009) emphasises that in Botswana greetings are considered important as they set the social interaction in motion because when people extend greetings, they communicate that they are available in case another person needs them or that another person must know that assistance may be needed. Batswana give emphasis to extensive greetings and inquiries

⁴ Setswana, local official language

⁵ Traditional structures which regulate and manage the tribe to follow the rules and advice of the national government and members of the tribe

⁶ These concepts encompass ideas of respect for human life, mutual help, generosity, cooperation, respect for older people, and harmony and preservation of the sacred (Sabone, 2009)

after each other, also it is polite to address senior men as Rra and women as Mma (literally, father and mother).

Javidan, Dorfman, De Luque and House (2006) and Selvarajah and Meyer (2008) note that managers need to be open minded and to understand the cultures of the different countries and need to be able to compare their own cultures with those of other countries. It is obvious from the foregoing that culture in Botswana, like elsewhere, plays an important role in shaping management practices. Therefore, an understanding of the culture of a people will help the articulation and development of effective management practices for that culture. This articulation will invariably involve the synthesis of positive cultural values with positive foreign management practices. Hence, in Botswana overlooking the cultural obligation to greet others is perceived negatively and viewed as offensive and bad manners. Hence, greetings remain not only an ice-breaker but also a facilitative instrument for a successful interaction between people in Botswana.

Another important cultural value is Botho, popularly known as Ubuntu, in African literature it represents humanity and compassion and is considered as one of those concepts that pervade the African continent (Berg, 2003; Sabone, 2009). Hofstede (1980) suggests that the crucial fact about leadership in any culture is that it is a complement to subordinateship. Whatever the literature on leadership may provide in understanding this aspect, leaders cannot choose their styles at will. What is feasible depends to a large extent on the cultural conditioning of a leader's subordinates. For example, in Botswana Botho has been added to the national principles of the country, as it was realised that people were slowly losing connection with this basic building block of a person as a social being (Sabone, 2009). Therefore, among many other cultural values this one defines *who* and *what* a Mtswana should be. Also the Botswana culture allows a

platform for ‘*mmualebe o a bo a bua la gagwe*’ (*where everyone has the right to express his/her views*). By doing so the structure supports tolerance and freedom of expression amongst people with different views. In a study conducted in Uganda, Arsene (2014) found that the Ugandan employees have negative perceptions of their Chinese employees, and the criticism is often presented in cultural terms (for example, my boss is “abusive”, “rude”, “has no manners”, or “no respect for my culture”, and that s/he “treats me like an animal”). Consequently, Botswana may hold specific values and attitudes, perceptions and world-views that are different from other nations. The unique values and perceptions Botswana hold mark their cultural character and at the same time create barriers to cross-cultural understanding, especially with non-Africans.

3.1.5 Labour Market and Employment Policies

Dlamini (2002) and Fashoyin (1998) argue that Botswana has comparatively little experience in collective bargaining since, though trade unions are free, they have been unable to use the bargaining machinery to attain beneficial results. Tsie (1996) notes that the labour movement in Botswana has always been plagued by poor organisation and lack of effective leadership. Also, the level of unionisation has generally been low due to the fact that the government has fixed minimum wages. Thus, Siphambe and Thokweng-Bakwena (2001) note that historically the government has been the crucial actor in wage determination in the country. This dominance was an outcome of an incomes policy which stipulated that the private and parastatal sectors were to pay the same salaries as government for similar occupations and under no circumstances could their salaries significantly exceed those of comparable government salaries.

Literature indicates that the labour movement or rather trade unions in Botswana do not have much strength when it comes to protecting or advancing the interests of the

employees vis-à-vis employers (Dlamini, 2002; Good, 2004; Marobela, 2011; Maundeni, 2004; Mogalakwe, 2003; Mogalakwe, Mufune, & Molutsi, 1998; Motshegwa & Bodilenyane, 2012; Suping & Maundeni, 2015; Tsie, 1996; Werbner, 2014, 2016). Tsie (1996) notes that Botswana has not had a legal strike since independence in 1966. All strikes having been declared illegal by the Trade Disputes Act [2003]. Accordingly, there have only been a few strikes in Botswana including in the construction industry which has witnessed fewer strikes than in neighbouring country such as South Africa. Industrial disputes have been over salary/wage demands, housing or transport facilities or allowances or over delays by employers in implementing collective agreements. For instance, Werbner (2016) notes that although Botswana has joined the global wave of rising protest, the massive strike of five public unions jointly claiming to represent 93,000 workers out of 103,000 public sector workers failed to capture the attention of global media. This could perhaps be attributed to the fact that Botswana is a remote and sparsely populated country in Southern Africa and hence a small player on the world economic stage (Werbner, 2016).

Botswana is also a country with a deep religious (Christian) ethos. Thus when social conditions are seen to deteriorate, the church leaders step in. Werbner (2016) notes that a distinctive feature of the Botswana labour movement is the deployment of 'political' prayers; in these, God is appealed to for support in the workers' cause. An example can be taken from a public prayer which was delivered outside the President of Botswana's office in 2005 on the occasion of a protest march which culminated in the handing over of a petition demanding the reinstatement of 461 diamond mine workers who were dismissed following a strike in 2004. Such interventions by religious leaders might have the (unintended) effect of sidelining union authority and relevance in the eyes of workers.

Salamon (2000) sets out in an international industrial relations textbook that trade unions have the power to protect their members by providing a collective strength against the employer, maximising the wages and employment of their members and establish a job rule-making system which protects members from arbitrary management decisions and allows them a say in decision-making. Given this, one might conclude that trade unions in Botswana, as described in the previous paragraphs, are actually failing to represent and protect the interests of the employees. Consequently, this means that there has been no successful collective bargaining process and agreement between employers and workers in the industrial relations of Botswana.

Mogalakwe (2003) and Marobela (2011) argue that the government in Botswana has tended to be suppressive of worker demands, to the extent of being intolerant of recognising basic rights and freedoms, such as the right to withhold labour or strike. Marobela (2011) asserts that the recent increase in the number of strikes reflects pressure for more democracy and individual rights in workplaces and is an expression of dissatisfaction with the industrial order in which unions operate.

Good (2004) and Marobela (2011) agree that in Botswana a legal strike is made a practical impossibility due to tedious application processes and the practical limits on the right to take legal industrial action. Both authors agree that the Botswana government appears to have taken away one of the most powerful and legitimate tools that workers have when they need to make their voice reach employers, the state and the entire nation. Given these realities, it is fair to conclude that the labour movement will remain disadvantaged in any bargaining situation. Therefore, based on this understanding in the construction industry, the thought of engaging in a legal strike is non-existent because the industry is effectively non-unionised. As such, Baah and Jauch (2009) are of the view that

in general Africa's trade unions are weak as they struggle to recruit non-permanent workers and those in the informal economy, saying that employers, including the Chinese, take advantage of flexible labour markets where collective bargaining does not exist.

In Botswana, labour disputes (mainly in the public sector) have become a worrisome phenomenon. The teacher unions have been the most effective and have actually transformed the industrial relations in Botswana. The 2002 secondary and primary school teachers strike for parallel progression, better wages and working conditions marked one of the major milestones in industrial relations in Botswana. Also, in April and May 2011, public sector employees (especially those in education sector) engaged in a national strike that lasted for eight weeks; the main demand was for a 16% salary increment. It is alleged that remuneration and incentives were the main cause of the dispute (Directorate of Public Service Management, 2011).

To moderate employment related conflicts, the involvement of the government is crucial. Government influences the relationship by introducing rules, regulations and codes to facilitate industrial harmony. The Department of Labour enforces legislation relating to labour and oversees matters pertaining to industrial relations. Several statutes set out the platform for industrial relations in Botswana, and will be briefly discussed in this section, these are: Employment Act (2003), Trade Disputes Act (2003), and Workmen's Compensation Act (1998). These three acts have been instigated as a way of improving the employment relationship between employers and employees.

Employment Act Chapter 47:01 2003

The Employment Act Chapter 47:01 of 2003 (EA) provides, among other things, a contract of employment for public servants. Some of the items covered under contract of employment include oral or written contracts of employment, termination of contract of

employment, breaches of contract of employment, certificate of employment, redundancy, termination of employment, severance benefits on termination of employment. The EA further stipulates specific conditions of employment: recruitment matters, issues of forced labour, protection of wages, rest periods, hours of work, holidays and other conditions of work, employment of children and young persons, employment of the infirm and handicapped, labour health areas and the determination of minimum wages.

Trade Disputes Act No 15 of 2003

The Trade Disputes Act of 2003 covers issues such as the establishment of a panel of mediators and arbitrators, procedures for settlement of trade disputes generally, and provides for the industrial court, settlement of claims where recognised terms and conditions of employment are not being observed. It also deals with issues of collective labour agreements, unlawful industrial action and enforcement of collective labour agreement and decisions of the industrial court.

Workmen's Compensation Act Chapter 47:03 of 1998

The Workmen's Compensation Act of 1998 was enacted to safeguard employees and seek compensation for them in the event of injury at work. Specifically, it covers issues of eligibility for compensation, compensations for injury, medical aid, occupational diseases, and compulsory insurance administration of the act. A Commissioner for workmen's compensations also oversees general issues like remedies against employer and strangers, regulations and offences.

Notwithstanding these acts, Siphambe and Thokweng-Bakwena (2001), Good (2005) and Hillbom (2008) argue that despite Botswana's good economic performance, not all sections of society have been able to benefit from this success. Inequality increases as the incomes of the asset-rich rise at a faster rate than those of the asset-poor. For example,

Curry (1987) and Good (2008) concluded that income inequality in Botswana has increased significantly due to declining rural household income, and income distribution becoming what they view as inherently unequal as a result of structural imbalances in the economy, inequalities in asset ownership and unequal access to the limited wage-employment opportunities.

Good (2005) comments further that Botswana today is in many ways a modern society but also one with many contrasts: between the poor and the rich, the urban and the rural as well as between hope and despair. For example, the issue of minimum wage still remains a vital matter at the heart of the labour movement in Botswana. The concerns are about the minimum wage itself and the effectiveness of the policing methods being deployed by the government to enforce implementation and adherence to the defined minimum wage. As stipulated by the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs (MLHA), as of April 2013, most minimum wages are between P 550⁷ to P 1,500 per month yet the food basket in most urban areas is well above the aforementioned range. This in itself makes a mockery of the sacrifices that most workers put in to produce wealth since it does not provide a decent standard of living for a worker and family (Marobela, 2011). The conditions of employment/work falls short of what is stipulated in ILO standards and fall short of meeting government's ratified ILO conventions of the desire to create an equitable society and prosperity for all people of Botswana by the year 2016 (Republic of Botswana, 1997).

Labour Market in Botswana

The labour market in Botswana is characterised by an increasing labour force of young people, with limited relevant skills for the job market. In some cases, there is a mismatch

⁷ Botswana currency is known as Pula and the abbreviations are 'P' or 'BWP'. In this thesis 'P' is used.

between available skills and those required in the labour market. On the demand side, a combination of the capital intensive nature of the sector that drives economic growth (e.g. mining) and the inadequately diversified economy has contributed to create few employment opportunities (Ajilore & Yinusa, 2011; Good, 2005; Siphambe, 2007; Marobela, 2011). As a result, the country has experienced a relatively high level of unemployment, especially among the young people. Siphambe (2007) asserts that despite the key role played by diamonds in terms of both contributions to exports and government, revenue; this has not been matched by equally significant employment creation in the sector. This is largely because diamond mining is capital intensive and until 2012 there was absence of beneficiation from diamonds as no industries were set up with value added processes before export.

Unemployment is one of Botswana's most pressing problems, especially among the youth. Unemployment or joblessness, as defined by the International Labour Organization (2013) occurs when people are without jobs and/or they are actively searching. The unemployment rate is a measure of the prevalence of people looking for a job and not employed. It is calculated as a percentage by dividing the number of unemployed individuals by all individuals currently in the labour force (seeking and/or already in work). Youth unemployment is described as youth (12-35 years) willing and able to work, but cannot find any work Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture (2012). The results of Botswana AIDS Impact Survey estimated unemployment rate among population aged 15 years and 35 years. Youth unemployment rate stood at 41.7% and this translates into a total of 72,866 unemployed youth (40,472 females and 32,394 males) (Central Statistics Office, 2013a).

In addition, Botswana is also contending with illegal immigration, with Zimbabwe being the primary source (Campbell, 2007). For example, at the beginning of year 2014, Botswana repatriated over 12,000 foreigners in the first four months of the year, an exercise that cost the government US\$33,870. Mr Mabuse Pule, a director in the Department of Immigration, highlighted that most of the illegal immigrants repatriated were economic refugees who had entered the country through illegitimate points (Dube, 2014). Also Kuang (2008) notes that the number of Chinese migrants in Africa in 2007 were estimated to be somewhere between 270,000 and 510,000 and this is linked to the closing-down of local businesses and rising unemployment. For example, Gadzala (2010) argues that the practice Chinese-owned companies employing Chinese nationals is forcing more Zambians into the informal economy, where in turn they face tough competition from Chinese entrepreneurs, and that this has a detrimental effect on the local economy and local employment prospects. Likewise, in Botswana there are a number of Chinese nationals operating in both the informal and formal sectors and this has brought similar concerns as those expressed by Gadzala (2010).

Specifically, Siphambe and Thokweng-Bakwena (2001) suggest that due to the lack of sufficient employment opportunities in Botswana and youth's lack of relevant marketable skills and experience, young people may be compelled to engage in casual work and other illegal livelihood sources, thus leading to underemployment and commitment of crimes. Also, given that the youth faces higher unemployment, it is quite likely that they could accept any wage and working conditions offered by the employers just to secure a minimum income to sustain them (Klasen & Woolard, 2009; Kingdon & Knight, 2007; Natrass & Seekings, 2014). As a consequence, most of the service sectors like the retail sectors, tourism and construction industries have adopted flexible employment practices; where workers are predominantly casual or temporary employees (Natrass & Seekings,

2014). The use of temporary labour by the industry hinders the successful creation and development of a pool of manpower that can gain experience and improve its quality as it works from one project to another.

3.2 Construction Industry in Botswana

Although local literature is hard to come by, observation and what has been reported in media (Baraedi, 2009; Dube, 2008; Gaotlhobogwe, 2009; Ndlovu, 2014), has shown that the construction industry in Botswana, like in other developing countries, is not free from poor employment relationships between employers and employees. Despite the promulgation of Workmen's Compensation Act, the Botswana construction industry has witnessed a series of disputes that have led to a number of projects being delayed or not completed as scheduled. This has been due to a number of problems; chief among these being assumed to be poor working relationships between employers and employees.

The disputes within the construction industry relate to long working hours for very low salaries coupled with general job insecurity but also to unsatisfactory working conditions and the payment of wages below the expected remuneration (Baraedi, 2009, Sata, 2007). Since the construction industry is not unionised, employees are faced with major challenges as to how differences between employees and employers ought to be resolved or settled. This implies that non-unionised construction workers do not think at all in terms of strikes. This could be due to the nature of their employment, which mostly depends on the duration of the project and the length of the employment contracts which both tend to discourage unionisation; this is especially the case in the construction industry where the workforce is dominated by temporary workers. The risk of losing their jobs is too high and the projects themselves are for specific lengths of (limited) time.

Thus, employee dissatisfaction in the construction industry is exhibited by informal industrial conflict and not through the processes of formal industrial disputation

Giang and Pheng (2011) and Langford, Handcock, Fellows and Gale (2014) state that the construction industry in developing nations is one of the leading industries whose growth is interconnected with all sectors of their national economy. This is also generally the first industry whose downturn is very much associated with the oncoming poor performance of an economy. The construction industry is essential for the planning, design, construction, maintenance and eventual demolition of the buildings and works which enable economic and social activities to be achieved. Basically a service industry, it obtains its inputs from various sectors of the economy with which it is intertwined in a complex manner. However, Datta (2000) notes that construction industries in most developing nations often fail to meet the needs of modern competitive businesses in the marketplace and rarely provide best value for clients and taxpayers. For instance, Mogalakwe (2008) indicates that the Botswana construction industry has become overstretched beyond its capacity, and perhaps this explains the influx of many Chinese-owned companies and foreign labour. For examples, at the Gaborone Central Business District (CBD), most mega projects in the area have been awarded to foreign controlled companies. Chinese-owned companies such as China Jiangsu and South African Murray and Roberts are some of the leading firms that have taken a large portion of the multi-million Pula projects currently being undertaken. Although the Chinese commitment and involvement in the construction industry provides a very important contribution to the economy of Botswana through job creation for unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled local labour, it has brought major challenges to the country's industrial relations system (Guliwe, 2009).

Like in most nations, the construction sector plays an important role in the social and economic development of Botswana. Palalani (2000) and Central Statistics Office (2013b) both note that in Botswana, the construction industry's contribution has been substantial given the history of the nation since its independence. Unlike many developing countries, which inherited some form of infrastructure from colonial governments, it is reasonable to say that Botswana received next to nothing. The construction industry in Botswana plays a very crucial role in the country's economy development especially in terms of its contribution to employment creation and income generation. According to the Central Statistics Office findings (Central Statistics Office, 2013b; Ssegwa, 2013), the construction industry in Botswana is the third largest private employer after manufacturing, wholesale and retail. The Minister for Finance and Development Planning proclaimed [in *The Budget Speech 2014*] that if the construction industry is harnessed, Botswana's economy will benefit from both jobs creation and income generation. Therefore, recognising the great contribution of the construction industry to economic diversification, employment creation, income generation, and poverty alleviation; the government of Botswana has been putting much effort and resources to promoting the development of the construction industry especially at the local level.

Palalani (2000) asserts that in Botswana, there have been some changes in the construction industry. For example, the annual contribution to GDP declined from the 1990s range between six and nine per cent to the levels of between four and seven per cent in the 2000s. Nevertheless, the GDP contribution of construction is still high when compared to some of the sub-Saharan countries. In 1999, the construction industry's value added activity, in current prices, stood at P 1,382 million (approximately US\$260 million). Employment in the sector was approximately 29,500 people, representing 20%

of the total employment in the private and parastatal sectors (excluding the government) (Central Statistics Office, 2000). Since the beginning of this century (2000), the overall contribution of the construction industry to the country's GDP has increased up to almost eight per cent from five per cent as of 31 August 2011 (Central Statistics Office, 2012). This rise will help curb unemployment, which is one of the major issues that the government is facing with an unemployment rate of 20% (Central Statistics Office, 2014) and the youth unemployment is currently twice the overall unemployment rate.

In his 2014 budget speech the Minister of Finance stated that the construction sector has been one of the fast growing sectors, with potential to create employment (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2014). However, it should be noted that a significant number of jobs are created during the construction of some big projects but only to be reduced when the projects are completed. Therefore, an individual's job in this sector is often transitory. Subsequently, a boom-bust cycle for the sector cannot lead to a long-term permanent reduction in the rate of unemployment in the economy. Only a steady stream of construction projects can serve to sustain employment.

Notwithstanding the size and socio-economic significance of the construction sector globally, issues relating to how employees are managed are not well understood (Dainty & Loosemore, 2013). Despite the fact that the construction industry is the third largest employer in Botswana, the construction industry is different from the other sectors because a majority of the projects are financed by taxpayer's funds (Yahya, 1997). Hence if the projects are not executed in a timely manner due to employment labour issues it has a greater impact on the economy. Yahya (1997) notes that while all sectors of the economy provide employment, the construction industry has an added benefit, in that it offers the first employment opportunity for the unskilled and the semi-skilled people. It

further provides a training opportunity for these first-time employees creating another opportunity of absorbing this category into the formal labour market.

3.3 Chapter Summary

Botswana has remained an island of political stability and sustained and rapid economic growth in Africa. The Botswana economy has consistently grown since independence in 1966. Botswana's impressive track record of good governance and economic growth has not been accompanied by high employment opportunities as would be expected in a booming economy. The economic instability around the world and the political instability in the neighbouring countries and the labour market have an impact on employees' perceptions on causes and forms of conflict in the workplaces. This is particularly in developing countries like Botswana; these changes have triggered employees' worries about their income, job security and relationships with managers and supervisors.

Unemployment remains high, and some Botswana have had to earn a living in the informal economy as vendors, walkers, 'bush mechanics' and other micro-scale business activities. The construction industry is strongly male-dominated industries where there are very few females working in this physically demanding activity. Hence, for Botswana the importance of construction industry in offering employment to the pool of unemployed youth and adults (e.g. especially those who have attained lower education or unskilled with lack of work experience) cannot be overemphasised. The next chapter will outline and justify the paradigm, methodology and method used to conduct this research in Botswana.

Chapter Four: Research Approach and Methods

4.0 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the pragmatism research methodology adopted and the relevant methods used in this study. The study seeks to examine and understand if and why there are differences in employees' perceptions of the causes and forms of conflict between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies in Botswana's construction industry. This study is a comparative research on which both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies are being examined on exactly the same criteria to see if there is any diversity of results either in terms of perceptions of the causes and forms of conflict.

The chapter is structured as follows: Section 4.1 discusses the nature of a research paradigm; Section 4.2 discusses the pragmatism research paradigm adopted in this study. Section 4.3 sets out the research design and discusses the sample selection, explains the data collection approach and types of data collected. Section 4.4 discusses the statistical methods used to analyse the data. Section 4.5 outlines briefly the ethical considerations for this study. Finally, Section 4.6 concludes the chapter.

4.1 Research Paradigm

Business and management researchers prefer to use one of the four major research philosophies: positivism, realism, interpretivism or pragmatism, when attempting to address their research problems, based on their beliefs regarding the nature of knowledge (ontology) and the advancement of knowledge (epistemology) (Cooper, Schindler, & Sun, 2006; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morgan &

Smircich, 1980; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). A researcher's choice of a particular philosophy embodies that individual's assumptions, perceptions and interpretation of the world (Saunders et al., 2012). These assumptions provide the ontological basis for the research strategy and the choice of method consistent with the strategy. Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, p. 13) define ontology broadly as "the ideas about the existence of and relationship between people, society and the world in general". Morgan and Smircich (1980) point out that an objective view on ontology asserts that social reality has an existence that is independent of social actors. It is a hard, concrete, real thing, and objective phenomenon that lends itself to accurate observation and measurement. While the subjective view differs because it treats social reality as a projection of human imagination. According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998, p. 5), epistemology is "the relationship of the knower to the known". This research will take an epistemological stance of pragmatism which embraces both objective and subjective points of view (Crotty, 1998; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Thus, from the epistemological stance of pragmatism, this research will follow the ontological assumption of "accepting the external reality and selecting the explanations that best produce desired outcomes" (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, p. 23).

According to Morgan and Smircich (1980) and Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) human beings, unlike animals or physical objects, are able to attach meanings to the events and phenomenon that surround them, and shape the world within their perceptions and experience about it. In the current study, the researcher adopts an approach which has both a subjective and an objective position in terms of its ontological and epistemological perspectives, as the study intends to explore the subjective meanings of employees' perceptions on the causes and forms of conflict that are objectively observable. The

researcher views knowledge as a construction based on the reality of the world where human beings experience and live (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

A research paradigm refers to the way in which the researcher examines a particular social phenomenon to gain an understanding of how the investigated parties interact with each other (Saunders, et al., 2012). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016) note that there are four paradigms, each of which views the world in a specific way and each deals with the research questions according to its own strengths. Positivism paradigm, bases itself on observable facts and assumptions in both time- and context-free generalisations (Cooper, et al., 2006). It uses quantitative methods and emphasises deductive logic to explore an objective reality. Another theoretical perspective mentioned in Crotty (1998) is Realism, which is divided into two forms: direct realism and critical realism. The former relies on experiences to describe reality, while critical realism argues that there is an intransitive reality that exists independently of our knowledge of it (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Kasi (2009) notes that interpretivism, adopts an empathetic stance and accepts multiple realities that are socially constructed. Pragmatism assumes generalisations to be contextual and focuses on the practical implications of research (Engel & Schutt, 2012). This study is based on pragmatism, and its justification is set out in the next section.

4.2 Pragmatism

According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) pragmatism is a set of ideas articulated by many philosophers, such as John Dewey (1859-1952), William James (1842-1910) and Charles Sanders Peirce (1839-1878). Pragmatism draws on many ideas, including employing *what works*, and uses diverse approaches. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) argue that while positivists and post-positivists perceive research as objective, interpretivists perceive research as being its polar opposite, as being subjective.

Pragmatism is based on epistemological issues that exist on a continuum, rather than around two opposing poles. Pragmatism pulls the two opposite poles to the centre, thus this study will use mixed methods, surveys and interviews to capture employees' perceptions on the causes and forms of conflict. Epistemologically, knowledge rests within subjective experience. The appreciation of world phenomena is reliant on the ability to understand the way in which human beings internally shape the world. Hoshmand (2003) suggests that pragmatism helps to shed light on how research approaches can be mixed fruitfully, and the aim is that the research approaches should be combined in ways that offer the best opportunities for answering important research questions. Pragmatists believe that knowledge is created from real situations and are concerned about serving researcher's purposes as appropriately as possible (Creswell, 2013; Crotty, 1998; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Rallis & Rossman, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) which is appropriate for this particular project as it seeks to understand the causes and forms of conflict as perceived by employees in the Botswana construction industry.

Pragmatism is associated with greater added value and contribution to knowledge than mono-method studies, particularly when it is appropriate to the research question (Creswell, 2008; Creswell et al., 2007; Davies, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Molina-Azorín, 2010; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, 2003). Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) argue that the combination of qualitative and quantitative data provides a more complete picture by noting trends and generalisations as well as in-depth knowledge of participants' perspectives. Creswell (2013) provides an example of a scenario in which the pragmatist approach can be used – where for instance, the researcher wants both to generalise the findings to a population, and to develop a detailed view of the meaning of a phenomenon or concept for individuals. Morgan (2007, p.73) notes that: “the great

strength of this pragmatic approach is its emphasis on the connection between epistemological concerns about the nature of the knowledge that we produce and technical concerns about the methods that we use to generate that knowledge". This scenario mirrors this research and supports the researcher's view that the approach adopted for this research is appropriate. Pragmatism recognises the significance of mixed methods studies for providing more holistic and in-depth perspective of the research problems (Davies, 2003; Pansiri, 2005).

Since this current study seeks to understand causes and forms of conflict, pragmatism is a useful approach to understanding the causes and forms of conflict from exploring the participants' experience from their own perspective and frame of mind and is an appropriate means of capturing employees' subjective views. Similarly, prior studies in HRM and management have used pragmatism to understand employees' perceptions and their impact on the businesses (Easterby-Smith, Malina & Yuan, 1995; Okpara & Wynn, 2007; Schweiger & Denisi, 1991; Woodrow & Guest, 2014). Also, the study acknowledges an objective reality. Actual conflict that arises in the Botswana construction industry is a real phenomenon that stymies economic development as discussed in the previous chapter. Hence, in order to understand employees' perspectives on causes of conflict in the Botswana construction industry, pragmatism is appropriate for use in this research.

4.2.1 Mixed Methods Approach

Numerous researchers concede that there are a number of reasons for combining quantitative and qualitative research methods (Bryman, 2006, 2007; Feilzer, 2010; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007; Jogulu & Pansiri, 2011; Morgan, 2007). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p. 17) note that mixed methods research is formally defined "as

the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study”. Mixed methods research involves the combined use of qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis, an approach which can enhance the findings beyond the capacity of either method independently (Creswell, 2013; Feilzer, 2010; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Woolley, 2008). For example, Woolley (2008) notes that quantitative and qualitative components can be considered *integrated* to the extent that these components are explicitly related to each other within a single study and in such a way as to be mutually illuminating, thereby producing findings that are greater than the sum of parts. Denzin (1978, p. 14) recommends the use of between-method triangulation, contending that by utilising mixed methods, “the bias inherent in any particular data source, investigators, and particularly method will be cancelled out when used in conjunction with other data sources, investigators, and methods”.

The goal of mixed methods research is to draw from the strengths and minimise the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative in single research study (Ivankova, Creswell & Stick, 2006; Johnson et al., 2007; Rallis & Rossman, 2003). Also, Jogulu and Pansiri (2011) indicate that triangulation will strengthen the findings, and as a result, mixed methods researchers can make better inferences by employing multiple techniques. With respect to the current study, it attempts to seek benefits of triangulation and complementarity.

In the current study mixed method approach is used, to triangulate the findings for example to cross-check the quantitative data against the qualitative data, and to complement the quantitative findings for example, to use the qualitative data to illustrate and elaborate the quantitative findings (Feilzer, 2010; Morgan, 2007). Mixed method

research is most suitable for this current study because it aims to understand respondents' lived experience, to examine the way respondents construct meaning in their lives by studying people in their natural context, to describe diverse respondents' experiences, and specifically to amplify respondents' voices. In order to generate data of appropriate range and depth, a mixed methods approach using both a questionnaire survey and in-depth face-to-face interviews was adopted. In the current study, survey questionnaires were distributed to a large sample of employees to provide a broad outline of patterns of conflict. Since the research seeks to capture a deep understanding on the causes and forms of conflict in the construction industry, the in-depth interviews provide quality information through interacting with the employees (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003). Denzin and Lincoln (2008) note that interviews give the respondents the opportunity to state in their own words how experiencing or witnessing the investigated issues impacted on them.

The mixed methods approach adopted in this study follows prior studies of HRM practices (Cassell, Nadin, Gray, & Clegg, 2002; Okpara & Wynn, 2007); employees perceptions on job insecurity and empowerment (Ellonen & Nätti, 2015; Greasley, Bryman, Dainty, Price, Soetanto & Kinget, 2005) and employees' perceptions of the organisation's commitment to employees and organisational citizenship behaviour (Shore & Wayne, 1993; Moorman, 1991; Moorman et al., 1993; Zohar & Polachek, 2014). The specific design of this research based on this mixed methods approach is outlined in the next section.

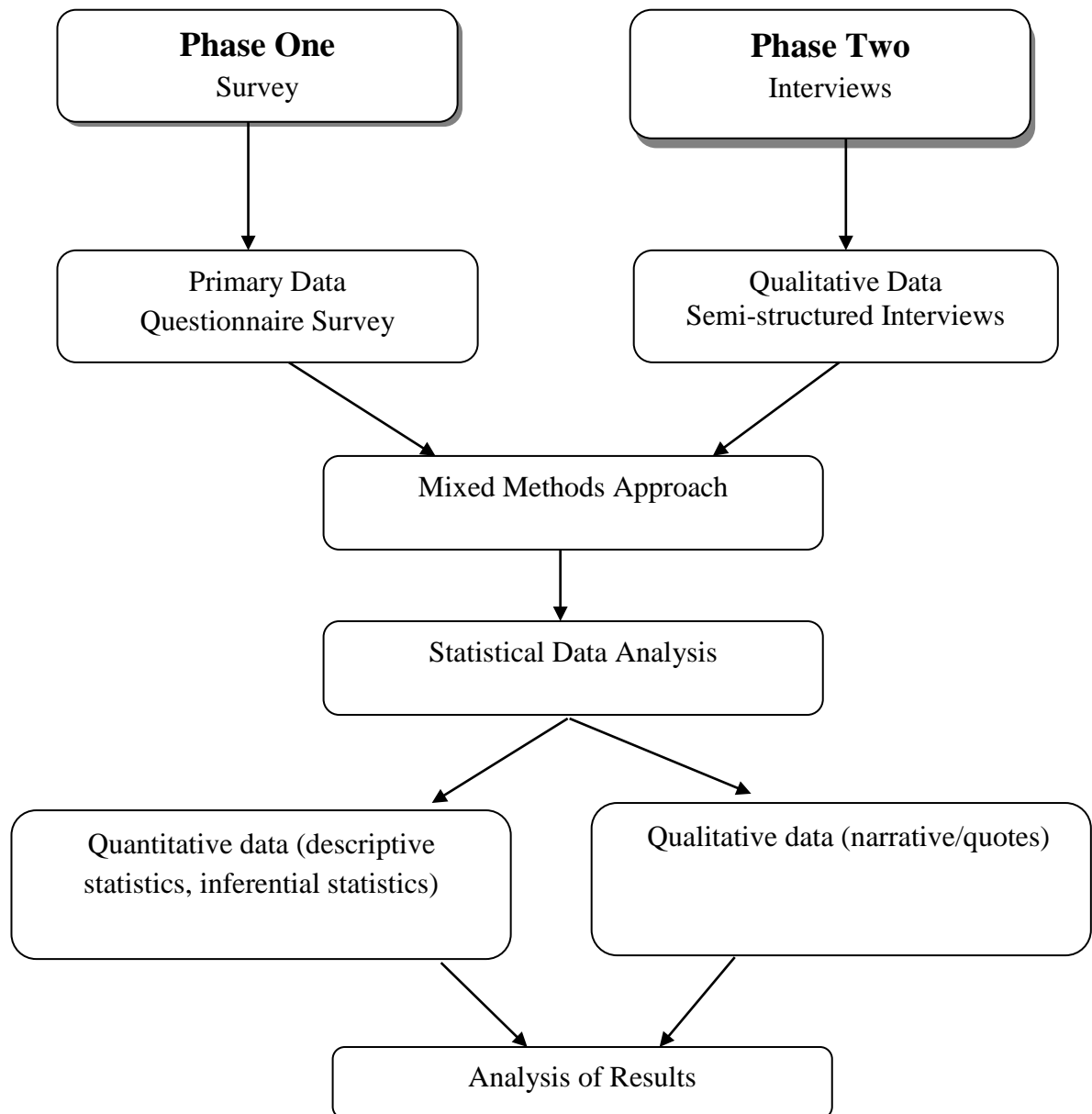
4.3 Research Design

Research design is defined as “procedures for collecting, analysing, interpreting, and reporting data in research studies” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 58). The use of a particular design for a research project depends on the scope, purpose and target population of the study, as well as the resources available to the researcher (Flick, 2014; Heppner, Kernis, Lakey, Campbell, Goldman, Davis & Cascio, 2008). Creswell and Plano Clark (2007, p. 118) note that a design with concurrent mixed methods data collection strategies has been employed to validate one form of data with the other form, to transform the data for comparison, or to address different types of questions. In this study, a concurrent quantitative-dominant mixed methods design is embraced as illustrated in Figure 4.1 with a survey, supported by interviews, to collect the empirical data. The purpose of this study is to use both numerical and narrative data to understand the same phenomenon, in order to provide a broad and complementary understanding of the industrial conflict in two different firm settings.

Heppner et al. (2008) suggest that exploratory research provides information regarding the current status and the characteristics of a particular phenomenon; this is usually exploratory in nature and determines the status of a particular area. Thus, this current study primarily applies exploratory research methods to explore the present status on causes and forms of conflict in the Botswana construction industry through surveys of employees’ perception in two types of firms. The main advantage of descriptive research is its usefulness in describing the occurrence and characteristics of the phenomena that is being studied, and will therefore be useful for developing remedial actions as input into managerial decision-making and government policy-making. The research design illustrated in Figure 4:1 provides the overall plan that guides this research work. The

mixed methods approach taken establishes a data set incorporating both quantitative and qualitative data that represents construction company employee's perspectives in different ways. These data sets complement one another, together providing a more complete picture of employees' perspectives that could be interpreted in relation to salient features of this study. In phase 1 the quantitative data on employees' perceptions will be collected using a survey and in phase 2 face-to-face interviews will be conducted. Subsequently, it is possible to match the statistical relationships originating from the two types of firms' quantitative data with subjective descriptions and explanations that are obtained from interviews. Details of the research collection are presented in the remaining part of this section.

Figure 4:1: Research design



4.3.1 Sampling Process

Saunders et al. (2012) note that the sampling process starts with identifying the survey population, the sampling frame, the sample size and the sampling method. The literature has largely focused on differences between foreign and domestic companies rather than multinational and national companies as it is typically not possible to identify domestic MNEs with the available data (Lu & Fox, 2001; Ma et al., 2015; Probst & Ekore, 2010).

The same approach is used in the present study. The task is not to examine all companies, but as many companies as possible to be able to get a sufficient understanding on whether there are differences on employees' perceptions on the causes and forms of conflict in domestic-owned compared to Chinese-owned companies.

The target population is construction companies in category E, as per the Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Board (PPADB) of January 2011. Category E represent those companies which are contracted on projects worth more than P14 million. In this category there are 20 companies, six are domestic- and eight Chinese-owned. The other six are either British-owned or South African-owned, and therefore not included in this research.

In this study 'purposive sampling', which is a non-probability sampling technique, was used. Purposive sampling starts with a purpose in mind and the sample is thus selected to include subjects of interest and exclude those that do not suit the purpose (Patton, 2002). Four domestic- and four Chinese-owned companies were selected for the research. All eight companies selected have employees working in plants located in Gaborone (Botswana's capital), Francistown and Palapye. These three cities were deliberately selected because most of the conflict reported in the newspapers occurred in these three cities and were also more easily accessible to the researcher. Also, these cities were selected because they were considered to have the largest concentration of both domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies and would enable an effective data distribution and collection process.

Random sampling was used to select the participants from the eight companies as it has the potential to reach more responses and increase the generalisability of the findings. Also, simple random sampling gives each case in the population an equal and

independent chance of being included in the sample (Saunders et al., 2016; Williamson, 2013). A sample size of 800 employees was chosen because it is similar to previous studies in HRM (Heskett, Jones, Loveman & Schlesinger, 2013; Pudelko, 2006), in order to induce greater confidence around the generalisability of the data collected. A larger sample also offers improved statistical power in that the detection of significant associations or differences in a statistical test is related to sample size (Loewenthal, 2001; Rowley, 2014).

4.3.2 Data Collection

Goddard and Melville (2004) note that data collection involves various methods of gathering data appropriate to answer the research questions of the study. Many methods are used in data collection they include survey, interview, questionnaire, telephonic, company report, people, internet, newspapers. Based on research questions, research purposes, and some practical issues (e.g. data availability and time constraints), this current study is designed to be a quantitative-dominant mixed methods research, in which qualitative and quantitative data are collected and analysed concurrently, but more emphasis is put on the latter.

Research instrument

Both the interviews and survey instruments used in this study were set up as a bilingual tool, in English and Setswana. The questionnaire was originally developed in English. It was subsequently translated into Setswana to correspond with the language in which data were being collected. The version in Setswana was translated by a Motswana scholar who obtained her bachelor degree (Languages) from University of Botswana. This conversion was independently checked and anomalies resolved by the principal supervisor. This was

done to ensure that there are no deviations in relation to language differences between the English and Setswana surveys and interviews. To enhance reliability and validity it is essential to ensure that the items translate effectively into both the language and the culture of the target audience, and that the intended meaning is functionally equivalent rather than merely literally identical across translations (Teune, 1990).

The questionnaire comprises three sections: Section A focuses on demographic characteristics. These variables are age, gender, educational level, and organisational and job tenure, and were collected in response to Mitchell's (1985, p. 196) argument that researchers should "actively try to conceptualise and measure those variables that may serve as potential confounds". Section B requires the respondents to express their views on causes of conflict, and Section C seeks the respondents' views on the means they are likely or not likely to use to express themselves during conflict. Sections B and C utilise the five-point Likert scale scoring of items that cover various causes of conflict as identified in the specific literature reviewed and adopted as set out in Appendix V. A questionnaire was compiled from relevant question items used successfully in previous research (See Appendix VI for the questionnaire in both English and Setswana). The structure of the questionnaire was guided by the conceptual framework (Figure 2.1).

