



**THE LINKAGE BETWEEN INDIVIDUAL INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS
AND WORK PERFORMANCE IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN RETAIL SECTOR**

By

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**A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

**Graduate School of Business and Leadership
College of Law and Management Studies**

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I, Abe Isaac Idowu declare that

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DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to the only wise God, the supplier of inspirations, knowledge and understanding.

This research is dedicated to my wife, for her willingness to be patient during the sacrificial time of doing this research work.

To my daughters, Peace and Praise Abe for their understanding and co-operation.

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ABSTRACT

A partial or non-recognition of the effect of interpersonal relationships may hinder the success of retail business diffusion and growth, especially among the South African retailers taking advantage of the retail revolution in Africa. Interpersonal relationships in the workplace between supervisors and subordinates could be considered an imperative factor that may affect organisational wellbeing, psychological working conditions, individual differences and culture of both the individual and the entire organisation. Interpersonal relationships are perceived as behavioural traits that employees demonstrate at work in the process of interaction. In day-to-day business life, almost all activities occur in the settings of relationships which are the centre of organisations. Scholars rightly observe that the attention of researchers should not be focused only on tasks, functions or hierarchies, but also on how workplaces organise their relationships.

This thesis examines the influence of negative and positive individual interpersonal relationships using interpersonal conflicts and social support as predictors of employee basic performance at work. A mixed method approach was adopted and questionnaire was administered to supervisors and subordinates of selected retail companies that participated in the study. Quantitative data was collected as follows: The *Interpersonal Conflict at Work Scale (ICAWS)* designed by Frone (2000) was used to measure interpersonal conflict; while the *Social Support Scale (SSS)* designed by Sarason, Basham, Levine and Sarason, (1983) was used to measure social support. The *Employee Basic Work Performance Scale (EBWPS)* designed by Uhl-Bien and Graen (1995) was used to measure employee work performance, while the *Leader-member Exchange Scale (LMX)* designed by Tsui, Pearce Porter and Tripoli (1997) was used to measure the interpersonal relationship between supervisors and subordinates. Four open-ended questions were designed to elicit qualitative data.

From the four retail companies in South Africa, a total sample of 400 employees was selected but 310 (inclusive of 163 supervisors and 147 subordinates) responded to the survey. Quantitative data was analysed by the use of SPSS (version 22) to test for bivariate connections among the variables as well as the validity and reliability of the measurements. Content analysis was adopted in analysing collected qualitative data.

No significant connection between social support and employee performance was observed from the result of the quantitative data for subordinates. Similarly, the interpersonal conflict and interpersonal relationships showed no significant connection among the data from

subordinates. Moreover, the outcome of the quantitative data collected from the supervisors revealed that there was no significant relationship between social support, interpersonal conflict and employee performance in the South African retail sector. On the other hand, the result of the analysis of interpersonal relationships and employee performance showed a positive connection to the retail sector in South Africa. The qualitative data explained the reasons behind the non-significance among the various variables. Alternate explanations for these results are considered in the study. The study recommended that Human Resource units should equip employees with communication, listening, sharing of information skills through constant on the job training. It is suggested that employees be taught the mechanisms of handling relationships at work. These measures are necessary in order to improve on the present level of employee relationships in the South African retail sector.

Key words: Individual Interpersonal Relationships, Social Support, Interpersonal Conflict, Employee Basic Job Performance, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX.)

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Interpersonal relationships have been shown to be an important factor of the work environment that may affect wellbeing, job satisfaction, performance and productivity (Stoetzer, Bergman, Aborg, Ahlberg, Parmasund & Svartengren, 2009; Stoetzer, 2010). Workplace relationships between supervisors and workers can be considered to be largely governed by behaviour traits, and employees bring these traits to business in the process of interactions at work (Stoetzer, Ahlberg, Bergman, Hallsten & Lundberg, 2009).

Scholars in the field of leadership have written extensively on the quality of relationships between supervisors and their subordinates (Eisenberger, Shoss & Karangolar, 2014, Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), the context in which relationships occur (Gruisec & Hastings, 2014), but have not considered how interpersonal problems can be managed using other forms of interpersonal relationships. This study examined the negative effect of individual interpersonal relationships on employee performance using interpersonal conflict as a predictor of interpersonal relationships. It also assessed the positive aspect of interpersonal relationships on work performance using social support as a predictor of the presence of interpersonal relationships.

Questionnaires were administered to supervisors and subordinates of four retail companies in South Africa to concurrently collect quantitative and qualitative data. Out of a population of two thousand employees, four hundred were sampled for the study. The IBM SPSS version 22 was engaged in the analysis of quantitative data while content analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data collected for this study. The present study deepened and expanded the understanding of the mechanisms behind individual interpersonal relationships at work and employee performance (Stoetzer, 2010).

1.2 BACKGROUND

Relationships are understood to mean a series of connections between two people involving a level of support, because the behaviour of any member of the connected people may be a reaction to the behaviour of another (Gross, 2012; Hinde, 1979). Relationships are dynamic and fluid, hence present interactions could be affected by past interactions which could possibly influence future interactions. Relationships do not reside in the individual but are reoccurring interconnections that exist within the tissue or beats of interactions between two people

(Church, Bitel, Armstrong, Fernando & Gould, 2012; Berscheid, 1999). Relationships are invisible and are often discerned by observing the effects of the relationship (Mihelcic, 2012). For instance, the relationship between a supervisor and a subordinate can be observed by the issuance of instructions and obedience to the instruction; the manner in which such instructions and obedience are carried out could depend on many underlying factors.

According to Hodgetts (1990), personal values, perceptions, attitudes and personality are all components of individual behaviour. However, no one lives in isolation. Individuals interact with other people and this interaction helps develop the individual components to a large extent. It becomes interesting to study the developments in practice and academically beyond transactional analysis and assertiveness training at work, by examining how the superior officers and their worker's interpersonal interactions affect effective delivery in the workplace.

If organizations could invest millions of their fund in direct foreign investments and have the effort truncated by the problems of interpersonal relationships of the employees, there is a need to redirect the attention of management to revisit the human resource issues around interpersonal relationships at work (Zhang & Huang, 2013).

1.3 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Some retail organisations in South Africa have made successful in-roads into the rest of Africa with their products and services. For instance Multi choice (DSTV), MTN, Mr Price, Shoprite, and Woolworths; to mention a few, have successfully planted branches all over Africa. The geographic expansion of the South African retail sector has been seen to be seemingly attractive because of the growth they sought on the journey to high performance (Khumalo, 2008). However, such attraction may not be without attendant interpersonal problems among employees. Miller (2005) documented that variations and similarities are rampant in the employment conditions of employees in other African countries. The discrepancy could flame interpersonal conflict among employees. Moreover, employees of these retail companies in the Sub-Saharan African region constructed the notions of fairness and justice with reference to their South African counterparts. The claim was that their management offers no support to them in any way and that the senior employees (supervisors in this case) have no interpersonal relationships with workers of lower cadre (Abraham, 2011). Creating support and developing interpersonal relationships could assist in removing some of the conflicts faced at work. As reported by Miller (2005), the concern of regional employees is on the way South African retail companies treat regional employees of the same company from other parts of Africa.

In this context, Fortune 500 companies from the United States opened up branches in China in 2006. Zhang and Huang (2013) quoting Huajin, (2005) reported that the search for a job in foreign-invested enterprise was the aim of many fresh graduates in China. Working in foreign-invested enterprises was not easy for most young Chinese graduates and many felt that the cultural differences between them and their American supervisors created unusual obstacles. For instance, when dealing with job performance; a Chinese believes that s/he could do it better by consulting with his/her peers (Collective culture) while the American supervisors believed that individuals should achieve targets all by themselves (individualistic culture). This created interpersonal challenges where employees felt unsupported. In the same way, many foreign supervisors in foreign-invested enterprises experienced difficulties and dilemma in handling interpersonal relationships with indigenous subordinates (Zhang & Huang, 2013). The outcome of these difficulties was interpersonal conflict at work, a phenomenon that is peculiar to multinational companies. Unable to manage the interpersonal conflicts between American supervisors and Chinese workers, most of the organizations that relocated their factories to China left at the end of the first year.

The question here is; do the South African retailers who have opened, or are aspiring to have branches, in the rest of Africa consider the issue of interpersonal relationships, support and interpersonal conflicts? Are these issues capable of undermining employee performance in South Africa among the employees?

Interpersonal relationships at work have been found to play significant and imperative roles on employee performance (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2010; Neves, 2012; Morrison, 2009; Song & Olshfski, 2008). Although myriads of articles on interpersonal relationships at workplace have been written; on incivility (Laschinger, Wong & Regan, 2013); counterproductive work behaviour (Yang, Johnson, Zhang & Spector, 2013); workplace communication network (Zhang & Venkatesh, 2013); there is a dearth of studies on the how the basic factors of interpersonal relationships such as social support and interpersonal conflict at work combine to affect employee performance at work. This study is meaningful in examining the link between interpersonal relationships and performance and the role of social support and interpersonal conflict in predicting interpersonal relationships.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Research problems are like the boundaries that guide the pattern of any study. From the research problems, the following research questions emerged in this study:

1.4.1 Management questions

Are there things that organisations can do to enhance employees' interpersonal relationships at work? Can employees reconstruct functional and dysfunctional relationships with their supervisors and subordinates? These questions are based on Sias (2008), quoting Fairhurst and Chandler (1989).

1.4.2 Research questions:

The research problem of this study are as follows:

- i. Does social support have any influence on employee performance?
- ii. Does interpersonal conflict have any influence on employee performance?
- iii. Do interpersonal relationships have any effect on employee performance?
- iv. To what extent does interpersonal conflict and social support influence employee performance?

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to gather a body of evidence to prove that an employees' interpersonal relationships have both a positive and negative influence on the employees' work performance (House, Umberson & Landis, 1998).

This study is divided into two parts. The first part seeks to examine the negative impact of individual's interpersonal relationships on performance at work. For example, conflict is an interpersonal relationship variable that has a negative impact on relationships in the workplace, and may have an effect on an individual's performance at work. Conflicts can lead to or be parallel to several other interpersonal relationship problems, for example, lack of support or bullying, but it is not accurate to call these conflicts. Conflicts are prospective stressors conceivably related to several negative outcomes (Guerra, Martinez, Munduate & Medina, 2005).

The second part examines the positive impact of individual's interpersonal relationships on work performance. For example, social support is an interpersonal variable that impacts positively on relationships in the workplace. Social support is the helpful interactions often divided into influential support, for instance, giving an individual the resources or information

needed to perform a specific task; and emotional support such as backup, personal feedback and appreciation (Appleberg et al., 1996; Karasek & Theorell, 1990).

In this context therefore, the present study aims to achieve the following identified objectives:

- i. To assess the connection between social support and employee performance.
- ii. To examine the influence of interpersonal conflict on employee performance.
- iii. To determine the link between interpersonal relationships and employee performance.
- iv. To determine the extent that interpersonal conflict and social support influence employee performance.

1.6 DELIMITATIONS/ LIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study is on the linkage between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance at the South African retail sector among supervisors and subordinates. Interpersonal relationships at work can be described from both individualistic and an organisational point of view. This study evaluated the individual perspectives of interpersonal relationships, because of the ease in measuring the combination of individual data. An attempt to capture interpersonal relationships at organisational level means, firstly, that the researcher must try to clarify what organisational level is, and secondly, the researcher may find it difficult to capture the nature of an organisation without considering the individual in it (Markland, Bolin & Essen, 2008). This study does not investigate interpersonal relationships at the organisational level.

There are different dimensions of interpersonal relationships, namely relational justice, social support, conflicts, exclusion by workers and exclusion by superiors. For this study, social support is considered to be adequate, to explain the positive dimension of individual interpersonal relationships because it relates to the individual's overly dependent behaviour. Additionally, interpersonal conflict is chosen to represent the negative impact of an individual's interpersonal relationships as it explains the combative behaviour of an individual (DeDrue, Van Dierendonck & De-Best-Waldhober, 2003). This study assumed that social support and interpersonal conflict are predictors of individual interpersonal relationships that may be able to influence employee performance.

Often, more recent citations are preferred in studies like this. But due to the sensitivity of the subject (interpersonal relationships and the issue of support), reference will be made frequently

to dated and root sources in the area of interpersonal relationships to validate some of the claims made by contemporary scholars and this researcher.

The investigation was conducted among four retail companies that agreed to use their organizations as case studies, therefore the result obtained may not be generalized as the position of interpersonal relationships among all employees of the retail sector in South Africa.

The data obtained for this study were not from all the branches of the retail companies that participated, but from selected branches in KwaZulu Natal province in South Africa. Therefore the views expressed in the qualitative data were those of the employees in the retail companies used in the study and not the view of the general retail industry in South Africa.

South Africa is an emerging economy tagged 'the Rainbow Nation'. Due to sentiments attached to race, culture and ethnicity, data was not collected along these lines; therefore, the interpretation of data and discussions thereof are limited to exclude these aspects of interpersonal relationship in this research.

1.7 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY

Positive interpersonal relationships at work can be advantageous to both the organisation and individual. Research has demonstrated that friendships at work can improve individual employee dispositions such as job satisfaction, job commitment, engagement and perceived organisational support (Song & Olshfski, 2008). Employee negative disposition to work can be mitigated when peers act as confidantes to discuss bad and unpleasant work experiences (Morrison, 2009).

Work relationships can influence organisational outcomes by increasing institutional participation, establishing supportive and innovative climates, increasing organisational productivity and indirectly reducing the intent to turnover (Crabtree, 2004). Interpersonal relationships at work are integrated aspects of the work environment that comprise all levels of human interaction from the organisational level to individual level. Integrating the interpersonal relationships implies that the consequences of these relationships will have serious effects on all levels in any organisation (Stoetzer, 2010).

Researchers are calling for studies to verify the association between interpersonal relationships and working conditions and severe conflicts, low social support by co-workers, and employee exclusions by both workers and superiors (The health and future study, 2008). This study is

one of such responses to the clarion call; and it examines the association between interpersonal relationships of supervisors and subordinates and their work performance.

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The expectation of this study is that the findings will further knowledge by adding value to those other studies that bridge the gap in the body of knowledge. It will also serve as a reference point for the South African retail industry on the link between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance. The results of this study extends the frontiers of knowledge in the field of human resource management.

The importance of the study hinges on its expansion of the knowledge of the subject of interpersonal relationships in the workplace. Application of the LMX theory assisted in this study by helping to uncover the stage of, and quality of relationships among employees in the retail companies in South Africa by highlighting what needs to be done to further the development of interpersonal relationship in the organisations.

1.9 STRUCTURE OF THESIS

This study is organised into the following chapters:

1.9.1 Chapter one: Introduction

The introductory chapter presents the background of the study, statement of the problems, research questions, research objectives, delimitations, limitations, and assumptions of the study, and significance of the study.

1.9.2 Chapter two: South African retail sector

This chapter offered comprehensively, important information that relates to the South African retail industry. The chapter contains information on the background of retailing, global retailing, historical antecedents of the South African retail sector, evolution of the South African retail sector, retail sector expansion into Africa, challenges of the emerging markets in Africa, resistance of regional expansion, South African wholesale and retail research needs, human resource strategies of the South African multinational companies, alignment of the HR strategies, impact of national culture on MNE, cultural factors and the HRM in South Africa, cross-cultural management and global virtual teams.

1.9.3 Chapter three: Interpersonal relationships

The third chapter describes the theoretical information on interpersonal relationships. Information includes: definitions and terms about interpersonal relationships, science of relationships, types of relationships, perceived dimensions of interpersonal relationships, antecedents of interpersonal relationships, factors that affect interpersonal relationships, workplace relationships, leader-member exchange theory, and supervisor-subordinate relationships.

1.9.4 Chapter four: Social support

The fourth chapter of this study describes the concept of social support. Information in the chapter includes: background of social support, concept and theory of social support, functions of social support, workplace social support, leader-member exchange and perceived support, general and supervisor support, supervisor perceived organisational support and subordinate's supervisor support, social support and culture, and cultural differences in social support.

1.9.5 Chapter five: Interpersonal conflict

Interpersonal conflict has to do with the negative influences of interpersonal relationships. Information in the chapter includes: historical background of conflict, conflict issues, conflict behaviour, conflict outcomes, concepts of conflict resolutions, social relations theory, interpersonal conflict at work, conflict between supervisor and subordinate, leader-member exchange as a moderator, and differences in culture between east and west.

1.9.6 Chapter six: Employee basic work performance

This chapter explores the characteristics of employee's basic work performance. Issues considered were: the antecedents of job performance, terms that are relative to task performance, leader-member exchange and job performance, relative-leader-member exchange, social identification and job performance, employee basic task performance scale and interpersonal relationships and group task performance.

1.9.7 Chapter seven: Methodology

The chapter carefully explained the practical processes involved in the study. These processes include: the research philosophy, research approach, type of research, research method, sampling, population, sample size, sample method, sampling probability, data collection, instrument of research, instrument design, administration, place, timing of data collection, data

analysis, data capture,/cleaning, bivariate analysis, descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, content analysis, validity and reliability, and triangulation.

1.9.8 Chapter eight: Data analysis and interpretation

Data was collected, analysed and interpreted according to the following procedure: percentage rate of response of respondents, instrument reliability, demographic data of supervisors and subordinates, analysis of research questions, analysis of research objectives (bivariate), analysis of qualitative data (content analysis), and comparison between quantitative and qualitative data.

1.9.9 Chapter nine: Discussion of findings

The chapter discussed the results that were presented in the analysis chapter in the following manner: discussions on research questions and objectives of the study, discussions on the theoretical framework and the use of the study model.

1.9.10 Chapter ten: Conclusions and recommendations

The chapter sums up the study based on empirical and theoretical evidences. Included in the chapter are: a summary of major findings from the literature review and theoretical framework and contributions of the study, a summary of findings from quantitative data, a summary of findings from qualitative data, recommendations and management implications, limitations of the study, directions for future studies and conclusions.

1.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter observed the gap in the literature in terms of detail explanations on the link between negative and positive individual interpersonal relationship and performance. This study describes the possibilities of associations between the different variables of interpersonal relationships and employee performance. Social support and interpersonal conflict are variables that are used in investigating the presence of interpersonal relationship and its effect on employee performance in the retail industry in South Africa.

The chapter also availed background information on the association between interpersonal relationships and employee performance, by paving a way for the research problems, the research questions, the objectives of the study and the importance of the study.

As the start of the literature review, the next chapter will provide an introduction to the South African retail industry.

CHAPTER 2: THE SOUTH AFRICAN RETAIL INDUSTRY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the detailed explanations about the views of scholars with respect to global retailing at large, and the South African retail sector, which was selected as the case study for this research. The chapter further highlights the South African retail revolution in particular and the development of retailing since 1994 in South Africa. South African retail companies are expanding their operations to the rest of Africa.

Additionally, the researcher endeavours to expand knowledge on the human resource (HR) strategies of the retail companies that have expanded their operations to different countries in this chapter. Examples of the alignment of HR strategies and policies to different levels of abstractions are made, and the place of national culture and its impact on international retail companies having direct investment in other countries are also examined in this chapter. The successes and emerging issues of the retail institution in the different disciplines of business, particularly the human resource concerns of supervisors' and subordinates' relationships in the retail work force (Vance & Paik, 2015) are also discussed. The chapter ends with the presentation of the dynamics of culture in Africa and how it affects HR policies.

Frequently, older citations are used in this chapter to validate newer studies conducted in this field. This is because, interpersonal relationships are dynamic and to address the subject holistically, there is need to validate contemporary views on the subject with older and original citations relevant to the objectives of the study.

2.2 BACKGROUND OF RETAILING

Goldman (1974) was among many scholars in the past, who predicted the future of retailing in the developing countries. In his words, "*there will be no fundamental and widespread retail transformation in the foreseeable future in the developing countries.*" He must have considered the food cultures, limited resources of the vast urban consumers, various bureaucracies in local sourcing of products by supermarkets that are related to bad traditional agri-food supply chains and inefficient logistic systems. These could have been considered by him, as obstacles to widespread retailing in the developing countries. Based on this prediction, the supermarket revolution in the developing countries grew in the early to mid 1990s (Realdon, Henson & Berdegue, 2007).

According to Realdon, Henson & Berdegue (2007), the growth of supermarkets was not only because of critical demands of consumers, but the supportive institutional and policy environment including the retail foreign direct investment liberalization in the 1990s. The scholars report that the proactive fast tracking strategies in marketing and procurement by the retail transnational corporations and leading domestic retailers also contributed immensely to this development.

2.2.1. The global retailing

Global companies are increasing their influence in developing countries by investing in those countries and through the imposition of their private standards (Vance & Paik, 2015; Minten, Randrianarian & Swinnen, (2009). Global trade, liberalization of trade and reduction of trade barriers have led to an increase in the flow of investment in foreign countries and the invasion of multi-national companies in developing countries. Critics argued that foreign investments impacted negatively on developing countries through employee-exploitation. In the short term, this may not cause convincible damage but on the long run, damage could be done in the in the environment (Beghin, Roland-Holst & Vander Mensbrugghe, 2002; Reed, 2001). Developing countries that show eagerness to attract multi-national companies offer tax reductions as incentive. This allows competitions among the international companies and indigenous ones in these poor countries in a manner that causes the countries that allow these firms to run at a loss economically. On the other hand, studies indicate that there are benefits that the foreign firms offer their host countries, such as technological advancement that enhances productivity through the use of high grade technology and modern management practises (Jones, 2014; Bhagwati, 2004).

Kearney (2006), a global economist in his annual economic analysis of global retail asserts that globalisation has shaped a kind of development in the markets so much that the race into new markets with promises of wide, prosperous emerging markets have become too attractive to despise. This success in the race into new markets is not attributed to those that go in the earliest but to those organisations that make the smartest moves at the right time. In this context, right positioning of individual interpersonal relationships and social support as well as monitoring of interpersonal conflict on work performance could facilitate success in this regard. Although location is also imperative, timing is key in the retail game (Kearney, 2006).

Kearney (2006) further reports that the globalisation of modern retail has experienced accelerated growth since 2001; forty nine (49) retail companies entered into different markets globally. In 2005, about thirty (30) retail companies followed suit as primary new entrants into supermarkets and apparel trading, but the rate of acceleration is not the same as the rate of success recorded. In 2005 alone, about seventeen (17) retailers left the markets, while in 2006, nineteen (19) others quit the market. While global retailers struggled to maintain and saturate their presence in new markets, the South African giant retailers have recorded consistent expansion into the rest of Africa through low risk and high return strategies (Dakora, & Bytheway, 2014).

Africa accounts for two percent of the global Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and three percent of the global retail market. Out of about ten retailers in Africa, the first six are African based companies while the four remaining are Western European, for example Casino, Carrefour, Auchan, and Metro (Kearney, 2013).

2.2.2. Historical background of the South African retail industry

The end of the apartheid regime in 1994 gave room for series of major political, social and economic transformations in South Africa. The impact of the newly elected African National Congress (ANC) government could only be felt through reconstruction and developmental programmes. As a result of this, most South African industries as well as the service sector had to reconfigure their operations (De-Bruyn & Freathy, 2011; Rogerson & Rogerson, 1997).

In 1996 the Ministry of Finance in South Africa released the government's strategy of macro-economy for the future of the country called "Growth employment and Redistribution (GEAR)". The aim of the strategy was to speed up the rate of economic development to 6.1% annually by the year 2000. It was anticipated that the economy created over four hundred thousand jobs yearly in the formal sector from redistribution. The speed in the development of the economy made available, the resources needed to service other goals of the government's programme. The aim of the reconstruction and development programme was to empower the historically disadvantaged South Africans (Oranje, 2013; Obeng & McGowan, 1998).

South Africa had long trade relations with Europe, North America, and Japan (Lewis, 1990) but little or no trading relations with the rest of Africa. Therefore, the need to develop the African markets for South African economy after 1994 became evident. World Bank

economist, Merle Holden (1996) observed that “South Africa’s main trading partners are the high revenue developed countries.” Holden emphasized the need for South Africa to explore the economic markets close to her within Sub-Saharan Africa. All exports to Africa in 1996 were about 21% above the exports of 1995 (Easterly & Reshef, 2014; Safto, 1997). The foregoing could have contributed to the advancement of retail companies into African markets.