To ensure that the questionnaire is appropriate for addressing issues in various cultural settings, it was necessary to modify the instrument to some degree, so the measures that have been adapted from previous studies were modified to suit the context of the current research. Measures of the various response styles were constructed using attitudinal 5-point Likert-scale questions in the questionnaire. The scoring scale for each item in questions 13-19 has a standard 5-point setting. The questions in Section B dealt with five different topic areas: perceptions on distribution of income as cause of conflict (e.g.

employees doing same job are not paid same salary); perceptions about job security as cause of conflict (e.g. employees can be fired at any time); perception in relation to how employees value importance of certain aspect in workplace (e.g. fair payment in wages/salary'); management and employee relationship (e.g. employees complaints are taken seriously); supervisors and employee interactions (e.g. supervisors inform workers in a timely manner about work changes); and employee perceptions of satisfaction levels with aspects of work (e.g. working conditions and environment).

Questions 13, 14, 16 and 17 (see Appendix VI) consisted of variables identified from the literature review that influence perception of employees on income distribution across different workplaces, with scale anchors running from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. Employees were asked to rank these factors using a five-point Likert scale (range: 5 = strongly disagree to 1 = strongly agree). In question 15 the scale anchors run from '1 = not important' to 5 = 'very important'; and in question 18 the scale anchors run from '5 = very dissatisfied' to 1 = 'very satisfied'. Likert-type scales are useful when measuring latent constructs – that is, characteristics of people such as attitudes, feelings, opinions, etc. (Foddy, 1994; Fowler, 2002; Punch, 2013).

In Section C, the deviant workplace behaviours (forms of conflict; see question 19) were measured using items adopted from Robinson and Bennett (1995) since this valid and reliable instrument is the one most frequently used. The behaviours included in this scale were derived from secondary sources; these scales are found in the literature that measure similar behaviours (e.g. Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Given the sensitive nature of these behaviours, many descriptions were modified in order to reduce socially desirable response bias; for instance, inoffensive sounding terms were employed where possible. The respondents were asked to rate both the importance and likelihood of

loss of each feature on 5-point scales response formats ranging from “very often” to “never”).

Lastly, question 20 was included to permit respondents to supply additional qualitative information or opinions on matters that might not have been covered in the questionnaire. Foddy (1994) and Punch (2013) note that close-ended questions limit the respondent to the set of alternatives being offered, while open-ended questions allow the respondent to express a view without that view being influenced by the researcher’s choice of (limiting) alternatives.

4.3.3 Pilot Study

Prior to the commencement of the research, the researcher conducted a pilot study in order to evaluate the clarity and comprehensiveness of the questionnaire, as well as of the feasibility of the survey as a whole. Cooper et al. (2006) state that a researcher should conduct a pilot study of data gathering tools before proceeding with the research. A pilot test helps in identifying problems in research methodology and data gathering techniques. Collins and Hussey (2003) and Noor (2008) argue that pilot survey tests are necessary in order to demonstrate the methodological rigour of a questionnaire. A pilot study was conducted among volunteers from the target population as the basis for confirming the applicability and dependability of the research questions and data collection techniques. Ten employees (five from domestic-owned companies and five from Chinese-owned companies) participated in the pilot study. Pilot study participants had the same subject characteristics and had knowledge of the research purpose, as the respondents and participants are construction industry employees. The process of conducting the pilot study was a valuable experience in that it highlighted the inherent challenges of recruiting suitable and willing participants for such a sensitive research topic. Data for the pilot

study was excluded from the results provided in this dissertation, but are available from the author upon request. Following the pilot, no changes to the questionnaire were deemed necessary.

4.3.4 Phase 1 Survey

In Phase 1, as displayed in Figure 4:1, a self-administered questionnaire was used for collecting quantitative data. Tichhurst and Veal (1999) state that the objective of a survey questionnaire is to seek the perspectives of the broader population of the organisation. Bryman (2003, 2007) and Rowley (2014) affirm that the strength of such a detached approach is the avoidance of researcher involvement, guarding against biasing the research and ensuring objectivity. The question structure for the questionnaire was intentionally designed to provide respondents with a question sequence that was easy to understand. Such a design not only reduces the incidence of non-response; it can also lead to more accurate responses. The use of a hand-delivered and collected paper-based survey was more likely to attract attention and interest of the population in this sample size; as a result respondents would not incur any costs or waste any time going to the post offices to return the questionnaires; nor would they need to use email, which would possibly have been difficult for the majority of the targeted respondents (Boddy, 2014; Buchanan, 2008; Lovelock, Stiff, Cullwick & Kaufman, 1976; Okpara & Kabongo, 2011; Steele, Bourke, Luloff, Liao, Theodori, & Krannich, 2001; Stover & Stone, 1974). Moreover, there were no rewards offered.

Data collection procedures for survey

The researcher travelled to Botswana and spent six months collecting data. Survey data was collected from January to April 2014. A week prior to commencing data collection, the researcher met with each of the company's management. The purpose of the meetings

was to inform management that the researcher was ready to collect data and share relevant documentation that confirmed the research was legitimate. In order to collect data, the researcher visited the companies that had agreed to participate and provided the management with copies of the questionnaire and accompanying documents (Appendices II, II and IV). Initially, the researcher contacted 14 companies to see if the companies would be interested in allowing their employees to participate in the study. Out of the 14 companies, eight responded positively to the request. The researcher only sought permission to stand outside the construction sites and the company management would not be involved in the research, in order to limit the employer's influence on how participants would respond. The management did not request for any of research instruments for their records, they just verified that the researcher was conducting legitimate research.

The researcher spent seven days at each of the eight construction sites. The researcher distributed the questionnaire during the first day of visit to the construction sites from 6 o'clock in the morning to 5 o'clock in the evening. The researcher distributed the Plain Language Statement (see Appendix II), explained the purpose of the study and noted that participation was voluntary. The distribution of the questionnaire was conducted during varying time periods outside the construction sites in order to avoid interfering with employees' work. Targeted questionnaire distribution times were early morning before employees started work, during tea breaks, during lunch time, and after working hours. Following distribution, the researcher returned to collect completed questionnaires during the week; the time spent collecting these varied from each construction site depending on the number of employees that were participating in the survey.

Table 4:1: Questionnaire distribution and response

Construction site	Questionnaire distributed	Questionnaire returned	Not returned	Unusable
Domestic-owned companies				
Palapye	50	50	-	2
Gaborone	100	88	12	5
Francistown	150	146	4	12
Gaborone	100	91	9	12
Total	400	375	25	31
Chinese-owned companies				
Gaborone	100	83	17	11
Gaborone	100	77	23	10
Francistown	100	80	20	8
Palapye	100	75	25	13
Total	400	315	85	42

Questionnaire response rate

The results of the completed questionnaires and the response statistics are shown in Table 4:1. A total of 800 copies of the questionnaires were distributed across one construction site for each of the eight companies that participated in this study. For confidentiality, these companies will be referred to as domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies. Of the 800 questionnaires distributed 690 of them were filled in and returned. Of the 690 completed questionnaires only 617 had been answered fully and were usable, leading to a 77% response rate from the 800 distributed. Some of the factors that might have contributed to a strong response rate in this study could be that respondents were invited to complete surveys in private, away from the organisational settings, where respondents were free to participate and also that the researcher was available to collect the questionnaires in person. This study response rate compares favourably to those reported in other related studies in Botswana and other developing countries (e.g. Kasvosve et al., 2014, 79%; Kwok Wai Wong & HQ Lin, 2014, 77%; Moeti-Lysson & Ongori, 2011, 83%; Newman, Miao, Hofman & Zhu, 2016, 87%; Okpara & Kabongo, 2011, 80%; Okpara & Wynn, 2007, 69%; Phatshwane et al., 2014, 88%; Pansiri & Temtime, 2008, 92%; Gagoitsepe & Pansiri, 2012, 93%; Kealesitse & Kabama, 2012, 75%).

4.3.5 Phase 2 Interviews

Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004) point out that a decision to work with qualitative data is linked to the type of inquiry that a researcher conducts. Investigating the social impact of a phenomenon requires data that can only be acquired by listening to those affected by the phenomenon being investigated. Interviews were conducted not only to gain answers to the set questions, but also to provide the opportunity to delve further into issues during the two-way interaction and discussion so as to gain a better understanding of the various aspects of the phenomenon that was studied. Akorsu and Cooke (2011) note that meanings are constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting. Also, Grint (1998) notes that individuals observe and interpret the environment from their own standpoints, hence qualitative researchers tend to use open-ended questions so that participants can express their views. Semi-structured/focused interviews are also more flexible and allow the interviewer and interviewee to engage in normal dialogue, which could lead to deeper insight into the topic. In this current study the interviews were conducted using a semi-structured interview guide.

Semi-structured interviews were selected as the means of data collection because they are well suited for the exploration of the perceptions and opinions of respondents regarding employees' perceptions on the causes of conflict and the deviant workplace behaviours that employees engage in. Myers and Newman (2007) note that the wording and sequence of the questions in a semi-structured interview should be exactly the same for each respondent; hence this assures that any differences in the answers are due to differences among the respondents rather than in the questions asked. Semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to gain fuller and more meaningful information on the views of the respondents and have been used in previous HRM and management research (Akorsu &

Cooke, 2011; Bourne, Neely, Platts, & Mills, 2002; Cooke, 2014; Crotty, 1998; Greasley et al., 2005; Horton, Macve, & Struyven, 2004; Saunders et al., 2012). Also, Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2010) note that perhaps more importantly, face-to-face interview contact with a researcher can motivate respondents to participate who would otherwise not bother with a questionnaire. Myers and Newman (2007) caution that since the interviewer is a complete stranger, there is possible chance to be a concern on the part of the interviewee with regard to how much the interviewer can be trusted. This means that the interviewee may choose not to divulge information that he or she considers to be “sensitive”. If this is potentially important information for the research, the data gathering remains incomplete.

In this current study, given the nature of the subject under review, it would have been unlikely that respondents gave answers that they thought the researcher wanted to hear as opposed to expressing their true feelings. The interview group were highly self-selected, therefore more likely to have strong individual opinions. They were a very small group - again self-selected for determination/courage/strength of belief. The group was aware of the interviewer’s impartial stance on the issues - again a factor to obviate the suspicion that the interviewer was being told what the interviewees believed she wanted to hear as she is not related to the companies.

Procedure for interviews

A flyer (see Appendix IV) that explained the purpose of the study and requested the researcher permission to collect data was given out to the construction employees at the eight company construction sites. The flyer asked potential respondents whether they were willing to participate in an interview. Thus, interview participants were self-selected. The flyer was distributed at the same time, but independently, of the survey questionnaire. A total of 26 respondents indicated their preparedness for this interview. Follow-up

contact was made with interested participants using the contact details they had provided in the flyer, and arrangements were made for in-depth interviews at their indicated convenient dates and times. Participants were contacted two weeks prior to the in-depth interview dates to re-confirm their availability plan for unexpected contingencies. Out of the 26 respondents who showed initial interest, only 15 finally participated in the interview. Of the 11 who were not interviewed, five (5) had been transferred to different working locations, making it impossible to interview them; the remaining six (6) finally declined to be interviewed. For those who were to participate in the interview the Plain Language Statement (see Appendix II) and the consent form (see Appendix III) were sent. Participants then signed and returned the consent form (Creswell, Hanson, Plano, & Morales, 2007).

The interviews took place on Saturdays, Sundays and Public holidays between 10:00 a.m. and 3:00 p.m. with mutual consideration for both the interviewer's and the interviewee's time. The interviews were held at the locations convenient for the participants. The majority of participants wanted to meet outside their workplace. Preferred places were cafés, sports recreation places in the surrounding areas and private residences. Regardless of interview-location, the interview procedure was identical.

To collect data from the participants as effectively and efficiently as possible, the interviews were conducted in mostly done in Setswana and a few in English (most participants were Batswana and few were Zimbabweans). Prior to starting the interviews, the researcher exchanged greetings with each participant and provided an explanation of how the interview would be conducted. Participant interviews were conducted using a semi-structured or semi-focused format. See Appendix VI for the questions asked of the participants. The participants were provided with a one-page summary data sheet of the

survey results from the questionnaire and the last question asked each participant to reflect on the survey results. This set of interview questions ensured consistency in the investigation especially when referring to particular topics.

All participants had raised objections to being recorded; hence data were collected during the interviews by the researcher making detailed notes as the interview was in progress. These notes were then written up within 24 hours of the interview and then later used as the basis for analysis. The shortest interview lasted 45 minutes while the longest interview lasted 90 minutes. A week after the interviews, the researcher made appointments with the interviewees to provide them with the opportunity to confirm whether their views and responses have been captured accurately. No changes or withdrawal of statements were requested at that time.

The goal of member checking in this study was to confirm and validate the data collection process (Merriam, 1998). In addition, Yin (2009) noted that the strategy in ensuring validity in qualitative research is through 'member check' by allowing the participants to provide feedback to the interpretation of the data in case of misrepresentation of contents or opportunity to fine-tune original ideas. McNiff (2013) suggests that to return transcripts to participants is sound research practice as it increases the validity of the findings because participants are able to confirm that they have said what they meant, or not, and it gives them the option to withdraw statements with which they are not comfortable. It is a strategy based on the philosophy of participation, collaboration and openness and therefore appeared to be appropriate for this study.

4.4 Data Analysis

The data processing stage includes the coding and editing of data to eliminate or at least reduce the incidence of invalid or missing data. This process also involves checking the data for respondent eligibility and consistency in classification. Field (2013) and Rowley (2014) emphasise that SPSS can help the researcher to check and verify data and to generate descriptive statistics and charts, graphs to describe and explore the data and also offers a range of statistics for exploring relationships between variables. All responses were deliberately coded in numerical form because data analysis was to be performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The current (at the time) version of SPSS 21.0 was used to address all the research questions. The quantitative data collected was coded and entered into SPSS software and analysed using descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, such as a T-test and ANOVA.

Independent sample t-test

Independent sample t-tests are often used to determine whether or not a statistically significant difference between two sets of means exist. In this study, independent sample t-tests were used to determine whether a significant difference in employees' perceived causes of conflict exist between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies. An independent-sample t-test was conducted, since it was used to compare the mean scores of two different groups of companies (Pallant, 2010). Conducting the t-tests requires that the normality of the data is not violated. Therefore, to test the normality of the distribution for the data, Shapiro-Wilk's and K-S Lilliefors test for normality was conducted. The t-test has been widely used by other researchers in management and HRM who conducted comparative studies (Cheng & Chan, 2008; Wong, Wong, Ngo, & Lui, 2005; Stevens, 1999).

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to assess relationships between company and employee characteristics, and causes of conflict items. ANOVA was used to test for significant differences between the means of employees in the domestic-owned companies and employees in the Chinese-owned companies. Other researchers in HRM and management have conducted similar studies in different areas and used ANOVA to determine whether significant differences between variables existed in the ways in which respondents perceived certain specific areas of interest (Van Zyl & Roodt, 2003; Van Rensburg & Roodt, 2005; Isaiah & Nenty, 2012).

Multiple regressions

Multiple regression is basically an extension of bivariate regression to include two or more independent variables (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013). Multiple regression provides information on the impact of an independent variable on the dependent variable whilst simultaneously controlling for the effects of other independent variables (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011). Multiple linear regressions were used to analyse the moderating effect of causes and forms of conflict. This method of multiple regression was employed because it was impossible to predict with any degree of confidence whether any single cause of conflict would exert a greater influence over the relationship between causes of conflict and deviant workplace behaviours. The following model is developed to show the relationship between causes and forms of conflict, the three various forms of conflict (deviant workplace behaviours), sabotage, production deviance and theft have been shown in the previous studies to be ways that employees use as retaliation methods. Based on these studies, the following three equation model has been set up:

$$Y (\textit{Sabotage}) = a_o + a_1ID + a_2 JS + a_3MC + \varepsilon_1 \quad (\text{Eq 1})$$

$$Y (\textit{Production deviance}) = b_o + b_1ID + b_2 JS + b_3MC + \varepsilon_2 \quad (\text{Eq 2})$$

$$Y (\textit{Theft}) = c_o + c_1ID + c_2 JS + c_3MC + \varepsilon_3 \quad (\text{Eq 3})$$

Where: a_o, b_o, c_o = Constant terms

a_1, b_1, c_1 = Regression coefficients

ID = Income distribution

JS = Job security

MC = Managerial control

$\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_3$ = Error terms

The above estimation model was employed to examine the impact of cause of conflict on forms of conflict. Where Y is alternatively sabotage, production deviance and theft, as a measure of forms of conflict. The independent variables that represent cause of conflict are income distribution (ID), job security (JS) and managerial control (MC).

Narrative analysis

To include verbatim quotations from research participants has become an effective standard practice in much qualitative social research, and some research funders now expect final reports to include direct quotations (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, Muchiri, Cooksey, Milia, & Walumbwa, 2011). Consistent with the view of these researchers, some actual quotes, broadly indicative of the opinions of the majority of the interviewees, were used as a way to capture the participants' thoughts.

4.5 Ethical Considerations

Robson (2002) argues that an essential component of any research is that the exercise has to be ethical. Ethics clearance was first sought from the University of Ballarat's Human

Research Ethics Committee (see Appendix I). In this respect, the researcher has to follow an approach that is considerate of the interests and concerns of those taking part in the research and those likely to be affected by the study. Before the survey and interviews were conducted the participants were informed about the purpose of the research project, the data collection methods used, high regard for ethical standards the researcher held, and an explanation was provided through the informed consent process (Shank, 2006).

The researcher provided a letter to participants explaining the study to overcome their reservations about providing sensitive and confidential information. Participants were assured of the privacy of their information, and that their identities would not be revealed. It was made clear that their contribution was voluntary and they had full authority to refuse or to withdraw if they changed their mind about participating. The demographic details given during the interviews allowed the researcher to assign responses to appropriate groups for data analysis while at the same time concealing/protecting the identity of the respondents. This also contributed to the anonymity of the respondents and to the maintenance of complete confidentiality. Once the data was completely analysed, the questionnaires were kept securely. The data is to be deleted five years after date of collection.

4.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the philosophical issues and presented the methodology that underpins the research, the research methods, data collection and data analyses techniques used. The preferred research philosophy was that approach described as being pragmatic, and within its parameters, a mixed methods approach involving quantitative and qualitative data was chosen. Pragmatism allows the usage of mixed methods that combines quantitative and qualitative methods. Hence the use of mixed methods research

seems to be more suitable to explore the objective and research questions of this study that is to find out if there are any differences on what employees in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies perceive to be causes and forms of conflict in the workplace, than relying on single method. The next chapter will present both the quantitative and qualitative results.

Chapter Five: Findings

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the questionnaire and interviews. The reporting of findings in this chapter is consistent (or congruent) with the study's conceptual framework and research model, which are both underpinned by pragmatism methodology. The reporting intertwines the quantitative data (questionnaire) with the qualitative data (interviews). For quantitative data analysis, both descriptive and inferential statistics were used. Firstly, statements used to assess income distribution, job security and managerial control were cross tabulated and presented to show the distribution of the sample in the different company ownership based on demographic characteristics. Qualitative data was based on employees' accounts of their experiences, the ways in which they explained these accounts through their subjective interpretations, and how they related these accounts to constructions of the social world in which they live. The researcher opted to use narrative analysis as compared to other coding methods, as the intention was not to fragment data through coding but rather to use actual narratives, descriptions and quotations when analysing and reporting the data so as to maintain the original meanings as stated by the respondents. The interviews, as reported, provide deep understanding of perceptions identified in the questionnaire.

The chapter's findings begin with Section 5.1 which presents the profiles of respondents to the questionnaire and interviewees. Section 5.2 reports on the reliability and validity tests of the survey. Section 5.3 then reports on the findings on income distribution, followed by Section 5.4 on job security, Section 5.5 on managerial control, Section 5.6 on forms of conflict. Section 5.7 is the penultimate section that reports on the relationship

between income distribution, job security, managerial control and the forms of conflict inherent in these relationships. The chapter closes in Section 5.8 with a summary.

5.1 Profile of the Respondents

5.1.1 Profile of the Questionnaire Respondents

Table 5-1 presents demographic characteristics of the respondents. The construction industry is a male dominated sector. Consequently, this is reflected by a significant difference in the number of males and females respondents in both types of company ownership. Apart from Botswana nationals making up a large proportion of the samples in both domestic-owned (95%) and Chinese-owned companies (80%), there is a significant difference between the company ownerships when considering the Zimbabwe nationals, whose number is higher in Chinese-owned companies (19%) than in domestic-owned companies (5%). Based on age, the majority of employees in domestic-owned companies are 36 years and older whereas in Chinese-owned companies the majority of employees are in the 26-30 year age range. In relation to educational level, there are more tertiary educated (42%) employees in domestic-owned companies and more secondary educated (73%) employees in Chinese-owned companies. Based on marital status, the majority of employees in both types of companies are 'single'. Employment status results from the questionnaire revealed that 32% of domestic-owned employees are permanent, while there were no permanent employees in Chinese-owned companies. Expansion of Table 5-1 into detailed bar graphs is set out in Appendix VIII.

Table 5-1: Profile of the questionnaire respondents

Characteristics		Ownership			
		Domestic-owned		Chinese-owned	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Gender	Male	244	71	201	74
	Female	100	29	72	26
Nationality	Motswana	325	95	218	80
	Zimbabwean	18	5	53	19
	Zambian	1	0	2	1
Age	20-25	84	24	72	26
	26-30	78	23	102	37
	31-35	82	23	68	26
	36-40	41	12	11	4
	41+	59	10	20	7
Education	Primary	54	16	23	8
	Secondary	146	42	199	73
	Tertiary	104	30	38	14
	Vocational	36	11	11	4
	None	4	1	2	1
Marital status	Single	242	70	200	73
	Married	92	27	67	24
	Divorced	7	2	4	2
	Widowed	3	1	2	1
Employment status	Permanent	115	32	0	0
	Contract	141	42	133	48
	Temporary	88	26	140	52
Monthly income	1500 or less	129	38	137	50
	1501- 3000	91	27	94	34
	3001-5000	42	12	19	7
	5001-7500	34	10	8	3
	7500+	48	14	15	6
Number of dependents	0-2	158	46	128	47
	3-5	138	40	113	40
	6-9	34	10	22	8
	9-11	10	3	7	3
	13+	4	1	3	1
Hours worked per day	6-8	154	45	58	21
	9-11	187	54	213	78
	12+	2	1	2	1
Days worked per week	5	177	51	99	36
	6	38	26	111	41
	7	129	38	63	23
Duration worked	Less than 1	97	28	97	36
	≥1<4	131	38	130	47
	4-9	57	17	36	13
	10+	59	17	10	4

5.1.2 Profile of the Interviewed Respondents

Table 5-2 presents demographic characteristics of the 15 interview respondents. The interviewees were drawn from six companies, 47% (7) from domestic-owned companies and 53% (8) Chinese-owned companies. The interviewees included among others an accountant, cleaners, driver, bricklayers and quantity surveyors. The sample size was made up of 60% (9) men and 40% (6) women. The employees' level of education ranged from a master's degree in engineering to the minimum of primary education. Although most employees (8) were in their mid-to-late 30s, the ages of employees ranged from 29 to 55 years old. Tenure of employment ranged from ten months to 16 years.

Comparing known demographics to those of the population, it appears that the sample was representative of the construction worker population. For example, it has been alluded in Chapter 3 that the construction industry is a male dominant industry, hence a small percentage of the employees are females. Also revealed in this population is the high unemployment among employees, especially within the youth which constitute a larger number of those who are either employed temporarily in most of the service sector, (e.g. construction, retail and wholesalers and tourism), or a currently looking for jobs in construction. This is consistent with the demographics of the interviewees' profile and the survey, which reflect a high level of temporary employment status. The full complete set of interview detailed notes, from which the quotations and interview discussions in this chapter are based on, can be viewed in the accompanying CD attached to this thesis.

Table 5-2: Profile of the interviewees

Domestic-owned companies								
Respondents	R1	R2*	R3	R4	R5*	R6*	R7	
Gender	Male	Female	Female	Male	Male	Female	Male	
Age	55	36	42	42	39	34	39	
Nationality	Motswana	Motswana	Motswana	Motswana	Motswana	Motswana	Zimbabwean	
Education	Tertiary	Secondary	Primary	Vocational	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	
Position	Accountant	Cleaner	Cleaner	Carpenter	Labourer	Labourer	Quantity Surveyor	
Salary (Pula)/month	+20000	1100	1000	2500	1500	1000	+30000	
Experience	20 years	5 years	5 years	12 years	6 years	2 years	12 years	
Tenure	16 years	3 years	2 years	5 years	4 years	1 year	7 years	

Chinese-owned companies								
Respondents	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12*	R13	R14	R15
Gender	Female	Male	Female	Male	Male	Female	Male	Male
Age	29	40	30	30	49	38	35	38
Nationality	Motswana	Zimbabwean	Motswana	Motswana	Zimbabwean	Motswana	Zimbabwean	Zimbabwean
Education	Secondary	Vocational	Secondary	Primary	Tertiary	Secondary	Secondary	Secondary
Position	Storekeeper	Builder	Receptionist	Labourer	Quantity Surveyor	Cleaner	Driver	Plumber
Salary (Pula)/month	1500	1500-2500	1200	1500-2000	+27000	1000	1800	6500
Experience	2 years	12 years	1.4 years	3 years	10 years	10 years	8years	10 years
Tenure	1 year	2 years	10 months	2 years	5 years	5 months	4 years	4 years

(*) denotes those who have worked for both types of companies

5.2 Reliability and Validity Tests

Reliability is concerned with the question of whether the results of a study are repeatable. It requires that different researchers, or the same research on different occasions, using the same methods, can obtain the same results as those of a prior study (Bryman & Bell, 2015; LeCompte & Goetz, 1982; Ndubisi, 2012). The reliability analysis tests the research instrument (questionnaire) consistency and stability over a variety of conditions (Ndubisi, 2012). Bryman and Bell (2015) note that reliability term is commonly used in relation to the question of whether or not the measures that are devised for the concept in business and management (such as teamworking, employee motivation) are consistent. Further, Kerlinger (1986) notes that a valid instrument is one that measures what the researcher intends to measure during a study. The content validity of the instrument used in this study is based on the fact that most of the instrument items have been used in previous studies (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Klotz & Buckley, 2013; Loewen et al.,

2013; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Spector et al., 2006). Although researchers suggest 0.7 is acceptable, a Cronbach's alpha value more than 0.6 is also regarded as a satisfactory cut-off (Gliem & Gliem, 2003; Hair, Bush, & Ortinau, 2000; Sekaran, 2006). The results of the reliability test for the measures, as presented in Table 5-3 suggests that all measures in this study are reliable.

Table 5-3: Reliability statistics

	No of Items	Cronbach's alpha value	Mean
Causes of conflict			
Income distribution	6	0.636	3.534
Job security	6	0.644	3.378
Managerial control			
Management	6	0.658	3.080
Supervisors	6	0.882	2.666
Forms of conflict			
Sabotage	5	.829	3.563
Production deviance	4	.771	2.254
Theft	4	.840	2.473

5.3 Income Distribution

This section presents results in relation to the first sub-question of the study as to whether there are any differences regarding income distribution as one of the causes of conflict, between domestic-owned companies and Chinese-owned companies. Based on a comparative analysis (see Table 5-4 and Table 5-5), the respondents in both types of companies do share the same sentiments, but those in Chinese-owned companies endorse the statement significantly more than those in the domestic sample only on two income distribution statements; salary is one of the main causes of dispute, 82% of respondents in Chinese-owned companies strongly agree or agree (mean 4.22) and 73% of the respondents in domestic-owned companies strongly agree or agree (mean 3.93), ($t = -3.679$; $p < .05$). The comparative analysis on the statement 'employees doing same job are not paid same salary' indicated that 58% of the respondents from domestic-owned strongly agree or agree (mean 3.59) and 77% from Chinese-owned companies (mean

3.91), ($t = -3.530$; $p < .05$) strongly agree or agree with the statement. Therefore, based on these results there are statistically significant differences between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies on distribution of income statements; with ‘salary is the main cause of dispute’ and ‘employees doing same job but not paid same salary’ at the level of five per cent. Also, the results reveal that there is no statistical difference in relation to sex in both types of companies. The t-test results also demonstrate that there are no statistically significant differences between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies on employees’ perceptions in relation to the following statements: ‘salaries are low when compared to other similar companies’, ‘employees are not paid overtime’ and ‘management pays fairly’.

Table 5-4: Responses on income distribution: domestic- and Chinese-owned

	Domestic-owned companies						Chinese-owned companies					
	Mean	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Salary is the main cause of dispute	3.93	32	41	16	9	2	4.22	48	34	11	7	0
Salaries low when compared to similar companies	4.01	38	40	11	9	2	4.02	40	37	11	10	2
Employees doing same job are not paid same salary	3.59	27	31	19	19	4	3.91	31	46	8	14	2
Employees are not paid overtime	2.99	37	11	11	15	26	3.11	39	5	17	22	17
Management pays fairly	2.77	30	18	17	10	25	2.91	3	41	18	20	18

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (agree) to 1 (strongly disagree)

Table 5-5: T-test -Income distribution and demographic characteristics

	Income distribution									
	Salary is the main cause of dispute		Salary very low when compared to similar companies		Employees doing same job are not paid same salary		Employees not paid overtime		Management pays fairly	
	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T
Sex	4.14	-1.802	4.03	.501	3.68	-1.531	3.07	.867	2.85	.578
Ownership	3.93		3.99		3.82		2.98		2.79	
	4.22	-3.679*	4.01	-.079	3.59	-	2.99	-1.229	2.77	-1.399
			4.01		3.91	3.530*	3.11		2.91	

Note: (*) means there is significance; $p < .05$

Further assessment via interviews was undertaken to see whether there could be a link regarding employee demographic characteristics and their perception of income distribution as main cause of conflict. The following parts to this Sections 5.2 present the quantitative results followed by the qualitative results. Views shared during the interviews across the two types of companies will be used to elaborate why employees may perceive income distribution as a cause of conflict.

Education

The education demographic in Table 5-6 indicates that those employees who have attained primary and secondary education level constitute a higher proportion of respondents who maintain that income distribution is one of the causes of conflict. On the statement salary as a cause of dispute, the means show statistically significant differences between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies (4.37; 3.99) and (4.00; 4.30) respectively, ($F= 8.056$, $p < .05$). On the statement of employees doing the same jobs but not being paid the same salary, the means are statistically different between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies (2.96; 2.99) and (3.11; 3.27) respectively, ($F= 3.859$, $p < .05$). It can be observed that the respondents who mostly agree with the above statements are more prevalent in the group with the lowest level of education (primary and secondary school) as compared to those with tertiary education.

Table 5-6: Income distribution based on education level: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

	Domestic-owned companies					Chinese-owned companies				
	Primary	Secondary	Vocational	Tertiary	None	Primary	Secondary	Vocational	Tertiary	None
Salary is the main cause of dispute	4.37	3.99	3.57	4.08	4.25	4.00*	4.30*	3.95	4.27	3.50
Salaries low when compared to similar companies	4.22	3.92	3.98	4.06	5.00	3.65*	4.08*	3.89	4.09*	4.00
Employees doing same jobs but pay differs	2.96	2.99	2.94	3.08	3.25	2.70*	3.11*	3.24	3.27*	5.00
Employees not paid overtime	2.85	2.86	2.52	3.06	2.00	3.22	2.96	2.63	2.64	1.00
Management pays fairly	2.09	2.43	3.48	3.83	4.50	2.35	2.49	3.76	4.36	4.50

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (Strongly agree) to 1 (Strongly disagree)

Table 5-7 results illustrate that all interviewees from Chinese-owned companies are of the view that employers pay employees based on acquired educational level instead of looking at the output, despite the job being low skilled. This common view shared may indicate that interviewees do understand that they do not need to be paid same as managers or supervisors. In certain circumstances, interviewees felt that others were paid more doing the same tasks, hence this leads to conflict as they do not understand the criteria used. In domestic-owned companies, six interviewees agree that education level is a key factor when deciding payment. One interviewee (R1) on the other hand, did not agree that employers paid wages based on education; his argument is that in most cases those employees with low education levels lack understanding, hence they always perceive that they are not paid well due to their low level of education and do not take other things into consideration.

Table 5-7: Interviewees responses based on education level: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies				Total	
Primary /secondary		Vocational/Tertiary		Primary /secondary		Vocational/Tertiary			
Agree	Disagree	Agree	disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
4	-	2	1	6	-	2	-	14	1

Almost all of the interviewees shared views which are more or less similar to the ones presented below. This particular quote comes from an employee who has worked in both types of companies:

Both domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies do not pay their workers well especially if you are not that smart (laughing). I am of the view that both types of companies only pay good wages to workers with higher qualifications and have worked in the company for donkey years. I think there is a big gap in wages between employees with qualifications and those with no qualifications. So having looked at the results, I am not surprised. Those who disagree with the statement could do so because they may be the individuals having higher educational qualification and training and possess certificates, diplomas and degrees.
(R5)

Based on both interviewees and survey respondents, majority of those who have attained lower education almost consistently perceive that income disparity is a cause of conflict. It is evident from the above quote that all employees share the perception that salary is greatly influenced by ones' educational status and overall understanding of reward system of the company. R3, who works in a domestic-owned company, views that those of low education think that they are just paid less despite the hard work and those who possess high education are favoured by policies, hence rewarded more. R3 views may be said to be indirectly confirming the views shared by R12 who works for a Chinese-owned company. R12 is of the view that in most cases employees are compensated based on their qualifications,

but also point out that since construction is more labour intense, the number of hours worked also determine how much one earns.

Therefore, based on these views, it can be concluded that in both types of companies those employees who possess lower educational level are of the perception that income distribution is a cause of conflict. The findings of the survey and the interviews suggest those who possess low educational qualifications tend to perceive that what they earn does not equate to the amount of effort put in their jobs. They associate their rewards to be measured based on educational level rather than output.

Accordingly, the qualitative views in this case may be said to support the quantitative results as to why those respondents who possess low education qualification mostly perceive that salary is a cause of conflict.

Income level

An analysis based on income demographic in both types of companies indicates that employees who earn less than P 1,501 constitute a higher proportion of respondents who strongly agree/agree that 'salary is the main cause of dispute'. Table 5-8 shows that the means are significantly different between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies (4.12; 4.27), ($F=7.534$; $p<0.5$). It can be observed that respondents who mostly agree with the statement that 'employees doing same jobs but pay differs' are more prevalent in the groups that earn P 1,500 or less as compared to the other two groups, means (3.05; 3.40), ($F= 3.503$; $p<.05$) strongly agree or agree. The overall results indicate that those whose earnings are less than P 3,000 strongly agree or agree that income distribution is a cause of conflict.

Table 5-8: Income distribution based on income level: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

	Domestic-owned companies					Chinese-owned companies				
	≥ 1500	1501-3000	3001-5000	5001-7500	7501+	≥ 1500	1501-3000	3001-5000	5001-7500	7501+
Salary is the main cause of dispute	4.12	3.98	3.79	3.88	3.52	4.27	4.11	2.88	3.93	4.27
Salaries low when compared to similar companies	4.08	3.80	4.17	4.18	3.98	3.90	4.21	4.13	3.73	3.90
Employees doing same jobs but pay differs	3.05	3.01	2.95	2.82	2.90	3.40	3.16	3.25	3.19	3.19
Employees not paid overtime	2.78	2.81	2.71	2.79	2.67	3.03	3.32	3.00	2.67	3.03
Management pays fairly	3.97	4.09	3.76	3.50	3.17	4.28	4.63	4.25	3.07	4.28

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (Strongly agree) to 1 (Strongly disagree)

The interview results in Table 5-9 indicate that 14 of the 15 interviewees agree that indeed salary is a cause of conflict in both domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies. The interviewees who mainly agreed that salary is a cause of conflict cited reasons such as cost of living being too high and some felt that the salaries received did not equate to the effort put in the job. However, there were those employees who have worked for both types of companies and their views are that in both company types income disparity is viewed as a cause of conflict, so it does not really have to be one specific type of company. The reason may be that those companies are assumed to be following the same minimum wages stipulated by government, without taking into consideration that many changes have occurred since the last reviews on wages were done. However, those employees who work in Chinese-owned companies indicate that one of the issues that often lead to conflict is that the employers deducted money for protective clothing which according to employees, it is an employers' obligation.

Table 5-9: Interviewees responses based on income level: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies				Total	
Less than P 5000		More than P 5000		Less than P 5000		More than P 5000			
Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
6	-	-	1	6	-	2	-	14	1

The view from the interviewee who disagreed with the overall assumption that income distribution is a cause of conflict can be seen in this quote:

The disparity in salaries could be as a result of a number of factors, being, length of service with the company (work experience); performance based wage increments; as well as additional skills that one employee has which others do not have. With a lack of understanding of these dynamics, low income earners, holding low jobs in the company may draw a conclusion that the company is being unfair. I am a qualified Chef, but it's so difficult to find the appropriate jobs, considering the situation we have in Zimbabwe, everyone knows - even 3 year olds (Smiling). Now I am just doing this driving job because I need to feed my family. (R14)

For example, R14 who is a driver in a Chinese-owned company and has attained secondary school education level, acknowledges that there are many factors such as experience and education level which determine how much one earns, so for him he is not complaining about his income because it is better than not having a job. Not surprising, R7 who is a quantity surveyor in a domestic-owned company ascertained that salary earned by some employees (he included) is not a source of conflict, especially to those employees who can work on other jobs, such as plumbers who can do private jobs when not working. However, for those who only depend on one employer, salary earned could be perceived to as main cause of dispute. The results demonstrate that employees from Chinese-owned companies to a higher degree still perceive income disparity as a cause of conflict. But based on views such as those shared by R7 who works for a domestic-owned

company is that those employees in both types of companies, who only have one source of income, are the ones who are likely to agree mostly that income distribution is greater cause of conflict in the workplace.

Employment status

The employment status demographic the statistical analysis shown on Table 5-10 indicates that those employees who are hired on temporary basis constitute a higher proportion of respondents who maintain that salary is the cause of workplace conflict. The means are significantly different between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies (4.06; 4.30), (F= 4.154; p<.05). It can be observed that the respondents who mostly agree with the above statements are more prevalent in the temporary group as compared to the permanent and contract groups.

Table 5-10: Income distribution based on employment status: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

	Domestic-owned companies			Chinese-owned companies	
	Permanent	Contract	Temporary	Contract	Temporary
Salary is the main cause of dispute	3.73	4.01	4.06	4.14	4.30
Salaries low when compared to similar companies	4.01	4.11	3.85	3.95	4.08
Employees doing same jobs but pay differs	2.95	3.02	2.97	3.09	3.14
Employees not paid overtime	2.65	2.93	2.65	3.05	2.77
Management pays fairly	3.62	3.74	4.19	4.20	4.24

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (Strongly agree) to 1 (Strongly disagree)

During the interviews, there was a common understanding shared by the interviewees that may suggest that employees who are employed on temporary basis perceive that income distribution is a cause of conflict.