In 2001 the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) in South Africa formed a policy to clarify the post transition trade policy issues. The focus of the policy was to identify South Africa’s trade preferences in Africa. The strategy needed to respond to the economic marginalization being suffered by the neighbouring African countries. The strategy sought to uplift the growth agenda in which South Africa will find allies across the developing world (DTI, 2004). The decision taken in the process of formulating the strategy was to rank countries in descending order of importance or arrangement as strategic partner-countries and priority countries (DTI, 2001,). The concept of the African Renaissance asserted that “all African countries should be regarded as strategic” (DTI, 2001, p. 5). “The issue to be considered was that each of the instruments at the areas of engagement with Africa needs strong government interactions at the bilateral level” (van Crieking, 2013; DTI, 2001, p. 10; Black, 2001).

In order to enhance the claim of South Africa as a continental manager, the principle of “Subsidiarity” of Article 53, Chapter 8 of the United Nations charter was introduced, which spells out regions as sites for “Joint undertakings” to maintain global peace and security (Knight, 2000). Although organisations are charged with the task of supporting and effecting the selection of South Africa as priority for international involvement, South Africa has also been recognised and established as Africa’s only representative in global economic groupings ranging from World Trade Organization (WTO) to G20 convening for green room discussions. All these led to the international acceptance that South Africa is an important player in any international arrangements in Sub-Saharan Africa (Bartels, Napolitano & Tissi, 2014; Schoeman & Alden, 2000).

In the context of the foregoing, it is important to note that though post apartheid South Africa has been accorded importance in regional (Sub-Saharan Africa) matters, yet, her long years of virtual unexisting relationship with the rest of Africa could impair the role attributed to her. Hence, there should of necessity be an investigation of how staffers and

management relate at home in the workplace as well as in the context of regional trading. This study is novel in examining individual interpersonal relationship in the workplace and employee performance.

2.2.3 Evolution of South African retail sector

The new face of consumerism in South Africa has presented organisational challenges to the retail industry. To understand these challenges, it is necessary to examine the retail sector in South Africa. The sector reflects a market that is continuously evolving politically and growing economically. Klemz, Bossoff and Mazibuko (2006) described South Africa as a country that has a double economy. This could be as a result of the characteristics and operations of businesses in the country; for instance, there are clear differences between the business centres, the suburbs and the townships. The business centres and the suburbs are said to have advanced infrastructure with communication systems that are trendy, while the townships have limited services and a conservative retail sector. Retailing in the townships are owned and operated from a house, roadside or kiosks (Bartels et al, 2014; Terblanche, 1991).

The national chains are located in suburban areas and they care for the needs of middle to higher income consumers. In the workplace at the national chains are individuals from various racial, ethnic, educational and cultural backgrounds. Hence, interpersonal relationships among supervisors and subordinates in this multicultural and diverse workplace could be assumed to be significant in the performance of job functions. Moreover, due to high crime levels in the urban areas, South Africa has expanded her malls and shopping centres to the outskirts of towns and cities (Prisloo, 2006; Robbins, 2006). Such developments are in excess of 1 500 spread across the country. As at 2006 the national retailers began to enter into townships. The idea of township supermarkets gave opportunity for many chains to have exposure to new segments of the South African populace. Klemz et al. (2006) discovered the retailers' effort at differentiating themselves in the townships through "*non-humanistic*" activities. At the same time, many other retailers have been observed to have cultural and social links with their customers (Bartel et al, 2014). With this expansion, individuals traverse social structures to work in the suburbs and the townships as supervisors and/or subordinates. In relating with one another at work, interpersonal conflicts may ensue especially where subordinates perceive supervisors as unsupportive.

The emphasis of the national organisations has been on organisational training, customer service, and operational standards; one could ask if these trainings integrate contents addressing issues arising from the diversity in the workplace and the effect on employee performance. In October 2006, the first regional mall was opened, by the name of “*Jabulani Mall*”. The second mall was opened by September 2007 and called “*Maponya Mall*”. The opening of these malls altered the retail landscape in South Africa and impacted shopping behaviour. It also affected employee workplace behaviour and relationships.

For instance, the South African trade union exerts pressure on the retail sector by influencing the work environment with their demands. The South African work environment is characterized by a strong labour force (Arora & Ricci, 2005). Additionally, the importation of low cost products from China resulted in cut-throat competition especially among the retailers in the clothing sub-sector. As a result of this, jobs opportunities were lost (Sandrey & Fundira, 2008; Van de Looy, 2006). In reaction to this, South African government imposed certain measures in 2006 on Chinese importations; by 2007, there was 50% reduction on the value of importation (from four to two billion Rand) (Sandrey & Fundira, 2008). Many retailers had to respond to the new demands by unions and government by strategically aligning themselves in order to exploit the emerging markets but those who could not cope closed down operations (Khanna & Palepu, 2013).

The South African retail sector between 1994 and 2010 experienced that the country inherited a large percentage of unskilled or uneducated workers. According to Nowak and Ricci (2005), between 1998 and 2004, the number of working people increased from 9.3 to 11 million, which represents a 15% increase. As at 2010, the statistics increased to 25%. The steady increase raises a fundamental issue about the ability of the retail chains in South Africa to cope with such number of unskilled labour in her employment (Bernstein, 2013), and the attendant issues associated with such.

This study observes that a sector experiencing the kind of situation that the retail sector in South Africa found itself in needed immediate management intervention. In the context of the foregoing statistics, two prominent issues emerged. First, the increase in unskilled or uneducated workers is an indication that the retail companies were expanding by opening new retail outlets. Secondly, the need for effective and practical interpersonal relationship training inclusive of ‘on the job training’ for the unskilled workers needed to be considered

as germane to the success of retail companies in South Africa. This study envisages to contribute in identifying key individual interpersonal skills that could assist employees in retail companies in improving their interpersonal relationships and reducing interpersonal conflicts towards improving and/or enhancing individual employee performance at work.

To achieve the objectives of this study, four retail companies were selected using convenience sampling from the retail sector in South Africa as case studies. Two of the selected companies are from the clothing subsector while the other two were each selected from the grocery and household products subsectors respectively. All the selected retail companies are classed as large retailers having subsidiary branches across the whole of South Africa. Two of them have stores in other African countries, with over five hundred employees (supervisors and subordinates).

2.3 RETAIL INDUSTRY PROBLEMS

This section presents various interpersonal relationship challenges that some retail companies that have expanded operations to the rest of Africa may have experienced.

2.3.1. Challenges of the emerging markets in Africa

The need to understand the behaviour of the consumers in the emerging markets in Africa is the first challenge to all companies in the expansion race; bearing in mind the multiracial and diverse nature of the South African economy. There was a need for the retail companies to exercise care in taking time to understand the values, needs and behaviours of local consumers and prospective employees. For example, low income markets found in Africa have undefinable sources of income. This undefinable cash flow has influence on the buying approaches of the people, which in turn affects the strategy for packaging. A number of consumers purchase in small quantities while others prefer to purchase in large quantities and sizes; by so doing they avoid costly travel to the retail shops. Accenture in its annual report (2012), suggested the development of “*innovative payment mechanisms*” to accommodate these kind of consumers (Varley, 2014).

The second challenge is finding the right talent for skilled jobs. Abundant labour exists in African countries, but many of the workers are unskilled. Highly educated resources are available, but they appear to lack practical management experience. African economies struggle to create jobs for the citizens, and job scarcity could make identification of the right person (s) for a job difficult, because, many individuals may apply for a single job

opportunity. Companies could try to solve this problem by employing expatriates. This may not solve the problem because the conditions of living may not be easy for them and skills importation slows down the process of skills transfer to local talents. Additionally, linguistic challenges could also be a problem; for instance, Woolworths made available to its franchisees systems, processes and training supports, but it reports that sourcing trainers who speak the local languages has been costly and time consuming (Accenture annual report, 2012).

In a report, Cullen and Leisy (2012), the global partners of management consulting firm Ernst & Young, mentioned the growing pains of companies in rapid development markets facing talent challenges as they expand. They revealed that talent management has become one of the top business and risk areas in global organisations. In their report, key global market trends are recruiting the best talent, development, deployment and engagement; as there are no permanent solutions to today's challenges of talent management, however, there will be evaluation of responses as organisations continue to expand into new markets. In contemporary times, talent is not just about education and experience but includes interpersonal skills. It is reported that Audi, car manufacturers recruit their mechanics on the basis of their interpersonal skills and not on their technical knowledge only. This is because an employee that has great skills and poor interpersonal relationship could cause an organisation more damage than a unskilled employee with great interpersonal skills.

The difficulty of getting the talent equation right was proven in a survey by Ernst & Young (2012), where 42% of respondents identified talent management as the second most challenging issue to manage regionally or globally; it is next to regulatory compliance (Ernst & Young, 2012). The global staffing organisation Manpower Group (2011) wrote that between 2010 and 2011, employers worldwide reported a surge in difficulty filling positions; for example, in India, the difficulty leaped from 16% in 2010 to 67% in 2011 and in the United States of America, the increase was from 14% to 52% in the same period (Schuller, Jackson & Tarique, 2011). The emerging multi-nationals face several critical challenges as they build and execute their global talent strategy. They struggle to build an effective international management team as they muddle through with cultural differences, conflict in the internal perceptions of talent management, difficulties in balancing global and local talent and lack of leadership thread that is reliable. No doubt that the Western multi-nationals that have internationalised for decades have been dealing with these challenges (Ernst & Young report, 2012). This is the reason why this study is beneficial in

examining individual interpersonal relationships and its effect on work performance at the retail sector in South Africa.

Locating the right physical resources in an unfamiliar territory can be difficult. The retailers' search for suitable office space may not be easy especially the main business centres. Most of the companies interviewed by the research team of Accenture, said that they were under obligation to supply primary or backup infrastructure (such as a generator for electricity in under-developed economies) which were distractions from the core of their business and it was additional expenditure (Accenture annual report, 2012).

Accenture further reported that there is need to overcome planning and logistics bottlenecks around the African countries. The fact is that border posts are inefficient throughout Africa. The consideration is that most African markets do not have seasonal product differentiation that South Africa has. From the retail perspective it means that South African winter product lines are not appropriate for export to the rest of Africa. Unfortunately many parts of Africa shares different climatic conditions from region to region. Winter in South Africa is summer in West Africa (Accenture, 2012). Although this study is not entirely examining the foregoing challenges as its main objectives, it is important to highlight these challenges in order to broaden the readers understanding of the Sub-saharan African economies and their markets. This is because, most retailers, having expended much on logistics, research and planning, could reduce staff benefits for the local employees of their international offices. This reduction in pay could underpin interpersonal conflict among the foreign employees (from the retailers' home country –in this case South Africa) and employees from the local country.

Therefore, aligning business operations with local governance is a serious task. For some retailers, the requirements could vary from country to country in Africa. Retailers willing to enter into Africa to acquire inform about local requirements. Furthermore, it will not be proper to assume that products that meet South Africa's quality standards will meet the regulatory requirements of other African countries. Deloitte and Touché (2010), in a related article, mentioned that organisations must define their business operations model and align it with operational governance. Operational governance addresses the way decisions are made and executed. Structural inefficiency may be inevitable if there is no operational governance when there is economic downturn or slow recovery. Where these are overlooked, corruption and bribery notably common and fuelled by lapses could affect

investing retailers endeavors. Some of the signs include of structural inefficiency include; confusion and conflict between corporate and individual business units, turf battles, duplication of efforts, and organisational blind spots (Delloitt & Touché, 2010; Scott & Jacka, 2011). Organisational inefficiency one way or the other, could affect supervisor subordinate relationships.

2.3.2. Resistance of regional expansion

The retail revolution in Africa has met with strong oppositions not only from governments but from individual consumers. The documentary on Sub-Saharan Africa demonstrates hostility directly at the South African supermarket chains. In Nigeria, farmers threatened to burn down the main Lagos Shoprite branch because of the supermarket's role in the decline of their local supply chain (Haantuba & De Graaf, 2008). In Tanzania, wage disputes in July 2008 over foreign management at the Shoprite stores in Dar es Salaam made labour authorities call the foreign supermarket to order. In Uganda, local authorities encouraged farmers actively to pursue government support for "*invading supermarket supply chains*" so that producers would be able to meet the requirements for supplying to the supermarket (Abrahams, 2010).

In Zambia, the hostility towards the supermarket has its root in the problems of both foreign ownership and labour (Human resources). This took the form of protests outside stores and setting press campaigns. Shoprite has survived against intense negative publicity in the past five years due to policies that favour South African employees in management positions in its Zambian outlets. Antagonism towards the conglomerate has been directed at sourcing and procurement practices that are partial to South African and not Zambian suppliers even when produce is locally available in the country. The hostility towards supermarkets is escalating with incidents of civic and legal contests of supermarkets. Practices in Africa are surprising, giving the favourable treatment of supermarkets and the transformation they generate as discussed in much of the academic literature (Abrahams, 2010).

Although the retail companies have been facing serious resistance in the African market, it could be argued that vibrant supervisor-subordinate interpersonal relationships marked with support from the supervisors could douse the 'fires of aggression'. The essence of this study is to see if high interpersonal relationships among supervisors and subordinates could reduce interpersonal conflicts and improve performance among individual employees.

2.3.3. South African wholesale and retail research needs

It is reported that the South African wholesale and retail sector has identified that it requires to prioritise research in the sector both nationally and internationally. The survey conducted to identify the sector's research needs suggested that it was important to prioritise strategies and integrate the sector's research topics within the broad framework of South Africa's National Skills Development Strategies 111, National Development Plan: Vision 2030 (Sewell, Steyn & Venter, 2013).

In a seminar, Steyn and Sewell (2013) delivered a paper on perspectives of retail in Africa which emphasised among others that despite the prospect of economic growth for the retailers, there is a need to address linguistic and cultural dissimilarities in discussing with governmental and corporate partners as well as consumers. "This implies that retailers going into foreign African market should be aware of the fact that various countries in the sub-region have different languages of communication. For instance, it is clear from experience that retail entry may be successful into Anglophone countries such as Ghana, Nigeria and Tanzania. The same success may not be recorded, given the same time and economic input in Francophone, Portuguese and /or Spanish speaking African countries. Hence, studies to explore the cost implication of investing in such countries, not just in monetary terms but in relational and performance indices may be necessary.

Steyn and Sewell (2013) further explained that another related factor of importance is that of consumer familiarity with and loyalty to the brand names of fast moving commodity goods (FMCG) Brands well-known in South Africa (such as Koo and All Gold) are not familiar elsewhere in Africa. In North African countries, market suppliers and brands from Europe are well entrenched and trusted by consumers. Therefore, studies to explain how brand loyalty could be shifted through marketing efforts may be needed in this regard.

Additionally, the difficulty of obtaining work permits and the cost of importing and retaining expatriate management needs to be compared with the cost benefits of recruitment and skills development of local citizens (Steyn & Sewell, 2013). Though this study is not examining brand promotion and awareness, it highlights the various areas that have been identified as important for the retail sector to engage with research on.

Standard industrial classification (SIC) and a survey by Statistics South Africa defined specific priority functional areas in wholesale and retail namely; the cultural and environmental factors of international African retail; human resources practices and the

HRM strategy for international retailing in Africa (Report of Wholesale & Retail chair, June, 2013). The following subjects were identified as burning issues raised by different respondents in the survey, according to SIC. The subjects are as follows:

Cultural diversity - the retailer must have better understanding about the varied and diverse customer base in order to deliver the local needs in an appropriate way and add to local customer experience.

Multi-national HRM skills are a priority need – in selection, training and retention of South African and local staff in African countries. Human resource availability, skills and talent management risks seem to be often neglected by most trans-national research studies. Continental partnerships are needed across Africa to develop understanding of local community cultures (Steyn & Sewell, 2013).

In this context, this study suggests that there is need to train South African retail sector employees also on interpersonal relationships and social support (i.e. giving and receiving of support).

2.4 HUMAN RESOURCE STRATEGIES

By virtue of their expansion into the rest of Africa, South African retail companies seem to share some similarity with the multinational corporations in the western world. Therefore, this study gleans insight from the way in which multi-national corporations (MNCs) are thriving despite various human resource challenges. This section explains some of the HR strategies adopted by MNCs.

2.4.1. Human resource strategies of the South African multi-national corporations (MNCs)

Human resource strategies though dynamic and adaptable, are often formulated to address specific challenges and needs. Jack Welch (former CEO of General Electric) in Hough (2010) suggests that ‘strategy means making clear- cut choices about how to compete. Evidently, MNCs are in competition with one another as well as with local indigenous companies. Therefore, in expanding globally and regionally, they come under the pressure to find the proper balance between global and local human resource practices that could assist them in competing meaningfully and profitably. The global standard of practices among the MNCs assist the transfer of competencies across the organisation while the local conditions may demand that the affiliate in a host country adopt different practices. For

example an organisation may be required to comply with local regulations or adapt to a culture which is different from that practiced by the MNC and its home country. Hence, there is always the basic need to effectively coordinate global and/or regional operations. This could be done by coordinating management practices to enable the transfer of “*firm-specific advantages*” (FSA) between affiliates or parent companies, whether they are based in a location or not (Rugman & Verbeke, 2003). This requires continuous adjustment of strategic plans including HRM.

Studies have examined the similarity between the Human Resource Management (HRM) practices of affiliates and parent companies as an indicator of a relationship (Hannon et al., 1995; Martinez & Ricks, 1989; Rosenzweig & Nohria, 1994). These studies lead to a search for HRM practices that are flexible to coordinate and integrate many affiliates and still enable the transfer of FSAs (Braun & Warner, 2002). This situation is peculiar to MNCs in emerging markets globally and Africa in particular. Wells (2003) suggest that the HR practices of MNCs in Africa differ from those which they practice in Asia. Reasons for the differential strategies could be linked to environmental factor such as weather, geographic occurrences like erosion, and socioeconomic factors like infrastructure as well as human capital needs. The disparity in HR practices could lead to interpersonal conflicts among supervisors and subordinates and possibly affect performance negatively unbeknown to the MNCs. However, MNCs in Africa have managed to develop strategic capabilities to compete in the global environment through “*national responsiveness, global integration and world-wide learning*” (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989; Malnight, 2001).

The South African social regulatory environment plays important roles in the development of capabilities by providing a strategic framework to assist MNCs investing in the country. Gomez and Sanchez (2005) noted that a country’s regulatory framework and institutional environment has influence on the way organisations are managed. This is because, government controls the manner in which trade and business must be conducted in their country in fairness and equity. Organisations therefore are required to base their decisions primarily on the governmental framework. In the South African context, for instance, the Employee Equity Act (55 of 1998) provides regulations that must guide recruitment, selection and placement of employees in organisations operating in the country. However, the international retailers struggled with the management and advancement of diversity as vehicles that drive such regulations and the rising of a black middle class with different demands and tastes and fast expanding economic power. Cameron (2005) was of the

opinion that the issue of competence to manage positions that need to be filled with formerly disadvantaged people as required by the Employee Equity Act was challenging.

Previous studies on international strategic HRM was on the content of an MNEs corporate, or parent level, strategy and comparing different approaches based on country (Aycan, 2005; Luthans, Masnik & Luthans, 1997), while other studies involve issues emerging from the management of MNEs across many countries (Ghoshal & Nohria, 1993; Taylor & Beechler, 1996). The studies abstracted the design issues with building the right level of flexibility into MNE corporate HR strategy. Brewster, Sparrow and Harris (2005) noted that HR “functions at different levels in an MNE including philosophy, policy, practice and process.” This requires a deeper understanding of the complex nature of issues rather than the traditional HRM on comparing studies of cultural relatedness in the implementation of core HR functions and processes. One such strategy is the “high performance work systems” (HPWS) (Patel, Messersmith, & Lepak, 2013; Huselid, 1995).

The present study is on the link between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance. The researcher envisages that the effect of the Employee Equity Act and other differentiated HR practices could have significant impact on the relationship among supervisors and subordinates as well as the giving of and reception of support.

2.4.2. Alignment of HR strategies

MNCs align their corporate strategies by taking into consideration the balance between the activities that are to be centralised or standardised and the extent of flexibility needed by the affiliate to operate effectively in the host country (Wocke, Bendixen & Rijamampianina, 2007). They also align their HR strategies by differentiating the variance in the level of abstraction and scope. The abstraction level is the level at which HR strategy is focused. Schuler et al. (1992) report that “*there are different levels of abstraction in the design of a global HR system.*” Levels of abstraction are different from recommendations or policies of procedures in the level of operations. With a policy level of abstraction, the affiliates are given liberty to implement their own HR strategies within the broad structures of the standard policies. With an operational level of abstraction, the affiliates are expected to implement detailed HR management practice. The scope is the degree to which the HR management practice interferes with the HR strategy. For example, assuming the HR strategy has narrow scope and focuses on two or three basic areas, when it may have a wide scope and deal with a more comprehensive list of practices such as HPWS movement

(Huselid, 1995; Ulrich, 1997). The subsection will consider the impact of national culture on multi-national enterprises (Aggestam, 2015).

2.4.2.1 The impact of national culture on multi-national corporations (MNCs)

National culture impacts on the operations of MNCs through the HR management practices. As personal motivations, national culture impacts the implementation of corporate HR strategy, hence the manner in which information and economic utilities are combined are bound to have effect on culture (Grossman & Schoenfeld, 2001; Hofstede, 1993; Schwartz & Sagiv, 1995; Trompenaars, 1993). Rowly & Benson (2002) suggested that national culture provides an important role in limiting the depth and acceptance of universal management practices across a MNC. The place of national culture in moderating HRM practices was explored by Ferner et al. (2001) by examining the differences between management practices in MNCs and their operations in host countries, and discovered in German MNCs operating in Britain and Spain. Ferner and his colleagues discovered that the MNCs were pressurised to adopt the U.S. style of business practices. These practices included appraisal of standard international policies, performance management and such other strategies that perpetuated the influence of the German business system (Scott & Davis, 2015).

The opinion of Ferner et al. (2001) was a challenge to Child, Faulkner and Pitkethly (2000) who examined the type of changes that will be introduced to British companies when taken by foreign companies. The study further examined whether there were specific national approaches to management following the acquisitions. The study discovered that the process of acquiring firms was quickly followed by significant changes in management practice, but that some practices were universal to all companies while others conformed to accepted national rules and management practice. The national conformation was clear in the case of Japanese and U.S. acquirers, but less for French and German firms. (Jervis, 2013).

South African retailers going into African markets with their products and services could do well to rely on the precedents set by global MNCs in their HR strategies and practices, or adapt same to improve their operations. But of most importance is the need to understand that HR situations elsewhere are not the same with those of Africa in general and South Africa in particular, therefore, adapting HR strategies to suit the diversity in the

South African workplace could improve workplace individual interpersonal relationships, reduce interpersonal conflicts and encourage supervisory support of subordinates.

2.5 HUMAN RESOURCES AND CULTURE

This section describes the influence of culture on the values of work and the human resource practices that involve adopting a particular type of culture in an organisation. It further considers the dynamics of cross-culture in trans-national organisations like the South African retail industry.

2.5.1. Cultural factors and human resource management in South Africa

According to Kroeber and Kluckholm (1952), culture “*consists in patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting, acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiment in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values.*” Hofstede (1981) defined culture as “*the collective programming of the human mind that distinguishes the members of one human group from those of another. Culture in this sense is a system of collectively held values.*”

It implies that culture shapes the way people in a group think and react to situations. South Africa is a multicultural economy that has people from different cultures working in various organisations in the country. It therefore is possible to have individuals react and think differently about a given workplace issue from their cultural orientation. It is important therefore, to assess the cultural influence on work values and HRM practices to evaluate the degree and type of hybridisation that occurs in adopting HR practices in South Africa and those developed in other African countries; and how labour market institutions affect such adoption.

Cross-cultural variations in the labour market and skills supply for addressing market demands is important to be considered by MNCs in making decisions about investment in foreign countries or (FDI). South Africa and the regional economy have an oversupply of manual or unskilled workers, and just like many emerging economies, a shortage of technology, financial, and management skills. The Skills Development and Employment Equity Acts have solicited for policy that put emphasis on human resource development with levy and grants for research work (Horwitz, Nkomo & Rajah, 2013).