Table 5-11 shows that ten of the 15 interviewees agree that to some extent employment status does have an influence on perceptions about income distribution as a cause of conflict. From domestic-owned companies four interviewees and four interviewees in

Chinese-owned companies who work on temporary basis agreed that income distribution is a cause of conflict.

Table 5-11: Interviewees responses based on employment status: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies				Total	
Temporary/ Contract		Permanent		Temporary		Contract			
Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
4	2	-	1	4	1	2	1	10	5

The quote below is typical of what has been expressed by all interviewees who work on a temporary basis. This quote is by an employee working in a Chinese-owned company:

Well, I must say where I work as a temporary employee; we work harder than those who are contract staff, however, we get paid less and do not get a share of the bonus scheme which we work towards every month. As we all know, if we do not work hard our appointments are terminated without notice. It will be interesting to see what happens in October should I still be around because we have been promised to be paid end of year bonus. (R11)

Ten of the 15 interviewees from both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies were of the view that being employed on temporary basis determines income earned, and the remaining respondents who were either on contract or permanent status did not think that employment status has an effect on how much one earns. For example, based on the above quote, temporary employees perceive that there are some inequities in relation to how they are rewarded or compensated and this perception is shared mostly by those employed on temporary status across both types of companies. Five interviewees disagree that employment status determine one’s income, but was more a function of the loyalty and hard work of an employee. For example, R7 who works in a domestic-owned company on contract basis, argued that temporary employees are less committed and the most likely to complain not matter what the situation is.

Duration worked in the company

Responses to the length of service demographic indicates that employees in both types of companies that worked for a period less than a year constitute a higher proportion of respondents that agree salary is a cause of conflict. As shown in Table 5-12 the means indicate that there are statistically significant differences between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies (4.09; 4.33), (F= 4.335, p<.05).

Table 5-12: Income distribution based on duration worked: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

	Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies			
	>1 year	≥ 1<4	≥ 4<10	10+	>1 year	≥ 1<4	≥ 4<10	10+
Salary is the main cause of dispute	4.09	3.92	3.9	3.68	4.33	4.22	3.89	4.30
Salaries low when compared to similar companies	3.97	3.95	4.19	4.05	4.12	3.97	3.89	4.10
Employees doing same jobs but pay differs	3.00	3.02	3.04	2.85	3.20	2.99	3.14	3.80
Employees not paid overtime	2.63	2.87	2.89	2.64	2.73	2.98	2.97	3.40
Management pays fairly	3.96	3.83	4.05	3.32	4.37	4.22	3.89	4.00

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (Strongly agree) to 1 (Strongly disagree)

Table 5-13 results show that 11 out of the 15 interviewees from both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies were of the opinion that income distribution is a cause of conflict. In addition, interviewees from Chinese-owned companies in particular, were of the view that it has become a daily routine for employees to be dismissed from work without any justification. Hence, these frequent dismissals are a factor that is commonly contributing to conflict and reflects the statistical difference identified in Table 5.12.

Table 5-13: Interviewees responses based on duration worked: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies				Total	
Less than or equal 5 years		6 years or more		Less than or equal 5 years		6 years or more			
Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
4	1	1	1	6	2	-	-	11	4

The interviewees who have worked for a shorter duration in both types of companies are the ones who agree that frequent dismissal impacts on income distribution as a cause of conflict. For those interviewees (4) who did not agree with this view, they share what is expressed by R1, an employee in a domestic-owned company:

Sometimes I think employees are not fair to employers, how does someone expect to be employed today and not having an experience and want to be paid more. I think employees need to understand that length of service, can say a lot about the type of an employee one is and it is after some time that the employers will appreciate your loyalty. So having looked at your results I think most of these employees are still very young, they may be educated, but they lack job experience and lack experience of life hence they constitute majority of those complaining. I used to work for company X for ten years and salary was less than what some of them currently earn, but I was happy with my pay, but after acquiring some experience, I enrolled in accounting degree and look where I am now. So it's hard work and experience in addition to the duration that I have been here that determines what you get at the end of the month. (R1)

For example, R1 notes that it is not only education level that matters, the longer an employee works in a company, that one also gives the employers assurance that you can be trusted or you are loyal to the company hence they can reward you better than someone who just comes in, with a higher qualification but little or no experience. Although R12 agrees on the view of loyalty and trust expressed by R1; he is of the view that some of the employees who have worked longer in the company still perceive that for some employers it does not matter how long one has worked for them. Thus, R12 is serving notice with his current employer and is going back to the previous employer as he perceives that the salary is much better when compared to his current employer. Therefore, based on both quantitative and qualitative results it may be deduced that in both types of companies those employees who have worked for shorter duration are the

ones who mostly perceive income distribution as a cause of conflict. Of note, there are lower percentages of those who have worked longer who perceive that their salaries are not worth the job done.

Overall summary on income distribution

This section sought to focus on findings related to the first sub-question of the study in relation to whether there are any differences regarding income distribution as a cause of disputes, between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies. The conclusion drawn from this data analysis revealed that there are differences on the following statements; (1) income distribution is the main cause of dispute and (2) employees performing the same job but paid different salaries.

Overall a substantial percentage of employees number of employees from both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies believe that income distribution is one of the causes of conflict in the workplace amongst other various factors. However, the percentage is significantly higher in Chinese-owned companies as compared to domestic-owned companies. From the interviews, 13 (six from domestic-owned and seven from Chinese-owned companies) mention that employees, especially in the construction industry are semi-skilled and unskilled therefore employers tend to pay the minimum wage as set by the regulatory authorities. All interviewees agree that apart from payment structures in place, there are many factors that influence the unfairness in the income distribution. In particular, favouritism and nepotism has been at the centre of the discussion especially for those who have worked for domestic-owned companies. Those who worked in Chinese-owned companies emphasise that the lack of close monitoring by government officials and influx of illegal immigrants from neighbouring countries worsen the payment

situation and employers can virtually do anything they want because employees are desperate.

Although to a certain extent the interviews confirm the quantitative data, they also unearth diverse thoughts and interpretations in relation to some of the above mentioned demographic factors. All the interviewees indicate that indeed salary is one of the causes of conflict in their previous or current employment, however detailed responses vary. R7 who works in a domestic-owned company notes that for him personally, salary was not a 'big deal', and this could be due to his position in the company as he was a quantity surveyor by profession. R1, who works in a domestic-owned company, notes that some of the employees do not understand that there are different payment systems that are used to determine how one is paid, therefore with this lack of understanding it makes other employees feel that they are not being paid fairly. R9, who works in a Chinese-owned company, is of the view that supervisors play a role in determining one's payment with some not willing to sign off on the hours that an employee has actually worked.

More generally, the existence of statistically significant differences between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies in the survey results, the interviewees from both types of companies expressed different views as to why income distribution is a cause of conflict. For instance, some of the interviewees suggest that regardless of the type of company in which one works, income distribution is viewed as a cause of conflict. Also those who do not agree that income distribution is a cause of conflict may be due to many factors such as, having less number of dependents to look after, or earnings are adequate to afford their requirements or lack of simple understanding that the companies did not have financial resources that can meet employees' request. It should be noted that external factors such

as cost of living has increased and this all puts pressure in day to day needs, hence the feelings that current earnings are not sufficient.

The results reveal that education level compared to other demographic characteristics has a higher significant influence on employees' perceptions on income distribution. Those who have attained primary and secondary education levels comprise a large percentage of participants who are of the opinion that there exist inequalities in terms of payment structures or how income is distributed particularly in Chinese-owned companies.

5.4 Job Security

This section presents results in relation to the second sub-question of the study as to whether there are any differences regarding job security as a cause of conflict, between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies. A comparative analysis as shown in question 14 (see Appendix V), both Table 5-14 and Table 5-15 indicate that respondents in both types of companies do not share the same sentiments in the following three out of five job security statements; lack of job security is one of the main causes of dispute, 82% of employees in Chinese-owned companies strongly agree or agree (mean 4.22) and 69% of respondents in domestic-owned companies strongly agree or agree (mean 3.93), ($t = -4.498$; $p < .05$). The comparative analysis on the statement 'due to low job security, few complaints from employees', 60% of respondents from domestic-owned strongly agree or agree (mean 3.49) and 70% from Chinese-owned companies (mean 3.93), ($t = -4.626$; $p < .05$) strongly agree or agree. Lastly, the comparative analysis on the statement 'employees can be fired at any time', 57% of respondents from domestic-owned strongly agree or agree (mean 3.53) and 81% of respondents in Chinese-owned companies strongly agree or agree (mean 4.16), ($t = -6.728$; $p < .05$). The results show statistically

significant differences between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies as to how employees' perceive job security to be a cause of conflict in workplace.

Table 5-14: Responses on job security statements in both types of companies

	Domestic-owned companies						Chinese-owned companies					
	Mean	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Lack of job security is the main cause of dispute	3.82	33	37	13	15	2	4.22	55	28	5	8	4
My job is quite secure	2.63	9	20	18	31	22	2.53	8	17	20	32	23
Due to low job security, there are few complaints from employees'	3.49	23	37	14	19	7	3.93	38	33	15	11	3
Employees can be fired at any time	3.53	29	27	17	22	5	4.16	47	33	12	6	2
There is no employment contract signed	2.82	15	19	15	38	13	2.77	16	12	14	48	10

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (agree) to 1 (strongly disagree)

Table 5-15: T-test results on job security and demographic characteristics

Demographic Characteristic	Job security statements									
	Lack of job security is the main cause of dispute		My job is quite secure		Due to low job security, few complaints from employees		Employee can be fired anytime		There is no employment contract	
	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T
Sex	4.04	1.135	2.54	-1.160	3.77	2.254*	3.84	.935	2.94	3.770*
	3.92		2.66		3.54		3.75		2.54	
Ownership	3.82	-4.498*	2.63	.953	3.49	-4.626*	3.53	-6.728*	2.82	.490
	4.22		2.53		3.93		4.16		2.77	

Note: (*) means there is significance; $p < .05$

Each of the demographic characteristics was tested using ANOVA to identify any statistically significant differences between demographic characteristics and the job security statements. The results will be discussed in the following sections when both quantitative and qualitative results will be discussed.

Age

Table 5-16 shows that an analysis based on age demographic, on the statement lack of job security is the main cause of disputes, the means indicate that there are statistically significant differences between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies those ages range between 20-25 (mean = 4.02) and those ages range between 31-35 (mean = 4.35), ($F=3.799$; $p<.05$) mostly agreed respectively. On the statement ‘due to low job security, there are few complaints from employees’, the means are significantly different between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies those ages range from 20 and 25 (mean = 3.69) and those ages range from 31 and 35 (mean = 4.07), ($F=2.694$; $p<.05$) mostly agreed with the statement. Based on the responses to the following statement ‘employees can be fired at any time’, the means are statistically significant between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies those ages range from 20-25 (mean = 3.80) and those ages range between 20-30 (mean = 4.26), ($F=5.091$; $p<.05$) mostly agreed respectively. It can be observed that the respondents who mostly agree with the statement on job security are more prevalent in the groups of those in 20s and mid-30s as compared to those above 41 years.

Table 5-16: Job security based on age demographic: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Job security	Domestic-owned companies					Chinese-owned companies				
	20-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41+	20-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41+
Lack of job security is the main cause of dispute	4.02	3.78	3.84	3.63	3.66	4.28	4.25	4.35	3.73	3.70
My job is quite secure	2.31	2.60	2.71	3.15	2.64	2.22	2.73	2.53	2.18	2.85
Due to low job security, there are few complaints from employees’	3.69	3.38	3.48	3.51	3.36	4.01	3.88	4.07	4.27	3.20
Employees can be fired at any time’	3.80	3.44	3.63	3.12	3.42	4.26	4.26	4.06	4.27	3.55
There is no employment contract signed’	3.21	2.64	2.85	2.71	2.53	2.96	2.80	2.53	3.18	2.50

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (Strongly agree) to 1 (Strongly disagree)

Table 5-17 is a summary of interviewees’ responses as to whether job security is a cause of conflict or not. Out of the 15 interviewees, 13 agree that indeed job security is one of the causes of conflict. Most of the interviewees who agree that job security is a cause of conflict are those in their 30s as compared to older employees and this is common in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies.

Table 5-17: Interviewees response as to whether job security is a cause of conflict: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies				Total	
Below 40		Above 40		Below 40		Above 40			
Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
3	-	3	1	7	1	-	-	13	2

Presented below is a quote that presents a view that was shared by most of the interviewees as to try explaining why most of the quantitative results demonstrate that younger respondents were of the view that job security was a concern:

I think young people are more likely to switch jobs frequently because they also have less restrictions, e.g. they may not have kids at school, and don't mind changing jobs. Also if they haven't yet entangled themselves in mortgages and car loans they are more likely to be flexible and less committed to a single job. I also think related to the first point, they are likely to hop jobs more in search of higher pay, while a more mature employee like myself will not want to move from one place to another, hence employers likely to have trust and faith in us, hence chances of us having a more secure job is high. (R3)

From the above quote the interviewees note that age plays a major role in how one behaves or have a certain perspectives to work life. For instance, R3 who works in a domestic-owned company notes that employers are likely to give someone a more secure job if the employee shows commitment and loyalty. R4 also added that other reasons for the lack of commitment could be due to the fact that some do not have any commitments

in life or they still discovering themselves especially those who are just finishing school and are young.

Four interviewees R8, R10, R11 and R13 who work for Chinese-owned companies indicate that since they have not signed employment contracts, it is very difficult to take any action in the event that one is unfairly dismissed from work. Also, those who may have employment contracts, find it hard to take action against their employer because when one does that, they lose their job. Despite having labour officials who are assigned with employment issues, the interviewees note that the process is very lengthy as one has to move from one office to another, or a simple lack of knowledge hinders efforts to take action. Almost all interviewees are of the view that employees need to speak up, be loud and need to stay and fight for their rights. If they do not, nothing will change. Therefore, based on the results, it can be deduced that in domestic-owned companies there are processes in place aiding the facilitation of good relationships between employers and employees; hence the willingness of the two parties to voice their concerns – unlike in Chinese-owned companies, where there are no structures designed to facilitate communication between the parties.

Education

Table 5-18 shows that the means have statistically significant difference between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies; 4.09 and 4.35 respectively and ($F=7.759$; $p<.05$) on the statement ‘lack of job security’ among those who have attained primary education. On the statement ‘due to low job security’, there are few complaints from employees, the means are significantly different between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies; 4.02 and 4.17 respectively, ($F=10.030$; $p<.05$), being significantly higher on those who have attained primary education group. On the statement employees

can be fired at any time, means are significantly different between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies (3.78; 4.39), ($F=6.541$, $p<.05$).

Table 5-18: Job security based on education level: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

	Domestic-owned companies					Chinese-owned companies				
	Primary	Secondary	Vocational	Tertiary	None	Primary	Secondary	Vocational	Tertiary	None
Lack of job security is the main cause of dispute	4.09	3.93	3.48	3.83	4.50	4.35	4.29	3.76	4.36	4.50
My job is quite secure	2.48	2.41	2.86	3.03	3.00	2.70	2.42	2.76	3.36	2.50
Due to low job security, there are few complaints from employees'	4.02	3.56	3.14	3.36	2.00	4.17	4.02	3.32	4.09	3.50
Employees can be fired at any time	3.78	3.62	3.36	3.25	2.00	4.39	4.24	3.68	4.18	3.00
There is no employment contract signed	2.83	3.01	2.42	3.03	2.00	2.91	2.81	2.39	3.09	2.50

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (Strongly agree) to 1 (Strongly disagree)

Table 5-19 reveals that for the interviewees (irrespective of the companies they work for) 11 agree that job security is of high concern especially to those employees who have a low education level, as in most cases they are less experienced or less skilled.

Table 5-19: Interviewees responses based on education level: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies				Total	
Primary /secondary		Vocational/Tertiary		Primary /secondary		Vocational/Tertiary		Agree	Disagree
Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree		
4	-	-	3	6	-	1	1	11	4

Among the most popular reasons given were beliefs that people were too scared to complain; that the whole organisation did not make it clear what procedures could be taken; and one respondent (R15 who worked in a Chinese-owned company) stated that: "...no one cares about protecting construction employees because it mostly affects the

low class who are mostly unskilled and they are not important to anyone". Another view was outlined by an employee working in a domestic-owned company:

We have to admit the fact that without higher education your job is not secured. People can talk to you anyhow and there is nothing you can do about it. You cannot easily change your job because wherever you go, they want to know about your educational qualification before you are considered for employment. (R15)

Considering the above two quotations, it can be concluded that respondents who have low education are the ones who feel that their jobs are not secure, and if they are to lose their jobs, the chances of finding another job are very limited. R5, who has worked in domestic-owned companies, said that since he is not well educated, it is hard to find a job easily and this could be due to having many job seekers out there, while education and experience matter. R10, who works in a Chinese-owned company, added that to be less educated worsens the situation so they have to tolerate any harsh treatment because of the fear of being fired. The respondents in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies agree that if one has a low education level, then job security becomes a big challenge since this is linked to one's employment status. There seemed to be a real contrast in the perceptions of those employees enjoying job security and those who are suffering job insecurity. Those interviewees who held higher qualifications or positions such as the quantity surveyors were represented much more in domestic-owned companies and appeared to enjoy almost total job security; whereas all interviewees hired on temporary and lower positions (labourers and cleaners) in both types of companies felt that they were under threat of losing their jobs. Consequently, low status employees put up with all sorts of inappropriate behaviours in order not to jeopardise their job security.

Income level

Table 5-20 indicates that the means are statistically significantly different between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies (4.09; 4.28), (F=11.168; p<.05) as to how employees perceive job security as a cause of conflict in the workplace. In Chinese-owned companies those who earned salaries between P3, 001-P5, 000 and maintained that indeed lack of job security as the main cause of dispute, are marked by a higher mean of 4.63. On the statement ‘due to low job security’, there are few complaints from employees; those who earn between P3, 001 and P5, 000 constitute a higher proportion of respondents who agree. The means are significantly different between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies (3.69; 4.11), (F=5.364; p<.05). On the statement ‘employees can be fired at any time’, those who earn P 1,500 or less constitute a higher proportion of respondents who agree. The means are significantly different between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies (3.66; 4.36), (F=11.316; p<.05) respectively. It can be observed that the number of respondents who ‘mostly agree’ with the above statements on job security is greater in the groups that earn P3,000 or less as compared to the other two groups.

Table 5-20: Job security based on income level: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Job security	Domestic-owned companies					Chinese-owned companies				
	≥ 1500	1501-3000	3001-5000	5001-7500	7501+	≥ 1500	1501-3000	3001-5000	5001-7500	7501+
Lack of job security is the main cause of dispute	3.97	4.09	3.76	3.50	3.17	4.26	4.28	4.63	4.25	3.07
My job is quite secure	2.40	2.71	2.79	2.85	2.79	2.37	2.61	2.68	3.38	2.87
Due to low job security, there are few complaints from employees’	3.53	3.63	3.69	3.29	3.08	4.04	3.91	4.11	4.25	2.67
Employees can be fired at any time’	3.66	3.65	3.48	3.44	3.08	4.36	4.03	4.26	3.88	3.20
There is no employment contract signed’	3.05	2.80	2.76	2.88	2.23	2.88	2.7	2.53	3.13	2.27

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (Strongly agree) to 1 (Strongly disagree)

Based on Table 5-21 the results demonstrate that 13 out of the 15 interviewees are of the view that job security is a cause of conflict. Nine of the interviewees from both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies earn less than P5, 000, and five earn more than P5,000. The interviewees who disagree that job security is a cause of conflict are of the view that before starting work in the construction industry, employees are already aware of the nature of the job – that it is only for certain duration. However, these two interviewees also acknowledged that on a few occasions, employees were dismissed unfairly because companies were taking advantage of the economic situation.

Table 5-21: Interviewees responses based on income level: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies				Total	
Less than P 5000		More than P 5000		Less than P 5000		More than P 5000			
Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
5	-	1	1	3	1	4	-	13	2

Below is an opinion expressed by an employee working in a Chinese-owned company:

It is not surprising to see that most of those who earn low salaries are the majority of those who feel that lack of job security is main cause of dispute, most of them have low education and inexperienced hence their jobs depend on the availability of work that needs to be done. It would be costly for a company to keep them on site when there are no materials available. In my company prior commencing, work employees are furnished with conditions of employment that they engaged in, so they know that if it happens that there are no materials on site, they would be advised to stay home until the materials are supplied. (R13)

R13 agrees that job security is of high concern to most employees. This interviewee (a cleaner) is of the view that in her case, and in that of her friends who work in different companies, the employers normally do share information with them, so for her it is not fair for employees to be complaining as if they did not know what the conditions of their employment would be.

Hence both quantitative and qualitative results suggest that in both types of companies those employees whose earnings are lower constitute the majority of those who share the belief that job security is a cause of conflict.

Employment status

An analysis based on employment status demographic indicates that most of the employees who work on a temporary basis (in both types of companies) constitute a higher proportion of respondents who maintain that lack of job security is the main cause of conflict. Table 5-22 demonstrates that the means are statistically and significantly different between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies: (4.19; 4.24), (F=11.399; $p<.05$). On the statement ‘Due to low job security’, there are few complaints from employees; the means are significantly different between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies: (3.72; 3.94), (F=5.799; $p<.05$). On the statement ‘Employees can be fired at any time’, the means are significantly different between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies: (3.69; 4.28), (F=11.316; $p<.05$). It can be observed that the number of respondents who ‘mostly agree’ with the above statement on job security is greater in the temporary group as compared to those on permanent and contract groups.

Table 5-22: Job security based on employment status: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

	Domestic-owned companies			Chinese-owned companies	
	Permanent	Contract	Temporary	Contract	Temporary
Lack of job security is the main cause of dispute	3.62	3.74	4.19	4.20	4.24
My job is quite secure	2.84	2.66	2.32	2.71	2.36
Due to low job security, there are few complaints from employees’	3.41	3.41	3.72	3.92	3.94
Employees can be fired at any time’	3.41	3.52	3.69	4.04	4.28
There is no employment contract signed’	2.55	2.55	3.60	2.62	2.91

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (Strongly agree) to 1 (Strongly disagree)

Table 5-23 illustrates that there is an overall perception that job security is indeed a cause of conflict in both types of companies, since 13 of the 15 interviewees shared a common understanding that lack of job security is an issue of high concern to them.

Table 5-23: Interviewees responses based on employment status: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies				Total	
Less than or equal 5 years		6 years or more		Less than or equal 5 years		6 years or more			
Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
5	-	1	1	7	1	-	-	13	2

The interviewees from both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies were of the view that the current high unemployment in the country has an influence on job security. As there is high supply of labour available, then employers are more likely to dismiss employees without due cause. However, for those interviewees who indicated that job security was not an issue to them was most likely due to the fact that they were on permanent or contract employment or that they possessed high educational qualification which ensures that they will be more readily employed. For instance, R1 (who works in a domestic-owned company) notes that he has many job offers so he can leave his current employer in the event that he is not happy.

The quotation below represents similar expressions by a few employees who agree that lack of job security is the main cause of disputes in workplace. This is from an employee in a Chinese-owned company:

Those in domestic-owned companies who disagree that lack of job security is the main cause of dispute could be those who were employed as permanent/contract staff. They could be the most experienced and highly skilled labour force. Signing and agreeing on long term or permanent contracts of employment gives an employee some piece of mind about future planning, housing or personal loans. (R6)

Given the responses from the interviewees (as demonstrated by the above) employment status has an impact on how employees perceived job security as one of the main causes of disputes. R12 and R15, who work in Chinese-owned companies, are of the view that if they are employed on a temporary basis, there is no guarantee that tomorrow they will still be employed. This is also due to the nature of construction industry, where employment opportunities depend upon projects being started.. Additionally, R6 (who works in a domestic-owned company) maintains that if a person has a more stable job then he/she will be able to plan for the future. It will also become easy for them to access credit facilities from financial institutions because the banks will know that borrowers will be able to repay their loans. So it makes sense to see only a few of those on contract and permanent status agreeing that lack of job security is the main cause of disputes. Based on the interviewees' views, the results demonstrate that employees from both types of companies do agree that those employed on a temporary basis are more prone to feelings of job insecurity. Hence, the results show that job insecurity has the potential to lead to conflict, especially in Chinese-owned companies where there are many more temporary employees; the survey also indicates a statistically higher response to this issue.

Overall summary on job security

This section sought to focus on findings related to the second sub-question set out in Chapter One, whether or not there were differences regarding job security as the cause of conflict between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies. The conclusion drawn from this data analysis reveals that there are differences on the following statements: (1) lack of job security is the main cause of dispute; (2) due to low job security there are few complaints from employees; and (3) employees can be fired at any time. Additionally, an overall 70% of employees from both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies believe

that job security is the main cause of conflicts in the workplace, amongst other various factors. There were 12 interviewees who indicated that lack of job security was one of the causes of conflict in their previous or current employment, and shared the same sentiments (that job security is important for employees), so its absence is a major issue/concern for any employee. R1, R7 and R12 (who are all highly skilled employees) note that for them job security was not an issue; instead they emphasised that they are many companies that are always ready to offer them employment. Furthermore, based on the above results (which indicate that job security is one of the causes of conflict), it is evident that most construction companies use unskilled labour that can be easily replaced. Given this, effective job security is rare, and this causes conflicts between employers and employees. However, some employees from both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies disagree with the idea that lack of job security causes conflict as they believe that lack of job security helps in improving productivity. This is because these employees regard retaining their jobs will assist in contributing to the growth and success of the company, otherwise they risk losing their jobs. It is evident, that is, when all interviewee responses are considered, that there is a (limited) degree of difference in perceptions of job security as a cause of conflict.

A critical analysis of the demographic characteristics indicate that those who have attained primary and secondary education levels make up a large proportion of participants who are mostly employed on temporary basis. These temporary employees with some education are of the view that job security is a high cause of concern, particularly in Chinese-owned companies where temporary employment is much more common. This is so because the participants reason that since there are many job seekers in the market, only those who have attained education are easily employable, and that they are less likely to be fired, unlike those with little or no education.

5.5 Managerial Control

This section presents results in relation to the third sub-question of the study as to whether there are any differences regarding managerial control as a cause of conflict in between domestic- as opposed to Chinese-owned companies. The comparative analysis in Table 5-24 indicates that respondents in both types of companies are statistically different on two other managerial control statements; 83% of employees in Chinese-owned companies (mean 4.01) and 64% of employees in domestic-owned companies (mean 3.90), ($t = -1.332$; $p < .05$) 'strongly agree' or 'agree' that 'management approach or behaviour is one of the causes of dispute'. The comparative analysis on the statement 'management act out of self-interest', shows that 65% of employees from domestic-owned (mean 3.74) and 77% from Chinese-owned companies (mean 3.91), ($t = -2.077$; $p < .05$), 'strongly agreed' or 'agreed' with the statement.

All responses to statements on managerial control (Appendix V, Questions 16 and 17) were analysed using independent sample t-test. A comparative analysis in Table 5-25 demonstrates that respondents in both types of companies have sentiments on three supervisor-employee relationships that are statistically different. First, 65% of employees in Chinese-owned companies (mean 2.37) and 47% of employees in domestic-owned companies (mean 2.78), ($t = 4.074$; $p < .05$), 'strongly disagree' or 'disagree' that supervisors treat employees in a respectful way. The comparative analysis on the statement 'supervisors show that you are valuable to the company' shows that 52% of employees from domestic-owned (mean 2.63) and 61% from Chinese-owned companies (mean 2.32), ($t = 3.265$; $p < .05$), 'strongly disagreed' or 'disagreed' with the statement. Lastly, a comparative analysis on the statement 'supervisors communicate in an honest and straight-forward manner' shows that 43% of employees from domestic-owned (mean

2.74) and 58% from Chinese-owned companies (mean 2.47), ($t= 3.031$; $p<.05$), ‘strongly disagreed’ or ‘disagreed’ with the statement. The results on Table 5-25 demonstrate that there are no statistically significant differences between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies on all other statements

The results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between males and females on their perceptions of managerial control as one of the causes of workplace conflict. This notwithstanding, based on the survey results, there is a significant difference in how employees in both types of companies view managerial control as a cause of conflict in workplace, especially from supervisors. This is understandable since the employees interact more with supervisors and less with (more remote) management. It is more noticeable in Chinese-owned companies that employees are of the view that managerial control is of high concern, and that contributing factors might include language barriers, as was mentioned by, as expressed by some interviewees. (This will be discussed in more detail at a later point.) Furthermore, ANOVA tests were conducted to identify which demographic characteristics group demonstrate differences in perception. The quantitative and qualitative results will be discussed in the following sections.

Table 5-24: Responses on manager-employee relationship in both types of companies

	Domestic-owned companies						Chinese-owned companies					
	Mean	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Management approach or behaviour towards employees is the main cause of dispute	3.90	31	42	15	10	2	4.01	30	51	9	7	3
Employees complaints taken seriously	2.57	6	23	14	35	22	2.42	7	13	14	45	21
Due consideration is given to employees' complaints	2.62	5	20	24	35	16	2.47	2	17	24	40	17
Employees are all treated equally	2.38	5	15	16	40	24	2.28	2	11	23	40	24
Management often act out of self-interest	3.74	30	35	20	11	4	3.91	26	51	13	7	3
Supervisors inform you in time about changes in work	2.84	5	35	11	35	14	2.77	12	28	6	34	20
Supervisors give explanation if something turns out wrong in your job'	2.80	7	26	17	38	11	2.81	9	27	14	37	13
Supervisors treat you in a respectful way	2.78	6	32	15	28	19	2.37	8	12	15	40	25
Supervisors show that you are valuable to the company	2.63	5	23	20	32	20	2.32	3	15	21	33	28
Supervisors communicate in an honest and straight-forward manner	2.74	6	24	27	24	19	2.47	2	16	24	43	15

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (agree) to 1 (strongly disagree)

Table 5-25: T-test results on managerial control and demographic characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	Management behaviour towards employees is a cause of dispute		Employees complaints are taken seriously		Due consideration is given to employees' view points		Employees are all treated equally		Management act out of self interest	
	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T
Sex	3.94		2.51		2.52		2.31		3.80	
	3.95	-1.120	2.50	.132	2.60	-.835	2.38	-.677	3.85	-.559
Ownership	3.90		2.57		2.62		2.38		3.74	
	4.01	-1.332*	2.42	1.592	2.47	1.757	2.28	1.112	3.91	-2.077*
Demographic Characteristics	Supervisors inform you on time about changes in work		Supervisors give good explanation if something turns out wrong in your job		Supervisors treat you in a respectful way		Supervisors show that you are valuable to the company		Supervisors communicate in an honest and straight-forward manner	
	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T
Sex	2.76		2.73		2.51		2.44		2.58	
	2.89	-1.194	2.93	-2.050*	2.76	-2.448*	2.58	-1.465	2.67	-.912
Ownership	2.83		2.80		2.78		2.63		2.74	
	2.77	.623	2.81	-.143	2.37	4.074*	2.32	3.265*	2.47	3.031*

Note: (*) means there is significance; $p < .05$

Education

An analysis based on education demographic as shown in Table 5-26 indicates that those who have attained primary education level constitute a higher proportion of respondents who uphold the view that ‘management act out of self-interest’. The means are significantly different between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies: (3.94; 3.92) and (4.09; 3.92), ($F=4.740$; $p<.05$). In domestic-owned companies those who have primary education constitute a higher proportion of respondents that disagree with ‘supervisors treat you in respectful way’: the mean is 2.09. In contrast to domestic-owned companies, in Chinese-owned companies employees that have secondary education constitute a higher proportion of respondents that disagree: the mean is 2.21. On the statement ‘supervisors show that you are valuable to the company’, in domestic-owned companies those who have primary education constitute a higher proportion of respondents that disagree with ‘supervisors treat you in respectful way’: the mean is 1.89. In contrast to domestic-owned companies, in Chinese-owned companies employees who have secondary education constitute a higher proportion of respondents that disagree: the mean is 2.20. Lastly, on the statement ‘supervisors communicate in an honest and straight-forward manner’; in domestic-owned companies those who have primary education constitute a higher proportion of respondents that disagree with the statement that ‘supervisors treat you in respectful way’: the mean is 2.13. While in Chinese-owned companies employees those with secondary education constitute a higher proportion of respondents that disagree, the mean is 2.36.

It can be observed from this analysis that the respondents who ‘mostly agree’ with the statements on manager-employee relationships as the main cause of conflict are those who have attained the lowest level of education (primary and secondary school) as

compared to those with tertiary education. The narratives emerging from the qualitative data were used to shed more light on these results.

Table 5-26: Managerial control based on education level: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

	Domestic-owned companies					Chinese-owned companies				
	Primary	Secondary	Vocational	Tertiary	None	Primary	Secondary	Vocational	Tertiary	None
Management approach or behaviour towards employees is the main cause of dispute	4.00	3.92	3.85	3.83	3.75	3.74	4.08	3.74	4.27	3.50
Employees complaints taken seriously	2.39	2.63	2.46	2.92	2.75	2.52	2.43	2.39	2.27	1.50
Due consideration is given to employees' complaints	2.22	2.73	2.68	2.64	2.00*	2.48	2.44	2.74	2.00	2.00
Employees are all treated equally	2.06	2.37	2.33	3.11	2.00	2.61	2.23	2.45	2.09	2.00
Management often act out of self-interest	3.94	3.92	3.45	3.64	2.75	4.09	3.92	3.79	3.82	4.00
Supervisors inform you in time about changes in work	2.41	2.92	2.92	3.00	1.75	3.09	2.71	2.68	3.55	3.00
Supervisors give explanation if something turns out wrong in your job'	2.35	2.69	3.09	3.17	2.00	3.30	2.70	2.92	3.55	2.00
Supervisors treat you in a respectful way	2.09	2.66	3.22	3.11	2.00	3.04	2.21	2.82	2.36	3.00
Supervisors show that you are valuable to the company	1.89	2.57	3.06	2.78	2.00	2.39	2.20	2.87	2.45	2.00
Supervisors communicate in an honest and straight-forward manner	2.13	2.84	2.92	2.81	2.00	2.61	2.36	2.87	2.73	2.50

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (Strongly agree) to 1 (Strongly disagree)

Table 5-27 illustrates that 11 of the 15 interviewees are of the view that managerial control is a cause of conflict, and eight of those who agree with the statement have either attained primary, secondary or vocational education level. These 11 interviewees share the view that managers and supervisors do not treat them in a dignified manner. For instance, they report verbally abusive behaviour from managers and supervisors as they often fail to show respect toward employees' work as well as to their personal and professional needs.

Table 5-27: Interviewees’ responses based on education level: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies				Total	
Primary /secondary		Vocational/Tertiary		Primary /secondary		Vocational/Tertiary			
Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
2	2	1	2	6	-	2	-	11	4

The quotation below is representative of those views expressed by those who disagreed with the statements that managerial control is a cause of conflict:

With my current company, the manager is good, s/he shares information with employees, both supervisors/managers and workers are more willing to compromise. Rather than giving orders, management consult workers before major decisions that affect employees are taken in order to incorporate workers’ views. It doesn’t really matter if one has attained high or low educational level or not, we sit in one room and share ideas or we just listen to what they want to implement. (R2)

Interestingly, and despite having attained secondary level education R2, (who works as a cleaner for a domestic-owned company) is of the view that in her company management usually consults with employees, especially on issues that affect employees’ welfare. She notes that in her company it is hard to differentiate employees based on education level as the employees usually sit together and relate well to each other. On the other hand, some of the interviewees who have attained lower educational qualification do perceive education as a factor that determines how managers or supervisors treat and relate to employees. For instance, those who have attained lower education have an assumption that since they are not highly educated, employers tend to talk to them in disrespectful ways. For example, R9 mentioned that even if the supervisors failed to communicate properly with employees, in the end employees are blamed and their education level is used as an

excuse for their having failed the task. In support of R9's view, R11 notes that personally he thinks that lack of communication between employers and employees also contributes to the failure to complete projects on time. A number of participants claimed that in order to improve interpersonal relationships at work, the only option was to involve the media once inappropriate behaviour takes place.

Noted from this analysis is that the qualitative data supports the quantitative statistical results, as there is a general view shared by employees in both types of companies. The majority of interviewees claimed that communication at all levels needed to be improved. The possibility of differences in expectations, especially in the matter of manager-employee interactions, needs to be acknowledged by the organisation's senior management. Employees should feel they are able to discuss any employment related issues whenever they arise. A number of interviewees claimed that their supervisors and managers needed to be more active, observant and articulate, and inform their subordinates of their expectations. It seems that those employees who work in Chinese-owned companies are of the view that language barriers, as well as cultural differences, is one of the main factors that make employees perceive that they are not treated with respect and not shown to be valuable to the organisations.

Employment status

The results in Table 5-28 indicate that in both types of companies, those employees who are hired on temporary basis constitute a higher proportion of respondents who maintain that management behaviours and attitudes is the cause of workplace conflict. The means are significantly different between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies: (3.97; 4.14), ($F=3.540$; $p<.05$). On the statement 'management act out of self-interest', the means are

significantly different between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies: (3.83; 4.04), ($F=3.688$; $p<.05$). On the statement ‘supervisors treat you in a respectful way’, the means are significantly different between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies: (2.67; 2.21), ($F=7.599$; $p<.05$). On the statement ‘supervisor show that you are valuable to the company’, the means are significantly different between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies: (2.56; 2.12), ($F=5.495$; $p<.05$). It is to be noted that the number of respondents who ‘mostly agree’ with the above statements on manager-employee relationship is greater in the temporary employment group as compared to those on permanent or contract employment groups.

Table 5-28: Managerial control based on employment status: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

	Domestic-owned companies			Chinese-owned companies	
	Permanent	Contract	Temporary	Contract	Temporary
Management approach or behaviour towards employees is the main cause of dispute	3.95	3.82	3.97	3.86	4.14
Employees complaints taken seriously	2.58	2.61	2.51	2.47	2.37
Due consideration is given to employees’ complaints	2.52	2.69	2.63	2.55	2.39
Employees are all treated equally	2.30	2.53	2.24	2.43	2.14
Management often act out of self-interest	3.68	3.72	3.83	3.77	4.04
Supervisors inform you in time about changes in work	2.74	2.97	2.75	2.88	2.67
Supervisors give explanation if something turns out wrong in your job’	2.86	2.94	2.49	2.95	2.68
Supervisors treat you in a respectful way	2.94	2.72	2.67	2.54	2.21
Supervisors show that you are valuable to the company	2.65	2.65	2.56	2.53	2.12
Supervisors communicate in an honest and straight-forward manner	2.54	2.88	2.76	2.53	2.41

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (Strongly agree) to 1 (Strongly disagree)

From the interviews, Table 5-29 demonstrates that out of 15 interviewees, 12 shared an overall view that managerial control is a cause of conflict. Out of the 12 interviewees who suggested that managers and supervisors interactions with employees are of great concern, eight work in Chinese-owned companies and four in domestic-owned companies. In the domestic-owned companies, there was only one interviewee who

disagreed with the rest, as he was of the view that employees at times do not want to look at things accurately and always blame the other party.

Table 5-29: Interviewees’ responses based on employment status: domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies				Total	
Temporary/ Contract		Permanent		Temporary		Contract			
Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
4	2	-	1	5	-	3	-	12	3

The following is a view held by an employee working in a Chinese-owned company and this opinion was shared by the others who agree on this issue, including those who work in domestic-owned companies:

Those of us who work as temporary staff are often used as cheaper labour and as such we can be disposed of at any time, as compared to contract employees. We are unfairly treated in all respects. I know the cost involved in maintaining permanent employees is relatively high since these employees are normally entitled to some benefits than us but we are the least respected in this company. There is a lot of tension between managers/supervisors and employees in this company. To a lesser extent, this could be attributed by lack of respect by employees to managers/supervisors too and managers/supervisors to employees, but as leaders, managers/supervisors must exercise utmost professionalism, they have to lead by example and avoid out bursting their emotions towards their employees. In most cases that managers tend to make their decisions final without accommodating employees’ different views and opinions. Therefore, employees view managers/supervisors as uncompromising, they are only concerned about their own needs and ignoring worker’s needs. (R15)

The 12 interviewees maintained that most employees working with construction companies either learn to deal with the current situation or leave the company for good. Those employees who work on temporary status are of the view that they are

not treated like those employees working on contract and permanent status. Basically, a larger percentage of those employees working on temporary basis, regardless of the type of company they are working for, perceive that managerial control is a cause of conflict, and this more noticeable in Chinese-owned companies. For instance, R15 (who works in a Chinese-owned company) notes that she is aware that companies spend more on permanent employees, and temporary workers are just exploited by employers and can be dismissed any time. R15 notes that there is so much tension between employers and employees, and while this could be attributed to the conduct of both parties, she points out that, as employers, they should act in professional manner as it is expected that leaders be able to communicate with employees.

Once there is lack of communication, employees start thinking that managers only care about making profit and not about employees, as expressed by R5 who has worked in both types of companies. R13 adds that although the treatment is the same for Zimbabwean co-workers, these workers note that for them (Batswana) it is better because if they voice any concerns there is no fear of being deported from the country, since the majority of Zimbabweans are in the country illegally. R8, who works in a Chinese-owned company, notes that in her company employers only treat its employees with dignity on occasions that have involved government officials visiting company premises.

Table 5-30 indicates the results on how interviewees responded when asked more precise questions about their awareness of any structures that were used to address employees concerns or dissemination of information that could affect employees. 10 of the interviewees (four from domestic-owned and six from Chinese-owned

companies) note that there were no structures in place that employees and managers could use as a means to share their views, and three interviewees (one from domestic-owned and two from Chinese-owned companies) note that they were not aware whether any structures existed or not since they were working there temporarily: these interviewees did not have any interest in matters beyond the payment of their salaries. Interestingly, only two interviewees indicate that in their companies (both domestic-owned), the employers have gone a step further to bring in external expert to address employees on various issues, especially on how to communicate and resolve any misunderstandings between employer and employees.

Table 5-30: Any efforts by management to address employees concerns: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned Companies			Chinese-owned companies			Total		
Yes	No	Don't Know	Yes	No	Don't Know	Yes	No	Don't know
2	4	1	-	6	2	2	10	3

The results indicate that when most employees feel they are not treated with dignity and respect they have less loyalty to the company and are more likely to seek retaliation. For instance, most of the interviewees echoed the same view as expressed by R8 who works in a Chinese-owned company:

In this company there is clearly an element of opportunism in management behaviour. It seems that the companies that may have long wished to terminate employment are now better able to do so under the guise of recession. I don't like it, because they disrespect me as a person, they disrespect my knowledge, they disrespect everything. They don't realise that as a human being need to be treated with respect. (R8)

Many interviewees argued that it is important that people in supervisory and managerial positions needed to be educated on how to adequately and seriously deal with employment issues, since inadequate responses may send a negative message

to employees, which in turn may lead to employees retaliating in a harmful way. This issue is particularly heightened in Chinese-owned companies where there is a leadership culture of not dealing with negative responses in a socially and ethically responsible manner.

Overall summary on managerial control

This section sought to focus on findings related to the third sub-question in relation to differences on managerial control as the main cause of disputes in domestic-owned as opposed to Chinese-owned companies. The conclusion drawn from this data analysis reveals that there are differences between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies on the following statements: (1) management behaviour and attitude is the main cause of dispute; (5) management act out of self-interest; (8) supervisors treat employees in a respectful way; (9) supervisors show that employees are valuable to the company; and (10) supervisors communicate in an honest and straight-forward manner.

Additionally, an overall 62% of employees from both domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies believe that managerial control is the main cause of conflict in the workplace amongst other various factors. The interviewees mostly noted that construction management are specialists in construction, and are not trained on issues of workers' relationships and, as such, they are more inclined to focus on results than on how those results were achieved. Their attitude may be that of dictating how to achieve milestones rather than letting workers determine their own way of achieving targets, or at least have an input into these matters. As specialists, they are bound to be 'hands-on' and so workers feel the 'big brother syndrome' where every move of theirs is being watched and so disputes are more likely to arise.

Interviewees noted that employees' opinions are not considered, especially when the issues involve employees who are not very well educated. Some respondents believed that their companies are genuinely interested in such issues. Others argued they did not see that their management was interested, and that they were aware of the negative impacts of causes of conflict. Supervisors tend to use their superior status to undermine the opinions of their employees. Eight respondents were of the view that cultural clashes or difference in cultures among employees is another cause of workplace conflict. The results demonstrate that these social and cultural differences, different backgrounds and experiences play a major role in shaping both employer and employee perceptions. Owing to these differences, it has emerged from the interviews that those employees who worked in Chinese-owned companies perceive that due to cultural differences (reflected in the style of leadership) there is always a feeling that employees are not treated with dignity. For instance, with most of African cultures, it is considered unacceptable to shout or insult an older person, regardless of the position that one has.

The results emanating from the demographic characteristics, show that the respondents within the age range of 20-35 years and employed on temporary basis constitute a major proportion of participants who share the view that management (especially supervisors' attitudes and conduct towards employees) contributes to conflict in the workplace. This is more evident in Chinese-owned companies given the existence of the possibility of cultural and language barriers between the local employees and managers, since those who hold management and supervisory positions are mainly of Chinese origin.

5.6 Forms of Conflict

This section presents results in relation to the fourth sub-question of the study as to whether there are any differences regarding to forms of conflict, between domestic-owned companies and Chinese-owned companies. Based on the comparative analysis, Table 5-31 shows that respondents in both types of companies vary in their level of sentiment on statements regarding sabotage behaviour as a form of conflict, with 80% of employees in Chinese-owned companies (mean 2.64) and 68% of employees in domestic-owned companies (mean 2.41), ($t = -2.339$; $p < .05$) agreeing that at times employees waste the employer's resources. The comparative analysis on the statement 'damaging a piece of equipment or property', shows that 67% of employees from domestic-owned (mean 2.26) and 78% from Chinese-owned companies (mean 2.49), ($t = -2.504$; $p < .05$) agree with the statement. On the statement 'unfriendly attitudes towards supervisors', the results indicate that 65% of employees from domestic-owned (mean 2.38) and 85% from Chinese-owned companies (mean 2.57), ($t = -1.993$; $p < .05$) agree with the statement.

The results also demonstrate that respondents in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies do not share the same level of sentiment on three theft forms of conflict; 81% of employees in Chinese-owned companies (mean 2.77) and 61% of employees in domestic-owned companies (mean 2.20), ($t = -5.518$; $p < .05$) agree that at times employees steal something belonging to employers. The comparative analysis on the statement 'taking supplies or tools without permission', shows that 60% of employees from domestic-owned (mean 2.26) and 79% from Chinese-owned companies (mean 2.79), ($t = -4.743$; $p < .05$), agree with the statement. Lastly, a comparative analysis on the statement 'stealing something belonging to co-workers', shows that 64% of employees from

domestic-owned (mean 2.17) and 80% from Chinese-owned companies (mean 2.93), ($t = -2.760$; $p < .05$) agreed with the statement.

Both Tables 5-31 and 5-32 indicate that there are statistically significant differences between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies on forms of conflict as noted in the following statements related to wasting employer's materials/supplies, damaging a piece of equipment or property, unfriendly attitudes towards supervisors, stealing something belonging to the employer, taking supplies or tools home without permission and stealing something belonging to someone at work. The results also show that there are differences between males and females in terms of the various forms of deviant behaviours that employees exhibit when they perceive unfairness in the above discussed causes of conflict.

One-way ANOVA tests were conducted to identify if there are any statistically significant differences between demographic characteristics and the forms of conflict statements. In this context, both the quantitative and qualitative results will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

Table 5-31: Responses on forms of conflict: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

	Domestic-owned companies						Chinese-owned companies					
	Mean	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Mean	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Wasting employers resources	2.41	8	11	27	22	32	2.64	9	11	35	25	20
Damaging a piece of equipment or property	2.26	5	10	25	27	33	2.49	5	8	38	27	22
Dirtying or littering workplace	2.33	4	9	30	31	26	2.42	4	9	34	31	22
Unfriendly attitudes towards supervisors	2.38	9	9	28	19	35	2.57	6	11	31	37	15
Unfriendly attitudes towards co-workers	2.37	6	10	28	27	29	2.48	6	9	35	28	22
Blaming someone for error they made	2.41	5	10	31	29	25	2.51	6	6	38	33	17
Doing their work incorrectly	2.21	3	10	25	30	32	2.33	2	10	31	31	26
Working slowly when things needed to get done	2.22	3	7	30	30	30	2.26	3	8	28	32	29
Failing to follow instructions	2.07	2	7	27	24	40	2.19	1	11	28	28	32
Stealing something belonging to employer	2.20	5	13	18	25	39	2.77	14	18	21	28	19
Taking supplies or tools without permission	2.26	10	10	20	20	40	2.79	19	12	22	26	21
Putting in to be paid more hours than actual ones	2.17	6	9	22	22	41	2.24	4	6	31	27	32
Stealing something belonging to co-workers	2.60	20	8	20	16	36	2.93	21	11	27	21	20

Table 5-32: T-test on deviant behaviour and demographic characteristics

	Wasting employers' materials/supplies		Damaging a piece of equipment or property		Dirtying or littering of workplace		Unfriendly attitudes towards supervisors		Unfriendly attitudes towards co-workers		Blaming someone at work for error they made		Doing their work incorrectly		Working slowly when things needed to get done	
	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T
Sex	2.56	1.352	2.43	2.071*	2.30	-2.275	2.43	-	2.34	-0.754	2.40	-1.546	2.19	-2.143*	2.20	-1.191
	2.42		2.24		2.50		2.51	2.108*	2.51		2.54		2.38		2.30	
Ownership	2.41	-2.339*	2.26	-	2.33	-0.978	2.38	-	2.37	-1.165	2.41	-1.124	2.21	-1.393	2.22	-0.415
	2.64		2.49	2.504*	2.42		2.57	1.993*	2.48		2.51		2.33		2.26	
	Failing to follow instructions		Stealing something belonging to employer		Taking supplies or tools without permission		Putting in to be paid more hours than actual ones		Stealing something belonging to co-workers							
	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T	Mean	T						
Sex	2.07		2.48		2.60		2.26		2.85							
	2.21	-1.582	2.39	.890	2.30	2.573*	2.09	1.757	2.56	2.284*						
Ownership	2.07		2.20		2.26		2.17		2.60							
	2.19	-1.484	2.76	-5.518*	2.79	-4.743*	2.24	-0.736	2.93	-2.760*						

Note: (*) means there is significance; $p < .05$

Education

An analysis based on education demographic in Table 5-33 demonstrates that in both types of companies, though more particularly in Chinese-owned companies, employees who have secondary education constitute a higher proportion of respondents who have either once or frequently wasted employers' resources. The means are significantly different between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies: (2.19; 2.65), ($F= 5.227$; $p<.05$). On the statement 'damaging a piece of work equipment or property', based on primary level, the means are significantly different between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies: (2.72; 3.27), ($F= 3.353$; $p<.05$). On the statement 'unfriendly attitudes towards supervisors', in domestic-owned companies those who have attained vocational education have a higher mean of 2.74, while in Chinese-owned companies those who have attained primary level have a higher mean of 3.13. On the statements 'stealing something belonging to employers' and 'taking supplies and tools without permission', in domestic-owned companies, those who have primary education have higher mean values are 2.33 and 2.95. While in Chinese-owned companies employees who have secondary education constitute a higher proportion of respondents who agree and the means are 2.86 and 2.90. On the statement 'stealing something belonging to co-workers', those who have attained primary education level, in domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies, have higher means (3.19; 3.09), ($F= 3.276$; $p<.05$) respectively. Although the overall results indicate that all employees engage in forms of conflict, the means have been found to be significantly higher in those groups that have lower levels of education (primary and secondary school) as compared to those with tertiary education.

Table 5-33: Forms of conflict based on education level: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

	Domestic-owned companies					Chinese-owned companies				
	Primary	Secondary	Vocational	Tertiary	None	Primary	Secondary	Vocational	Tertiary	None
Wasting employers resources	2.00	2.19	2.84	2.78	1.50	2.61	2.65	2.79	2.91	3.00
Damaging a piece of equipment or property	2.72	2.19	2.38	1.96	1.50	3.27	2.42	2.55	2.65	2.50
Dirtying or littering workplace	2.19	2.20	2.53	2.64	1.50	2.48	2.34	2.76	2.45	2.50
Unfriendly attitudes towards supervisors	1.98	2.32	2.74	2.28	1.25	3.13	2.44	2.97	2.27	2.50
Unfriendly attitudes towards co-workers	1.96	2.36	2.64	2.33	1.25	2.83	2.37	2.95	2.09	2.50
Blaming someone for error they made	2.13	2.20	2.87	2.44	1.50	2.83	2.41	2.68	2.73	4.00
Doing their work incorrectly	2.09	1.94	2.68	2.22	1.00	2.61	2.21	2.82	2.27	2.00
Working slowly when things needed to get done	1.96	2.12	2.56	2.06	2.00	2.43	2.19	2.53	2.09	2.50
Failing to follow instructions	1.81	1.96	2.35	2.14	1.50	2.61	2.12	2.42	1.91	2.50
Stealing something belonging to employer	2.33	2.25	2.13	2.15	1.75	2.65	2.86	2.42	2.73	1.50
Taking supplies or tools without permission	2.31	2.31	2.11	2.56	1.50	2.78	2.90	2.24	3.00	1.50
Putting in to be paid more hours than actual ones	2.28	2.35	1.99	1.89	1.50	1.96	2.28	2.11	2.45	3.50
Stealing something belonging to co-workers	3.19	2.83	1.89	2.89	2.50	3.09	3.02	2.29	3.45	2.00

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (Very often) to 1 (Never)

The results on Table 5-34 demonstrate that 14 of the interviewees agree that in the event that an employee perceives any form of inequity they may engage in deviant behaviours. The results shows that those who have attained lower education levels are the ones who ‘mostly agreed’, but this does not mean those who have attained higher education do not support or share same views.

Table 5-34: Interviewees’ responses based on education level: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies				Total	
Primary /secondary		Vocational/Tertiary		Primary /secondary		Vocational/Tertiary			
Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
4	-	2	1	6	-	2	-	14	1

For instance, R1 (who works in a domestic-owned company) notes that lack of clear understanding, or lack of clarity as to procedures and criteria used, often led to employee feelings of injustice.

Lack of a standardised grading system equated to a standard wage/salary (i.e.) artisans are paid different wages at the discretion of the supervisor employing at the time (with guidelines from the company of course). In contrast labourers/unskilled people are paid at the standard.[government?] rate and there is no dispute in that regard as to why the rate is so. This opens a lot of doubt within workers in the hope that the grass may be greener on the other side. (R1)

This may succinctly summarise the view that lack of clear understanding of how one's pay is determined can lead employees to perceive that there is some unfairness. The lack of understanding (as mentioned above) may result in some employees wanting to harm their companies via a wide variety of deviant behaviours. It may also be that some employees could be retaliating out of anger and frustration which could either be caused by low payments, job insecurity or poor relations with managers. Employees can waste materials to compensate for such (perceived) unfair treatment. This is an easier way of showing the employer their displeasure; wasting materials will cost the employer significantly which, they reason, should inflict some level of financial pain. On this logic, employees are acting this way in a bid to make the employer feel what they feel. On the other hand, R6, who has worked in both types of companies, notes that those who do not engage in any deviant behaviour may have a better understanding of how such deeds affect the company, its profitability and eventually their own jobs – and so refrain.

The results establish that in both types of companies, employees do engage in deviant behaviours. This varies based on the individual's education level, with the majority of deviant actions being committed by those who have attained a lower level of education. In

the results, this link between deviant behaviour and low education levels is more notable among the employees of the Chinese-owned companies.

Income level

Table 5-35 shows that in both types of companies employees who earn less than P1501 have higher means (2.41; 2.68), ($F= 5.827$; $p<.05$) which indicates that these employees have a greater likelihood of engaging in forms of conflict such as ‘Wasting employers materials/ supplies’ and ‘Damaging a piece of equipment or property’. When assessing the statement ‘Unfriendly attitudes towards supervisors’, the results indicate that in both types of companies those employees who earn less than P5,000 have high mean values as compared to those who earn more than P5,000. The results also indicate that on the statements ‘Stealing something belonging to employers’, and ‘Taking supplies and tools without permission’, those who earn P1,500 or less have higher mean values. The means are significantly different between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies (2.36; 2.68), ($F= 2.363$; $p<.05$) respectively. On the statement ‘Stealing something belonging to co-workers, in both types of companies’ employees who earn P 1,500 or less, constitute a higher proportion of respondents who agree with the statement. The means are significantly different between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies (2.96; 3.02), ($F= 6.377$; $p<.05$).

Hence the results reveal that in both types of companies, the majority of respondents who often do, or who have a higher likelihood of engaging in one of the forms of conflict, are found in the groups that earn P 5,000 or less as compared to the other groups.

Table 5-35: Forms of conflict based on income level: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Forms of conflict	Domestic-owned companies					Chinese-owned companies				
	≥ 1500	1501-3000	3001-5000	5001-7500	7501+	≥ 1500	1501-3000	3001-5000	5001-7500	7501+
Wasting employers resources	2.41	2.29	2.26	2.27	2.73	2.68	2.35	2.04	2.13	2.33
Damaging a piece of equipment or property	2.35	2.32	2.12	1.88	2.31	2.58	2.49	2.63	3.13	2.07
Dirtying or littering workplace	2.39	2.36	1.95	2.24	1.54	2.37	2.45	2.53	2.50	2.47
Unfriendly attitudes towards supervisors	2.31	2.34	2.52	2.32	2.52	2.54	2.60	2.58	2.88	2.47
Unfriendly attitudes towards co-workers	2.33	2.41	2.40	2.15	2.22	2.47	2.45	2.68	2.75	2.27
Blaming someone for error they made	2.29	2.37	2.43	2.53	2.67	2.50	2.54	2.47	2.50	2.40
Doing their work incorrectly	2.01	2.19	2.29	2.53	2.48	2.36	2.29	1.95	2.50	2.60
Working slowly when things needed to get done	2.07	2.20	2.19	2.38	2.58	2.18	2.41	2.00	2.13	2.33
Failing to follow instructions	2.98	2.18	1.88	2.06	2.27	3.09	2.36	2.21	1.63	2.40
Stealing something belonging to employer	2.36	2.13	1.98	2.09	2.15	2.85	2.78	2.84	2.88	1.93
Taking supplies or tools without permission	2.46	2.27	2.07	2.01	2.15	2.97	2.96	2.84	2.88	1.80
Putting in to be paid more hours than actual ones	2.28	2.24	2.01	1.88	1.92	2.20	2.34	2.26	2.50	1.87
Stealing something belonging to co-workers	2.96	2.60	2.19	2.53	2.06	3.02	2.95	3.32	2.75	1.67

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (Very often) to 1 (Never)

The interviewees agree that if an employee perceives that they are not being paid an amount equivalent to the output or if they are treated unjustly, then the likelihood of them retaliating is very high. The results in Table 5-36 indicate that in both types of companies 13 of the 15 interviewees agree that there is an association between income that is earned and likelihood of engaging in deviant behaviour.

Table 5-36: Interviewee responses based on income level: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies				Total	
Less than P 5000		More than P 5000		Less than P 5000		More than P 5000			
Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
4	1	1	1	5	-	3	-	13	2

Those interviewees who acknowledge the need to retaliate are of the view that it is the very low wage they are paid which causes the search for the means to increase it in the workplace, as the following quotations demonstrate. The first is by an employee from a domestic-owned company:

When an employee feels like he/she is not paid enough, or is over-worked, or the job is beneath their level of skills, they empower themselves with an attitude of “I deserve this,” for whatever it is they plan to steal. I think young people feel entitled to more pay because the cost of living especially housing has gone up. I also think not having lived through the great depression, all they have been exposed to, is wealth and entitlement, and the need to compare themselves in affluence rather than the need to survive, hence they are likely to engage in deviant behaviours more, as compared to those a bit older as they have experience in the hardships of life. (R1)

Shared by an employee from a Chinese-owned company:

Although we know that stealing by employees can have a significant negative impact on productivity, one has to survive too; hence resort to stealing. Employee exploitation is very high in blue collar jobs. Companies’ owners want to maximise profits and minimise costs at the expense of employees. Imagine this, management gives us protective clothing and then deduct the money from our little salaries. What do you expect us to do with the few coins we get after all the deductions? (R9)

From Table 5-36, it can be seen that 13 interviewees agree that in most cases when employees feel that their requests or questions are not addressed fully, some of the

employees are likely to engage in deviant behaviours. For example, the above views show that some employees resort to engaging in different forms of deviant behaviours, such as stealing, in a bid to compensate for perceived unfairness in income distribution, job security, the way managers or supervisors relate to them, or certain unsatisfactory work conditions. R9 who works in a Chinese-owned company notes that despite knowing that stealing has an impact on the company finances, the employees do not really care about that, since (in his view) employers are there just to exploit employees. In the event that employees feel that they are unfairly compensated, they usually find a way of supplementing the low salaries they receive by engaging in theft and other untoward work behaviours. Interestingly R4, who works for a domestic-owned company, acknowledges that it also depends on individual morals, for instance he personally does not engage in any form of conflict because he feels more loyal to the company as he has been working with them for some time. But he notes that others do not hesitate to steal as a way of 'levelling the playing field' as they perceive that the employers are not paying them wages that are equivalent to the effort employees put in at their work. Also R1, who works in domestic-owned company, is of the impression that most of those employees who engage in deviant behaviour, especially the youth, do so because of what he referred to as 'sense of entitlement' or 'I deserve this' attitudes; and this was supported by an employee who works in a Chinese-owned company (R8) who mentioned that due to the high cost of living employees end up stealing as a way of responding to changes or increased demands.

Therefore, based on the quantitative results and interviews, it can be said that although the opportunity to engage in deviant behaviours exists for everyone, such behaviours are more prevalent among younger employees, especially those who earn lower salaries. The reasons advanced for engaging in deviant behaviours are strongly linked to perceived

unfairness in income distribution. The results indicate that this pattern of deviant behaviour is more evident in Chinese-owned companies as compared to domestic-owned companies, as more respondents in those latter companies are of the view that even working longer hours does not result in any increase in their monthly wages. Hence the deviant activities are used as retaliatory mechanisms to compensate for the (perceived) injustice and unfairness associated with their companies' reward systems.

Employment status

Table 5-37 indicates that temporary and contract employees of Chinese-owned companies have higher mean scores in relation to conflict behaviour as compared to all categories of employees in domestic-owned companies. Hence, it may be inferred that employees in contract and temporary employment are more likely to engage in deviant behaviours. While the data does suggest that this is the case in Chinese-owned companies, the situation is different in domestic-owned companies. The overall results reveal that permanent employees in some of the domestic-owned companies also engage in similar deviant behaviours as those employed on a contract or temporary basis. In relation to the statement 'Wasting employers' resources', in domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies, those who are employed on temporary and contract bases often score highly on this issue. In both types of companies those employed on a contract basis often damage a piece of equipment or employers property: means (2.32; 2.59), ($F= 2.317$; $p<.05$) and display 'Unfriendly attitudes towards supervisors': means (2.43; 2.62), ($F= 3.227$; $p<.05$) respectively. In relation to the statements 'Steal something belonging to employers' and 'Take supplies and tools without permission', in both types of companies those who work on a temporary basis often engage in these two forms: means (2.28; 2.82), ($F= 4.310$; $p<.05$). On the statement 'Stealing something belonging to co-workers',

in both types of companies those employed on a temporary basis have higher means: (2.99; 3.09), ($F= 5.743$; $p<.05$). Based on the above statistical results, it may be concluded that employees in Chinese-owned companies on average engage in deviant behaviours more, as compared to those working in domestic-owned companies. The results also reveal a pattern such that those employees who are employed on a temporary or contract basis engage more in deviant behaviours when compared to permanent staff, despite the fact that some permanent employees also engage in such deviant acts. It is relevant here to remember that Chinese-owned companies have a much higher proportion of temporary/contract employees compared to domestic-owned; hence the significance of this finding for the pattern of higher deviant behaviour by temporary/contract employees found in Chinese-owned companies.

Table 5-37: Forms of conflict based on employment status: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

	Domestic-owned companies			Chinese-owned companies	
	Permanent	Contract	Temporary	Contract	Temporary
Wasting employers resources	2.34	2.36	2.48	2.70	2.59
Damaging a piece of equipment or property	2.16	2.32	2.30	2.59	2.39
Dirtying or littering workplace	2.36	2.42	2.16	2.44	2.39
Unfriendly attitudes towards supervisors	2.41	2.43	2.24	2.62	2.52
Unfriendly attitudes towards co-workers	2.40	2.39	2.30	2.49	2.46
Blaming someone for error they made	2.70	2.32	2.17	2.57	2.44
Doing their work incorrectly	2.41	2.23	1.91	2.21	2.36
Working slowly when things needed to get done	2.38	2.18	2.09	2.28	2.24
Failing to follow instructions	2.18	2.07	1.92	2.20	2.19
Stealing something belonging to employer	2.11	2.21	2.28	2.71	2.82
Taking supplies or tools without permission	2.23	2.26	2.31	2.68	2.89
Putting in to be paid more hours than actual ones	1.87	2.26	2.40	2.21	2.27
Stealing something belonging to co-workers	2.20	2.66	2.99	2.86	3.09

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (Very often) to 1 (Never)

Table 5-38 indicates that out of the 15 interviewees, 12 are of the view that employment status may influence an employee who perceives some inequities to engage in deviant behaviours.

Table 5-38: Interviewees responses based on employment status: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies				Total	
Temporary/ Contract		Permanent		Temporary		Contract		Agree	Disagree
Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree		
4	2	-	1	5	-	3	-	12	3

In the context of employment status, an employee in a Chinese-owned company stated:

I think as a young person working on temporary basis, low salaries may contribute to us stealing company property either to sell or make more money to supplement the low salary or to steal and use for our own part time jobs. Since the job is not very secure, one can be fired at any time, but this can also make us steal so that when we are fired, we have something from the company to use or sell and make money. (R15)

The opinion expressed by an employee in a domestic-owned company places this conflict and employment status issue into sharp relief:

As a single parent, salary is an important issue because I have more commitments in life, like family to look after compared to young ones. I don't steal because should I get caught or if cleaning or kitchen stuff start missing, then that means there will be no job for me. I used to work in a Chinese-owned company with my ex-boyfriend, he used to tell me that for most of the drivers they would break machineries as payback for low salaries, so that they would work less time and more overtime. (R2)

Those who resort to stealing co-workers' belongings, especially tools, have indicated that they are pressurised by economic hardship and want to increase their low income, as expressed by R15 who works for a Chinese-owned company on a contract basis. A

number of interviewees from both types of companies expressed views that suggested some employees could be stealing to either supplement their income by selling the items, or they keep the items for personal use. Interestingly, both R8 and R15 who have worked in Chinese-owned companies, shared the view that if the salaries are low and there is high job insecurity, then stealing is an option for them. However, R2 who works for a domestic-owned company on a contract basis has a different view. Though her salary is low, she does not steal for fear of being fired from the job, should she be caught stealing: the risk is too high.

Interestingly, the results demonstrate that personalities (and their individual moral frameworks) also have an influence on how one behaves in or responds to the same circumstances. For example, the results show that some employees will not engage in any deviant behaviour no matter what the circumstances, as illustrated by R2. Then there are those employees, such as R8 and R15, who will find reasons to justify why they engage in such deviant behaviour. Overall, the results demonstrate that in both types of companies, there are employees who perceive some unfairness in income distribution and job security, and who are prepared to retaliate by engaging in deviant behaviours. The only difference between the two types of companies is the magnitude of deviant behaviours taking place in relation to employment status, with employees in Chinese-owned companies identifying as those with stronger deviant behaviour.

Hours worked per day

The results in Table 5-39 indicate that in both types of companies, employees who work between nine and 11 hours have higher means on all the forms of conflict with statistically significant differences between the two types of companies. In relation to the statement 'Wasting employers' resources': the means (2.28; 2.62), ($F= 1.227$; $p<.05$) in

both types of companies; ‘Damaging a piece of equipment or employers property’: the means (2.26; 2.47), (F= 1.527; p<.05), on the statement, ‘Unfriendly attitudes towards supervisors’: means (2.23; 2.54), (F= 1.693; p<.05), in relation to the statement, ‘Stealing something belonging to employers’: the means (2.29; 2.83), (F= 1.568; p<.05) and on the statement, ‘Taking supplies and tools without permission’: the means (2.37; 2.91), (F= 2.001; p<.05) and lastly on the statement: ‘Stealing something belonging to co-workers’: the means (3.02; 3.60), (F= 1.068; p<.05) respectively. The results indicate that although in both companies those employees who work between nine and 11 hours are more likely to engage in deviant behaviours, the situation is more visible in Chinese-owned companies as compared to domestic-owned companies.

Table 5-39: Forms of conflict based on hours worked per day: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Forms of conflict	Domestic-owned companies			Chinese-owned companies		
	6-8	9-11	12+	6-8	9-11	12+
Wasting employers resources	2.06	2.28	2.00	2.19	2.62	3.00
Damaging a piece of equipment or property	2.16	2.26	2.00	2.33	2.47	3.00
Dirtying or littering workplace	2.42	2.25	3.00	2.69	2.34	2.50
Unfriendly attitudes towards supervisors	2.05	2.23	2.00	2.36	2.54	2.50
Unfriendly attitudes towards co-workers	2.54	2.23	2.00	2.53	2.46	2.50
Blaming someone for error they made	2.56	2.28	2.00	2.55	2.49	2.50
Doing their work incorrectly	2.45	2.00	2.00	2.36	2.31	3.00
Working slowly when things needed to get done	2.47	2.01	2.00	2.28	2.25	2.50
Failing to follow instructions	2.26	1.90	2.00	2.21	2.18	3.00
Stealing something belonging to employer	2.08	2.29	2.00	2.55	2.83	2.00
Taking supplies or tools without permission	2.13	2.37	2.00	2.38	2.91	2.50
Putting in to be paid more hours than actual ones	2.10	2.22	2.00	2.17	2.27	1.00
Stealing something belonging to co-workers	2.11	3.02	2.00	2.53	3.60	3.00

Note: Respondents were asked to rate the statement on a Likert scale of 5 (Very often) to 1 (Never)

Table 5-40 shows that all 15 interviewees agree that there is an association between the hours worked and forms of conflict. Relevant to this issue is the fact that ten of the interviewees worked more than eight hours a day.

Table 5-40: Interviewees responses based on hours worked per day: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Domestic-owned companies				Chinese-owned companies				Total	
8 hours or less		More than 8 hours		8 hours or less		More than 8 hours			
Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
2	-	5	-	3	-	5	-	15	-

Overall summary on forms of conflict

Based on the quantitative analysis and interviews, employees have indicated that at times they do engage in some forms of deviant behaviours as a way of retaliation in response to perceived unfairness. Most of the interviewees agree that some employees do steal from work whether this be time-theft, fraud, or embezzlement of goods or products; but that this does not mean that they are professional thieves or dishonest people. Instead they feel it is a way of responding to the unfair treatment they receive from employers either due to low income, lack of job security or simply because of the way that managers or supervisors interact with them.

From the interviews it has been noted that once employee conflict exists in the workplace as a result of perceived unfairness in income distribution, job security or managerial control, employees are likely to retaliate by engaging in deviant behaviours. For instance, employees may engage in sabotage, production deviance or theft. Employees can steal supplies, property and even time from the business by conducting personal matters on company time. An opinion such as the following was shared among many of the interviewees; this was from an employee in a domestic-owned company:

I think people only destroy or steal when they start feeling that they not being treated in a deserving manner, in most cases they feel cheated. I also think that if preventive control measures are not existent then the opportunities to engage in bad acts such as stealing, is very high. Mmm (giggled), in this company the internal controls are so sloppy that everyone can steal

if they wanted to, but guess most of us don't steal that much because the owners are good people; they trying to share the little they have fairly. (R4)

From the above quotation it can be seen that when employees feel that they are underpaid and under-appreciated for the 'hard' work they do, they are more likely to steal. Some steal because they feel there is a sense of entitlement and they do not think they are hurting anyone. Many may feel angry and entitled to steal from their employer because of perceived feelings of not receiving payments that are equivalent to the effort they put in or when they feel they are not being treated with dignity and respect. Thus, they are most likely to be tempted to find their own compensations as expressed by R9 who justifies his deviant behaviour on the grounds that he is not being fairly rewarded. Fascinatingly, the results also show that some of the employees emulate their supervisors or bosses' behaviours, as in the colloquial saying 'monkey see, monkey do'. For example, R5 is of the view that if bosses themselves engage in deviant behaviour, why would employees not engage in the sort of deviant behaviour they see from their supervisors. The employees assume that leaders are acting in their own self-interest and not in the interest of the company, and these leaders know how to get away with such deviant behaviour because they understand company policies very well.

The interviewees are of the view that in some instances the lack of regulations or rules on deviant behaviours, or lack of monitoring systems, may have an influence on whether or not an employee engages in deviant behaviours. When employees notice that the consequences for engaging in any forms of conflict are minimal, they are more likely to engage in such behaviour. For instance, R4 who works in a domestic-owned company, notes that in his company there are no punitive procedures or policies regarding employee theft. Furthermore, R4 notes that although in his company (domestic-owned) the security

measures or monitoring are very weak, stealing is very minimal – a fact he attributes to good employer-employee relationships.

The overall results indicate that in Chinese-owned companies there is a higher incidence of deviant behaviours as compared to domestic-owned companies. Interestingly, R13 (employed in a Chinese-owned company) shares the same sentiments as R4 quoted above from a domestic-owned company. R13 observes that lack of control over inventory or inadequate monitoring systems make it easy to steal because the employer does not have preventive measures to stop them. Additionally, the interviewees indicate that if there are no set consequences for company sabotage or theft, then employees are likely to steal, or continue to steal, because they think that they would not be punished.

The results also show that in domestic-owned companies, the respondents indicate that there is more likely to be a sense of loyalty to the organisation; hence, some choose not to steal despite a lack of effective monitoring or regulations that guard against counterproductive work behaviours. They feel that the company has been their main source of employment for a long time or that the management and supervisors treat them in a dignified manner. On the other hand, a significant number of employees in Chinese-owned companies are of the view that there is usually no hesitation to act in deviant ways because the (negative) treatment received from management and supervisors warrants retaliatory behaviours.

5.7 Relationship between Causes of Conflict and Forms of Conflict

This section discusses whether there is any significant relationship between causes of conflict and forms of conflict in domestic-owned as against Chinese-owned companies. The results from the linear regression analysis in Table 5-41 show that in domestic-owned companies, only theft has an impact on the causes of conflict that is statistically significant at 5%. In Chinese-owned companies on the other hand, all the causes of conflict show a statistically significant impact on forms of conflict.

Table 5-41: Predictors of forms of conflict: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

	Domestic-owned companies			Chinese-owned companies		
	Sabotage	Production Deviance	Theft	Sabotage	Production Deviance	Theft
R	.092	0.034	.191	.274	.306	.241
R ²	.008	0.001	.037	.075	.094	.058
R ² Adjusted	.000	-0.008	.028	.065	.084	.048
Standard Error	.895	0.891	1.067	.805	.867	1.071
F-Statistics	.959	0.133	4.295	7.350	9.263	5.547
Sig.	.412	0.940	.005*	.000*	.000*	.001*

Note: (*) means there is significance; $p < .05$

Table 5-42 coefficient results show that in domestic-owned companies, there is no statistically significant relationship between income distribution and forms of conflict (sabotage, production deviance or theft). In relation to job security, there is no statistically significant relationship with sabotage and production deviance, but there is positive relationship with theft that is statistically significant at 5%. Comparing this to the same coefficient results for the Chinese-owned companies, there is negative and significant relationship between income distribution (i.e. higher income disparity) and the two conflict forms of sabotage and theft at the 5% level. In relation to the perception of lack of job security, there is a statistically significant and positive relationship with sabotage and theft. An inequity perception of managerial control has a statistically significant and positive relationship with two forms of conflict, these being sabotage and production at

the 5% level. Overall there are six significant results for the Chinese-owned companies, compared to only one for domestic-owned companies; with relationships moving in the same direction and as described throughout the chapter.

Table 5-42: Coefficients for predictors of forms of conflict: domestic- and Chinese-owned companies

Models	Domestic-owned companies			Chinese-owned companies		
	Sabotage	Production Deviance	Theft	Sabotage	Production Deviance	Theft
Constant	2.866 (.000)	2.419 (.000)	1.504 (.005)	2.277 (.000)	1.602 (.003)	1.787 (.007)
Income distribution	-.080 (.355)	-.027 (.754)	-.010 (.920)	-.326 (.001*)	-.187 (.083)	-.279 (.037*)
Job security	-.088 (.324)	-.039 (.664)	.329 (.002*)	.243 (.005*)	.048 (.605)	.425 (.000*)
Managerial control	.023 (.788)	-.013 (.877)	-.088 (.384)	.224 (.014*)	.459 (.000*)	.162 (.181)

Note: (*) means there is significance; $p < .05$

5.8 Chapter Summary

The results presented in this chapter indicate that exposure to conflict in the Botswana construction industry is high. The results indicate that there is a significant relationship between the causes and forms of conflict. The majority of respondents have engaged in or at least witnessed, some form of conflict. Majority of the interviewees are of the view that financial hardship might lead one to behave immorally. The interviewees argue that some employees engage in deviant behaviours, such as stealing either in direct response to something a manager did (or did not do) or because they are financially desperate. An overall view from the results indicate that due to income disparity, lack of job security and poor manager-employee relationship in the workplace, employees may, or may be more likely to, engage in deviant behaviours.

Employees are thus under pressure to try and balance the inequity perceived, and deviant behaviour may be one route to relieve that pressure. For example, it is observed from the

interviewees' statements, that in most cases their employment status and income level has a great influence on their decision to engage in deviant behaviours such as stealing. The temporary nature of their employment and the lower pay (compared to full-time remuneration) lead some of these employees to believe that engaging in deviant behaviours is justified. The rationale is that deviant behaviour will only minimally affect the company, and the perpetrator will leave the employment within a few weeks anyway or have no ongoing employment status.