Many authors have challenged the MNCs and the local managers to be careful in adopting strategies that have little consideration for the suitability and relevance of management experiences on the ground. Some identified the shortcomings of the concepts formulated in the West (Kamoche, 1993, 1997; Nzelibe, 1986); other researchers gave empirical evidence on the nature of extant practices, looking at the appropriateness and irrelevance (Kamoche, 2000). The network of inter-relationships has highlighted the importance of family, community and mutual obligations. The result is a sense of communalism (Nzelibe, 1986). A group of researchers advocate African “Ubuntu” as a basis for nurturing what is called “*Afrocentric managerial culture with regiocentric HRM practises.*” “Ubuntu” literally means “*I am who I am through others*”. This notion negates Western tenet of “*Cogito ergo sum*” - “*I think therefore I am*”. It is in contrast with communal humanism that individual and instrumental humanism, which has a normal appeal for those that are advocating for African economic and cultural renaissance to indicate the building of competitive advantage (Jackson, 2000; Mangaliso, 2001). There is no harm in desiring a future vision, but the current reality of the socio-economic context of management in South Africa reflects high unemployment, poverty and illiteracy rates. The need to develop people and provide global level playing ground (competitive economy) is high (Kamoche, 1997) in the South African context. A study conducted in South Africa by Thomas and Bendixen (2000) that used Hofstede’s dimension of the management culture model is of significant interest. It concluded that at the management level, there appears to be a common national culture among South Africans, but at the lower levels, cultural diversity is glaringly eminent. This result indicates a cultural gap between management and lower level employees.

The present study observed the gap noted in the Thomas and Bendixen’s (2000) study between the management and the lower level employees and assumes that this gap is likely to be significant in the HRM practices and may be meaningful in understanding workplace individual interpersonal relationships. This point will be further addressed in the next chapter when the study will examine individual interpersonal relationships and cultural differences.

However Thomas and Bendixen’s (2000) findings of a common national culture horizontally among management level officers may be assumed to mean that interpersonal relationships at the management level could be positive. While the vertical level between managers and subordinates may be an indication of negative interpersonal relationships. It

could also be ruminated that the frequent strike actions by lower level employees of Shoprite in Tanzania and Zambia may be a reflection of the gap noted above.

Summarily, it should be noted that South Africa is a culturally diverse. Organisations need to move from compliance to commitment in their organisational culture to reflect the notion of “*Ubuntu*” in order to build capacity for competitiveness and equity in the workplace (Bovana, 2014). This could be achieved by examining and integrating individual interpersonal relationships into HR practices that address cultural diversity at the South African workplace.

2.5.2. Cross-cultural management in Africa

The context of management in Africa should be understood and integrated into research study by way of understanding the diverse stakeholder’s perspective. One of the ways of understanding these may be by appreciating the cross-cultural dynamics in organisational and management factors in South Africa. There is a strong need to reframe the perspectives of management in Africa from the view of different communities to a cross-cultural perspective; and to rise above the influences on research of the developing-developed world paradigm. These constructs are defined by the developed world and adopted by intellectuals and elites of the developing world (Jaeger & Kanungo, 1990). Most countries in Africa are multi-cultural when viewing cross-cultural dynamics of managing effectively in Africa; and these countries are subject to Western cultural influences that operate across borders in regional groupings (Rothlauf, 2015). The implication of such could underpin workplace interpersonal conflicts that are capable of undermining productivity.

Attention of this study is drawn to the cultural development initiatives of UNESCO World Decade of Cultural Development (UNESCO, 1997) which analysed three distinct levels of cultural interactions. The levels are: one, inter-continental: which is an interactive level between Western and African cultural influences that can be perverse in areas of education and management practices. Two, is inter-country: which is an interactive level across borders, this permits organisations to transact business in neighbouring countries and it is encouraged through regional economic agreements. Three, there is an inter-ethnic level of interaction, where intercultural working is practiced within organisations. At this level, many African countries have complex ethnic and language groupings, and such cross-cultural working is common in the workplace. Other levels apart from those just mentioned are: inter-organisational, inter-professional and between genders. The dynamics of cross-

cultural interaction in organisations in Africa needs to be taken up by research studies (Jackson, 2013).

The concepts and theories that have now become common in the global management community as explained by researchers like Hofstede in the 1980s and 1990s seem out of place in explaining the cultural interaction in Africa (Dia, 1996). Not only is an understanding of the cross-cultural dynamics important, but it is necessary to reconcile, integrate and synergise the differences that are in the dynamics to accelerate management and organisational development in Africa.

Cross-cultural theory suggests that the cultural dynamics have elements that can disintegrate, and tear organisations and societies apart. Yet it contains integrating factors that can draw strength from the wealth of different perspectives and approaches (Jackson, 1992; Elron, Thomas, Stahl & Ekelund, 2008). It is imperative to understand how these disintegrating and integrating elements operate in organisations in Africa for effective management. The understanding can be presented on the basis of stakeholder perspective and stakeholder influence.

Relating cross-cultural dynamics to the subject of this study, modern management now regard employees as stakeholders who are responsible to their organisations. Employees' influence can be studied by observing their interactions with one another. The next chapter on interpersonal relationships will examine in detail employee influence between higher grade (supervisors) and lower grade (subordinates) staff. Therefore, cross-cultural dynamics is a pointer to individual interpersonal relationships in an organisation. It is a factor that can either disintegrate (negatively impact) or integrate (positively impact) - it depends on the operations of an organisation.

2.6 GLOBAL VIRTUAL TEAMS (GVT)

The discussion on global virtual teams will be considered in this section. It is a strategy suggested in this study for the purpose of solving emerging interpersonal relationship problems among employees of retail companies in Africa.

2.6.1 Encouraging retail organisations to enhance GVTs

The global virtual teams are temporary systems that are put in place on an ad hoc basis to complete a joint task and the members collaborate primarily through digital technologies to make available fast, high quality responses to problems under high levels of uncertainty.

The situations that call for GVTs demand trust or positive expectations that accept vulnerabilities (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1988). To build trust has been the bane of GVT innovation (Sarker, Ahuja, Sarker & Kirkeby, 2011). Virtual team studies reported mixed influence of trust on performance with some reporting positive influence (Kanawattanachai & Yoo, 2002), and others reported no influence of trust on performance (Jarvenpaa, Shaw & Staples, 2004).

The cognitive process that put emphasis on beliefs in other people's capability, reliability and dependability is swift trust. However, swift trust is fragile because of unexpected discontinuities and disruptions that are pertinent to virtual teams that work across time, locations, distance, organisations and cultures (Watson-Manheim, Chudoba & Crowston, 2012).

2.7 SUMMARY

Africa accounts for two percent of the global GDP and three percent of the global retail market. Out of about ten retailers in Africa, the first six are African based companies, while the four remaining are Western European, Casino, Carefour, Auchan, and Metro (Kearney, 2013). That probably explain the reason the global scholars on retailing have written little about the African retailing in the last ten years, despite the waves and trend of diffusions in global retailing. The African scholar needs to find a way by encouraging researches in retail transformation in Africa.

This study observed that the retailers are constantly being put under procurement pressure about the strategy to use known suppliers in their home country in the subsidiary outlets in other African countries. The question being raised by suppliers in the retail subsidiary countries in Africa is, why procure products from your home country, or engage suppliers from your country, when the same product is locally available in the subsidiary country - why not procure here? This question demands research intervention by scholars in relative fields.

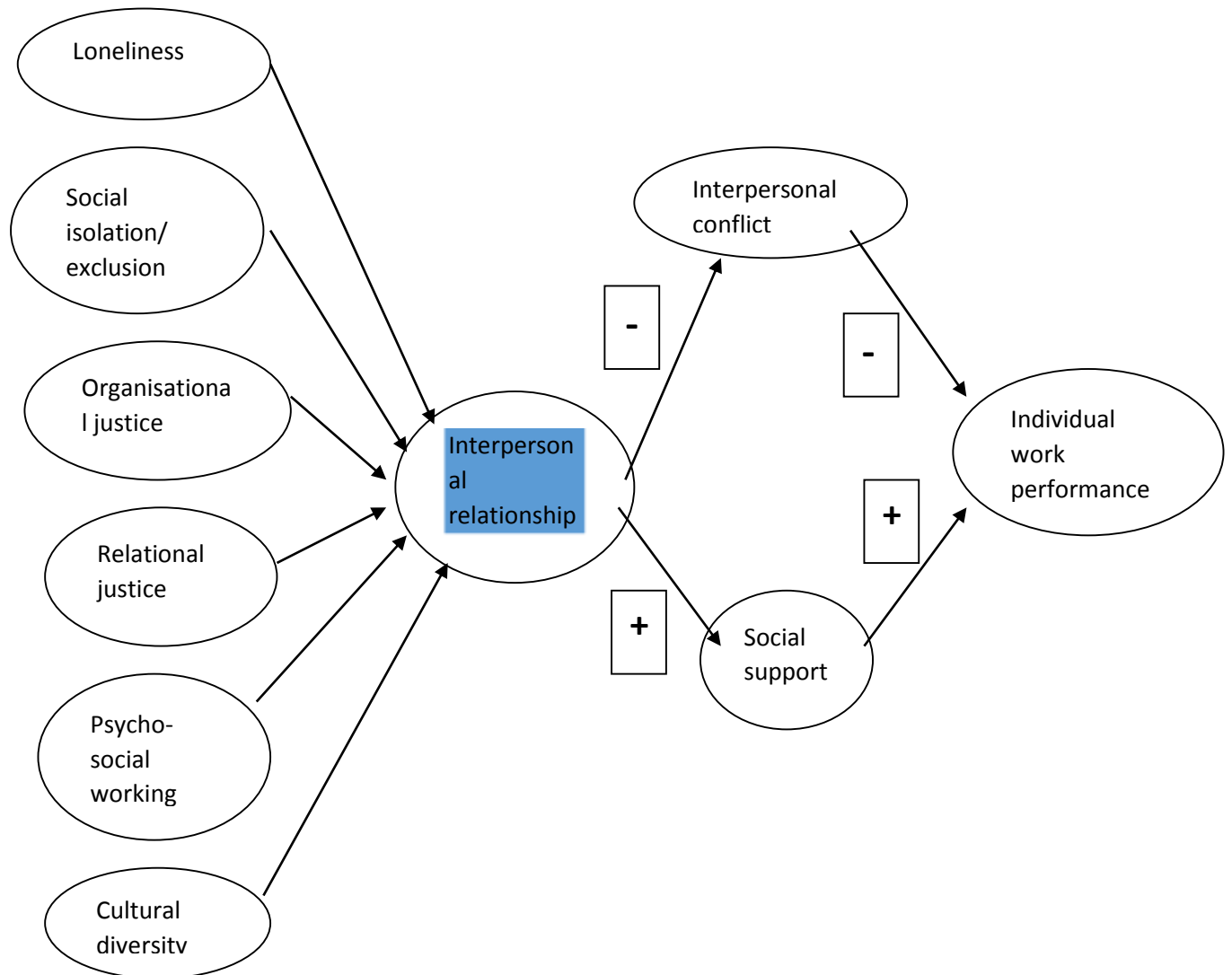
This study observed that the gap noted in the Thomas and Bendixen (2000) study between the management and the lower level employees is likely to be a snag in the HRM practices that may likely have its root in national or organisational culture. This point will be elaborated in the next chapter when the study will present facts on individual cultural differences. However the study indicated common national culture horizontally among management level officers, it may be assumed that interpersonal relationships at the

management level may be positive, and for the vertical level between managers and subordinates, the gap may be an indication of negative interpersonal relationship. Constant strike action by lower level employees of Shoprite in Tanzania and Zambia is a reflection of the gap noted above. That is not to say that the South African society is not highly diversified; organisations need to move from compliance to commitment in their organisational culture to reflect the notion of “Ubuntu” in order to build capacity for competitiveness and equity in the workplace.

Applying the theory of convergence to the study, Hofstede (1991) characterised people who live in low income and poor economic countries to have collective cultural adaptation. Let us assume that the cultural characteristics of supervisors sent by the South African retail companies to other retail outlets of their company somewhere in Africa is individualistic (Western); assume also that those supervisors are likely to be South African citizens. It means the possibilities of disintegrating or integrating factors of cross-cultural dynamics are inevitable. There may also be clashes between the supervisors and subordinates in the process of interaction in the workplace. The context in which these factors will affect the supervisors and subordinates will be examined in the next chapter of individual interpersonal relationships. Having shown the context in which this study took place, the next chapter will discuss the independent variable that will be covered, in this study namely interpersonal relationships.

CHAPTER 3: INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

Figure 3.1 Conceptual framework guiding the study



3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter acknowledges the different definitions that have been brought forward by various interpersonal relationship scholars. Interpersonal relationships in this study is viewed from the cognitive roles of being able to influence a positive or negative outcome among people in a relational situation especially at the workplace.