From these findings it can be seen that many of the interviewees shared similar sentiments as to the reasons for employees to engage in behaviours that are not ethical. Some of the reasons that have been found to drive an employee to engage in activities such as theft (or pilfering) are: the individual may be in need of cash or other items because of their own personal situation, or they may just simply see the opportunity and chose to take advantage of it; others were of the view that factors such as the (low) salary earned, job insecurity and bad relations with managers or supervisors will result in dissatisfaction and low morale, leading in turn to grumbling, complaining, talking among themselves, and coming up with schemes to punish the company/employer or sabotage the supervisor (who is seen as the embodiment of the employer). This will result in deviant behaviours such as theft and breaking machinery in order to harm the employer. Damaging machinery may also be a way to protest, or to slow down the work so that it is more commensurate with the low salaries. To some extent, lack of job security and poor manager-employee or supervisor-employee interactions will result in unproductive relations with supervisors. In the eyes of the employees, supervisors (in spite of the fact that they are also getting their hands 'dirty') are in agreement with the employers that workers are to be exploited. The results from both quantitative and qualitative data

provide evidence of the ways in which inequity of income distribution, lack of job security, and poor relations with managerial control can lead to deviant behaviours.

Taken in full, this study's results provide a consistent view of discretionary behavioural actions being linked to income distribution, job security and managerial control. The respondents reported engaging in actions that harm the organisation. The results indicate that in both domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies various factors such as age, education and income levels, employment status and duration worked in the company have an influence on how employees perceive income distribution, job security and managerial control. The results show that in both types of companies most of the employees who are: (i) within the age range of 20 and 30 years, (ii) have attained only low education levels (primary and secondary), (iii) mostly employed either temporary or on contract, and (iv) have worked for less than two years are all more likely to retaliate in the event that negative behaviours are perceived from management. The results also reveal that (particularly in Chinese-owned companies) job security and managerial control are viewed as being major causes of conflict, prompting employees to retaliate by engaging in various deviant behaviours. The results also reveal that (again, largely in Chinese-owned companies) employees are of the view that cultural differences, especially those relating to language, causes poor communication which in turn leads to tension, and to the employees tending to feel that employers do not treat them in respectful ways. For example, most of the employees in Chinese-owned companies feel that the Chinese supervisors always shout at them, but this could be a result of frustrations on the part of the supervisors due to their failure properly to understand or practise cultural subtleties that are inherent in addressing people with different language expertise.

The discussion that follows in the next chapter will explain in detail how the conceptual framework and literature used in this study situates the research results, and specifically how they frame the answers to the research questions.

Chapter Six: Discussion

6.0 Introduction

Drawing upon the foundation laid in the existing literature, this thesis has identified three broad factors that are considered to be the causes of conflict in the workplace. These factors centre on (a) income distribution, (b) job security and (c) managerial control. These themes are applied in the context of this study to understand and examine if there are any differences in what employees perceive as the causes and forms of conflict in Botswana construction companies between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies. The conceptual framework in Figure 2:1 is helpful in the sense that it depicts a link between the various forms of deviant behaviours that employees are likely to engage in when they perceive any form of unfairness with respect to the three causal factors. For instance, the results reveal that employees in Chinese-owned companies engage in almost all forms of conflict when they perceive that wages paid to them do not compare favourably to the work done (i.e. perceived income disparity).

This discussion chapter addresses the main research question by examining causes of conflict and forms of conflict and how they relate with each other in both types of companies. The two sub-questions are answered through this chapter in the relevant sections. The research findings set out in Chapter 5 provide insights supported by the extant literature to address the questions of this study. Section 6.1 discusses the differences identified as to whether unfairness in income distribution is perceived as a cause of conflict. The section also discusses the forms of conflict that employees engage in as a way of retaliation when they perceive income distribution as a cause of conflict. Section 6.2 discusses employees' perceptions as to whether job security is a cause of

conflict and the forms of conflict that employees engage in when they perceive their job as being insecure. Section 6.3 discusses employees' perception as to whether managerial control is a cause of conflict and the forms of conflict that employees are likely to engage in when employees perceive unfairness in managerial actions. Section 6.4 answers the research major question as to whether there are reasons for any conflict differences on how employees in both types of companies perceive the three causes of conflict and the forms of conflict that they might use to retaliate. Section 6.5 proposes a modified conceptual framework for future research. Section 6.6 closes the chapter with a summary.

6.1 Income Distribution and Forms of Conflict

This section discusses employees' perceptions of income distribution and forms of conflict that employees engage in should they perceive disparities. Based on ownership, the overall t-test results indicate that the differences of the mean scores are statistically significant. Thus the findings indicate that there are statistically significant differences between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies, on how employees perceived income distribution to be the cause of conflict, and the forms of conflict that they engage in once there is a feeling of discontentment at the workplace.

Generally, there is a common feeling shared by employees in both types of companies: they consider their financial compensation to be inadequate as it does not equate to the long hours they work. The results demonstrate that 73% of respondents in domestic-owned companies and 82% in Chinese-owned companies are of the view that salary is the cause of conflict. These findings are consistent with those of Jackson (2014) who notes in a study of 11 Chinese MNEs with subsidiaries in a range of developed and developing nations, that generally companies initially paid higher rates than the market average in developed countries to compensate for the lack of training and development opportunities

(which the MNEs did not provide). Secondly, these Chinese MNEs were also believed not to be committed to employment participation and involvement; they appear satisfied that higher wages would attract host-country nationals while those “soft” participation aspects would rarely cause labour disputes. Yet subsidiaries in developing countries (including those in Africa) were paid low wages with poor working conditions, in contrast to the generally good working conditions that these MNEs operate within developed countries. The findings of the current study are consistent with most of the studies conducted in Africa and some in China that find in most cases workers felt that they had no choice but to work long hours of overtime, even without any extra pay (Akorsu & Cooke, 2011; Baah & Jauch, 2009; Chan, 1998; Gadzala, 2010; Lee, 2009; Li, 2010; Wood, 2011). The findings of this current study form a further argument regarding the relative weakness of local institutions and regulatory regimes in the relation to powerful MNEs setting up in developing countries.

In addition, 58% of employees in domestic-owned companies and 77% of employees from Chinese-owned companies are of the view that even though employees are doing the same job they are paid different salaries, thereby causing conflict. This implies that other employees perceive their reward-to-output ratio to be less than that of their colleagues and as a result these employees experience feelings of inequity and dissatisfaction. This finding of current study is consistent with other studies which argue that if there are differential pay-rates for similar work, this more often than not leads to feelings of unfairness which in turn lead to deviant behaviours (John et al., 2014; Pitesa & Thau, 2014; Scholl et al., 1987). John et al. (2014) findings suggest that reduced monetary incentives can cause people to cheat when they are aware that others are earning more. Hence John et al. (2014) suggest low pay-rates may be unlikely in and of themselves to promote cheating; rather, it is the salient of upward comparisons that appears to matter.

Similar to the findings of John et al. (2014) and Lyddon et al. (2015), the findings of the current study indicate that employees do engage in deviant workplace behaviours such as theft so they can feel compensated for the low pay or any unfairness in payment received, especially in cases where the employees perceive that they are doing the same job with others but the pay is lower. It is in the Chinese-owned companies that these perceptions are more prevalent, and where higher incidences of deviant workplace behaviour take place.

The findings of this current study – that Chinese-owned companies pay better than domestic-owned companies – is inconsistent with the findings of other scholars (Alden, 2006; Aitken et al., 1996; Budd et al., 2002; Lipsey & Sjöholm, 2001) who suggest that foreign-owned companies pay better than domestic-owned companies, which, they emphasise, is used as a responding mechanism to social pressure to combat desperately poor working conditions. Driffield and Taylor (2006) find that high foreign-owned companies' presence in an industry caused wages to rise for domestic-owned firms, but not all foreign investments, as some firms were associated with paying below the average. However, in this study there seems to be no changes in wages in the job market. In the current study, most of the interviewed respondents are of the view that there is no difference in pay between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies unless in those rare cases that the employee holds a high position such as an engineer. For instance, interviewee R12 who has worked for both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies notes "...both types of companies are only concerned about their immediate benefits, making more money at the expense of employees. This is because they are aware they will go to another location in two or three years, whenever they find a better opportunity". This view is shared by many respondents, and a higher percentage of employees in Chinese-owned companies perceived this 'opportunistic' approach to paying low wages.

Based on the perceptions of the respondents interviewed, there are no differences between both types of companies in the matter of salaries paid. This perception was particularly strong among employees in Chinese-owned companies as it is thought that these companies were more focused on profit maximisation with minimal social responsibility. This view resonates with Adams' (1963) argument that whenever two individuals exchange anything, there is the possibility that one or both of them will feel that the exchange was inequitable. Adams further explains that such is frequently the case when an employee exchanges his services for pay. On the employee's side of the exchange are his education, intelligence, experience and very importantly, the effort he expends on the job. All these aspects are what an employee perceives as her/his contributions to the exchange, for which he expects a just return. R12, who is quantity surveyor, holds this perception. The findings reveal that employees from both types of ownership perceive that they work under constant threat of wage theft by their employers, as 40% of employees agreed to the statement that they are not paid for overtime worked, and those who are illegal immigrants claim they often prefer not to complain as they fear deportation. This finding reflects the arguments advanced by scholars based on a Marxist school of thought that the owners accumulate vast resources and control the livelihood of workers, hence the dominant class exploits and oppresses the subject class (Chambliss, 1973; Edwards, 1982; Eweje, 2009).

This particular observation in the current study is somewhat similar to the findings of Eweje (2009) who notes that foreign companies, especially the Chinese companies in Africa, are there as commercial enterprises with profit motives, and not for the well-being of their employees. Consistent with this current study's finding, Olomolaiye and Ogunlana (1988) surveyed employees in the Nigerian construction industry and found that employees were not content with their current payments or wages, sharing a similar

perception to the respondents in the current study. The findings from the current study reveal that employees in Chinese-owned companies as compared to those in domestic-owned companies are of the view that the employers do not care about their welfare, as there have been fatal accidents in the workplace as a result of a lack of protective clothing.

Additionally, the findings of the current study provide ample evidence that different factors can influence employee perception of what is fair or unfair. Factors such as gender, education and income levels, marital status, employment status and duration in the company were identified as having an influence on employees' perception of a fair reward system. This finding is consistent with the findings of other scholars (e.g. Hollinger et al.,1992; Te Velde & Morrissey, 2003), indicating that there is a significant positive relationship between perceptions of inequity in gender and education level with deviant behaviours. The findings of current study reveal that in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies there are only a few employees with higher wages, longer tenure and better education; and as a result, they rarely engage in deviant behaviours.

Based on employment status, the results indicate that there are significant differences in how employees perceive income distribution as a cause of conflict, irrespective of company type. The findings reveal that employees who are temporary employed and do not occupy higher positions receive low wages. They have less opportunity to advance, and the constitute majority of those who engage in deviant work behaviour. This finding is consistent with the findings of Hollinger and Clark (1983) that young and new or part-time employees have been associated with a greater degree of deviant behaviours. Particularly the young and the less educated are perceived to be less confident about their job and less satisfied than those who are highly educated, and such employees' job

perceptions strongly impact upon their work behaviour. The findings of the current study lends support to Peterson's (2002) argument that employees who are younger, employed temporarily and occupying low-paying positions are more likely to engage in deviant work behaviour as these individuals hold typically lower status and lower paying jobs, and are therefore inherently less committed, loyal and satisfied than other employees.

Considering the relationship between income distribution and forms of conflict, multiple regressions were conducted to determine how each of the variables predicts the other variable. Based on the coefficient results, there are statistically significant associations between income distribution and two forms of conflict (sabotage and theft) in Chinese-owned companies. On the other hand, in domestic-owned companies there is no statistically significant association between income distribution and any form of conflict. The results demonstrate that most of the employees in Chinese-owned companies engaged in deviant behaviours and that this is associated with income disparities. Some of the perceptions held by employees who frequently engage in deviant behaviours, especially in Chinese-owned companies, indicate that employees are concerned about the fairness in distribution of resources like rewards and pay; this finding lends credence to the theory of distributive justice (Adams, 1963; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Deutsch, 1975; Folger, 1977). However, those in domestic-owned companies are of the view that despite some disparities in wages paid to employees, it is not a good idea to retaliate by engaging in deviant behaviours since they have been with the companies for a longer period.

The current results also reveal that in some instances employees who perceive psychological contract breach (for example, the perception that what they received from their employer fell short of their effort and what had been promised them) were more

abusive towards their supervisors and sometimes to co-workers, and that this effect is more strongly present in Chinese-owned companies as compared to domestic-owned companies. This finding lends support to the argument by Bakhshi et al. (2009) and Buchanan (2008) that when the organisational climate is one that fosters a sense in its employees that the organisation cares about their welfare, then employees are less likely to engage in politically deviant behaviours.

As was identified in Chapter 2, scholars have proposed that when employees perceive some form of inequity, their reaction often leads to workplace deviance such as theft (Adams, 1965; Gino & Mogilner, 2014; Greenberg, 1990a, 1993; Moorthy et al., 2015; Oppler et al., 2008; Ryan & Wessel, 2015; Wang et al., 2014). This study's findings resonate with Adams' (1965) equity theory, which argues that employees compare their ratio of outcomes (e.g. pay, raises, promotions) to inputs (e.g. skill, training, education, effort) with the ratio of referent others (e.g. a co-worker). Equity is experienced when equivalent inputs result in equivalent outcomes in comparison to the referent other. In summary, when employees experience unfairness or injustice, they will be motivated to resolve this injustice and one viable option is through acts of deviance (Lyddon et al., 2015; Oppler et al., 2008; Shaw, 2014; Shoss et al., 2015). From the interviews, the respondents are of the view that salary is the main reason they work and if they perceive that they are not compensated fairly it leaves them (they feel) with no option but to resort to other means of showing displeasure with the employers. This finding lends support to Parks et al. (1998) who report that temporary employees can readily perceive breaches in transactional psychological contract, as they focus on short-term and tangible elements such as salary; whereas those employed on a permanent basis are more influenced by relational psychological contract as they focus on the long-term and intangible elements such as promotion and employee development. The current study findings show that there

are significant differences on the question of how employees in domestic- and Chinese-owned companies view the disparities in payment. In the current study, the results indicate that employees view the discrepancy in employment as being due to a psychological contract breach which is large and impossible to resolve. As a result, some of the employees believe that it is necessary to resort to deviant behaviours to compensate for the imbalance perceived. This finding also lends support to Blau (1964) under the social exchange theory that when employees do perceive that their organisation has not fulfilled its promises; they are motivated to attempt to restore a balance to the employment relationship.

In domestic-owned companies, 58% of respondents felt that there is unfairness in the differential payments made to employees who are doing the same jobs. In contrast, 77% of respondents in Chinese-owned companies' perceived differential payments as being unfair as they perceive that even though employees perform the same jobs, they are paid unequal amounts. Hence employees often slow down production, so as to lift their salary through increased overtime pay. This finding lends credence to Klotz and Buckley's (2013) contention that in today's workplace employees often possess the technology and autonomy to harm the organisation in more covert ways as compared to the traditional more obvious ways. The findings indicate that, especially in Chinese-owned companies, individuals steal from their employers to restore balance to a situation in which they feel they have put in effort above and beyond the compensation they otherwise receive (inequity). Precisely this kind of theft is linked to underpayment for work performed, and this is supported by findings of other studies (e.g. Gino & Mogilner, 2014; Greenberg, 1990a; Gross-Schaefer et al., 2000; Oppler et al., 2008; Sharma et al., 2014; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). This finding is also consistent with previous research which indicates that individuals want jobs primarily for the rewards to themselves in material goods, power

and prestige, and all these are directly linked to the salary one earns (Collins, 1971; Diener & Oishi, 2000; Hyman, 1989; Leana & Meuris, 2015; Oppler et al., 2008). If the employee which if not satisfied with the perceived equity of these rewards, then conflict and inefficiency at the workplace is often the result.

The findings of this study in relation to income distribution demonstrate that workers place great value on salary awarded them by their employers. Basically, this study provides evidence in support of the view that the level of wages paid does alter individual behaviour. Specifically, when wages is a prominent concern, individuals appear to increase their efforts to behave in ways that are most likely to maximise their pay. Hence, when these salaries are perceived to be unfair, workers tend to express their displeasure through poor performance, non-commitment to their job or resort to deviant behaviours (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Oppler et al., 2008). For example, R4 "...think[s] people only destroy or steal when they start feeling that they are not being treated in a deserving manner" and R13 notes "[I] am just overworked and my salary does not even show why I'm always leaving my house at the early hours and come at night, so if any opportunity comes my direction I will utilise it." These two quotations make a clear claim that employees engage in certain forms of conflict as a response to low salaries. This response is more significant in Chinese-owned companies, because employees feel more strongly in these companies that employers are not even personally respectful; hence if an opportunity presents itself, employees may not hesitate to engage in deviant activities such as theft.

Hence, when employees feel deprived in one instance, it may seem fair that they subsequently engage in deviant behaviours to correct the perceived imbalance in their financial position, and this supports the findings of Sharma et al. (2014). This argument is

consistent with equity theory (Adams, 1965), by which employees judge the acceptability of actions (their own and others) based on the ratio of inputs and outputs of the given parties, and attempt to restore equity to compensate for an outcome that seems deserved but is denied. These findings provide more compelling evidence that when employees perceive an imbalance (or unfairness) in how they are rewarded or treated, they react through retaliation (Buchanan, 2008; Choi & Chen, 2007; Deutsch, 1973; (Everton et al., 2007).

This study finds from the interviews some indication of support for the Greenberg (1993) argument that the deviant background of an employee with bad characteristics has a positive relationship with employee theft. However, this relationship is mediated by need and opportunity arising from perceptions of inequity. A person with good characteristics, even if there is a 'need pressure' due to inequity and there is an opportunity, will not necessarily indulge in theft behaviour – an example is provided by R4 who works in a domestic-owned company. R4 acknowledges that though the salary he gets is not sufficient, he does not engage in any deviant behaviours because the company has been his employment provider for five years. This study indicates there is evidence in this study based a few interviews that in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies, there do exist employees who engage in deviant acts such as theft for a variety of reasons. Some commit this deviant behaviour against the business because they perceive unfairness, or they may simply be opportunists who occasionally take advantage of structural flaws in the monitoring within the business – as indicated by some of the interview respondents in Chinese-owned companies. While strictly beyond the remit of this current study, it is of interest to cite here Greenberg's (1997) study of the 'theft motive' which examines this issue in detail and concludes that the intention to steal,

whether driven by personal variables or job attitudes, can be prevented by a lack of perceived opportunity when security controls are tight.

Consistent with previous studies, the findings of the current study implies that those employees who perceive their wages (or a pay-cut to same) as being unfair are more likely to engage in employee theft, presumably to reinstate fairness (Garcia et al., 2015; Greenberg, 1990a; Loi et al., 2015; Oppler et al., 2008). In related work, Zitek et al. (2010) show that people who perceive that they have been unfairly treated behave selfishly due to a sense of entitlement. For example, other studies have indicated that employees were inclined to steal company property when they felt they were underpaid for the work they have done, and this is consistent with the findings of this study (Giese & Thiel, 2015; Greenberg, 1990a). These findings lend supporting evidence to the suggestion that it is important to have a just reward system, not only because it is the 'right' thing to do, but also because employees' positive perceptions of justice lead to a variety of desirable attitudes (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Bordia et al., 2008) and this is supported by Litzky et al. (2006). Inequities in the design of the compensation and reward systems can encourage employees to engage in deviant behaviours especially if the compensation system is perceived by employees to be unfair to themselves.

Taken together, the theories and empirical findings discussed above suggest that when employees perceive that there is unfairness in income distribution, they will be less committed to the organisation, feel less obliged to abide by organisational norms and are more likely to engage in deviant behaviours directed against the organisation. The results indicate that a majority of employees in both types of companies perceive that there is an element of unfairness in the compensation systems, especially where these systems award unequal pay for equal work. The results indicate that employees in both types of

companies (though significantly more in the case of those that are Chinese-owned) are of the view that despite working many hours the wages are still inadequate because overtime rates that are stipulated by the government are not in fact paid by employers. The results also reveal that, compared to domestic-owned companies, the employees in Chinese-owned companies report significantly higher rates of various forms of deviant employee behaviours. This current study contributes to existing literature by its comparative basis: most of the previous studies have looked only at Chinese-owned companies (e.g. Akorsu & Cooke, 2011; Asiedu, 2004; Eweje, 2009; Kuang, 2008; Mung, 2008).

This study shows that when both types of companies are examined some interesting insights are gained. In both companies, employees' perceptions are similar in that they share the view that income distribution is a cause of conflict. The results also show that in domestic-owned companies some employees might not engage in deviant behaviours despite low wages because they have established a degree of loyalty with the companies. In Chinese-owned companies however, some employees are likely be of the view that they will only work once in the company, and that their employment future is uncertain, so it is easier to justify than to resist the opportunities to engage in deviant behaviours.

6.2 Job Security and Forms of Conflict

This section discusses employees' perceptions about job security and forms of conflict that employees use, in the event they perceive differences. Job security has been noted to be a common cause of conflict in the workplace, especially in the Chinese-owned companies of the Botswana construction industry.

The t-test results indicate that the differences of the mean scores are statistically significant between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies, on the question of

how employees perceive lack of job security as the cause of conflict. The results demonstrate that 69% of respondents in domestic-owned companies and 82% in Chinese-owned companies are of the view that lack of job security is a cause of conflict. This finding provides support to the argument that foreign-owned companies offer less secure employment because they can more easily shift production across locations and this result in employees losing their jobs (Dill & Jirjahn, 2014). In the current study, employees in Chinese-owned companies feel that they have less job security than employees in domestic-owned companies.

In addition, 60% of employees in domestic-owned companies and 70% of employees from Chinese-owned companies indicate that due to low job security, there are few complaints from employees. Also, 57% of employees in domestic-owned companies and 81% of employees from Chinese-owned companies perceived that they could be fired at any time, which may lead to conflict. Previous research indicates that the perception of having a job but not knowing whether it is secure has been classified as one of the more stressful burdens that an employee can shoulder (Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Probst, 2010; Reisel et al., 2010). Job insecurity then means employees are more likely to react or respond negatively to this situation – and so becoming the cause of more disputes.

The results of this study provide evidence that there are statistically significant differences in the forms of conflict that employees in domestic- and Chinese-owned companies engage in as a response to causes of conflict. For example R12, who works in a Chinese-owned company, notes “...you are afraid that someone will see you if you take a five minute break and continuously keep their eyes on you, hoping you’ll make a mistake so they can fire you”. R6, who has worked for both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies, said: “...if I complain, my job is in jeopardy, so I am forced to be

quiet and not to complain. If I can go talk to someone at the labour offices, I'd only make my situation worse". These opinions were shared by a majority of employees in both types of company-ownership. Employees believe that the procedures in their companies were unfair, and that their work behaviours are over-scrutinised. As a result, they were more resentful and more likely to behave aggressively towards their supervisors. This finding also provides support in favour of previous studies in this line of investigation (Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Choi & Chen, 2007; Deng, 2014; Kinnunen & Natti, 1994).

In the present study, it is evident that there is a relationship between employment status and job insecurity and this is consistent with Wang et al. (2014). For example, in Chinese-owned companies, the results indicate that there is a significant relationship between temporary work and perception of job insecurity. The results indicate that 72% of temporary workers report a high degree of job insecurity and this is consistent with Bernhard-Oettel et al. (2011), Isaksson et al. (2005) and Kraimer et al (2005). Gadzala (2010) finds that in Zambia, for instance, local mine- and construction-workers are continually being laid off as Chinese workers are hired to work on Chinese-run projects. The findings of this study indicate that employees from Chinese-owned companies are of the view that due to lack of job security, employees tend to tolerate a lot from the employers, for fear of being dismissed from work, and this is supported by other studies in a similar context (Fajana, 2008; Giese & Thiel, 2015; Iyanda, 1999; Omari & Paull, 2015; Uhl-Bien & Carsten, 2007).

In the context of this study, in 2014 Botswana had an unemployment rate of 20%, a fact that has become particularly harmful for employees, as it places pressure on them to work harder and for longer hours, in response to their feelings of uncertainty about their future. The findings of this study (with respect to perceptions of job insecurity) is consistent with

the International Labour Organization's (2001) and Probst and Brubaker's (2001) research, both of which found that due to a high unemployment rate in most developing countries, construction employees stay in a job because there are few or no alternatives. This finding is consistent with previous research conducted in construction settings (International Labour Organization, 2001; Olomolaiye & Ogunlana, 1988), and suggests that the perceived threats to job security have deleterious effects on employees. The present study extends the previous studies, in that the results indicate that most of the respondents work long hours not because they are explicitly told to do so but because they implicitly expect negative repercussions if they don't. The results also indicate that the feeling of job insecurity is more significant for those who have financial responsibility for their families, or for those who feel that they would have trouble finding alternative employment. This corroborates the findings of Baah and Jauch (2009), Guliwe (2009) and Olomolaiye and Ogunlana (1988).

Considering the relationship between job security and forms of conflict, multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine each of the variables with respect to predicting other variables. The coefficient results reveal that in domestic-owned companies there is statistically significant association between lack of job security and theft. By way of contrast, in Chinese-owned companies there is statistically significant association between lack of job security and *all* statements on forms of conflict, excluding only production deviance. In the current study, the findings demonstrate that employees in both types of companies would rather channel their anger and workplace frustration through safer methods than production deviance because destruction/wastage of material or supplies can be noticed, and punishment or action can be taken against them. This also may explain why the majority of employees said they did not waste materials.

In this study, the results indicate that though employees in both types of ownership engage in deviant workplace behaviour, it is more common in Chinese-owned companies and a lack of monitoring makes it easier to engage in the act. As in other studies, this finding is consistent with the assertion that employees are not likely to engage in production deviance, since the possibility of destruction of property is more likely to be the subject of strict surveillance by the organisation, and discovery could even result in arrest, depending on the severity of the act (Spector et al., 2006). In the current study, respondents perceive that many factors such as lack of communication, mistreatment or unfairness contribute to employees engaging in deviant behaviours because no clear information is shared with them regarding their job security. This study further established that job insecurity is perceived as a breach of relational psychological contract entitlements, which, in turn, reduces job satisfaction and organisational commitment, thus leading to deviant behaviours. This contradicts the Sutton (2007) finding that workers with job insecurity increase their work effort and productivity to earn extra cash and a good recommendation in preparation for a job loss. Hence, the findings of the current study suggest that job insecurity, and consequent conflict through deviant behaviour, is related to unfavourable outcomes particularly among those working on a temporary employment basis in Chinese-owned companies.

In evaluating the employees' perceptions of job security, both equity and social exchange theories prove to be useful in explaining the results. According to these theories, in an interdependent workplace relationship, poor treatment by one's supervisor indicates an imbalance that subordinates seek to rectify by engaging in negative behaviours themselves. The findings reveal that when employees perceive some unfairness from their employers they will, where possible, withdraw effort and commitment, and engage in deviant behaviours (Bernhard-Oettel et al., 2011; Colbert et al., 2004). In their study,

Colbert et al. (2004) found that when the employee and the employer perceive that each has been treated well by the other, the norm of reciprocity is applied by both parties, which leads to beneficial outcomes for both. The findings of the current study reveal that once employees perceive unfairness they may be drawn to redress the imbalance in their financial position by adopting questionable moral behaviours. The same rationality may also lead deprived people to treat other people's immoral behaviour more leniently when the perpetrator is also deprived (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). The current findings reveal that employees in Chinese-owned companies in particular are more concerned about fairness in the decision-making process in relation to job security; the results indicate that the perception is that more often than not employees in these companies can be fired without prior notification. This indicates that procedural justice is lacking in these organisations.

Also these findings support the predictions made by social exchange theorists, who have viewed employment as the exchange of effort and loyalty for tangible benefits and social rewards. Thus the current study extends an existing theme in the literature that employees in both types of ownership who perceive that their jobs and others in the organisation are secure, or have clear understanding of their work status, are less likely to reciprocate by engaging in any deviant behaviours, and vice versa. The results of the current study reveal that employees in Chinese-owned companies are more likely than employees in domestic-owned companies to engage in deviant behaviours when they perceive that the employers are failing to adhere to the psychological contract expectation of providing secure employment; Giese and Thiel (2015) also make this point.

The findings of the current study also reinforces the work of other scholars such as Callea et al. (2016) who find that job insecurity is more of a negative for temporary employees since these employees experience a (perceived) gross violation of the psychological

contract. These authors note that under conditions of high job insecurity, temporary workers are less satisfied when they perceive potential losses (i.e. lower pay and less praise from colleagues and supervisors); while for permanent employees the results are less drastic. Hence, in the current study it is appropriate to suggest that job satisfaction decreases when employees perceive that their psychological contract has been violated, and this is in line with De Cuyper and De Witte (2006) findings.

6.3 Managerial Control and Forms of Conflict

The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies as to how employees perceive managerial control as being a cause of conflict. Additionally, considering the relationship between managerial control and forms of conflict, multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine each of the variables with respect to predicting other variables. The coefficient results indicate that in domestic-owned companies there is no statistically significant association between managerial control and forms of conflict. In contrast, in Chinese-owned companies there is a statistically significant association between managerial control and two forms of conflict, these being sabotage and production deviance.

The results demonstrate that 83% of respondents in domestic-owned companies and 64% in Chinese-owned companies are of the view that management behaviour and attitude is the cause of conflict. In addition to the survey results, nine respondents who participated in the interviews, and who have either worked or still work in Chinese-owned companies, are of the view that the Chinese managers do not treat them in a dignified manner. They report verbally abusive behaviour from managers and complain about managers who often fail to show respect to employees' work as well as to their personal needs. For most of them, their job has become necessary only in order to survive (survival necessity); they

take no joy or pride in what they do. These views expressed by the interviewees indicate that employees perceive that their employers do not treat them fairly and respectfully. As a result, employees are less convinced that the organisations are concerned with employees' interests in decision-making or in their general well-being. This finding indicates that overall employees (of Chinese-owned companies) perceive the relationships with their managers negatively. The majority of respondents in Chinese-owned companies are not satisfied with the support given them, nor with the way management relates to them, especially in the area of participation in decision-making. This finding is consistent with the findings of Arsene (2014), Omari and Paull (2015) and Mathieu et al. (2016) in which the respondents indicate that they often received negative behaviours from supervisors or managers. The findings of this current study suggest that if employees receive respectful treatment and if they are well informed about the decisions affecting them, their perceptions of organisational justice may significantly improve (in line with Burton et al., 2008; Mohamed, 2014; Schilpzand et al., 2013).

A closer examination of the data for the two types of companies reveals that 65% of employees in domestic-owned companies and 77% of employees from Chinese-owned companies are of the view that management acting out of self-interest is one of the causes of conflict. These results suggest that respondents from Chinese-owned companies are of the view that management act out of self-interest, and that is a possible cause of conflict. For instance, most of the respondents expressed views similar to the views of R9 who works in a Chinese-owned company: "...some supervisors know everything that's going on, because they are local, they understand our language and listen to what people say. But they only tell the owners what they think will not jeopardise their own jobs". This finding lends support to the argument that management of foreign-owned companies usually act out of self-interest, thereby leading to conflict. This finding is consistent with

studies that suggest that most of the operations of foreign companies in Africa are driven only by profit-making motives, and this is irrespective of any ethical or social concerns they may publicly espouse (Arsene, 2014; Baah & Jauch, 2009; Guliwe, 2009; Palmer, 2012).

Also, the present study's findings are similar to other research which indicate that managers in Eastern Europe and Russia are often perceived by local employees as being interested in pursuing personal (business) interests and consciously neglect employee development (Engelhard & Nägele, 2003). Interestingly, the findings of the current study is in line with the findings of Dzimbiri (2010) who notes that Africans or Batswana in this case are 'collectivists' by nature and therefore value group effort and success: they want, even need, to feel as part of the organisation. Botswana culture also embraces freedom of expression, for example in proverbs such as '*mmualebe o a be a bua la gagwe*' (where everyone has the right to express his/her views), are to be found a wisdom which encourages the right of freedom of speech and promotes democratic values among people, even the 'ordinary' people, by encouraging them to raise their voices in decision-making. Consequently, a failure to appreciate this aspect of Botswana culture, a failure to attend to if not embrace the views and contributions of employees in the decision-making process may lead to feelings among the employed that the employer is being disrespectful or at least inconsiderate. This current finding provides support in favour of Wright et al. (2000) who note that Chinese managers are more inclined toward an authoritative leadership model which tends to reject employee participation in day-to-day organisational operations. The findings of the current study demonstrate that the employees (Batswana) are inclined towards a democratic leadership system, one that is more commonly adopted in Botswana. For instance, structures like *kgotla* are used to engage the public at large so

that they can share their views and it is likely that this is an expectation in the workplace also.

Interestingly, similar observations to these made here were made by Li (2010) and Tang (2010) that some Zambian and Angolan employees also claim that the Chinese are not sociable towards their fellow employees, noting that they do not greet the Zambian workers, which is strange for Zambians, who always greet each other even if they are strangers. Employees argue that, by comparison, the Western managers will greet them, which makes them feel good and that they are not just employees, but also friends and brothers. So this example given by Li (2010) and Tang (2010) confirm the Hofstede (1984) assertion that it is important to understand the culture of the host-countries as this could help in reducing conflicts which results from poor or absent knowledge of the culture of one of the parties involved in the employment relationship.

In relation to employees' perception of supervisors' behaviours and attitudes as a cause of conflict, the results indicate that there are statistically significant differences on how employees in domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies perceive supervisors' behaviour and attitudes as a cause of conflict. The common finding from both domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies that participated in this study strongly suggests that supervisors' positive or negative behaviours indirectly affect employees' organisational commitment (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Omari & Paull, 2013; Omari & Standen, 2007; Winstanley & Woodal, 2000). The literature suggests that if supervisors' behaviour towards employees is positive, employees will reciprocate in a similarly positive way; and that the employees will return harm received from supervisors or managers by directing harm towards the organisation or its agents (Abou-Moghli, 2015; Bell & Martin, 2012; Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Jones & Skarlicki, 2003; Morrell, 2011; Romanoff et al., 1986).

Fascinatingly, the current results also show that some of the employees emulate the behaviours of their supervisors or bosses. This finding is consistent with Brown and Mitchell's (2010) view that leaders who engage in unethical practices often create a 'permissive' atmosphere within the organisation that is conducive to deviant employee behaviour which parallels the behaviour of the leader.

A closer examination of the data reveals that from both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies employees who perceived some form of mistreatment respond negatively to that mistreatment and are more likely to engage in deviant behaviour, thus violating norms of considerate conduct and efficient production (Arsene, 2014; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Wei & Si, 2013). This finding reveals that the importance of mutual trust should not be overlooked, as lack of trust was already found in studies to be the most significant obstacle in organisational learning and information-sharing between foreign managers and local employees (Engelhard & Nägele, 2003). In previous studies conducted by Storms and Spector (1987) and Giese and Thiel (2015), it was found that when employees perceived their organisations as a frustrating place, they were more likely to call in sick (when they were well) and also to come late, as these behaviours allow employees to withdraw physically and emotionally from organisation. However, in this study-setting, possibly because of the high unemployment rate, employees use other, more covert deviant behaviours, since calling in sick is a risky strategy, and one that may lead to dismissal – a serious matter in times of high unemployment.

Accordingly, the findings of this study provides support for the assumption of the social exchange theory which says, among other things, that subordinates perceive supervisors as an organisational agent and therefore hold the organisation, as well as the supervisors, responsible for many of the supervisor's actions (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Eisenberger et

al., 2002). Moreover, the results of the current study are consistent with the findings of Eisenberger et al. (2014), Eschleman et al. (2014) and Gordon et al. (2014) that if there is a good relationship between employees and supervisors, there will be significant positive 'downstream' effects because good relationships reduce negative behaviour that could harm the organisation. Instead, organisations that establish sound and respectful relations with workers will benefit from increased dedication and effort from the employees. The present study's findings indicate that employees who feel they are not treated fairly will not be satisfied with their job. In brief, employees are not satisfied, and they have a negative perception of the level of organisational justice, perceptions which are based upon their not being informed about the workings of the organisation, and of not being respected by supervisors and managers. In this context, the findings suggest that the participants have problems in regard to organisational justice, especially about interactional justice. This finding lends credence to the argument of Altahayneh et al. (2014), Bies and Moag (1986), Giese and Thiel (2015) and Skarlicki and Folger (1997) who say that interactional justice perceptions are important contributors to employees' judgments of the quality of their exchange relations with their supervisors and organisations. Therefore, it is imperative for organisations to create an atmosphere that is deemed to be fair, because employees pay great attention to fairness in interpersonal treatment; any failure to be perceived as being fair in this area can lead to the need on the part of the employee to retaliate in order to restore the 'fairness' balance; this is significantly evident in Chinese-owned companies as compared to domestic-owned companies in this study.

As indicated by the coefficient results, when employees perceive that the employer only cares about self-interest or does not value the employees, then this perception can lead to the point where employees do not see any good as coming from their employers. The

respondents' views indicate that there are perceptions of disrespectful climate existing in the workplace, because an escalation in deviant behaviours can lead to further over-scrutinising by the employer, thus causing further exacerbation of the original and negative perception, and further retaliation: a vicious circle of distrust. This finding is consistent with the Omari and Paull (2013) and Otake and Wong (2014) that employees who perceive or experience unfairness at work are less likely to advocate positively for the employers, so revealing that fair treatment has important effects on employee attitudes, such as satisfaction, absenteeism and commitment. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) note also that trust is positively associated with employee task performance, acceptance of information, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. Therefore, the findings of the current study reveal that perceptions of fairness are crucial for both employees and organisations, because if employees perceive some form of unfairness, they may engage in deviant behaviours as a way of 'levelling the playing field' and to balance out the inequity experienced.

The perception held by employees that supervisors are not being honest with employees means that there is no trust between the two parties, which negatively affects their relationship. This finding strengthens the argument presented by other scholars such as Boddy (2014), Eschleman et al. (2014), Jones (2009), Skarlicki and Folger (1997), and Wei and Si (2013) that poor supervisor-employee relationship was more strongly associated with deviant behaviours. This finding is significant as it reveals the link between employees' reactions (unfairness perceived) and retributive behaviours (engaging in counterproductive behaviours) when unfair treatment by supervisors/managers is perceived (Gordon et al., 2014; Mackey et al., 2014; Qin et al., 2015; Whitman et al., 2014). The findings in this study also demonstrate that those employees who engage in deviant behaviours perceive the treatment they received to be

unfair and unjust, and this is in support of the findings of Duffy et al. (2002) that employees who feel undermined by their supervisors are more likely to engage in both passive and active deviant behaviours targeted towards the organisation in general.