Berscheid and Reis (1998), in their work on the science of relationships, outlined two research areas which are considered in this study. One of the areas is the need for scholars and

practitioners of relationship science to depart from the traditional approach of individual orientation and be concerned with the flow of influence in the interactions between two or more persons. The second is; to provide adequate knowledge about the physical and social external environment of relationships. The work of Berscheid et al, (1998) used in this chapter was original and necessary to give readers the antecedents of relationships. Scholars have only attempted to scratch the surface of the study on relationships as described by Levinger (1994). Knowledge is scarce and the challenges associated with unveiling new knowledge are daunting. In this context, this chapter is designed to shed light on the rules and processes that govern interactions and the classes of relationships (Wish, Deutch & Kaplan, 1976). Furthermore, the four dimensions of interactions as modified by Mouton and Deutch (2011) will be discussed. Their perspective include cooperation, power distribution, level of intimacy, and intensity of activities.

Literature reveals that the attention of research on employee interpersonal relationships shifted from perceiving employees' condition of living to considering environmental factors around an individual's influence of interactions. But interpersonal relationships may be affected by many factors such as loneliness, exclusion or social isolation, organisational justice, relational justice, psychosocial demographics, individual differences and cultural differences. The concept of "guanxi" is examined in appraising Chinese interpersonal relationships. The relationship between supervisors and their subordinates is referred to as close to the guanxi tradition. Generally, the Chinese assume that success depends on who you know, not what you know (Chow, Ng, 2004). Hence they strive to maintain strong interpersonal relationships with one another even at work.

By exploring the interpersonal relationships among people of different cultural orientation, the study showcases multiple perspectives of various scholars and their discussion on the roles of interpersonal relationships in organisational processes (Sias, 2007). Deetz (2001) observed four research approaches to workplace relationships including post-positivist approach, construction approach, critical approach and structuration approach.

The development of the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory has attracted the interest of relationship scholars (Dansereau, Graen & Hage, 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The LMX theory is a central theory that appears throughout this study. The operation of the construct and measurement assisted the researcher to be able to know the extent to which interpersonal relationship influences performance among the sample investigated. The scholarly work on

LMX theory was developed to introduce supervisor-subordinate relationship theory, a concept that considers the various forms of relationship with different subordinate employees (Graen & Scandura, 1987). The study will examine the factors that affect the process of development in supervisor-subordinate relationships, for example, ability, personality, communication, similarities and dissimilarities.

The concept of acculturation is considered in the study in an attempt to answer the question in the problem statement. This was based on the incidence where many fortune five hundred companies who had foreign investments in China left the country after the first year. Due to lack of cultural awareness, the subordinates who were mostly Chinese, faced interpersonal difficulties which developed between the American supervisors and the Chinese subordinates. The outcome was that many of the companies closed down their factories in China (Rosen & Zweig, 2005). Sam and Berry (2010) proposed four strategies to balance individuals with issues that relate to culture and interactions; these include: assimilation strategy, separation strategy, integration strategy and marginalisation strategy. These are also discussed in this chapter.

TABLE 3.1 OVERVIEW OF SOME PREVIOUS STUDIES ON INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

Authors	Date	Classifications of definitions
Gelso & Carter	1985	The counsellor-client relationship is the emotions and approaches that counselees have towards each other and the way in which these are communicated.
Kerns, Tuck & Rudy	1985	Qualities and properties: relationships signify sum-ups or character traits that refer to the regularities in the affect, cognition and behaviour of a particular persons in interaction
Needleman & Bellinger	1991	Defined relationships as a degree of participant's perceptions or a purpose of those perceptions.
Sarason, Sarason & Pierce	1995	Asked a question in order to define relationships. Where do relationships terminate, and relationships commence? Their conclusion was that relationships are elementary parts of analysis whose individual properties and processes need to be identified.

Palmer	1995	Interpersonal relationship is the product of a recognised or emotional behavioural process, which dwells in the minds of the relating individuals as mental representation of the relationship that involve declaring, procedure, and emotional information; the mental representation is caused by individual's behaviours during interaction; the interactions become negotiations that are interdependent and interactive.
Ho	1998	Confucianism is an idea ruling human relationships. Importantly, good behaviour is about manners of relating to others. Interpersonal relationship is vitally important not only in the past, in the establishment of human behaviour, but also in the present, in order to define the meaning of being human all through an individual's period of existence.
Berschied & Reis	1998	A relationship is referred to as close, when the participating persons in the relationship have constant influence on each other; the extent to which the influence per each occurrence is strong; the influence includes different kinds of activities for each person.
Encyclopaedia	2011	Interpersonal relationship is a durable, profound or constant link between two or more persons that may range in duration from momentary to lasting. The link may be based on influence, love, solidarity, regular business interactions or some other form of social commitment. Interpersonal relationships are formed in the context of social, cultural and other influences. The perspective differs from family relations, friendship relations, neighbours, association at work club membership closeness and place of worship. Sometimes the relationships may be bound by laws, custom or some form of agreement.

3.2 DEFINITIONS AND TERMS OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

Interpersonal relationship as a durable, constant and profound concept between two or more persons may not have been fully explained by different scholars. Below are relative terms that broaden the scope of understanding of the concept

3.2.1 Interpersonal relationships and communication

Social exchange has continued to frame how scholars conceptualise communication and relationship development (Palmer, 2013). The assumption is that individuals enter relationships to gain access to tangible and intangible resources. Out of all the functions that contribute to the transmission of messages between people, the interpersonal functions stood out specifically as it is involved with establishing, maintaining, and dissolving bonds between people (Palmer, 1995). On the list of human activities are searching or offering, establishing intimacy and inclusion and developing a sense of belonging to one another (Bowlby, 1969; Burgoon & Hale, 1984; Cappella & Street, 1985; Hinde, 1982; Patterson, 1983). The human activities and similar others are relational in nature and determine emotional interactions that create sense of bonding to another. Watzlawick, Bavelas, Jackson and O'Hanlon (1967) suggested that in all interactions, there are elements of relational bargaining that happens even when the transactions are open or implied. This study suggests that such human activity (interpersonal relationship) can occur informally (outside structured environment; for instance family) and formally (in this case for example, the workplace). It further posits that the outcome of the interpersonal exchange could be positive or negative.

3.2.2 Interdependence and interaction

Interpersonal relationships represent an interdependent dialogue or bargaining of relational information. The assumption here is that the dialogue of communication between persons interacting, form the process of defining interpersonal relationship. With every interaction, an individual in a relational bid makes a bargain that forms his or her opinion of the relationship. Social support derives from interdependence where individuals are assured of the support of others being available to them whenever needed. This study examines support (given and received) in chapter four.

3.2.3 Cognition and behaviours

According to Palmer (1995), interpersonal relationship dwells in the minds of individuals relating with each other, and their behaviours become meaningful when the individuals

perceive, identify and interpret them. The interpretations or decisions determine what is currently going on in the relationship, which can be compared with the goals desired in the relationship by each individual. The comparison leads to behaviour modifications to line up with each person's expectation or desire. The claim here is that actual relational transactions happen through behavioural exchanges that are not visible verbally but must be attended to the course of interactions. All these approaches written above lead to Palmer's broad definition of interpersonal relationship. Hence, the outcomes of interpersonal relationships can be positive or negative. The present study evaluates supervisor-subordinate relationships at the Spouth African retail sector to ascertain if they are positively or negatively skewed.

3.3 THE SCIENCE OF RELATIONSHIP

Most of the studies that relate to the happiness of man revealed that fulfilment of close relationships amount to the best thing; close relationship with one another is considered to be more significant and important to the mental and physical well-being of people (Berschied & Reis, 1998). This section presents the result of cognitive relationships and the external environments in relationship. It considers types of relationships and the different dimensions of relationship, including the historical background of relationships.

3.3.1. Potentials of relationship science

In order to outline the potentials of relationship science, two research areas will be highlighted. Firstly, the outcome of affect on cognition and secondly, the outcome of relationship's external environment on internal dynamics. Relationship science emerged as a multi-disciplinary subject that has international perspective; it is not confined to the territory of psychology or behavioural science alone, it comprises of health sciences like epidemiology, traditional medicine, alternative medicine, veterinary science and nursing. In psychology it involves clinical counselling, developmental and social psychology, family and business psychology (Berschied et al., 1998).

Relationship science has the potential to unite scholars and practitioners. Many practitioners are in support of a body of knowledge that will accommodate relationships in order to guide their therapeutic activities, while scholars are becoming more and more aware of the needs being generated by the subject (Schrof, 1998).

Relationship science requires a departure from the traditional way of doing business for psychological and management researchers. One of the traditional ways of doing business was to be individualistic. There is the need to overpower the individualistic orientation of human

behaviour that has been the practise (Sears, 1951). The traditional approach to individual behaviour has been practised in two ways: first, the search for laws, ethics that govern the individual; second, is the search for the causes of an individual's behaviour by looking at the inside of the individual for attitudes, personality traits and skills; instead of limiting a search to an individual, relationship scholars are concerned with the laws governing the individual's interactions with others, that is the effect of each person's behaviour on the other. The objective will be to observe a rhythm of influence in the interactions between two or more persons. The goal of relationship science is to identify the causes that are responsible for the rhythm, and the rhythm is only revealed with time. Therefore, a relationship does not dwell in the individual. Relationships are temporal and not static - they have a beginning and end. They can be measured, described and articulated. Relationships could be high or low, negative or positive based on the results. This study assesses the individual interpersonal relationships among supervisors and subordinates at the South African retail sector. The essence is to understand the rhythm of individual behaviour along interpersonal lines.

Improving on the understanding of human behaviour is an important potential of the relationship science. Harold Kelly (1983) suggested that relationship science is characterised as essential science; essential because it is important to the future of social, behavioural and biological sciences. In his statement, we are born into relationships, we live in relationships with others, when we die, the effect of our relationships live after us (Kelly, Berschied, Christenson & Harvey, 1983).

Understanding the behaviour of individuals in the context of present relationships with others is the fundamental aim of relationship science. The relationship context makes the difference in a manner that the properties of individuals do not influence the environment of the relationship. The influence of the context on behaviour is a strong factor that transposes an individual's knowledge about behaviour. The evidence as suggested by Reis was that, to predict and understand behaviour, it is important to appreciate and understand the context in which the individual relationship occurs. The individual's mental, physical and spiritual properties are affected due to the constant changes in relationship. Therefore changing the individual properties, past relationships, and future relationships, affects the individual's present behaviour in other relationship contexts (Berschied, 1988).

Government legislation and informed public policy is another way to understand individual behaviour in the relationship context. Legislative remedies to the problems of relationships

depend on the identification of causes particularly with respect to marital relationships (Dukert, 1997). On the causes of problems in relationships an investigation was carried out where the members of the House of Representatives in the United States of America were told to find out the reason for the high divorce rate and relationship break downs. A section of the investigators were of the view that the problems were ascribed to individual's responsibility; while another group blamed the environment for relational flaws in the society (Sitka & Tetlock, 1993).

In ascribing the causes of relationship problems that individuals face for the quality of their relationships, Berschied (1998) observed that the treatment of relationship environments has either been reflected in or reinforced by. This term is used to describe the external effect of relationships (Berscheid, Ammazzalorso, Langenfeld & Lopos, 1998). Kelly (1992) observed that people's sense of guiding their behaviour dwells at the meso-level of analysis (when events occur normally); when events occur at the micro-level (that is, events occur at a fast rate and invisible to the eye); when events occur at macro-level (the events occur at a distance and they are hard for the people to perceive and incorporate into their personal sense of analysis). Therefore the relationship scholars are faced with the task of drawing out the locations of environmental icebergs that can cripple or sink the relationships (Eye witness to history, 2000).

Hence, this study considers the South African retail work environment and the individual interpersonal relationships thereof. Individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds, educational levels and experience perform various functions to achieve organisational goals. This study examines the outcome of the interpersonal associations on workplace performance.

Another important factor in the treatment of relationship externally is the physical and social environment of the relationship, and the knowledge of these environments is scarce according to Levinger (1994). Conger, Conger, Elder and Lorenz (1992) observed that economic tension promotes hostility in relationship and reduces the frequency of supportive behaviour. Repetti (1989) discovered an important link between those who work as air traffic controllers and exposure to work stressors and anger and aggression in their family interactions. There is prospect on support needed on the effect of relational environment. This support is enhanced by Karney and Bradbury's (1995) Stability Model. The model assumed that different individuals occupy different environments; different environments exhibit different stressors and different individuals have different vulnerabilities to those stressors. In this context, the present study assumes that the association of various individuals in the same workplace at different levels of responsibility (supervisor-subordinate) could be a stressor capable of causing interpersonal conflicts. .