Similarly, Boddy (2014) indicates that conflict and supervisor bullying are significantly correlated with counterproductive work behaviours. It is also evident from this present study that employees may participate in co-worker-directed deviance because seeking revenge via deviant behaviours aimed directly at the perpetrating supervisors may sometimes be risky, given that such behaviour could result in an escalation of the mistreatment (Mawritz et al., 2014; Mackey et al., 2014; Wei & Si, 2013). The findings of the current study reveal that participants do not think their organisations provide the necessary and appropriate support, and think that managers' attempts at two-way communication are not sufficient to ensure good interpersonal relationship between both parties. This supports previous studies that employees are concerned with the behaviour of the organisation towards them, and that communication alone is unable to sustain the quality employee-organisation relationship this is not supported by sufficient and fair management behaviour (Colquitt et al., 2007; Colquitt et al., 2013; Fida et al., 2014; Garcia et al., 2015; Greasley, 2005; Otake & Wong, 2014; Qin et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2014). These authors also note that subordinates engage in workplace deviance as a form of retaliation that serves to express frustrations and gain retribution for abusive supervision.

Furthermore, this finding of the current study is also consistent with research showing that those companies that treated their employees favourably obtained favourable outcomes (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Gordon et al., 2014; Tepper et al., 2001; Tepper et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2014). Tepper et al. (2009) note that owing in part to

their powerful position in the company's hierarchy supervisors are uniquely positioned to make available outcomes that many employees find attractive. However, supervisors are inclined to exercise this power in a negative or hostile manner which may produce decidedly negative outcomes for employees and employers. While this research supports the social exchange view that employees who are abused by their supervisors reciprocate that mistreatment by engaging in workplace deviance, the results have also revealed that not all employees retaliate or engage in deviant workplace behaviours, and this supports the findings of Tepper et al. (2011) who note that victims (subordinates) of the mistreatment who hold low power positions relative to the perpetrator (supervisors) will often avoid retaliatory acts. Therefore, this current study extends previous studies to show that in both types of companies employees might engage in deviant behaviours due to various factors. For example, the results suggest that employees who feel respected are less likely to engage in deviant behaviours. The results also indicate that in Chinese-owned as compared to domestic-owned companies, there is a significant positive relationship between perceptions of inequity in managerial control and all forms of conflict.

6.4 Answering the Research Question

This thesis aimed to investigate employees' perceptions of the causes and forms of conflict in the Botswana construction industry in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies. Having addressed the sub-questions *inter alia* in the previous sections of this chapter, the central research question of the study needs to be directly addressed here: What are the reasons for the perceived differences (or lack of differences) in terms of both causes and forms of industrial conflict among employees in the Botswana construction industry as they are found in domestic-owned as opposed to Chinese-owned companies?

The overall results have demonstrated that there are statistically significant differences between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies, in how employees perceive income distribution as a cause of conflict. Interestingly, the results reveal that though a larger percentage of employees in Chinese-owned companies perceive that salary is one of the causes of conflict, interviews with some of the respondents point to the fact that wages in some of the Chinese-owned companies are better than what is paid in some domestic-owned companies. One thing that is worth noting is that in order to be paid higher wages, employees have to work for more hours and this also often leads to conflict, as employees feel that they are not paid the overtime rates that are stipulated by the government. An examination of the data of the two types of companies reveal that (1) in domestic-owned companies there is a significant and positive association between disparity of income distribution and deviant behaviours such as theft as compared to other deviant activities including sabotage and production deviance; whereas (2) in Chinese-owned companies there is a significant positive association between all three employee perceptions of inequity (income distribution, job security and managerial control) and all forms of conflict (theft, sabotage and production deviance).

The findings demonstrate that there are statistically significant differences between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies on employees' perception of job security as a cause of conflict in the workplace. Though employees in both types of companies perceive job security as a problem, this issue was more prominent in Chinese-owned companies as employees are of the view that they can be dismissed from work without any prior communication or notifications. For these reasons, the respondents attribute factors such as a high unemployment level to contribute to the less job security, as the employers know that there is excess supply in the labour market; hence they can dismiss employees without any just cause, and quickly replace them. The results reveal that in

both types of companies employees do engage in various forms of conflict. For instance, the coefficient results indicate that in Chinese-owned companies there is a strong significant positive association between job insecurity on the one hand, and theft and sabotage on the other; whereas in domestic-owned companies this association is significant only on the question of theft. Employees are of the view that if the employer violates or fails to provide secure employment as per the suggestions of social exchange theory and psychological contract, then employees retaliate by engaging in deviant behaviours. However, it should be understood that it is not all employees who engage in these deviant behaviours because the employer has failed to abide by the employment contract. The views expressed by some respondents demonstrate that other factors influence the level and extent of industrial conflict: personality characteristics, for example, and the existence of opportunity – both seen as influencing employee behaviours and their use of excuses such as rises in the cost-of-living expenses to justify the bad behaviours.

In relation to employees perceiving managerial control as a cause of conflict and the forms of conflict, the findings reveal that there are statistically significant differences between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies on the question of how employees perceive managerial control to be a cause of conflict in the workplace. The results indicate that a higher percentage of employees in Chinese-owned companies are of the view that managerial control is a cause of conflict in their workplaces. This finding is not unexpected, because in this case most of the managers in Chinese-owned companies are of Chinese descent, and this on its own introduces cultural differences in worker/employer orientations. In particular, employees perceive some of the attitudes and behaviours of the managers as being inappropriate. Communication barriers have been highlighted as a result of the differences in cultures; hence employees perceive that in

Chinese-owned companies it is very difficult to express employee grievances because the language barrier. For instance, if employers in Chinese-owned companies understand the value of employee participation in organisations, as noted earlier by authors such as Ferner et al. (2012), Dzimbiri (2010) and Sabone (2009) then they might exploit rather than ignore the Botswana cultural belief that everyone needs their views to be heard as part of the communal, democratic process.

In domestic-owned companies employees perceive that lack of communication in general often leads to conflict, as it appears managers are not willing to communicate with employees as frequently as required. The findings reveal that to some extent employees in both types of companies engage in deviant behaviours as a response to the treatment they receive from either supervisors or managers. However, the results indicate that in Chinese-owned companies employees engaged in deviant behaviours more significant ways and levels as compared to those in domestic-owned companies. Lack of understanding of cultural differences between the employers and employees can be seen as a major contributor to some of the conflict experienced, and these eventually lead to employees engaging in deviant behaviours, which might otherwise be avoided.

The research findings in Chapter 5 and the discussion in the earlier sections of this chapter suggest that there are statistically significant differences in what employees perceive to be causes of conflict and the forms of conflict that employees use as retaliation in the event that there is any perceived unfairness or inequities. The results indicate that while there are significant differences on employees' perceptions of income distribution, there are instances where employees in both types of companies share similar views. Not surprisingly, in Chinese-owned companies in relation to managerial control as cause of conflict, most of the reasons advanced relate to a lack of communication, itself

largely a result of the language barrier as well as a lack of understanding in areas of key cultural differences.

The results indicate that though employees in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies engage in deviant workplace behaviour, those who work in Chinese-owned companies reported more incidents of deviant behaviours as compared to those in domestic-owned companies. The coefficient results indicate that in domestic-owned companies there is significant positive association between disparity of income distribution and deviant behaviours such as theft, and an insignificant association on deviant behaviours such as production deviance and sabotage. However, in Chinese-owned companies there are significant associations between the three causes of conflict and the deviant behaviours discussed.

The findings of this study also indicate that low salaries, job security and poor relationship between employees and managers and supervisors are major factors causing workplace conflicts and unrest, which lead some employees to retaliate. This study's finding validate past research which suggest that perceptions of inequity on issues relating to income distribution, job security and managerial control are associated with workplace deviance. Unsatisfied expectations can lead to psychological contract violation when employees perceive that the organisation has not provided the expected financial obligations and support, Ambros et al. (2002) and Aquino et al. (1999).

The findings of the current study demonstrate that employee responses to income distribution, job security and managerial control become more complicated if both relational and transactional exchange come into play. For instance, when job security has been reduced, the employers may offer short-term transactional benefits that are contingent on individual's performance. These economic benefits are likely to affect

employees' work behaviours and attitudes positively if they are desirable. This finding supports the argument presented by other scholars that those employees with a high level of trust in their companies may be more restrained in opportunistic behaviours compared to those with lower levels of trust (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2000; Dessler, 1999; Elfstrom & Kuruvilla, 2014; Gordon et al., 2014; Shoss et al. 2015; Tepper et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2014). Accordingly, the above findings support the postulate that the presence of inequity will motivate people to achieve equity or to reduce inequity, and the strength of the motivation to do so will vary directly with the magnitude of the inequity experienced. In other words, Adams (1965) suggests that when allocation outcomes do not meet this criterion, people experience inequity distress and attempt to behaviourally or cognitively restore equity.

What these findings reveal is that the dynamic of mutual reciprocity is at the heart of the psychological contract, where the outcomes of the exchange at one point in time become a cause of the next cycle. So when the employers fail to meet their obligations, the employees reciprocate in an attempt to restore the balance in the relationship and this could be costly for the organisations (Conway & Briner, 2002; Nadin & William, 2011), which in turn causes the organisation to employ recuperative measures (for example, greater worker oversight), itself a contributor to conflict. The findings of the current study reveal that when the employees perceive violation of psychological contract due to an organisation's failure to meet its obligations regarding fairness on distributive, procedural and interactional aspects, the employees might resort to deviant behaviours (Chambel & Alcover, 2011; De Cuyper & De Witte, 2007; Parks et al., 1998; Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

The results of the present study are also, consistent with Hershcovis et al. (2007) who found evidence suggesting that there is a relationship between gender and deviant behaviour. The results reveal that when a gender variable is used to assess the level of deviant behaviours that employees employ, there is a statistically significant difference between males and females. The findings indicate that in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies' males engage more in deviant behaviours as compared to their female counterparts. This finding that women engage less in deviant work behaviour than men is similar to O'Fallon and Butterfield (2005) findings. Likewise, previous studies such as Hershcovis et al. (2007) and Henle (2005) established that there exists a statistically significant effect of gender on work deviant behaviour. These authors found that males engage in more deviant behaviours than females, due in part, perhaps, to the higher levels of overall aggression in males than in females, or to the males' greater sense of responsibility to the (dependent) family as a motivator.

6.5 Revised Conceptual Framework

In this section, a modified framework is presented, and it is one that combines the findings from this research with the conceptual framework previously described in Figure 2.1. The results of this study not only validate the original conceptual framework, but also modify the original framework to better account for the situation as experienced by two different types of companies in Botswana under study: domestic- and Chinese-owned. The revised conceptual framework set out in Figure 6:1 is more comprehensive in its description of how and why employees are likely to react in the event that they experience conflict, or if they perceive some unfairness in income distribution, job security and managerial control. Further, the revised framework specifies from the findings the eight emergent actions of employers that account for these perceptions by employees of

workplace inequity. Finally, it specifies the three forms of workplace conflict that elicit deviant behaviour from these types of company employees (long breaks, stealing firm's resources, damaging machinery).

Figure 6:1 acknowledges that ambient factors such as economic cycles, labour market pressures, and political and socio-cultural events all have an impact on workplace perceptions. Firstly, in the context of Botswana, the economic factors are negatively associated to income equality, such that higher economic growth has not resulted in a more equitable income distribution. Thus, the study findings indicate that once there is some instability in the economy, employees feel the impact of inequality. For example, due to Botswana's over-reliance on the mining sector (and in particular diamonds), the country's economy was adversely affected during the GFC. In turn, as the economy stalled, a large numbers of employees in the mining sector were retrenched, and many more jobs were lost in other sectors of the economy such as the construction industry. Reduced government spending worsened the slowing growth in the country's economy. The GFC also led to fluctuations in financial markets resulting in increased inflation deriving from high commodity prices for Botswana. High rates of inflation amid stagnant wages and salaries resulted in employees having negative perceptions regarding costs and their standard of living. Consequently, a scenario existed for employees to be more likely to resort to deviant behaviours to supplement their earnings in the face of specific circumstances in specific companies.

Secondly, labour market factors are found to impact on job security, adding to the above effects linked to economic factors. With the labour market over-supplied and job opportunities shrinking, employees' job security is not guaranteed and as the results

reveal, employees are reluctant to express their grievances for fear of being dismissed; this is particularly the case in Chinese-owned companies.

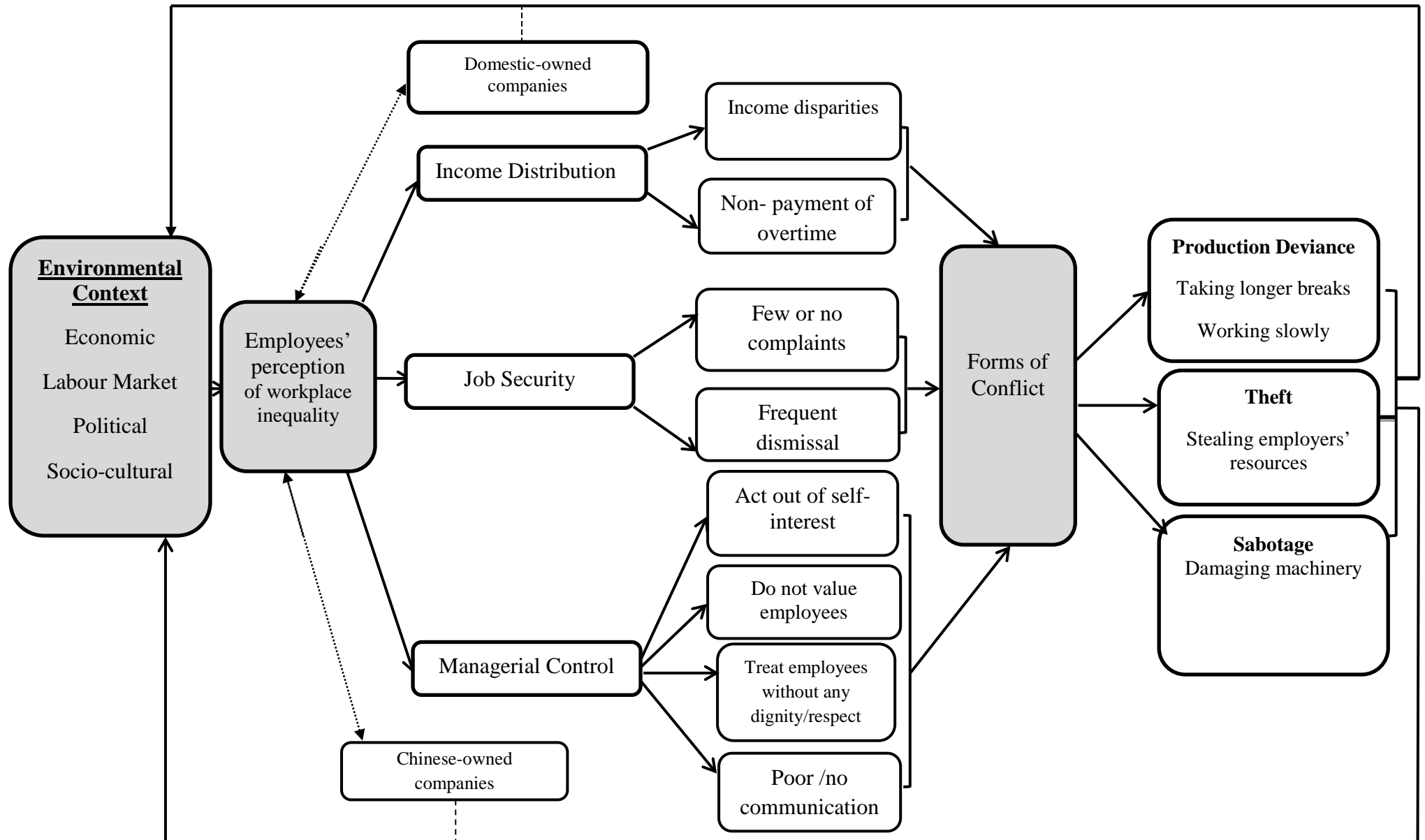
Thirdly, political factors have been found to impact on employees' perceptions of job security. As employees indicated in the study, the infiltration of/addition to the local labour market by/of illegal immigrants (consequent upon political instability in neighbouring countries and the relative stability in Botswana) creates a situation which advantages employers; hence it is easy for employees to be dismissed without the requirement to supply valid reasons. This also fuels negative or false perceptions that the immigrants are to blame for the lack of job opportunities. Also these immigrants are likely to be exploited by employers who are aware of their illegal residence status, with the result that wages are lowered across the board – a perception clearly seen in the results.

Lastly, the socio-cultural factor was found to impact upon managerial control. The results of this study reveal that where cultural differences exist in situations of unequal power (such as between employers and employees in Chinese-owned companies in the construction industry in Botswana) then negative views and misunderstandings become a factor in industrial relations. In Chinese-owned companies, the results indicate that employees are of the view that cultural differences between the managers (Chinese) and employees (the majority being Botswana) significantly lead to conflict. For instance, despite both Botswana and China being classified as 'collectivists' under the Hofstede taxonomy, Chinese employers and employees are more inclined towards an authoritarian management style, while Botswana are more democratically based in their approach to decision-making. This is bound to create the potential for conflict in Chinese-owned

companies. Language barriers have also been a cultural factor contributing in a significant way to conflict in most of the companies in question.

The Figure 6:1 revised framework illustrates the relationship and linkages that can be used to explain the impact of external factors on the three internal factors that affect the employment relationship. The external factors have a significant influence on how employees' perceptions of income distribution, job security and managerial control are shaped. Political instability in neighbouring countries, for example, can directly affect Botswana construction employees as the local labour market becomes flooded – and this external factor directly affects the job security perceptions of those already employed as well as detrimentally affecting the employment hopes of job seekers in Botswana.

Figure 6:1: Modified conceptual framework



The current findings demonstrate that if employees perceive some form of unfairness in relation to income distribution, job security and managerial control, they will retaliate by engaging in deviant behaviours. For instance, the coefficient results indicate that in both types of companies, employees engaged in some or all forms of conflict. In domestic-owned companies, the results demonstrate that any perceived unfairness in three of the discussed causes of conflict, lead to employee pilfering (or theft). In Chinese-owned companies the results indicate that there is more significant engagement in all forms of conflict as a response to any unfairness perceived by the employees.

6.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the thesis findings and compared them with the current literature, and discussed the empirical, theoretical and explanatory contributions the research provided in regard to understanding employees' perception on the causes of conflict and their relationship to forms of conflict. The contemporary world economic situation is relevant to the findings in that, with the world economy contracting and the effects of the GFC still being experienced by most countries (including Botswana), most of the participating workers are employed on a temporary basis without job security or financial benefits beyond the minimum daily wage. Discussions with them indicated that due to the high unemployment rate and consequent over-supply of labour, the companies which employed them had a strong tendency not to attend to employees' grievances. Employees indicated that they had limited choices in terms of employment availability and also noted that they often received discriminatory treatment and inducements from their organisations.

The present study's findings suggest that several communication-related issues reflect and are closely related to managerial control issues. Participants described their unsuccessful

attempts to communicate with their managers/supervisors about their concerns and problems. They do make attempts to express their ideas and offer suggestions about daily business operations but regularly report that they are not being taken seriously or allowed to speak without fear of repercussions. Therefore, management's interaction with employees is perceived as 'token' – shallow and irrelevant – as it does not permit the effective discussion of issues that concern employees. For instance, employees perceive that management's communication attempts, if there are any, do not lead to any positive relationship outcomes or actual changes in the organisation.

For most employees, work is a central means by which they can achieve the satisfaction of their economic and social needs. Among other things, work provides a source of income, enables social contacts and contributes to personal development. Hence the perceived threat of unemployment involves the denial or frustration of these major economic, social and personal needs. Therefore, based on the findings of this study, it is reasonable to conclude that income distribution, job security and managerial control (as functions of both the job and an employee's character) have important implications for organisations in that these factors are causally related to at least some types of counterproductive work behaviour. From an employee perspective, perhaps this occurs because the employees are angry and frustrated since they hold the organisation responsible for the unfairness or inequity which they claim to experience. With respect to organisational justice, the failure to receive rewards which are perceived as deserved, the failure to be judged by the use of fair procedures, the failure to be treated with some degree of personal respect and dignity, and the failure to receive correct information, have all been found to be linked to employee willingness to engage in counterproductive work behaviour.

This chapter has indicated that employees have diverse perceptions as to the causes of conflict and different understandings of the forms of deviant behaviours that they use to retaliate once they perceive unfairness. The next chapter will seek to identify recommendations for future policy-making, describe some limitations of the study, indicate some avenues for future research, and draw final conclusions.

Chapter Seven: Conclusion

7.0 Introduction

This final chapter builds upon the discussion of results, identifies the key contributions made by this study, and explores avenues for further research. The findings of this study may also assist company owners or manager/supervisors in making improvements that may ultimately lead to increased employee job satisfaction and reduced deviant workplace behaviours. Further, the findings provide insight into whether there is a need to review current policies governing employment relations in Botswana or to improve the current monitoring systems, such as the frequency of worksites inspections, and the excessive time it takes to clear cases at the labour courts.

This thesis has investigated and reported on employees' perception as to what are the causes and forms of conflict in both domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies in the Botswana construction industry. It has looked at whether there are any differences between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned employees' views as to how employees perceive income distribution, job security and managerial control as causes of conflict in their respective workplaces. It has further noted that in both types of companies there are various ways in which employees behave in the event that they perceive some unfairness from the employers. This thesis finds that significant relationships exist between both causes and forms of conflict in both types of companies, with higher percentages observed in Chinese-owned companies.

This thesis contributes to the field of employment relations in two major ways. Firstly, this thesis sets out how and why income distribution, job security and managerial control are perceived as causes of industrial conflict by employees in the construction industry.

Secondly, this thesis examines the various forms or types of deviant behaviours that employees might engage in, in the event that employees perceive some inequities in the above mentioned causes of conflict.

7.1 Contribution of the Study

Theoretically, this study brings together two different streams that have long been evolving separately in the conflict management literature. The study not only identifies the causes of conflict from an employee's perspective, but also examines the consequence of those causes to include counterproductive behaviour. Therefore, this study captures the nature of relationship between causes of conflict (income, job insecurity and managerial control) and counterproductive behaviour, so enriching an understanding of the two. The current exploration contributes to the literature on employee perceptions by directly including both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies in terms of employees' perceptions of causes of conflict and the different deviant workplace behaviours that employees use as retaliation methods. This study adds to the literature in a unique way by first examining how employees' perceptions of rewards, job security, supervisors, and management relationships lead to conflict. A general finding across the sample is that income distribution, job security and managerial control were viewed by the respondents as sources of conflict, and these were associated with deviant behaviours such as less effort on the job, working slowly, breaking machinery and deliberately doing their job incorrectly. This finding is congruent with equity theory and past research which emphasise the human motivation to achieve fairness in exchange of work performed (Adams, 1963; 1965).

A major contribution of this thesis relates to the choice of the sample. It can be contended that this thesis is the first attempt to understand employees' perceptions of causes and

forms of conflict in the construction industry in emerging economies. There are few studies of the specific form of conflict in the Botswana context, and to the best of the researcher's knowledge no published studies focus specifically on construction companies both domestic- and Chinese-owned. Hence this research aims to improve employment relations in the construction industry by addressing shortages in research in this industry; as Palalani (2000, p.16) points out: "The industry has no history, for example, I challenged the local delegates to tell me the first construction firm in Botswana, local and foreign! It is easy to find out the first shop and first hotel in Gaborone."

As with most management practices, HRM practices are based on cultural beliefs that reflect the basic assumptions and values of the national culture in which organisations are embedded (Almond, 2011; Okpara & Kabongo, 2011). Akorsu & Cooke (2011) suggest that while past research has examined employee relation issues from selection to effective cross-cultural adjustment, relatively little emphasis has been placed on comparative studies between host nation companies and foreign companies, specifically, Chinese-owned companies, especially in the construction industry. This current study adds to existing HRM understandings by suggesting that the failure of Chinese-owned companies to understand Botswana national culture (or their very limited knowledge of it) is a major cause of conflict. This is more clearly seen when such companies are compared to their domestically-owned counterparts. This research therefore confirms other research that has shown that managerial attitudes, values and behaviours differ across national cultures (Almond, 2011; Ferner et al., 2005; Hofstede, 1980; Jackson, 2002; Lyddon et al., 2015; Myloni, Harzing, & Mirza, 2004; Shen, 2004).

The study's findings contribute to our understanding of the norm of reciprocity, which is a social norm that directs individuals to reciprocate others' actions. As a social norm,

reciprocity happens rather automatically, employees reciprocate their counterpart's behaviour almost instinctively. Omari and Paull (2015) and Standen, Paull, and Omari (2014) suggest that organisations seeking to reduce negative behaviours must be conscious of the significant role of power differences, and should seek to reduce it by training managers and supporting them to deal more appropriately with power imbalances. Earlier studies have also demonstrated that if employees perceive unfairness or experience any work related ill-treatment they are likely to engage in deviant workplace behaviour to try balance the unfairness (Adams, 1965; Ambrose et al., 2002; Elfstrom & Kuruvilla, 2014; Everton et al., 2007; Greenberg, 1993; Wang et al., 2014). De Cuyper and De Witte (2007) note that the perception of job insecurity is related to unfavourable employee outcomes for both relational and transactional contract breaches. The results of this current study add to the increasing psychological contract literature suggesting that employees' perceptions of any psychological contract breach is negatively related to organisational citizenship behaviour as employees engage more in deviant behaviours (Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Turnley et al., 2003; Zribi & Souai, 2013). This study's findings not only confirm prior research, but also clearly demonstrate a further issue; that while in both types of companies employees perceive some degree of unfair treatment, it is in the Chinese-owned companies that these perceptions are more prevalent, and where a higher incidence of deviant workplace behaviour takes place. The results also confirm the findings of Bakhshi et al. (2009) and Della Torre et al. (2015), who suggest that when employees believe that equity is present in the workplace, they are more likely to feel a greater sense of trust towards management, and because this sense is closely linked to job satisfaction and organisational commitment, there are minimal deviant behaviours in such workplaces.

The findings of this study provide support for the argument advanced by a number of theories, which have been proposed to explain how employees' perception of fairness can be related to retaliatory behaviours (Ambrose et al., 2002; Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005; Appelbaum, Iaconi, & Matousek, 2007; Biron, 2010; Buttner & Lowe, 2015; Garcia et al., 2015; Klotz and Buckley, 2013; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Storms & Spector, 1987; Thau et al., 2009; Wei & Si, 2013). The relevance of the findings of this thesis to the equity and social exchange theories is confirmed by the demonstrated link between causes of conflict and deviant workplace behaviours. Companies that rank highly on perceived unfairness also tends to have high deviant workplace behaviours.

This study also provides evidence regarding a number of other factors affecting employee work perceptions such as the economic and social environments. The effects of the GFC and high unemployment rates clearly influence the work environment, (e.g.) employees are of the view that since the unemployment rate is high then there are limited options for getting jobs, hence employees stay in current jobs regardless of the unfairness perceived. This builds on prior studies on this aspect (Benach et al., 2014; Ellonen & Nätti, 2015; Erlinghagen, 2008; Gregg et al., 2014; Kalleberg, 2009; Kinnunen & Natti, 1994; Klasen & Woolard, 2009; Pitesa & Thau, 2014; Tillett, 1999). For example, Ellonen and Nätti (2015) note that perceived job insecurity increased significantly during the recession. And in Finland when the national unemployment rate started to decrease at the beginning of the 21st century, perceived job insecurity decreased as well. These researchers suggest that if the employee needs the employment more than the employer needs the employee, then the power imbalance advantages the employer. Therefore, during high unemployment and high employee supply (especially the unskilled employees whom employers see as not being flexible or inventive exhibiting creativity), the employer's power to hire and fire becomes much more potent.

The present study does not strictly follow either the qualitative or quantitative research assumptions that have dominated social sciences research over the past decades; instead, it uses the mixed methods research approach by responding to calls for the adoption of mixed methods in management research (Jogulu & Pansiri, 2011). This thesis makes a contribution to the methodological development in the fields of management and HRM research by providing a practical example of how quantitative and qualitative approaches can be combined and integrated to investigate the same phenomenon. This adoption of mixed methods (the use of qualitative approach to explore respondents' perceptions) explicitly supports and extends this field of research in which items and statements from the subjective employees' view can be explored in more depth, unlike with more rigid methodologies. In addition to the survey, the use of specific interviews allows for an understanding of how and why employees perceive equity when it comes to income distribution, job security and managerial control to be the causes of conflict. The interviews also provided insights into the connection between perceived unfair treatment and retaliatory behaviour.

This extends studies by Brown and Treviño (2006), Peterson (2002), Tepper et al. (2009), and Thau et al.(2009), all of which used a mainly quantitative approach by using self-administered postal questionnaire which were hand-delivered to the respondents in various industries. This quantitative approach appeared to be the most common one. In the current study the use of a mixed methods approach was useful both to triangulate the findings (for example to cross-check our quantitative findings against the qualitative data) and also to complement the quantitative findings – (i.e.) to use the qualitative data to illustrate and elaborate the quantitative findings (Bryman, 2006).

This study provided an appropriate sample across domestic- and Chinese-owned companies for gathering representative data across a broad range compared to previous studies which focus only on one ownership type. Previous research indicates that in Africa it was mostly in Chinese-owned companies that employees complain about workplace conflict (for example, Akorsu & Cooke, 2011; Asiedu, 2004; Eweje, 2009; Kuang, 2008; Sata, 2007; Van Bracht, 2012; Wood, 2011), at the same time as appearing to ignore significant concerns raised by domestic-owned companies. Although the focus of this study has been on the construction industry in Botswana, the findings carry implications for other industries – indeed, for most forms of work. Issues of how work is regulated, how pay is determined, how the views of employees are represented and how conflicts or disputes at work are resolved, continue to be of significant concern to people at work, organisations, employers and government.

There is need for more research in relation to employment relations especially on the understanding of the causes of conflict, which in turn will help in assessing the adequacy of the current structures which are used by employees to express their views. In the past five years there have been, and still are, many employees in different organisations and sectors who perceive that there are many conflicts in their workplace which relate to income distribution, job security and managerial control. These perceptions have negative impact on productivity, contribute to high staff turnover, and to a high incidence of deviant behaviours – as observed in this study.

7.2 Limitations

The findings presented above must be understood in the context of the following nine study limitations.

First, although the current study produced a number of interesting findings, it is not without some methodological limitations. The effective sampling frame for this study was limited to eight construction companies. While the total number of survey respondents was 690, this came down to an effective sample size of 617 that provides strong statistical results. Nevertheless, drawing the sample from just eight (four domestic- and four Chinese-owned companies) of the 20 Botswana construction companies limits the generalisability of the research across the industry. A larger sample, more representative of all construction companies (and including the partnership between domestic and foreign non-African and South African-owned) could extend the applicability of the current data, but such a move might make any comparative analysis more difficult given the greater range of variables. It is therefore acknowledged that this setting imposes limitations on the generalisability of these current results, but still provides strong implications together with a valuable conceptual framework for the transferability of this work to further studies (Yin, 2009).

A second limitation relates to the sampling approach and sampling risk associated with the survey. It may be that those employees who are not happy with their employers were more likely to respond to the survey, thus potentially biasing the sample. Rowley (2014) and Stover and Stone (1974) caution that the disadvantage of entirely self-administered questionnaires is that the researcher cannot be certain that the designated respondent did not receive external advice and that they did in fact complete the questionnaires by themselves. To avoid biased responses to the questionnaire, respondents were informed

that the survey was anonymous and confidential both in terms of the respondent and the company management. This is to say, that the data was collected independently of the companies that the employees were working for, which may have decreased the risk of socially-desirable answers. The use of self-completion questionnaires is reported to be useful and appropriate in management research because their inherent confidentiality encourages candid and truthful responses among respondents (Boddy, 2014; Buchanan, 2008).

A third limitation of this research relates to the focus of the study, in which only the voice of employees was heard. This has the potential to produce a skewed understanding of the situation or environment under consideration.. However, in this study the use of self-reports was justified because employees themselves are self-evidently the only group qualified to evaluate and report on what they perceive as unfair, and because by definition, a perception is a subjective view rather than representing any 'objective' reality. So employees are adequately placed to report upon the causes of conflict, just as they are suited to report the frequency with which they engage in deviant behaviours, given that such acts are more often than not performed covertly (Chiu, Yeh, & Huang, 2015; Kim & Cohen, 2015). In support of the use of self-reports over other data collection tools when investigating workplace deviance, Kim and Cohen (2015) suggest that employees' self-ratings reveal more instances of deviant behaviours than ratings from co-workers.

A fourth limitation is the dependence of the study on respondents as a primary source of data. Employees were asked to rate their own views as to the causes and forms of conflict. Some of the ratings were positive and others were negative. For example, it may be that due to job insecurity or because particular employees may have been in trouble with managers/supervisors, such workers may hold an exaggeratedly negative , since their

perception may have been based on a desire for revenge. This will result in the potential for significant inflation of the ratings since human nature would push individuals to aspire to be seen in a more positive light, and thus to exaggerate their sense of having been wronged.

A fifth limitation relates to the demographic make-up of respondents which was not equally distributed with regard to gender and ethnicity. This being the case, one must be careful about generalising the findings to all populations. It is possible that results may differ across different organisational cultures and workforce composition. On a positive note, the study had a high response rate within the organisations. In addition, the researcher ensured that age diversity was adequately present in this organisational environment so that the study could reasonably make assertions about different variables such as age and educational level. Future research could also explore whether the relationships identified here can be applied in other industries and would benefit from surveying multiple organisations across diverse locations and industries such as in tourism and the retail sectors.

A sixth, possible limitation of the interview process may be seen to flow from the fact that all the interviewees objected to being audio-recorded, fearing that their voices could be identified by a third party. Further, due to the timing of data collection (made during the rainy season), some of the potential respondents could not, as agreed earlier, be reached for interview purposes. Out of the 26 respondents who showed initial interest, only 15 finally participated in the interview. Of those who did not participate five had been transferred to different working locations, making it impossible to interview them; the remaining six ultimately declined to be interviewed – as was, of course, their right. However, the number that finally participated still provided a good representation as the

qualitative data in this study is used to add depth to the findings of the survey, which in this case were very strong.

A seventh limitation relates to the unavailability of complementary data to the survey and interviews which prevented the researchers from undertaking extensive comparative investigations. For example, no specific data on employment-related reports, for those employees working in the construction industry, was available. The issues explored in this study do not seem to be a welcome research topic in Botswana. For instance, the difficulties encountered at the initial stages, when permission was sought from the companies for the researcher to distribute questionnaires to employees, indicated that management appeared to be wary. However, there were companies that recognised the value and importance of the a study and agreed to participate. Since only limited published academic works on Botswana's construction industry exist, most of the complementary references were of necessity taken from alternative sources, such as magazines and newspapers.

An eighth point, in the context of this study, relates to the fact that there is unfortunately only a limited benefit in this study on the question of the unionisation of workers (such as has been done by the Botswana Mining Workers Union, BMWU) and the role of public sector unions which have a large membership. These unions have not succeeded in taking their employers to court over the treatment of their employees. For instance, as already discussed in Section 3.1.5, Good (2004) and Marobela (2011) are of the view that the government appears not to support workers' rights to fully express their freedom of association. In 2012 public sector employees engaged in a legal strike for more than eight weeks to gain salary improvements. In the process, some employees were dismissed on

the grounds that they constituted part of essential services, while the unions were arguing that the government violated ILO conventions.

Lastly, the reason for not suggesting unionisation as a solution is that some researchers have shown that there is a decline in union membership (Bhebe & Mahapa, 2014; Visser, 2006; Waddoups, 2014). For example, Bhebe and Mahapa are of the view that the introduction of the concept of human resource management in firms and organisations in Zimbabwe, as well as globalisation processes, national unemployment, and the formation of small to medium scale enterprises, are some of the factors that have contributed to the decline of trade union participation in Zimbabwe. Also, because of the low salaries earned, employees are reluctant to join unions because they cannot, or are unwilling to, afford to pay subscription fees, especially when, from past experience, they see that employees do not benefit from being union members.

7.3 Implications for Practice

Even though the findings of this study are closely aligned with previous research literature, the generalisation of the findings for use in other contexts should be undertaken with caution. However, the current study results and the theoretical literature do support further recommendations for practical implementation.

In practical terms, these results are highly relevant in today's world economy. For example, the Botswana economy is recovering from a long recession, although some economic uncertainty still remains, for example, the high unemployment rate (Central Statistics Office, 2014). To the extent that these circumstances contribute to people's feelings of financial deprivation, this research suggests some employees feel the need to

engage in deviant workplace behaviour such as sabotage, theft, and other dishonest conduct.

These findings provide preliminary evidence in support of the view that there is a need for an introduction of employment-related courses in the education system from an early stage and continuing through (e.g. at primary, secondary and vocational level) so that citizens can be equipped with information that pertains to labour laws and relevant policies, as well as an understanding of how such laws and policies affect their working lives. For instance, based on the ANOVA results, there is a strong pattern which indicates that in both types of ownership companies, those employees who have attained primary and secondary level of education constitute a large proportion of those who perceive that they are being treated unfairly in terms of income distribution and in the ways that managers or supervisors interact with them. For example, some have noted that they usually work overtime, but the company often chooses not to pay the legally-stipulated overtime rate: an unfair practice whose illegality is well known to this group.

The current results are also relevant as they provide practical implications specifically for management, because the findings can help them to formulate organisational programs or structures which will best contain or reduce the dysfunctional actions caused by conflict. For example, a poorly designed compensation/remuneration system can be costly in terms of employee dissatisfaction, and sufficiently burdensome to cripple that organisation. By contrast, a well-designed compensation/remuneration system can produce positive employee efforts and profitable companies (Al-Zu'bi, 2010; Bell & Martin, 2012; Choi & Chen, 2007; Morrell, 2011; Romanoff, Boehm, & Benson, 1986). For instance, the t-test results indicate that in domestically-owned companies the (mean = 3.59) means are lower than those in Chinese-owned companies (mean = 3.91), with the statement: 'Employees

doing same job are not paid same salary'. The results of the ANOVA indicate that there are statistically significant differences between the education of workers and the hours worked by them in both types of companies, particularly those who have a low level education and those who work more than nine hours a day.

The results show that there is a general perception by employees that there are some disparities in salaries/wages earned, and this finding suggests that employees perceive that the compensation/remuneration systems are not transparent, or they perceive that supervisors (they being the ones who sign authorisation work-sheets) often choose not to approve hours that may have been worked. In summary, the above results lend support to the equity theory that argues that perceptions of equitable pay plays a significant role in defining attitudes and behaviours in employment relationships, because individuals compare their ratios of outcomes to inputs.

Omari and Paul (2013) emphasise that workplace moral standards and leadership behaviour are key elements in developing a culture where incivility and inappropriate behaviour are not tolerated. It is clearly in the best interests of employers/management to treat employees in a fair manner, though it is hard to say whose view decides the meaning of the term 'being fair'. Nevertheless, any fair behaviour is not only good for business competition (marketing for customers or investors) but can also help reduce the likelihood that employees engage in behaviours that harm the company. In view of all these matters raised by the study, it is important to understand what factors affect employee commitment to organisational success. Gathering such information is especially necessary now in times of global competition, increasing use of technology and restructuring of workplaces.

The results of this thesis suggest that one way in which employees may respond to any form of perceived inequity is through the carrying out of deviant behaviours. Based on the coefficient results, there exist positive significant associations between the causes and forms of conflict in both types of companies. As a result, these findings suggest that management may be able to decrease the level of sabotage, production deviance and theft in the organisations by improving organisational norms, amending inadequate reward structures and employee service compensation/remuneration, and putting in place clear grievance policies and better working conditions, as recommended by Moorthy et al. (2015).

Analysis based on the t-test results indicate that domestically-owned companies have a statistically lower mean than Chinese-owned companies for the following statement under managerial control: 'Supervisors do not communicate in an honest and straight-forward manner'. This indicates a need in both types of companies, but more specifically in Chinese-owned companies, for them to have clear and transparent procedures in place that can allow employees to express their grievance when they feel ill-treated or perceive any form of unfairness. Omari and Paul (2013) suggest that when employees can express their sense of grievance through a transparent procedure, the incidence of deviant behaviour may fall. Without such an avenue, workers feel powerless to voice their dissatisfaction, as was found in this study, and may then act covertly against the company whose fault they perceive it is. The findings reveal that large percentages of employees from both types of companies have indicated that there are no proper structures in place through which employees can channel their grievances, as most employees indicated that they preferred not saying anything to employers, because that could put their jobs at risk. Thus, the lack of appropriate structures for employees to channel their grievances is a worrying issue in Botswana generally, but more particularly in the construction industry

where the work-force is non-unionised. With negative responses to perceptions of violation of contract ranging from reduced commitment and engagement in deviant behaviours such as stealing, it is clear that employers have a lot to lose if these perceptions of violation of psychological contract are not addressed. The implications of the findings suggest the value of more explicit communication of employee obligations to prevent future perceived psychological contract violation as pointed out by Nadin and Williams (2011).

The coefficient results of this research clearly indicate that organisational consultants and managers should work to prevent unnecessary behaviours or actions that may be perceived or interpreted by employees as unfair. The results demonstrate that there are positive significant association between causes and forms of conflict; for example, any negative perceptions of job security in the workplace may cause some employees to engage in deviant behaviours such as stealing. Organisational leaders should therefore try to counter rumours or other sources of misconception surrounding the stability of an individual's job or of the organisation. The t-test results showed no significant differences between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies on employee perception in relation to the statement, 'There was no employment contract signed' upon commencement of employment. Additionally, some of the interview respondents note that since no signed employment contracts exist, it is difficult for employees to make plans even in the short-term as they are not sure whether they will have a job the next day or not.

Also, a lack of communication by managers regarding the future plans of the company – or at least of its short-term intention to maintain production – was also reported as an issue. There have been some occasions where employees heard from their colleagues that the site was to be closed for a month, but management itself failed to communicate this

fact to employees. The financial anxieties and fears about job security of the workers in this situation are high. To lessen these anxieties, and so remove a potential trigger for deviant behaviour, open communication channels and consistent feedback to employees should be instituted as a norm.

Furthermore, Buttner and Lowe (2015) emphasise that procedural justice (or lack of it), as it relates to fairness in administration of employment policies and procedures, may directly affect the welfare of employees. It is therefore important for organisations to have clear systems in place, since failure to do so may compel subordinates to draw inferences about the trustworthiness of the leader in relation to those policies. Understanding that employee' perceptions of unfairness is associated with deviant behaviours makes it important for managers/supervisors to be sensitive to this possibility and ensure that unfairness perceptions do not damage the manager/supervisor-employee relationships. For instance, managers should try to avoid what is generally referred to as political deviance (where employees are asked to work beyond working hours) as this is associated with deviant behaviours, such as stealing and sabotage (Robinson & Bennet, 1997). The t-test results however, demonstrate that there are no statistically significant differences between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies of employees in regard to their failure to pay employees for overtime worked. These findings suggest that employees in both types of companies perceive as unfair the levels of pay and compensation they receive for responsibilities assigned. As a result, their loyalty and commitment to the organisation will not be strong and they are more likely to engage in deviant workplace behaviours.

In addition, the establishment of employee committees can help employees cope with work-related challenges; their establishment will demonstrate to employees that the

company is committed to act in a fair manner, and is transparent with its employees. The achievement of organisational goals (such as production output and product quality) depends largely on the cooperation of subordinate workers. If employees are not properly informed of important goals, if they have not been given the means to achieve such goals, or if the employees do not feel that the goals will produce equitable results, the viability of the business can be compromised. If employees were more aware of the actual impact of the deviant workplace behaviours, in both financial and non-financial terms, they may be more likely to report suspicious or deviant behaviours within the workplace. Iacob and Lile (2008) argue that employees can effectively provide social responsibility within the work environment by developing and maintaining a climate that is intolerant of workplace deviance and counterproductive behaviours.

Organisations can also establish some measures from the initial stages of the employment process, for example, screening tests as to assess the potential employees' personality traits. The tests may be used to identify personality types or attitudes that are associated with particular deviant behaviour. The difference is subtle but very important. For example, a personality test may identify that the person was lying via the lie-scale score in the test. Lying is a personality trait that could be associated with other deviant behaviour such as theft. Therefore, screening potential employees for traits and attitudes that are associated with deviant behaviour such as theft will further reduce its incidence in the workplace as well as promoting fairness. As Kennedy (2015) argues, some of the employees who engage in deviant behaviours against the organisation may enter the work environment as motivated offenders; they may simply be opportunists who periodically take advantage of structural flaws in security within the business; or the motivation to steal from the company may be a direct result of workplace factors. This argument is supported by the findings of the current study where it is revealed that there were

employees who engaged in deviant behaviours simply because of available opportunities. Having such opportunist employees engage in deviant behaviour can then influence other employees who perceive that they are not compensated fairly, and they quickly ‘get on board’ with the opportunists.

Reducing the causes of conflict and the occurrence of forms of conflict should be a priority for organisations that want to minimise deviant workplace behaviours. More broadly, organisations may want to clarify their values and priorities early in the socialisation process and stress their determination to prevent deviant behaviours from occurring so that employees are aware of the consequences of engaging in these behaviours. Sanctions alone may not be sufficient to achieve this end. Accordingly, if organisations want to improve work performance and reduce deviant behaviours, their management must make it a high priority to develop programs and policies that promote fairness. The adoption of both approaches – testing and screening employees and adopting policies that promote fairness in the workplace – will more effectively create a workplace with reduced levels of deviance.

Blader and Tyler (2003) and Schilpzand et al. (2013) suggest that organisations can operate in ways that employees regard as procedurally fair by instituting fair decision-making processes and extending fair and equal treatment to all employees. Also, for the purposes of maintaining fairness and justice, it is important to provide a thorough and convincing explanation for any circumstances such as budget constraints or organisation-wide pay cuts that make it no longer feasible to keep promises of rewards that were previously made. Given the evidence from the literature (Buttner & Lowe, 2015; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Greenberg, 1990b; Litzky, Eddleston & Kidder, 2006), the argument needs to be mounted that if managers create an ethical climate, treat their employees with trust

and respect, and adopt fair workplace rules and policies concerning rewards and punishments, then these actions can reduce the occurrence of deviant behaviours.

The coefficient results reveal that there are statistically significant associations between all causes of conflict and forms of conflict in Chinese-owned companies, while in domestic-owned companies there is significant positive association with theft only. Hence, based on the findings, it is logical to deduce that leadership (both supervisors and managers) has a role in the deviant behaviours that take place in such highly authoritarian organisations. For example, in Chinese-owned companies, employees are of the view that the supervisors and management do not value their employees equally. As a result those supervisors who unfairly favour one employee over another or fail to reward deserving employees are also guilty of catalysing deviant acts. So in the event that those employees feel wronged because they believe that their expectations have been breached, there exists the strong possibility that they will retaliate, and this possibility exists more extensively in Chinese-owned companies. More understanding of the needs and wants of their employees, as well as a better understanding of the impact of their own managerial behaviour on others, would help those supervisors in terms both of improving performance in the workplace and reducing the incidence of deviant behaviours.

What emerges from the data in this research suggests that employees seek value-exchange from their company, and it is the responsibility of the employer to ensure that the services the firm provides are delivered in such ways as to meet these expectations of fairness. Subsequently, both employees and employers are satisfied as they will feel their investment (both time and money) has been honoured (Blau, 1964; Burton et.al., 2005; Lian et.al., 2014). As has been found in previous research, in organisations where employees perceive their bosses as fair, caring and supportive, there are reduced

incidences of workplace deviant behaviours (Gordon et al., 2014; Lian et al., 2014; Loi et al., 2015).

The coefficient results also reveal that in both types of companies there is a positive significant relationship between inequity arising from managerial control and deviant behaviours, but this is higher in Chinese-owned companies than in domestically-owned companies. In addition, the t-test results indicate that domestically-owned companies had a statistically lower mean than Chinese-owned companies when it comes to employees' perceptions that managers do not treat them in a respectful manner. This finding is important in the context of this study: Sabone (2009) highlights that Botswana as a nation places much emphasis on the national cultural value of "Botho" (see Section 4.1.4). Hence, this finding lends support to the argument by Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) who view deviant behaviour as a negative reciprocity orientation where an individual returns a negative treatment with a negative treatment; (that is, 'an eye for an eye').

Consequently, based on the above findings, the current study proposes for Chinese-owned companies similar recommendations to those of Sutton (2007): that organisations should encourage and consider training employees on how to engage in constructive conflict, and to develop training programs that focus on the threats to well-being that often lead to anger and hostility, and upon training practices that recognise that conflict and interpersonal anxieties are unavoidable, but controllable. For that reason, such fears and anxieties should be addressed constructively and not ignored or allowed to compound over time.

This study also proposes a need similar to Everton et al. (2007) that more importance be placed on the role of managers and supervisors. Managers or those in positions of leadership must be positive role models; for example, if a manager behaves in a respectful

way, the employees will be more likely respond in a similar way. If a manager attends civility training, s/he is communicating to his employees that the training is important and they will therefore be more likely to take it seriously. It would also be ideal if companies provided forums for employees to voice their concerns. As the current findings demonstrate, it is not evident in the companies studied that employees interact and share their views with managers.

Findings from this study indicate that it does not matter if employee-feedback is not implemented; managers will be perceived as more fair if the employees feel that they have had the opportunity to voice their opinions and have been given audience. Where implementation of employee suggestions is not made, the reasons should be made clear. This is important specifically for Chinese-owned companies because the results reveal that in most cases employees engage in deviant behaviours out of anger or due to lack of platforms to express themselves, unlike in domestic-owned companies. However, this recommendation also applies to domestic-owned companies as the results indicate that not all companies have well established structures that employees use to channel their grievances.

It is noteworthy that, even when no explicit promises are made, employees tend to form expectations, such that a thorough and convincing explanation is also warranted when changes are made to actual amounts of pay-outs or to the payment system (Schaubroeck, Shaw, Duffy, & Mitra, 2008). Therefore, it is important for managers to explain organisational goals and thus help to foster an ethical climate and so help to prevent or counter the temptation of employees to engage in behaviours that can harm the organisation. Consequently, it will be beneficial for the organisations to build and maintain employees' commitment to the organisation, and it is also of significant

importance to mitigate deviant behaviours, as these behaviours can be a source of financial drain to the organisations (Detert, Treviño, Burris, & Andiappan, 2007; Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Greenberg, 1997).

Perceptions of what is considered fair or unfair play a fundamental role in employees' lives and can explain why and when employees engage in workplace deviance when they perceive an imbalance in the work relationship. Although this study did not look at organisational citizenship behaviour, its findings indicate that once employees perceive income distribution, job security and managerial control in negative ways, these variables act as clear sources of job dissatisfaction. Also, negative emotions are associated with patterns of discretionary withdrawal behaviours that are evident in reducing loyal commitment towards the organisation and increased negative behaviour, thus leading to deviant behaviour. Thus, based on the coefficient results, the findings indicate that if employees perceive that there is some form of inequity in income distribution, job security and managerial control there will also exist strong negative associations that are counterproductive to organisational objectives. Therefore, in practice, managers/supervisors need to establish a two-way communication channel with subordinates, by increasing the interactions with employees in staff meetings (Aboyassin, 2008; Krot & Lewicka, 2012). Organisations should nurture a work environment that emphasises upward communication so that employees will feel involved, which in turn will boost self-work, self-esteem and reduce the incidence of workplace deviance.

Deviance is more evident in Chinese-owned companies as a significantly high number of respondents indicated that due to negative perceptions in relation to income distribution, job security and managerial control they do not hesitate should an opportunity present itself to engage in deviant behaviours. Although there are employees in domestic-owned

companies who engage in deviant behaviours, some do not engage in deviant behaviours mainly because these employees are loyal to the companies as they do not perceive high levels of unfairness.

The most common factors preventing integration of foreign managers with locals include a lack of sensitivity and appreciation for local culture, the creation of social distance, the expectation (of the employers) that everything should be as it is in their home countries, and an attitude of superiority because they are the ones providing employment. The current findings and recommendations support Hofstede (1984) who found that foreign management within a different (host) society is very much constrained by its own cultural context, because it is difficult to coordinate the actions of people without a deep understanding of the host's values, beliefs, and expressions, as might be the case in the current study with Chinese-owned companies.

7.3.1 Public Policy and Practice Implications

Authors such as Herrmann (1995) and Ratner (2001) argue that governments in some emerging economies overlook human rights abuses perpetrated by foreign investors, provided the latter are satisfying certain economic targets. For example, Idemudia (2009) and Orogun (2010) found that in Nigeria, oil companies where high revenues are accruing to local government are associated with political and economic marginalisation of local inhabitants who have been negatively affected by environmental degradation.

As a result of the findings of this study, it is recommended that when government engages with businesses (e.g. construction companies), the focus should not only be on business interests, but should be broadened to include certain social aspects of life. The government should take concerted action to regulate and manage the country's growing foreign investment, especially the Chinese presence, by strengthening the enforcement of,

and adherence to, laws and regulations governing immigration, labour practices and investment policies. The findings of this study indicate that employees in Chinese-owned companies perceive that some areas of conflict arise due to lack of mutual cultural understanding; for instance, language barriers have been indicated as a problem which often leads to poor communication between supervisors and employees, which can in turn lead to misunderstandings of each other's intentions. Non-compliance to set minimum wages and employment contracts regulations often lead to tensions and conflicts within the workplace.

The results indicate that in domestically-owned companies, 64% of employees, and in Chinese-owned companies 83% of employees, agree that 'Management behaviour and attitude towards employees is the main cause of dispute'. Also, 47% of employees in domestically-owned companies, and 65% of employees in Chinese-owned companies, disagree that: 'Supervisors treat you in a respectful way'. Hence, in the construction industry of Botswana, this study shows that employees hold a negative perception of how management and supervisors relate to employees, but this is much more negatively perceived in the workplace of Chinese-owned companies compared to domestic-owned companies. Based on this finding, it is proposed that foreign managers should be bound by government regulation to enrol in short-term workshops or courses that include an introduction to culture, including history, language, and customs. Javidan et al. (2006) notes that culture colours nearly every aspect of human behaviour, so a working knowledge of culture and its influences can be useful to executives operating in a multicultural business environment. This will assist in the necessary process of cultural adaptation, integration, sensitivity, and respect that will further relationship-development. This has been demonstrated by Dzimbiri (2010), Sabone (2009) and Tang (2010) who show that cultural differences can lead to conflict in the workplace, as, more often than

not, managers unknowingly engage in certain behaviours that violate cultural norms in their host nation.

A notable factor is the national policy on incomes and remuneration, which sets relatively low minimum-wages for employees in the construction industry, particularly those holding unskilled (labouring) positions and/or jobs of a temporary nature. The minimum wage in the Botswana construction sector as of first June 2013 was P4.50 per hour (Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs, 2013); however, as of first June 2015 the rate is P 5.15 per hour (Lemmenyane, 2015). Guided by the existing policy, the construction companies generally opt to offer employees the minimum wage to maximise profit. While it can be argued that this is an unfair practice, it is, however, a business practice that operates within the parameters of government policy and thus is a legal policy. The law clearly stipulates that employers must guarantee that they do not pay their employees below the stipulated minimum wage rates. A failure to do so would be a violation of Section 138 of the Employment Act, Cap. 47:01:

Where any contract of employment provides for the payment of a wage less than the minimum wage to an employee [to] whom a minimum wages order applies, the contract shall have effect as if the minimum wage were substituted therefor.

In the event that employers violate this section, they are liable to penalties in terms of Section 151 (d) of the same EA, which states:

Prescribed by this paragraph, shall be liable to a fine not exceeding P2000 or imprisonment for a term not exceeding 18 months or both.

However, despite having an EA which guards against paying employees below the stipulated rates, there are companies that do not comply. The frequency-results in the study indicate that in both types of companies a large percentage of employees are of the view that they are not paid overtime as stipulated by the EA Section 95(5), as stated:

If an employee is required to work in any one day more than the number of hours in the ordinary daily working period, the number of hours worked in excess shall be deemed...to be overtime and the employee shall be paid for such overtime one and a half

The findings relating to the non-payment of overtime at the prescribed rate do not reveal many interventions by the authorities, nor the imposition of many penalties for such breaches. Firstly, this supports the need for introductory courses and advertising campaigns to teach employees about their rights, as noted by some participants who have indicated that their ignorance of their rights in this area restricted their ability to seek redress. Research has shown that while a lack of knowledge about minimum wage policies on the part of employees, and while weak enforcement of such policies may exist in any country, they are more likely to exist in developing countries (Bhorat, Kanbur, & Mayet, 2012; Wang & Gunderson, 2011; Yamada, 2012). For example, Wang and Gunderson (2011) note that in China since the scope of its minimum wage policy was broadened in 2004, there are indications that many low-income employees, especially migrant employees, in China are not well informed about the minimum wage policy and are often not paid at the minimum wage level. Such employee ignorance may influence Chinese firm managers' attitudes when conducting FDI in developing countries like Botswana.

Secondly, this apparent lack of intervention argues for the need for thorough inspections at different workplaces. In trying to find ways to deal with these problems, Botswana labour authorities may need to come up with control checklists for employers as a way of helping employees in the construction industry.

The results indicate that in domestically-owned companies 69% of employees, and in Chinese-owned companies 82% of employees, agree that: 'Lack of job security is one of the main causes of dispute'. Also, in domestically-owned companies, 57% of employees,

and in Chinese-owned companies 81% of employees, agree that: 'Employees can be fired at any time'. Hence, in the construction industry of Botswana, this study shows that employees hold a negative perception of management failures to adhere to the psychological contract principle, but this is much more negatively perceived in the workplace of Chinese-owned companies compared to domestic-owned companies. Such unsatisfied expectations resulting from breach of contract principle can lead to a breach of perceived promises when employees observe that the organisation has not provided expected obligations, as noted by Ambrose et al. (2002) and Aquino et al. (1999). In addition, the ANOVA results indicate that those employed on a temporary basis and who have attained a low education level (notably in Chinese-owned companies) constitute a large number of those who shared the view that, more often than not, they are left with the choice of quitting their jobs or going to the courts. However, quitting is rarely viewed as an option, since job-shortages in the industry mean that some workers are forced to remain in their positions in order to 'make ends meet'. Further, because of low job-security, employees usually find it difficult to report cases of employer-abuse, as it has been observed that employers usually terminate the employment of those employees who take them to court (Marobela, 2008). For the majority of the employees, the option of legal action against such practices is in any case viewed as being too costly, thus retributive justice through deviant behaviour may be the only effective action available (Mirshekari & Darbandi, 2014).

There are related issues. For example, in South Africa there have been xenophobic attacks on illegal immigrants, especially those from other African countries. It was reported that the locals argued that illegal immigrants are making it hard for locals to find employment because the former are more willing to take any job for a low payment (Adepoju, 2003;

Charman & Piper, 2012; Crush, 2001; Neocosmos, 2008; Steenkamp, 2009). A high unemployment rate or lack of jobs can influence job seekers perceptions of others.

It is evident from the findings that employees in almost all the companies, but particularly those in participating Chinese-owned companies, perceive income distribution and job security to be the main causes of conflict in the workplace. This perception is heightened in the context of a high unemployment rate. Employees are desperate to work and fear the pain of losing their job. Instead of staying home, the unemployed find it better to work even when they are paid salaries below the minimum wage stipulated by law. Some of the interviewees shared views that indicate a belief that the Labour Department's responses to the issue are not transparent or even that it colludes with the employers against the interests of the employees. The researcher cannot vouch that these views are correct since corroborative evidence is required and none was collected through the study.

Considering the nature of the construction industry, a specific blueprint for managing employment relations is an urgent requirement. As at the end of 2015, the EA 47.01 covers all industries or sectors; however, because of the construction industry's wide range of dynamic circumstances, it is difficult to cover the needs of all parties, especially employees. For example, the results reveal that some employees work without employment contracts, despite the fact that the EA clearly states that an employee needs a contract.

When it is taken into consideration that a significant percentage of employees in this industry are unskilled and with low education qualifications, there is a need for all stakeholders to act – more especially perhaps the MLHA, which in this case has a national obligation to do so, as stated in one of the Vision 2016 pillars (p. 7 under Employment):

A Prosperous, Productive and Innovative Nation

By the year 2016, with the economic growth targets above, Botswana will have reached full employment, where the total number of jobs available in the formal or informal sectors is in balance with the number of job seekers.

Botswana will have a better work ethic and be more productive in all they do. One's input at work will be recognised and rewarded. Unemployment will be drastically reduced, as economic growth in the formal and informal sectors and economic diversification will have generated more employment opportunities.

Hence, based on the above, there is need for government to formulate employment policies that will address the needs of employees in this sector, particularly the unskilled labour which constitutes a large percentage of the total workforce. This study highlights the need for consistent checks or monitors of the institutional mechanisms for managing labour/management conflicts. For instance, a way needs to be found to shorten the time taken to mediate complaints or to investigate allegations made by employees. It is appropriate to propose that the government should require the MLHA to review the situation in the construction industry in order to discover the extent and severity of the problem. It should also be given powers beyond the merely mediatory to enable it to enforce its own regulations, and those regulations should carry heavy penalties in the event of their being breached.

There is a need for labour officials to acknowledge that as long as the political and economic climate in neighbouring countries remains unstable, measures should be put in place to protect foreign workers who are illegally employed, and who, because of the ambiguity of their legal position, are vulnerable to exploitation – in this case by unscrupulous employers. A similar situation currently exists in Australia: an *ABC Four Corners* report (ABC, 2015) noted similar issues with illegal and migrant employees. Such issues are not therefore limited to Africa, or even to less developed economies.

From the study, a number of respondents who are non-citizens indicated that since they are in the country illegally, due to the economic and political climate in their homelands, they are working merely to survive, and are not being paid a wage commensurate with their effort. But they are effectively powerless, since their position as 'illegals' means that they have no legal status in Botswana and cannot act to improve their situation without risking loss of employment, arrest and deportation.

The importance of income distribution as a cause of conflict is heightened by factors such as the high cost of living, in terms of accommodation, transport costs and electricity charges which has been constantly increasing, while wages have not been increased at the same rate.. Based on the interviewees' responses, it is the researcher's view that the time is ripe for the government to abolish minimum wage rates and introduce the concept of a 'living wage' (Hall & Cooper, 2012). A living wage will guard against employee abuse because, by its nature, the living wage protects employees against the consequences of inflation. A living wage helps to match salaries with living expenses. So employees will be able to afford reasonable basic necessities (e.g. accommodation, food, and clothing, transport money to and from work). The living wage will also help to lessen some of the social problems which employees are experiencing, or curb criminal activities to which they may at the moment be tempted to involve themselves in order to supplement their low salaries. And with such a living wage, employees will be under much less pressure to engage in deviant workplace behaviour.

Alternatively, increasing the minimum wage itself can help employees to recover from the effects of the recession (Hall & Cooper, 2012; Haveman, Heinrich, & Smeeding, 2012). The resulting effect on the overall economy can be positive, as minimum wage employees spend their new earnings immediately, generating a positive impact on GDP as

well as the possibility of a related modest employment growth and beneficial consequences for morale, productivity and labour turnover (Arrowsmith & Sisson, 2001; Hansen, 2001). Previous studies have shown that raising the minimum wage puts more money in the pockets of working families when they need it most, thereby supplementing their spending power (Bernstein, Carothers, Libby, & Low, 2015; Edin & Lein, 1997; Freeman, 1996; MaCurdy, 2015). These studies commonly recognise that low-wage workers are more likely than any other income group to spend any extra earnings immediately on previously high-priced basic needs or services. Interestingly, the government has outlined just such an approach in one of the Vision 2016 pillars under income distribution:

By the year 2016, Botswana will have a more equitable income distribution that ensures the participation of as many people as possible in its economic success. There will be policies and measures that increase the participation of poorer households in productive and income earning activities. The economy will be growing in a distributive manner – that is in a way that creates sustainable jobs.

To build this pillar, the government should call for more assessment as to whether the current minimum wages can enable one to live a decent life, without having to compromise their behaviours, such as engaging in deviant behaviours like stealing because the wages earned are not enough. Central Statistics Office (2013a), the formal sector employment report demonstrates that in 2012 a large percentage of employees in the manufacturing, retail and construction industry were paid on an hourly basis. Having so many individuals working at low hourly wages leads to depressed living standards for a large proportion of the population, and results in many families living in in-work poverty.

Although, in Botswana the inflation rate has been moderate during and after the GFC (Central Statistics Office, 2014), the combination of lower wages and lower job opportunities has decreased income tremendously. As a result, based on this study's findings, one can assume that there is a decrease of disposable income and employment opportunities, and that the material needs of the workers are not being met. Thus, all the above suggestions for improving public policy and practice in Botswana would move the country closer to realising the Income Distribution aim in Vision 2016 by next year – as is there proposed.

The government might also have to monitor whether foreign companies such Chinese-owned companies are complying with local employment laws, and enforce the regulations where this is not the case. The results of this study indicate that, particularly in Chinese-owned companies, employees can be dismissed without notification of any reason. Employees interpret this action as a betrayal, and become less willing to trust new employers. Those employees who have retained their jobs feel that the experience of their dismissed colleagues underlines the fragility of their own employment status. These realities defeat the purpose of having FDI companies that are brought into the country with the assumption that they will contribute to the national good by creating employment for host nationals. To achieve this, FDI companies should treat their employees in a positive way and furnish them with economic or socio-emotional resources, and in return employees will feel obliged to reciprocate the positive treatment they have been granted by engaging in behaviour that directly benefits the organisation, as suggested by Newman et al. (2016), Shen and Zhu (2011) and Zheng (2015).

7.4 Future Research

Future research can be conducted to address limitations of this study as set out in Section 7.2. For instance, other national proprietors such as those from South Africa, as well as joint ventures and those that operate outside Botswana, could be examined. A useful consensus across all foreign-owned companies vis-à-vis domestic-owned can be reached by accumulating evidence from a wider population. The current study with its modified conceptual framework (Figure 6.1) offers a base for such future research.

The relationship identified in this research between causes of conflict factors (income distribution, job security and managerial control) and forms of conflict (deviant behaviours) requires further investigation in Botswana within the same industry (across a wider population); other industries; and different regions, organisational contexts and regional cultures. More research on employment issues, especially the causes of conflict, will provide clearer understandings of the implications of conflict in the workplace for worker and employer alike.

Furthermore, future research should replicate this study in other developing countries as the construction sector is rapidly expanding in these countries. Those results could then be compared with the current study to gain a better understanding of how employees in the construction or other industries generally perceive the severity and extent of the causes and forms of conflict in their different social and industrial contexts. A solid empirical base upon which to build future industrial relations policy could thus be developed, benefiting both employer and employee. Lastly, a happy employee in the construction sector will be a more productive employee, which will benefit many industries, particularly the Botswana construction sector, and reduce the costs that are

associated with theft intent or delays in completion of project due to conflict with employers (Litzky et al., 2006).

A longitudinal approach could be used; such an approach can generate a richer data source, where different patterns of adjustment could have been identified and compared over time. Also, future studies may tap into wider data sources in addition to the employees, such as supervisors or managers as well as government and union labour officials. This would then extend this study beyond the perceptions of employees to discover how these perceptions are dealt with.

In particular, future research could seek to expand this study by including the views of management to gain an insight into their specific concerns and attitudes, and general understanding as to what they consider to be the causes of conflict and deviant workplace behaviours that employees engage in, so that a comparison between employees' and managers' perceptions becomes possible. This may lead to the discovery of grounds or means to reconciliation. Additionally, a longitudinal comparative study of domestic- and Chinese-owned companies in other sectors could be undertaken in Botswana and other African countries, using the conceptual framework developed in this study. For instance, from the beginning of a construction project through to the end of the project in 'real time', thus enabling researchers to provide both an on-going diagnostic and an evolving data-base of employee/employer perceptions of conflicts as they arise and examine whether employee perceptions of cause and forms of conflict influence their workplace behaviour over the long-term. Such data may well enable managers to foresee and as such avoid conflict 'flashpoints' before they become a threat to the security and safety of the worker or the profits of the company.

Although the findings of this thesis are consistent with equity and social exchange theories and violation of psychological contract, there remain some unaddressed issues. Further analysis of the personality effects of employee characteristics could be undertaken in future research. It would be advisable to continue this line of research by looking more closely at how employees' characteristics may influence the relationship between their reactions to perceptions of causes of conflict, and at those behavioural tendencies that may influence their decision to engage in counterproductive work behaviour. Based on the definition of psychological contract (which argues that there is a reciprocal relationship between employees and employers) a study investigating employers' experiences also need to be made as indicated in previous studies (Nadin & Williams, 2011; Schein, 1965). Schein (1965) emphasised the need to understand the employment relationship from the perspective of both parties, giving detailed consideration to the role of the organisation's culture.

This final chapter has reviewed the key major findings of this study related to the research question as explained throughout the thesis. The contributions of this study are discussed in this chapter and a number of recommendations have been provided, based on the results. A series of recommendations for future research has also been provided that can build upon these results.

7.5 Concluding Note

This thesis has examined employees' perception on the causes and forms of conflict in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies. It has sought to shed light on how employees view income distribution, job security and managerial control as causes of conflict and the various forms of counterproductive work (deviant behaviours) that employees engage in, in the event that they perceive some unfairness. This thesis has

addressed gaps in the existing literature and, in so doing, has developed a modified conceptual framework (Figure 6.1) that more accurately explains the relationship between employees' perception of the causes of conflict, and the deviant behaviours that employees use to retaliate when they experience some inequities.

This study contributes to the understanding of the causes and various forms of conflict in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies from the employees' perspectives. This study has highlighted that there are distinct differences between domestic- and Chinese-owned companies. Given the differences in the two populations, this research indicates that cultural factors play a major role in employees' perceptions of the causes of conflict, as evidenced by the data pertaining to Chinese-owned companies.

The author's hope is that these insights can serve to enhance the theoretical understanding of the causes and forms of conflict, and that they might give incentive for further research as to the means by which counterproductive deviant behaviours in organisations, especially in the Botswana construction industry, may be reduced or eliminated.

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Appendices

Appendix I: Ethics Approval

Approval

Human Research Ethics Committee

University of Ballarat
Learn to succeed



Principal Researcher:	Patrick O'Leary
Other/ Student Researcher/s:	Josephine Moeti-Lysson Jerry Courvisanos
School/ Section:	TBS
Project Number:	B13-126
Project Title:	Employee perceptions on causes and forms of conflict in the Botswana construction industry: A comparative study between domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies.
For the period:	22/11/2013 to 01/08/2015

Please quote the Project No. in all correspondence regarding this application.

REPORTS TO HREC:

An annual report for this project must be submitted to the Ethics Officer on:
22 November 2014

A final report for this project must be submitted to the Ethics Officer on:
01 September 2015

These report forms can be found at:

<http://www.ballarat.edu.au/research/research-services/forms/ethics-forms>

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Joanna'.

Ethics Officer
22 November 2013

Please see attached 'Conditions of Approval'.

Appendix II: Plain Language Statement

PROJECT TITLE:	Employee perception on causes and forms of conflict in the Botswana construction industry: a comparative study on domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies
PRINCIPAL RESEARCHER:	Dr Patrick O’Leary
OTHER/STUDENT RESEARCHERS:	Josephine S. Moeti-Lysson Associate Prof Jerry Courvisanos

Dear Sir/ Madam,

You are invited to take part in Josephine Moeti-Lysson’s PhD research study, under the supervision of Dr Patrick O’Leary of the Business School, entitled: ‘Employee perception on causes and forms of conflict in the Botswana construction industry: A comparative study on domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies.’ The study will gather information on the causes of conflict from an employee perspective. Conflict in this study refers to disagreements that occur at work that is influenced by the work environment. It is expected that the results of this study will assist in developing strategies or ways in which companies can minimise workplace conflict.

Your company has given the researcher permission to distribute questionnaires to employees. If you are interested in participating in this research, you may collect a questionnaire from the researcher tomorrow (Tuesday) after working hours at the main entrance/exist gates. Your responses to the questionnaire will be completely anonymous and not identifiable by your company. The questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes to complete and you can return the completed questionnaire to the researcher either on Wednesday, Thursday or Friday of this week.

In addition to the survey, a number of face-to-face interviews will be conducted to explore further the causes and forms of workplace conflict. These interviews will take no longer than an hour of your time and will be tape recorded with your permission. If you are interested in participating, please complete the form on the flyer and return to the researcher this week. You are entitled to withdraw your consent to participate and discontinue participation at any time until data is collected and if you do so, any information that you provide will not be used. After collection your individual contribution will no longer be able to be identified. We will take every step to maintain anonymity and confidentiality. We assure you that the thesis or any publication arising from the research will not identify any individual. Where quotes are used in the publications, codes will be used instead of names.

The names of the companies will not be revealed in any publication arising from this research. Please note your participation in this research is completely voluntary, and if you do not wish to take part you are not required to do so. All data from the research will be stored securely by the principal researcher. The research data will only be accessed by the researchers named above. Data collected from both questionnaires and face-to-face interviews will be destroyed after 5 years. In the unlikely event that you feel the need for ongoing support as a result of this research the following agency offer free and independent counselling. Public relations office - phone (267) 0800 600 789. Your cooperation and participation in this study is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely

Dr Patrick O’Leary

<p>If you have any questions, or you would like further information regarding the project titled: Employee perception on causes and forms of conflict in the Botswana construction industry: a comparative study on domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies. The Principal Researcher, Dr Patrick O’Leary of the School of the Business School: PH: +61-3-5327 9408. Email: poleary@ballarat.edu.au</p>
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<p>Should you (i.e. the participant) have any concerns about the ethical conduct of this research project, please contact the University of Ballarat Ethics Officer, Research Services, University of Ballarat, PO Box 663, Mt Helen VIC 3353. Telephone: (03) 5327 9765, Email: ub.ethics@ballarat.edu.au</p>
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Appendix III: Consent Form

PROJECT TITLE:	Employee perception on causes and forms of conflict in the Botswana construction industry: a comparative study on domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies
RESEARCHERS:	Associate Professor Jerry Courvisanos Dr Patrick O’Leary Josephine Moeti-Lysson

Consent – Please complete the following information:

I, of
.....
hereby consent to participate as a subject in the above research study.

The research program in which I am being asked to participate has been explained fully to me, verbally and in writing, and any matters on which I have sought information have been answered to my satisfaction.

I understand that:

- All information I provide (including interviews) will be treated with the strictest confidence and data will be stored separately from any listing that includes my name and address.
- Direct quotes without any identifiable information to myself may be used in written work related to this study.
- Aggregated results will be used for research purposes and may be reported in scientific and academic journals and other publications.
- I am free to withdraw my consent at any time during the study, until data has been aggregated, in which event my participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained from it will not be used.
- If I decide to participate in the interview process, this interview will be tape-recorded, subject to my approval.

SIGNATURE: **DATE:**

Appendix IV: Researcher Flyer

RESEARCH STUDY

Employee perception on causes and forms of conflict in the Botswana construction industry: A comparative study on domestic-owned and Chinese-owned companies.

If you are interested in participating in this research study, you are invited to collect a questionnaire from the researcher tomorrow (Tuesday) after working hours just outside the company premises. Completed questionnaires can be return to the researcher on Wednesday, Thursday or Friday this week. The questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. Information about the study is provided in the attached letter of invitation.

Please note that your participation in this research is **completely voluntary**, and **if you do not wish to take part you are not obliged to**.

Would you consider participating in a face-to-face interview?

As part of this study, a small number of face-to- face interviews will also be conducted to discuss the causes the conflict in the construction industry in Botswana. (Details are provided in the attached letter of invitation.)

If you are interested in participating, please provide your name and contact details in the space below and return this flyer to the researcher on Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday or Friday this week. Thank you very much.