3.3.2. Types of relationships

Relationship classification is a useful tool in organising and describing an individual's relationships. The classifications assist to illuminate salient questions about the rules and processes that manage interactions, and they represent the struggles to advance knowledge of relationship management. The relationship classification is*--* based on the discoveries of various scholars over time and different dimensions identified by each study.

Wish, Deutch and Kaplan (1976) suggested four dimensions that underpin individual's categorisation of relationships, namely: equal versus unequal status, intense versus superficial, co-operative/friendly versus competitive/hostile, socio-emotional/informal versus task oriented/formal. The dimensional model, although logical, did not consider the discreet relationship types.

Clark and Mills (1979) made a distinction between communal relationships, where individuals respond to the needs of others, and exchange relationships, where rewards are exchanged in repayment for earlier benefits or in expectation of benefits later. Fiske (1992) proposed a model that relationships can be classified into discrete structures; there is no intermediary in between relationships (midway) and relationships are not reducible to any form of dimensions. They are primary and are also disproportionate in that no general, systematic, high level representation intervenes among them.

Berscheid (1994), Clark and Reis (1998) raised basic issues that the idea of relationships or close relationships consist of many different types of relationships, for example, friendship, parental, romantic, co-worker, and neighbour. Whether there are different types of relationships is not the issue, but can a body of knowledge be developed, because of the different types of relationships, that addresses the dissimilarities in relationships? Two issues to be considered are, first, identification of mechanisms to organise the different relationships, second, cataloguing of the different laws governing behaviour of the same partner depending on the type of relationship (Hartup, & Rubin, 2013).

3.4 PERCEIVED DIMENSIONS OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

This section presents the four different perspectives of interpersonal relationships as documented by earlier scholars. These dimensions were revalidated recently when Deutsch (2011) recaptured them. The study will also describe the antecedents of interpersonal relationships. The conditions that influence interpersonal relationships at work will be carefully

explained. These may form the basis for judgment in this study in later chapters as the study progresses. It is not impossible that certain perspective of interpersonal relations may be the same culturally; the roles relationships may vary from one culture to another.

Marwell and Hage (1970) were earlier researchers of role relations, and they observed three factors in their study. These factors are as follows: the first factor is intimacy, which is considered as the relations which have a high percentage of diverse activities, in different places, distance between the persons in relationship is low, the role set between occupants is high. The second factor is visibility, this is in relationships that are public in nature and it is subject to interference. It is not like the private relations that are not observable publicly. The third factor is regulations which differentiate the role relations whereby the members determine the time, activities and location. This is different from those whereby there is a reasonable attention given to specify what goes on in the role relations, either by normal pressure or combining with other social relationships.

In later research, as reported by Wish (1974, 1975), two of the factors above observed by Marwell and Hage, intimacy and regulations, were adopted as socio-emotional and informal versus task oriented and formal. Socio-emotional and task oriented are the same as intimacy, while formal and informal are related to regulation according to the definitions given by Marwell and Hage in their study. In 1976, Wish et al. recognised four dimensions of interpersonal relationships. These four dimensions have been intellectualised and empirically validated by other research work.

3.4.1 First dimension

The first dimension is perceived from equality versus inequality, domination versus submission (Leary, 1957; Rosenberg & Sedlak, 1972; Forgas 1991; Haslam & Fiske, 1992). For example, parent-child is an unequal relationship, whereas close friends are equal in terms of roles. In organisational settings relations between manufacturer and retailers may be unequal, while relations between marketing and research and development may be presumed to be equal. This perspective may be of import to managers and marketers who are interested in power and attempt at influencing other organisations (Dwyer, Schurr & Oh, 1987; Hailen, Johanson & Mohamed, 1991; Buchanan, 1992).

3.4.2. Second dimension

The second dimension is the valence of the relationships. It means that relationships can be grouped according to whether they are supportive and friendly (positive) or contestable and

antagonistic (negative). This dimension has been theorised and documented in various studies (Leary, 1957; Rosenberg & Sedlak, 1972; Kelley, 1979; Haslam & Fiske, 1992). Positive relationships are those that exist between husband and wife, team-mates, colleagues on the same work assignment. In organisations, positive relationships might be those that exist between marketing and sales departments. A relationship is negative when members are at cross purpose with each other. For example, prison guard and prisoner; in organisations, marketing and engineering departments might antagonise each other.

3.4.3. Third dimension

The third dimension is the strength or the interdependence of relationship. For example, a relationship can be cold, distant, shallow or superficial like those of casual friendliness. In work settings, an example of distant relationship can be those between the sole proprietor and the clerk in his office, or the waiter and the restaurant owner. It is distant because of the roles and the probability that the interaction might be for a short term. Intensity or strength of the relationship is perceived in different ways, but importantly it is viewed by how often people interact (Cambell & Cunningham, 1985); intensity can also be perceived from the obligations of the parties in the relationship (Forgas, 1991).

3.4.4. Fourth dimension

The fourth dimension is to determine whether a relationship is fundamentally social or relates to work. The socio-emotional or informal relationships would be those between spouses, husband and wife, and siblings. Work related or formal relationships are those between employer and employee, business partners, teacher and student. Different research work has included this dimension in their literature (Sedlak & Rosenberg, 1972; Haslam & Fiske, 1992).

3.4.5. Interdependence and integration of interpersonal relationships

Deutsch (2011) has revisited the dimensions of interpersonal relationships, in his presentation he analysed the different interdependence by considering the characteristics of social relations and their psychological orientations. In his analysis, he observed that specific interdependence is related with specific psychological orientation. Psychological orientation is the consistency of more or less complex cognitive, motivational and moral orientations in a situation that guides an individual's behaviour and responses. Interdependence is the perception of the strength of interpersonal relationship, whether the relationship is cold, distant, simple or superficial, just like a casual friendship. Improving on his studies on the dimensions of interpersonal relations

over three decades, Deutsch attempted to reassert the dimensions in terms of their interdependence as follows:

Cooperation - Competition - Various social psychological scholars have made references to this in their literature. Deutsch (1949a) called it Promotive versus Contrient Interdependence or simply as Pro-Con Dimension (Deutsch, 1962). According to Triandis (1972), it is called association-dissociation; Kelly and Thibaut (1978) referred to it as correspondence-non-correspondence; it has been tagged love-hate, positivenegative interpersonal relations and friendly-hostile, by other researchers. Deutsch (1949, 1962, and 1973) reviewed the social processes and outcomes of the dimension. Johnson and Johnson (2011) called it the cooperation-competition intellectual legacy.

Power distribution (equal versus unequal) - This perspective of interpersonal relations has been tagged differently by many scholars. Triandis (1972) called it Super-ordination- subordination, Kelly (1978) termed it Mutuality of Interdependence, dominance-submission, potency and autonomy-control. Cartwright and Zander (1968) reviewed the social psychological processes and outcomes of this dimension. Loi, Lam, and Chan (2012) referred to the degree to which an employee accepts the unequal power distribution; it is strong among low power distance employees, and weak among high power distance employees.

Task-oriented versus social-emotional - This perspective of interpersonal relations was called intimacy by Triandis (1972) and Maxwell and Hage (1970). Kelly (1978) called it personal. Social-emotional relations are more informal in most cases than the task-oriented relations. It is likely that there is a positive link between the informal relations and equality; therefore it is not easy to find unequal, informal relations compared to formal relations. It also appears that task oriented-emotional relationships and social-emotional relationships are positive relations that exist between the cooperativeness and informality of relationships. The relationship between equality of an activity and cooperativeness may also be personal. Therefore, social-emotional activities will be more intense than task-oriented relations. The same intense effects will be on an interpersonal relationship that is competitive and cooperative. Rosh, Offermann and Van-Diest, (2012) used team intimacy and team cohesion to define task oriented and emotional relationships.

Formal versus informal - This dimension for the sake of clarity is measured by the intensity of the activities in a relationship. Formal bureaucratic relationships have been the subject of wide discussions by theorists of sociology such as Weber (1958). This relationship exists between

employer-employee, manager-supervisor, and mentor-protégé. For example between a college professor-graduate student working together informally on a research project, under the professor's direction; such activities are formal and informal. Chen and Krauskopf (2013) documented that workflow among individuals starts formally and later gives rise to informal because of time spent together (Chen et al, 2013).

3.5 ANTECEDENTS OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

The attention of research in the past has been on perceiving interpersonal relationship at work from the employee's condition of living and the work environment. The suggestion of Song and Olshfski (2008) was that family ties, class, ethnic background, race, gender, age, experience, interests, and geography influence interactions among people. Many theories support the suggestion that employee's characteristics of condition of living affect the social relationship between individuals (Sacco & Schmitt, 2005). Social categorisation (Tajfel, 1982; Turner, 1981), and social identity theories (Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, 1982), suggest that people should categorise themselves into in-groups and out-groups according to significant characteristics including sex and race. The assumption was that individuals tend to reduce their differences within groups and enlarge their differences between the group members.

The reaction of individuals to those in the same group is perceived to be positive, even when the group differences are subjective (Sacco & Schmitt, 2005; Sheriff, Harvey, White, Hood & Sheriff, 1961). At the same time, similarity attraction paradigm (Berscheid & Walster, 1978; Byrne, 1971) and relational demography theory (Tsui, Egan & O'Reilly, 1992) living creates opportunity for attraction and liking and affects social relationship in a positive way between employed individuals. These theories suggest that employee condition of living affects the workplace relationship and the effect does not depend on individual interaction in the workplace.

Adding to the issues related to employees' condition of living, organisations have many environmental features that can enable friendships in the workplace (Pogrebin, 1987). Song and Olshfski (2008) had suggested that the culture of an organisation is able to support informal communication in order to allow the establishment of friendships. The rules and procedures in an organisation that encourage communication between supervisors and subordinates have a positive impact on the prospect of friendship in the workplace. At times friendship in the workplace may be established among employees due to closeness because of experiences and interactions shared by peer workers (Berman & West, 2002).

Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) suggest that similarity in the condition of Rousseau (1995) suggested that managers in the workplace should be encouraged to promote an environment of openness and friendship among employees and set a positive example of desired workplace relationships. Berman and West (2002), in a study of senior managers, pointed out collective strategies for promoting a climate of friendship at work. The strategies are providing employees with the opportunity to socialise; encouraging the employees to be friendly with one another and to seek each other out for emotional support; and train supervisors to establish positive relationships with subordinates and all employees (Deutch, 2011).

3.5.1. Conditions that affect individual interpersonal relationships

The following factors through different studies have proven to affect individual interpersonal relationships among employees in the workplace. This section will consider loneliness and the way it can be used to nurture interpersonal relationships. Other factors are exclusion or isolation, organisational justice, relational justice, psychological working conditions, individual differences, and cultural differences.

3.5.1.1 Loneliness

Loneliness can be defined as *“a situation experienced by the individual as one where there is an unpleasant or inadmissible lack of (quality of) certain relationships. This includes situations in which the number of existing relationships is smaller than is considered desirable or admissible, as well as situations where the intimacy one wishes for has not been realised. Thus loneliness is seen to involve the manner in which the person perceives, experiences, and evaluates his or her isolation and lack of communication with other people”* (Gierveld, 1998). Loneliness is considered as an inward feeling, a counterpart to the measure of social isolation or the antitheses of social support. Loneliness is the perceived deprivation of social contact evidenced by lack of people willing or available to share in an individual's social and emotional experiences. Such an individual has the potential to interact with other people, but is not interacting, and there are obvious differences between the actual and desired interaction with others (Victor, Scambler, Bond & Bowling, 2000). Stroebe and Stroebe (1996) differentiate between social and emotional loneliness. Social loneliness occurs from the absence of social interaction, and emotional loneliness happens when there is absence of close attachment relationship.

The nurturing of healthy interpersonal relationships is an important part of any workplace and in many cases provides friendship for individuals who may not find it elsewhere. However, for some employees merely being in a social environment is not enough to overcome feelings of social deprivation and loneliness (Wright, Burt, Christopher & Strongman, 2006). Loneliness mirrors a breakdown in social interaction and the quality of interpersonal relationships. It is generally agreed by researchers that loneliness is a psychological state that results from deficiencies in a person's social relationships, either qualitatively or quantitatively (Peplau & Perlman, 1982).