NAME:

CONTACT NO:

Appendix V: Scoring of Items of Causes of Conflict

Construct	Source	Items used in this Study
Q13. Distribution of income	Adams (1965) De Boer et al. (2002) Berkowitz et al.(1987) Hackman and Oldham (1975)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wages /Salary paid are the main cause of dispute- written specifically for this survey as it has been reported widely in the media that salary is a cause of disputes • Wages / salary are very low compared to other similar companies • Employees doing same job are not paid same salary • Employees are not paid overtime • Management pays employees fairly
	Bryson et al. (2009) Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of job security is the main cause of dispute • My job is quite secure • Because of low job security no/few complaints come from employees • Employees can be fired from work at any time • There are no employment contracts signed
Q14. Job security	Ashford et al. (1989) Cheng and Chan (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of job security is the main cause of dispute- written specifically for this survey as it has been reported widely in the media that lack of job security is a cause of conflict • My job is quite secure • Because of low job security no/few complaints come from employees • Employees can be fired from work at any time • There are no employment contracts signed
Q15. Importance	Sverke et al. (2002) Isaksson et al. (2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job security • Fair payment in wages/salary • Good relationships • between managers and employees • Good relationships with other employees • Safe working environment and good protective clothing
Q16. Managerial control	Leventhal (1980), Thibaut and Walker (1975), Tyler and Bies (1990), Moorman (1991).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Management behaviour and attitude towards employees is the main cause of dispute written specifically for this survey as it has been reported widely in the media that poor management and supervisory relationship is a cause of conflict • Employees complaints are taken seriously” • Due consideration is given to employees’ viewpoints • Employees are all treated equally • Management often act out of self interest

Q17. Supervisors	Leventhal (1980), Thibaut and Walker (1975), Tyler and Bies (1990), Moorman (1991). Leventhal (1980)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervisors inform you in time about changes in work • Supervisors give good explanation if something turns out wrong in your job • Supervisors treat you in a respectful way? • Supervisors show that you are valuable to the company? • Supervisors communicate an honest and straight-forward manner?
Q18. Satisfaction	Sverke et al. (2002) Reisel et al. (2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job security • Working conditions and environment • Present salary /wages • Management responses to employees' problems • Relationship between management and employees • Health and safety standards
Q19. Forms of conflict (Deviant behaviours)	Robinson and Bennett (1995)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wasting employer's materials/supplies • Damaging a piece of equipment or property • Dirtying or littering place of work • Unfriendly attitudes towards supervisors • Unfriendly attitudes towards co-workers • Blaming someone at work for error they made • Doing their work incorrectly • Working slowly when things needed to get done • Failing to follow instructions • Stealing something belonging to the employer • Taking supplies or tools home without permission • Putting in to be paid for more hours than they worked • Stealing something belonging to someone at work

SECTION B: Perceptions of Workplace Inequality

Q13. Please indicate your views on the following statements in relation to wages/salary in your company. **Please tick ✓ only one box for each statement**

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Wages /Salary paid are the main cause of dispute	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Wages / salary are very low compared to other similar companies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Employees doing same job are not paid same salary	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Employees are not paid overtime	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Management pays employees fairly	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q14. Please indicate your level of agreement on the following statements in relation to job security in your company. **Please tick ✓ only one box for each statement.**

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Lack of job security is the main cause of dispute	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My job is quite secure	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because of low job security no/few complaints come from employees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Employees can be fired from work at any time	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
There are no employment contracts signed	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q15. Please indicate your views on the relative importance to you, of each of the following items. **Please tick ✓ only one box for each statement**

	Very important	Important	Moderately Important	Of little importance	Not important
Job security	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Fair payment in wages/salary	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Good relationships between managers and employees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Good relationships with other employees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Safe working environment and good protective clothing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q16. Please indicate your views on the following statements in relation to management relationships with employees in your workplace. **Please tick ✓ only one for each statement.**

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Management behaviour and attitude towards employees is the main cause of dispute	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Employees complaints are taken seriously	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Due consideration is given to employees' viewpoints	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Employees are all treated equally	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Management often act out of self interest	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q17. Please indicate your level of agreement on the following statements in relation to supervisors' relationship with employees in your workplace. **Please tick ✓ only one box for each statement.**

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Supervisors inform you in time about changes in work?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Supervisors give good explanation if something turns out wrong in your job?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Supervisors treat you in a respectful way?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Supervisors show that you are valuable to the company?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Supervisors communicate an honest and straight-forward manner?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q18. Please indicate the level of satisfaction you perceive on each of the following statements. **Please tick ✓ only one box for each statement.**

	Very satisfied	Fairly satisfied	Not Satisfied nor Dissatisfied	Fairly dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied
Job security	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Working conditions and environment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Present salary /wages	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Management responses to employees' problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Relationship between management and employees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Health and safety standards	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

SECTION C. Forms of Conflict

Q19. Please indicate if you have witnessed or are aware of employees engaging in any of the following activities in the workplace. **Please tick ✓ only one box for each statement.**

	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Wasting employer's materials/supplies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Damaging a piece of equipment or property	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dirtying or littering place of work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Unfriendly attitudes towards supervisors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Unfriendly attitudes towards co-workers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Blaming someone at work for error they made	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doing their work incorrectly	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Working slowly when things needed to get done	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Failing to follow instructions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Stealing something belonging to the employer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Taking supplies or tools home without permission	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Putting in to be paid for more hours than they worked	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Stealing something belonging to someone at work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q20. Please provide details of any other aspects of your employment that you believe are causes of conflict in your workplace and any other forms of conflict you have witnessed or are aware of.....

Thank you for your contribution.....next page is the Setswana version

Kgaolo B: Tebo ya gago ka tekatekano mo tirong.

Q13. Ka maitemogelo a gago, o kopiwa go supa seemo sa go dumelana gag ago mabapi le dintlha tse di latelang ka ga dituelo mo komponeng. Supa seo ka go tshwaya mo lebokosong lele lengwe✓ mo dipotsong tsoitlhe

	Ke dumela thata	Ke a dumela	Ke fa gare fela	Ga ke dumele	Gake dumele gotlhelele
Dikatso/dituelo di kwa tlase ke tsone di bakang kgotlhang	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Babereki baba dirang tiro ee tshwanang mo komponeng gaba duelwe ka go lekana	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Babereki ga ba duelelwe go theogela dioura tse di feteletseng	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Boeteledi bo duela babereki sentle	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Fa babereki ba dira ka nata ba bile ba bereka dioura tse di feteletseng, dituelo le tsone dia oketsega	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q14. Ka maitemogelo a gago, tswee-tswee supa selekanyo sa tumelano ya gago le diele tse di latelang mabapi le pabalesego kgatlhano le go latlhegelwa ke tiro mo komponeng eo e direlang. O kopiwa go tshwaya lebokoso lele lengwe✓ fela mo seeleng sengwe le sengwe.

	Ke dumela thata	Ke a dumela	Kefa gare fela	Gake dumele	Gake dumele gotlhelele
Pabalesego kgatlhano le go latlhegelwa ke tiro ke one modi wa kgotlhang.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ga go bonale gole motlhofo gore keka latlhegelwa ke tiro	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ka mabaka a gore tiro eka lathega motlhofo babereki ba boifa go ntsha matshwenyego a bone	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Babereki baka kobiwa mo tirong bomotlhofo	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Ga gona tumalano epe ee kanelwang	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
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Q15. Tswee-tswewe supa megopolo ya gago ka botlhokwa jwa yone mo go wena mabapi le ditshetla tsemi latelang. Tshwaya mo lebokosong le le lengwe ✓ mo tshetleng nngwe le nngwe.

	E botlhokwa thata	E botlhokwa	Kefa gare fela	E botlhokwa mme eseng thata	Ga e botlhokwa
Pabalesego ya tiro	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dituelo tsemi nametsang	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Botsalano jobo lolameng fa gare ga baeteledi le babereki	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Botsalano jobo lolameng fa gare ga babereki	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Lefelo la tiro lele babalesegileng ga mmogo le diaparo tsa itshireletso	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q16. Tswee-tswewe supa tumelo ya gago mo ditshetleng tsemi latelang mabapi le botsalano faga ga boeteledi le babereki mo tirong ya gago. Tshwaya mo lebokosong le le lengwe ✓ mo tshetleng nngwe le nngwe.

	Ke dumela thata	Ke a dumela	Kefa gare fela	Gake dumele	Gake dumele gotlhelele
Go tlhoka Botsalano jobo lolea fa gare ga boeteledi le babereki bo bakang kgotlhang mo tirong	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Matshwenyego a babereki a tsewa ka tlhoafalo	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dikgopolo tsa babereki di tsewa tsia kafa tshwanelong	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Babereki ba tsewa ka go lekana	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Boeteledi pele bo ipaya kwa pele fa bo tsaya ditshwetso	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q17. Tswee-tswée, supa selekanyo sa tumelano ya gago le ditshetla tse di latelang mabapi le botsalano fa gare ga baeteledi le babereki mo tirong. Tshwaya mo lebokosong le le lengwe✓ mo tshetleng nngwe le nngwe.

	Ke dumela thata	Ke a dumela	Ke fagare fela	Gake dumele	Gake dumele gotlhelele
Baeteledi ba gago ba go itsese nako esale teng ka diphetogo tsa tiro.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Baeteledi ba gofa tlhaloso ee lolameng fa sengwe se sa tsamaya sentle ka tiro ya gago.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Baeteledi ba gofa tlotlo ee lekaneng	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Baeteledi ba supa fa ole bothokwa mo tirong	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Baeteledi ba buisana le wena ka tsela ee lolameng ebile e tlhamaletse	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q18. Tswee-tswée, supa kafa o kgotsofalelang ditshetla tse di latelang ka teng. Tshwaya mo lebokosong le le lengwe✓ mo tshetleng nngwe le nngwe.

	Ke kgotsofala thata	Ke a kgotsofala	Ke fa gare fela	Gake kgotsofale	Gake kgotsofale gotlhelele
Selekano sa pabalesego kgatthanong le go latlhegelwa ke tiro	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mabaka a tiro le seemo sa madirelo	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dituelo/dikatso mo sebakeng seno	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dikarabo tsa boeteledi mo matshwenyegong a babereki	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Botsalano fa gare ba boeteledi le babereki	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tsa botsogo le Pababalesego	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Karolo C: Dipopego tsa Kgotlhang

Q19. Tswee-tswée supa kafa ditshetla tšedi lateng di dirisegang ka teng mo tirong.
Tšhwaya mo lebokosong le le lengwe✓ mo tšhetleng nngwe le nngwe.

	Ka nako tsothle	Gantsi	Ka nako dingwe	Ka sewelo	Ka nako epe
Tiriso botlhaswa ka bomo ya dithoto tsa mohiri.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tshenyō ya dithoto ee dirwang ka bomo.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Go tlatsa lefelo la tiro ka matlala kgotsa leswe ka bomo.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mokgwa wa botlhoka tsalano le boeteledi	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mokgwa wa botlhoka tsalano le badiri ba bangwe	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Go tshwaela mongwe o sele phoso eke e dirileng	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Go dira tiro botlhaswa ka bomo.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Go nyafala ka bomo mo tirong ntswa tiro e tlhokega ka bofefo.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Go itlhokomolosa ditaello ka bomo.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Go ipha/utswa dithoto tsa mohiri.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Go rwalela dithoto kgotsa didirisiwa kwa lapeng ke sena teta ya go dira jalo.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Go ikokeletsa dioura go feta tse ke di berekileng.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Go utswa dithoto tsa babereki ba bangwe	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q20. Fa gona le sengwe se dipatisiso tse di se tlodisitseng matlho mme sele botlhokwa mo go tlhaloganyeng sebopego sa dikgotlhang mo tirong, le se se di bakang, tswee-tswée se kwala mo lebokosong le le fa tlasefa

.....
.....

Ke lebogela thuso ya gago. Seabe sa gago mo patisisong e se tlhomphegile thata ebile se a lebosega

Appendix VII: Interview Questions (English Version)

Face-to-face semi-structured interview questions

In the context of this study workplace conflict is defined as; specific type of disagreement that occurs at work and uniquely influenced by the work environment. The conflict usually occurs when there are disagreements, disputes or tension over the following conditions: such as, working conditions, salary, job security and relationship with supervisors or co-workers.

1. In your view what forms of conflict occur frequently in your company and why?
2. If you have worked elsewhere before joining this company, what were the causes of conflict at the previous company, in comparison to your current employer?
3. In your view what are the causes of conflict in your current company and why?
4. In your view, are there any differences between causes of conflict in local and foreign companies?
5. In your view what is the management doing to address the cause of conflict in the organisation?
6. In your view how do the disagreements or disputes affect the relationship between management and employees?
7. In your view how is the working relationship between the locals and foreign employees? If negative why?
8. Participants will be shown survey results to reflect on the data

I. Is the data consistent with what you consider as the causes of conflict?

II. Why do you think these results speak to you in this way?

The interviewer will probe each interviewee to explain their answer to all the above questions.

Interview Questions (setswana version)

Dipotso tsa matlho-a-phage a lebane mo dipatisisong

Ke itebagantse le ithutintsho eno, dikgotlhang tsa mo tirong ke tlhoka-tumalano ee faphegileng ee diragalang mo madirelong, mme ebile e rotloediwa ke mabaka a seemo sa tiro. Kgotlhang gantsi e diragala fa gona le tlhoka-tumalano, kganetsanyo kgotsa pitlagano ya maikutlo mo diemong tsemi tshwanang le mabaka a tiro; dituelo; pabalesege kgatlhanong le go latlhegelwa ke tiro gammogo le botsalano fa gare ga bogogi le badiri mmogo.

1. Ka kebelelo ya gago, ke dikgotlhang tsa sebopego sefe tsemi diragalang gantsi mo komponeng ya gago, le gone ke eng o rialo?
2. Fa o kile wa direla gope gape pele gao direla kompone eno, ene ele mabaka afe aa neng a baka dikgotlhang mo komponeng eo, fao tshwantshwanya le maberekelo a gago a gompiano?
3. Ka kebelelo ya gago, ke eng sese bakang dikgotlhang mo komponeng eo e direlang gompiano, le gone ke eng o kaya seo ele one mabaka?
4. Ka kebelelo ya gago, gona le dipharologano fagare ga dintlha tsemi bakang dikgotlhang mo baageding le baeng mo dikomponeng?
5. Ka kebelelo ya gago, boeteledi bo dira eng go itebaganya le dikgotlhang tsemi mo tirong?
6. Ka kebelelo ya gago diphapaang le dikgotlhang di ama jang botsalano fa gare ga baeteledi le babereki?
7. Ka kebelelo ya gago, baagedi le baeng ba dirisana ka tsela ee ntseng jang? Fa ele bosula, go tswa fa kae?
8. Banaleseabe batla fiwa sebaka sa go bona maduo a dipatisiso go ikgakolole sentle dintlhakgolo.
 - I. Dikarabo tseo di phuthileng di tsamaelana sentle le seo bonang ele medi ya dikgang?
 - II. Ke mabaka afe aa dirang gore o dumele fa maduo ano a bua le wena ka tsela ea buang nao ka one?

Motlhotlhomise o tla rotloetsa moarabi go tlhalosa dikarabo tsa gagwe mo dipotsong tsothe tse di boditsweng.

Appendix VIII: Expansion of Table 5.1 Respondents Demographics

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Appendix VIII: Expansion of Table 5.1 Respondents Demographics

Figure VIII.1 and Table VIII.1 show that 71% (244) of the respondents were male and 29% (100) were females in domestic-owned companies, while in Chinese-owned companies 74% (201) were male and 26% (72) were females. Hence, the results indicate that in both types of companies male respondents outnumbered the females and this is due to the fact that construction industry is a male dominant sector.

Table VIII.1: Gender

Gender	Ownership	
	Domestic-owned	Chinese-owned
Male	244 71%	201 45%
Female	100 29%	72 26%
Total	344 100%	273 100%

Figure VIII.1: Gender

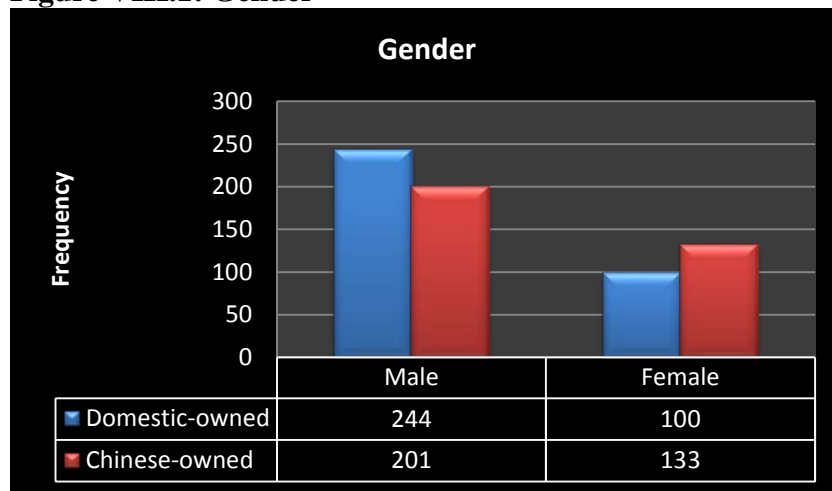


Table VIII.2 and Figure VIII.2 show that 95% (325) Batswana nationals and 5% (18) Zimbabwean nationals worked in domestic-owned companies. While, in Chinese-owned companies 80% (218) were Batswana and 19% (53) were Zimbabweans and only 1% (2) being of Zambian nationals.

Table VIII.2: Nationality of respondents

Nationality	Ownership	
	Domestic-owned	Chinese-owned
Motswana	325 60%	218 80%
Zimbabwean	18 25%	53 19%
Zambian	1 0%	2 1%
Total	344 100%	273 100%

Figure VIII.2: Nationality of respondents

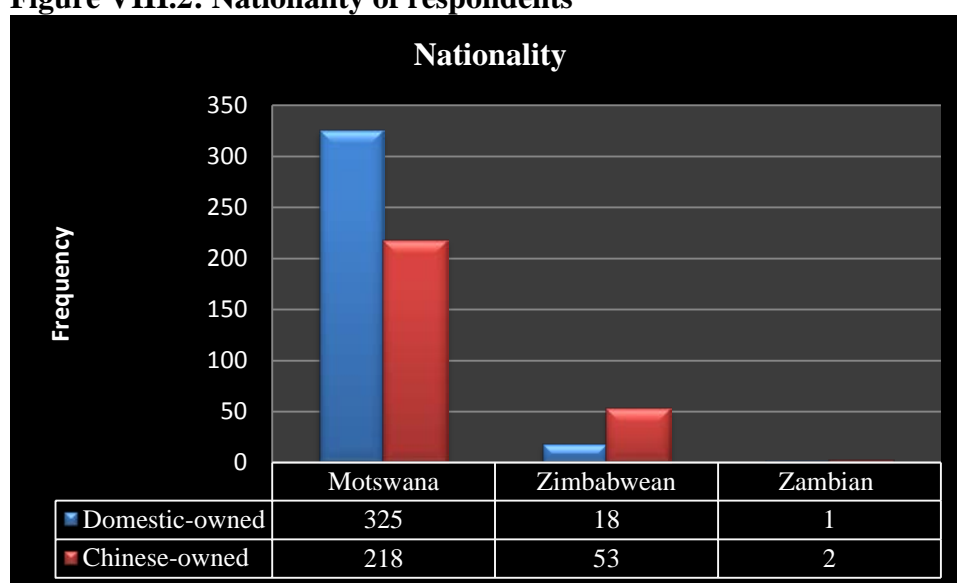


Table VIII.3 and Figure VIII.3 depict that 24% (84) participants with ages ranging between 20-25 years worked in domestic-owned, while 26% (72) of the same age range worked in Chinese-owned companies. Those with age ranging between 26-30 years, 23% (78) worked in domestic - and 37% (102) worked in Chinese-owned companies. Also, 23% (82) of the participants worked in domestic - and 26% (68) worked in Chinese-owned companies. Of participants in the age range of 36-40 years, 12% (41) and 4% (11) worked in domestic- and Chinese-owned companies respectively. Lastly, those with ages ranging 41+ participated 10% (59) in domestic- and 7% (20) in Chinese-owned companies.

Table VIII.3: Age

Age	Ownership	
	Domestic-owned	Chinese-owned
20-25	84 24%	72 26%
26-30	78 23%	102 37%
31-35	82 23%	68 26%
36-40	41 12%	11 4%
41+	59 10%	20 7%
Total	344 100%	273 100%

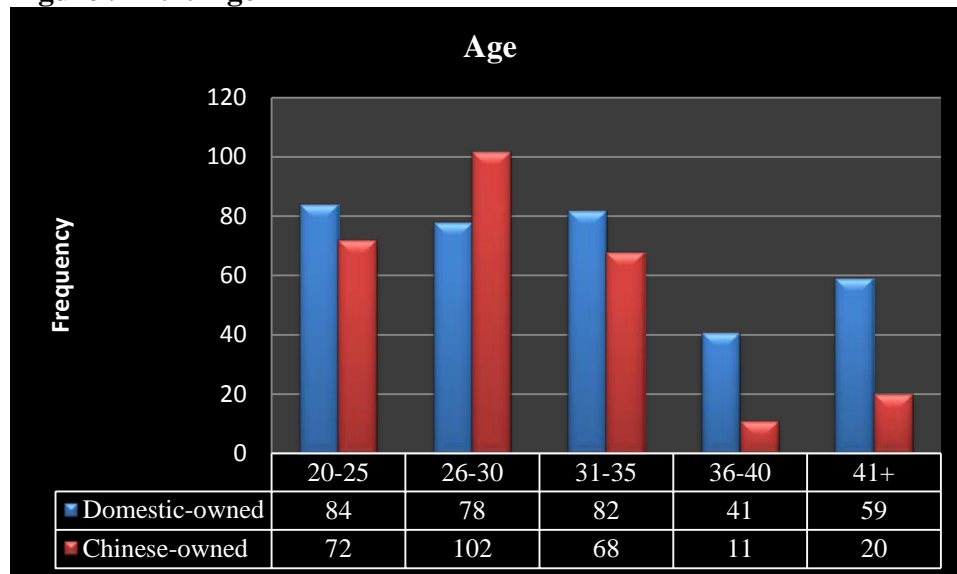
Figure VIII.2: Age

Table VIII.4 and Figure VIII.4 indicate that of participants who have attained Primary school education level, 16% (54) worked in domestic - and 8% (23) in Chinese-owned companies. Of those who attained secondary education level, 42% (146) worked in domestic - and 73% (199) in Chinese-owned companies. Of those who attained tertiary level, 30% (104) and 14% (38) work in domestic - and in Chinese-owned companies, respectively. Of those participants who had vocational educational, 11% (36) worked in domestic - and 4% (11) in Chinese-owned companies. Lastly, 1% (4; 2) worked in both types of companies.

Table VIII.4: Education

Education	Ownership	
	Domestic-owned	Chinese-owned
Primary	54	23
	16%	8%
Secondary	146	199
	42%	73%
Tertiary	104	38
	30%	14%
Vocational	36	11
	11%	4%
None	4	2
	1%	1%
Total	344	273
	100%	100%

Figure VIII.3: Education

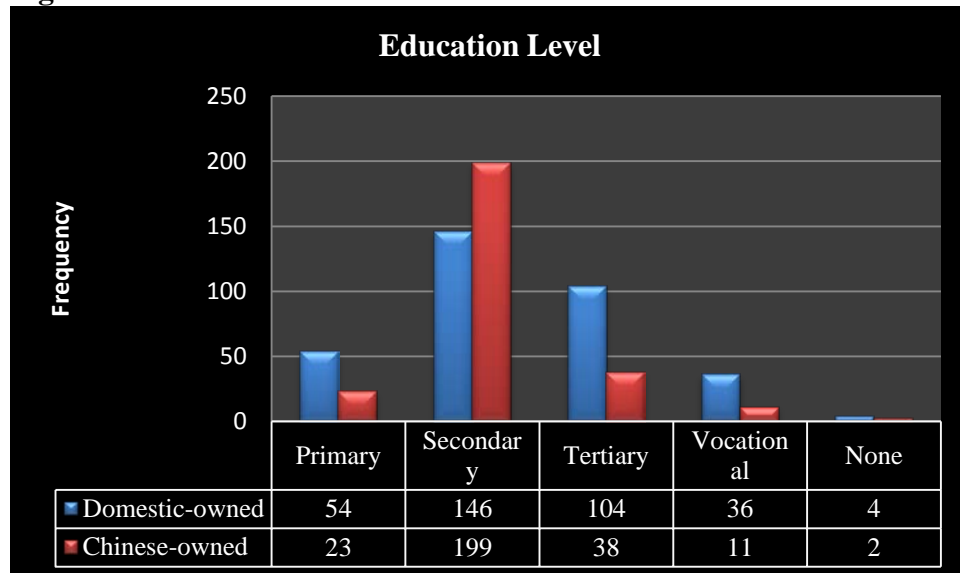


Table VIII.5 and Figure VIII.5 show the participants who were single. In this category 70% (242) worked in domestic-owned companies and 73% (200) worked in Chinese-owned companies. Of the married participants, 27% (92) worked in domestic-owned companies, and 24% (67) worked in Chinese-owned companies. Those who were divorced, 2% (7; 4) worked in domestic- and Chinese-owned companies respectively. Lastly, 1% (3; 2) worked in both types of companies.

Table VIII.5: Marital Status

Status	Ownership	
	Domestic-owned	Chinese-owned
Single	242 70%	200 73%
Married	92 27%	67 24%
Divorced	7 2%	4 2%
Widowed	3 1%	2 1%
Total	344 100%	273 100%

Figure VIII.4: Marital status

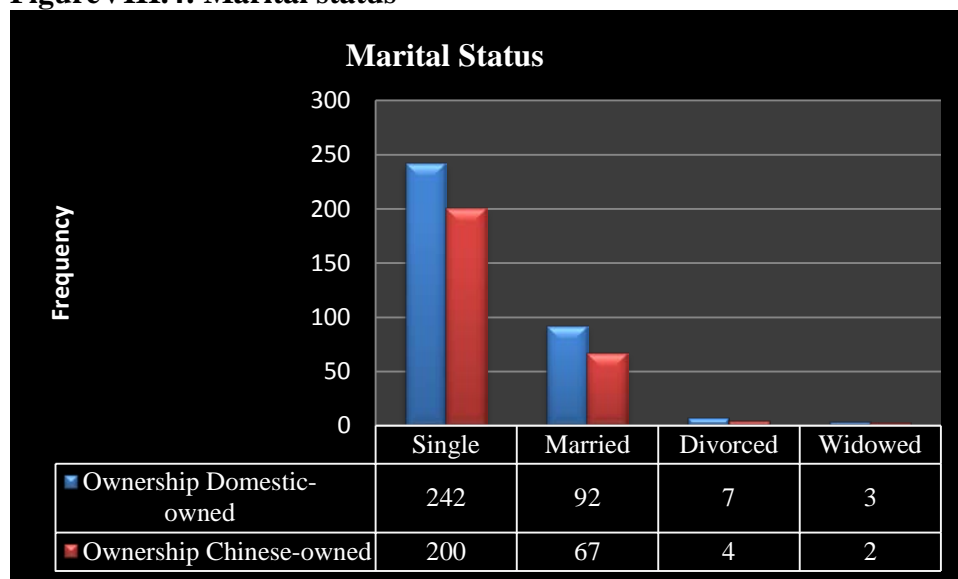


Table VIII.6 and Figure VIII.6 illustrate that 32% (115) of the participants were employed permanently, and all of them worked in domestic-owned companies. Of the participants employed on contract basis, 42% (141) worked in domestic- and 48% (133) worked in Chinese-owned companies. Lastly, of those employed on temporary basis, 26% (88) worked in domestic- and 52% (140) worked in Chinese-owned companies.

Table VIII.6: Employment Status

Employment status	Ownership	
	Domestic-owned	Chinese-owned
Permanent	115	0
	32%	0%
Contract	141	133
	42%	48%
Temporary	88	140
	26%	52%
Total	344	273
	100%	100%

Figure VIII.5: Employment Status

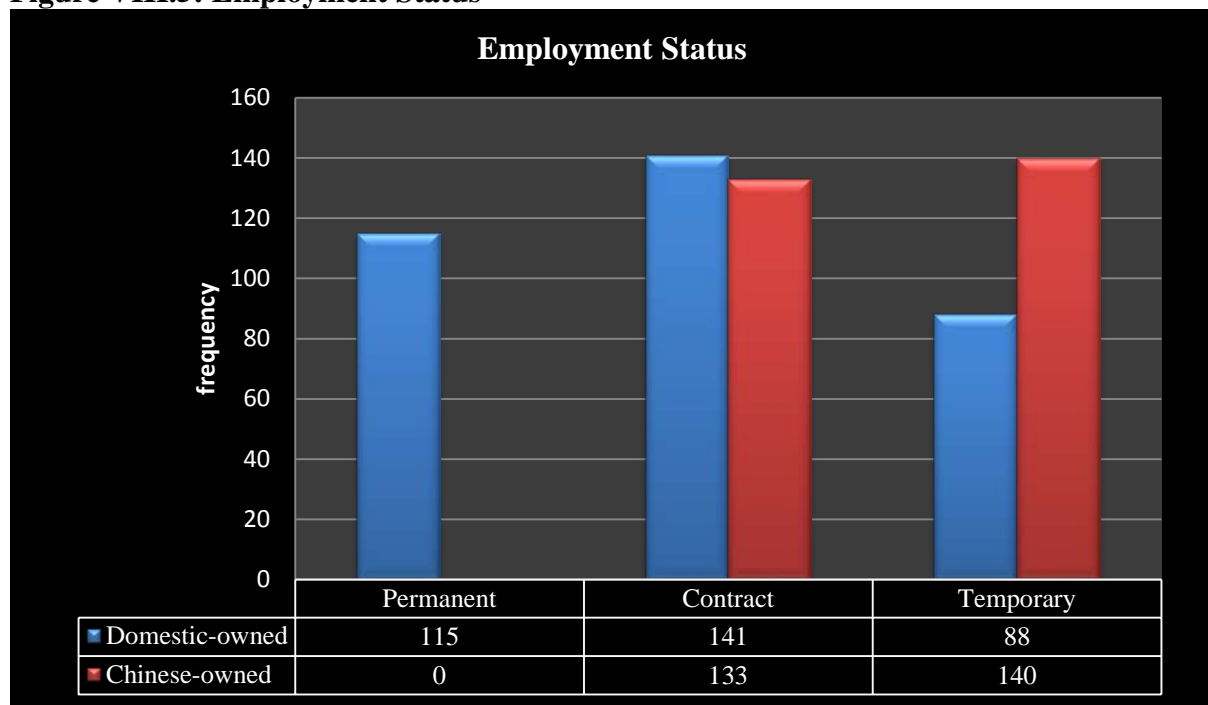


Table VIII.7 and Figure VIII.7 show that 38% (129) of the participants in domestic- owned companies earned P1500 or less, and 50% (137) that earned the same were employed in Chinese-owned companies. Secondly, there were 27% (91) and 34% (94) participants who earned between P15001 and P3000, in domestic- and Chinese-owned companies respectively. Thirdly, 12% (42) and 7% (19) of the participants earned between P3001 and P5000 in both types of companies. Also, 10% (34) in domestic- and 3% (8) in Chinese-owned companies earned between P5001 and P7500. Lastly, 14% (48) and 6% (15) in domestic - and Chinese-owned companies earned P7501 or more.

Table VIII.7: Monthly Income

Monthly Income	Ownership	
	Domestic-owned	Chinese-owned
1500 or less	129 38%	137 50%
1501-3000	91 27%	94 34%
3001-5000	42 12%	19 7%
5001-7500	34 10%	8 3%
7501+	48 14%	15 6%
Total	344 100%	273 100%

Figure VIII.6: Monthly Income

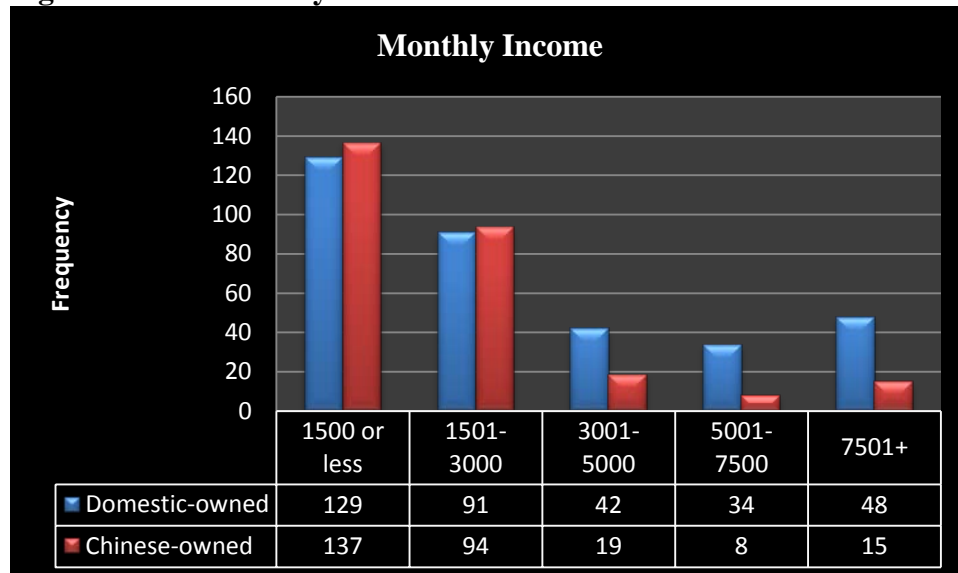


Table VIII.8 and Figure VIII.8 show that 46% (156) and 47% (128) of the participants in both types of companies had two or less dependants. There were 40% (138) and 40% (113) participants who had between three and five dependants in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies respectively. Also, 10% (34) and 8% (22) participants with between six and nine dependants worked in both types of companies. In both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies, only 3% (10; 7) had between nine and 11 dependants. Lastly, in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies, only 1% (4; 3) had between nine and 11 dependants.

TableVIII.8: Number of Dependants

Number of Dependants	Ownership	
	Domestic-owned	Chinese-owned
0-2	158 46%	128 47%
3-5	138 40%	113 40%
6-9	34 10%	22 8%
9-11	10 3%	7 3%
13+1	4 1%	3 1%
Total	344 100%	273 100%

FigureVIII.7: Number of Dependants

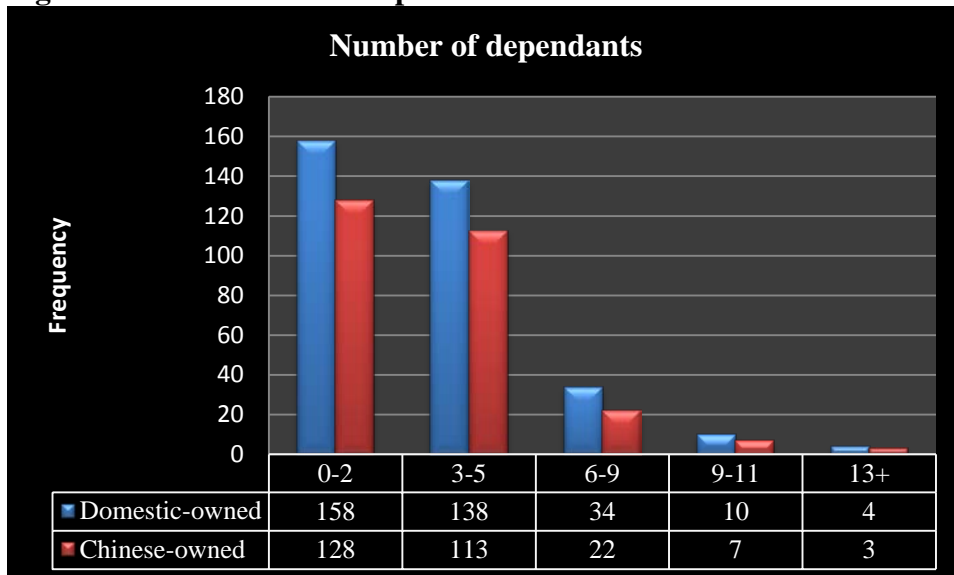


Table VIII.9 and Figure VIII.9 show that 54% (154) and 21% (58) of the participants in both types of companies worked between six and eight hours daily. While, those who worked between nine and 11 hours in both types of companies were 55% (187) and 78% (213) respectively. Lastly, only 1% (2) in both types of companies worked 12 hours or more.

Table VIII.9: Hours worked daily

Hours worked daily	Ownership	
	Domestic-owned	Chinese-owned
6-8	154 54%	58 21%
9-11	187 55%	213 78%
12+	2 1%	2 1%
Total	343 100%	273 100%

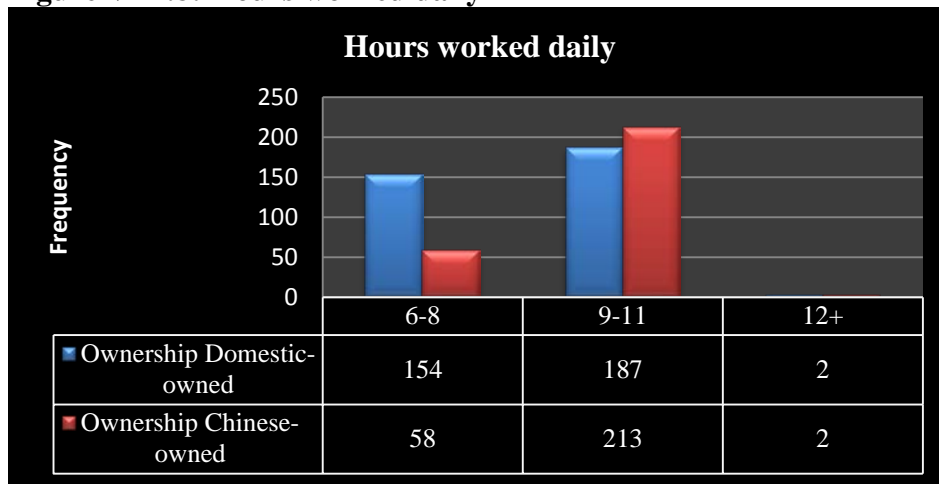
Figure VIII.8: Hours worked daily

Table VIII.10 and Figure VIII.10 show that 51% (177) and 36% (99) of the participants who worked in both types of companies worked five days a week. While, those who worked six days in both types of companies was 11% (38) and 41% (111) respectively. Lastly, 38% (129) and 23% (63) of participants in domestic- and Chinese-owned companies respectively, worked seven day weekly.

Table VIII.10: Days worked weekly

Days worked weekly	Ownership	
	Domestic-owned	Chinese-owned
5	177 51%	99 36%
6	38 26%	111 41%
7	129 11%	63 23%
Total	344 100%	273 100%

Figure VIII.9: Days worked weekly

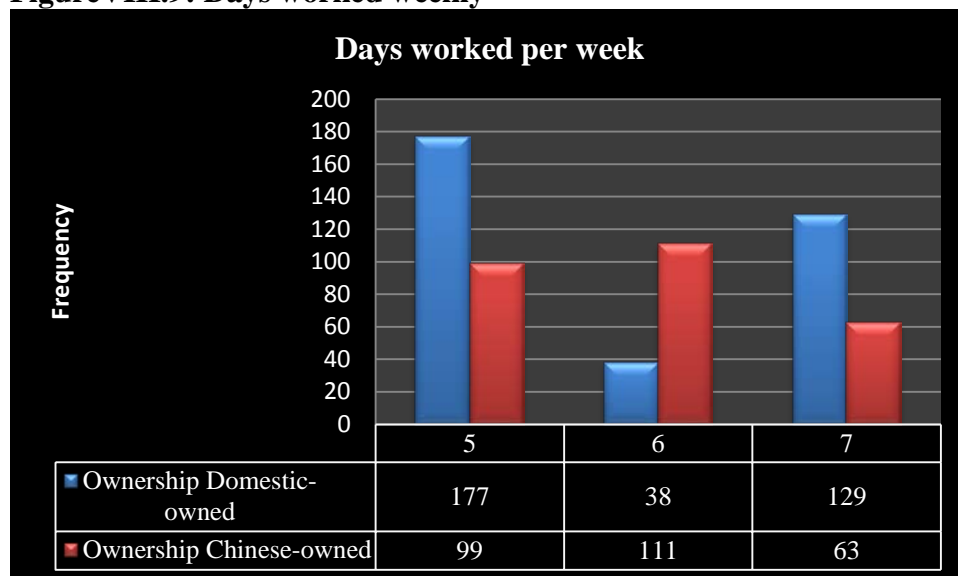


Table VIII.11 and Figure 5.11 show that 28% (97) and 36% (97) of the participants in both types of companies have been employed for less than a year in their respective companies. There are 38% (131) and 47% (130) participants who have been employed more than a year but not more than four years in both domestic- and Chinese-owned companies respectively. Also, 17% (57) and 13% (36) of the participants worked between four and nine years in both types of companies. Lastly, in domestic- and Chinese-owned companies 17% (59) and 4% (10) respectively, have worked for ten or more years.

Table VIII.21: Duration worked in company

Duration (Years)	Ownership	
	Domestic-owned	Chinese-owned
>1	97 28%	97 36%
$\geq 1 \leq 4$	131 38%	130 47%
4-9	57 17%	36 13%
10+	59 17%	10 4%
Total	344 100%	273 100%

Figure VIII.10: Duration worked in company