3.5.1.2. Exclusion or social isolation

Schopenhauer's porcupine parable (1964) suggests that many porcupines cluster together for warmth in winter; but they soon start to prick each other with their quills, and are forced to scatter. Eventually, the cold drove them together again. In the same way, the societal needs drive human porcupines together and they repel one another with the prickly qualities of their nature. A desire for social relationship is one of the fundamental and universal needs of humans. The need is deeply rooted in evolutionary history and with impact on human psychological developments (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). When the need fails, the consequences may be devastating for human psychological wellbeing. When employees lack positive relationships, they usually experience loneliness, guilt, jealousy, depression and anxiety (Leary, 1990).

Forms of social exclusion are ostracism, rejection and other forms that are aversive (Baumeister, Twenge & Nuss, 2002). Evidences have suggested that social exclusion causes psychological feelings that are like physical pain (Eisenberger, Lieberman & Williams, 2003; MacDonald & Leary, 2005).

Social exclusion includes being excluded from meetings or necessary information, or from social gatherings. It is sometimes considered as a dimension of bullying or mobbing. It is recognised as an essential predictor of negative performance at work (Zapf et al., 1996).

Negative working conditions have been suggested as being able to affect individuals in such a way that it may lead to exclusion, bullying or mobbing (Spector & Fox, 2005). A view based on case studies regards exclusion as a consequence of personality traits of the victim, those traits that provoke others to act in a certain manner. The victim may also have an avoidant personality that provokes others to act with hostility towards them (Zaph et al., 1996).

3.5.1.3. Organisational justice

The concept has to do with being treated fairly by the organisation. The concept is divided into three dimensions, namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice. The distributive dimension is the just allocation of resources or rewards. The procedural dimension concerns how decisions are made, reasonably or otherwise. The interactional dimension is the relationship between superiors and employees, essentially how employees are treated (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Yee, 2001).

Organisational justice is also called interactional justice. Perceived interactional justice has to do with the perceptions of fairness by an organisation in the interpersonal way a subordinate is treated by their leaders to create formal procedure (Bies & Shapiro, 1987). It is the reflection of the treatment of subordinates by their superiors with respect to truthfulness, justification, and propriety (Bies & Moag, 1986). Perceived interactional justice may be a psychological process that demonstrates the impact of three dimensions of paternalistic leadership in the work of subordinates for two reasons. Firstly, perceived interactional justice has been found to associate with employees' evaluation of their leaders (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001) and it has an important effect on specific outcome of variables than perceived procedural or distributive justice (Cropanzano, Prehar & Chen, 2002). Secondly, perceived interactional justice has received generalisation and validation in cultural contexts. The use of perceived interactional justice allows researchers to examine whether the elements of paternalistic leadership including authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership will have some influence on the employees' perceptions of interactional treatment received from their moral, benevolent or authoritarian leaders (Chemers, 2014).

3.5.1.4 Relational justice

Relational justice is defined as “*the justice produced through co-operative behaviour, agreement, negotiation, or dialogue among actors in a post conflict situation*” (Casanovas & Poblet, 2008). It is widely known as bottom-up justice, shaped by the supportive behaviour of managers and employees; the after effect of private/public tacit or explicit, peace or violent conflicts.

The concept of relational justice describes the relation between the employees and their managers, the managers are representatives of the organisation. Relational justice is about whether personal viewpoints and employee rights are considered in all dealings. It also deals

with whether employees are handled with or without bias, and with kindness. There is no standard scale to measure aspects of relational justice (Head, Kivimaki, Vahtera, Shipley & Marmot, 2007).

There are four criteria in identifying relational justice. Firstly, authoring, that is, quotations and cross-discussions, and fertilization in a stable community. Secondly, focus, that is, coming up with consensus at common problems, discussion in research approaches. Three, object, that is, consensus on definitions, common language, conflicting theories; and four, methodology, comparable data, experiments or outcomes (Casanovas & Poblet, 2008).

35.1.5. *Psychosocial working conditions*

The psychosocial aspects of the working conditions are mental load or psychological stress. These constitute not only mental demands in quantitative ways, for example, production rates and time pressure, but also relationships to customers or demand persons. Managers and supervisors can impose demands through norms, dependency, loyalty, contradictory requirements, or decisions. Co-workers can inflict mental demands through norms and peer pressure. To study the connection between psychosocial working conditions and interpersonal relationships at work, a choice has to be made between different concepts and measures designed to capture the complex reality of psychosocial working conditions. The demands and mental work load concepts are widely used for measurement (Kristensen, Bjorner, Christensen & Borg, 2004).

The demand control support model suggested that a higher risk of psychological strain and illness in the body should be expected on individuals who are faced with high demands but have little control or social support with which to balance the demands. The model suggests that each of the components including job demand, job control and job support contribute individually to increase in stress (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). At the same time, controls that are perceived and high support are considered to be a cushion against stress, which can decrease the risk for stress related health illness (Ulrich, 2010; Lindblom, Linton, Fedeli & Bryngelsson, 2006).

35.1.6. *Individual differences*

This refers to the degree of variations and similarities among people on intelligence, personality, interest and aptitude or *intelligence quotient* (IQ) and physical factors such as body, age and sex (Maltby, Day & Macaskill, 2007). A central perspective to individual

differences in many modern frameworks is the difference between trait-like and state-like individual differences as a function of leadership (Yukl, 2006; Zaccaro, 2007). The individual differences orientation which emphasise the individual disposition is called trait-like/distal individual differences (Carlyle, 1907). Recent emphasis has shifted to state-like individual differences, which is in the form of knowledge and skills (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). The difference between the two views is that research on state-like individual differences does not assume that the individual characteristics that differentiate between effective and ineffective supervisors are stable throughout the life span.

On supervisor differences, Malinko, Sikora and Harvey (2012) were of the opinion that abusive supervision is a function of perceptions by the subordinate, and that individual differences between subordinates will affect these perceptions. Their study demonstrates that supervisors' organisational justice perceptions are linked with subordinates' perceptions of abusive supervision. Researchers discovered that supervisors' experiencing contract breach were perceived as being more abusive towards their subordinates and the relationship was stronger when the supervisors held a hostile attribution bias and behaved in a hostile manner according to organisational leadership (Malinko, et al, 2012).

On subordinate differences, individual differences may be a contributor to the rate of differences in their perceptions of abuse. Wu and Hu (2009) discovered that subordinates' affectivity was closely related to perceptions of abuse. There is a positive relationship between subordinates' self-esteem and their perceptions of abusive supervision (Burton & Hoobler, 2006). Subordinates that are alcoholics are more likely to report perceptions of abuse than employees without alcoholic issues (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006). Subordinates who have tendencies to blame their failures on external and stable causes also tend to rate their supervisors as abusive.

3.5.1.7. *Cultural differences*

Culture characterises the construction of reality through its impact on different fields such as education, legal, political systems, workplace, media language and care-takings, and these structures reflect the cultural ideas, values, and norms of an individual's everyday experiences that are related to self-determination or as being located in a web of social relations and obligations with less personal discretion (Fiske et al., 1998).

According to Hofstede's (1980; 2001) work on cultural values and dimensions, individual-collectivism is now the most prominent dimension along which culture is categorised (Triandis, 1990). Individualism is regarded as self-reliance, independence, detachment from in-group, and the importance of personal goals over in-group goals. Collectivism is regarded as family integrity; there is emphasis on in-group harmony and commonalities rather than differences, in-group-out-group differences, and the regulation of behaviour by group norms rather than personal attitudes (Triandis, 1990, 1995). Cultural individualism and collectivism are the polar ends of the rope along which culture is located (Beer, 2012).

Different individual orientations with social norms that are prevailing are probably linked with cultural differences in the way people relate to and communicate with one another in interpersonal relationships. These differences have been examined in the following context: dating and marriage (Levine, Sato, Hashimoto & Verma, 1995), and conceptions of romantic love (Lalonde, Hynie, Pannu & Tafla, 2004). Individuals from collectivistic cultural backgrounds tend to have less self-disclosure, they use a high perspective type of communication style, and have more other related face concerns in interpersonal interactions.

This study is interested in those relational activities that occur in the workplace. This section will consider the different approaches to workplace relationships that concern the post positivists, social constructionists, critical approach, and structuration theory. Leading, managing, ordering, buying and selling, supporting, debating, gossiping, reporting, interviewing, presenting, persuasion, feedback, controlling information gathering, information sharing, collaborating, conflict and conflict resolution and directing, are among the activities that occur daily in a normal organisation. These activities happen in the process of interpersonal relationships. Almost all activities occur in the settings of relationships (Sias, 2006). Relationships are the basis and the centre of an organisation (Wheatley, 1994, & 2001).

Organisations maintain their balance through relationships (Katz & Khan, 1978). Wheatley (2001) rightly noted that the attention of researchers should not be focused on tasks, functions or hierarchy, but on how a workplace organises its relationships. Relationships in the workplace are important to the individual who is in employment whether on full time or contractual basis. Such individuals spend more of their time interacting with co-workers at work than with friends and relations. Even when an employee is not at work, much time is spent thinking and talking about work. To a large extent individuals are defined by whom they work with and what they do for living. In many ways an individual's workplace relationship defines the individual (Sluss

& Ashforth, 2007). Unlike acquaintances or individuals who have limited interactions with each other, interpersonal relationship is branded by continuous interactions between individuals or groups over a period of time (Sias, Krone & Jablin, 2002).

Interpersonal relationship is not like acquaintanceships, it is known to endure, although some relationships endure more than the others. Interpersonal relationships are branded with a feeling of connection beyond the experience in acquaintanceships. Relationships differ according to the degree of connections, the closer the relationship the stronger that relationship and the more emotional the connection (Sias, 2006).

3.6 WORKPLACE RELATIONSHIPS

Workplace relationships mean all interpersonal relationships in which employees engage themselves with in the process of doing their jobs, including customer relationships, workplace friendships, supervisor-subordinate relationships, client professional relationships, and romantic relationships.

3.6.1. Perspectives of workplace relationships

Considering workplace relationships from the multiple perspectives of different scholars is necessary to enhance and broaden an individual's understanding of the study and their role in organisational processes. Each perspective is unique in concepts of organisations, communication and relationships. Each perspective draws the attention of the practitioners to various essentials in organisational situations (Sias, 2007). By the use of various organising structures, scholars have organised traditions and theoretical perspectives. Craig (2007) addressed seven theoretical traditions that cover all aspects of communication. Areas that are peculiar to organisation communication, Deetz (2001) branded research into four approaches post-positivist, interpretive, critical, and post-modern. May and Mumby (2005) widened Deetz's work by including rhetorical, social construction, globalisation and structuration theory. Sias (2007) followed Deetz and May and added post-positivist, interpretive, critical, and post-modern. Mumby brought out post-positivist, social construction, critical and structuration theory.

3.6.1.1. Post-positivist approach to workplace relationships

The post-positivist approach is deeply seated in the scientific method, it resulted from the positivism and it is embraced because of the different criticisms of positivism in the past centuries. Just like positivism, post-positivism is fundamentally concerned with the reason that

caused a relationship that can make one predict and bring the external environment under control (Miller, 2000). In many ways, post-positivism is different from positivism. According to Corman (2005), the social sciences and the natural sciences are united even though they are not the same thing. Social beings dwell in and function in the physical environment. Human beings are physical objects that can be physically observed just like nature. The principle of naturalism and its implication states that: first, human beings are physical objects, whose behaviour is observable, measurable and evaluative. Therefore, the attention of the post-positivist approach is on the behaviour of human beings. Secondly, because human beings are physical objects, their behaviour affects the physical environment. The post-positivist approach is concerned with the linkages between the social and the natural environment and its implication on development of human relationship (Sias & Cahill, 1998). Thirdly, the concept of human beings as physical objects leads to the concept of organisations as vessels in which the individual performs their work (Smith & Turner, 1995).

Post-positivism is in agreement with the realist view, the assumption is that a social reality is in existence, although it is invisible to the eyes. This principle is not the same as the positivism's anti-realist that assumed that it is only perception that matters. Transcendental reasoning permits the belief in the reality of things that are not directly observable, but are by observing the conditions that indicate that they exist in something else (Corman, 2005). An example of this is although an organisation cannot be seen, or perceived directly, the belief is that they exist, because they are indicated in human behaviour that is observable and can be co-ordinated.

Combining the principles of naturalism and realism, the post-positivists suggest that reality is in existence, but that cannot be observed directly. Human beings exist in the real world, and they are observable. To comprehend reality, the indicators of the reality must be examined. To understand an organisation, the indicators of its reality, which is human behaviour, must be examined (Sias, 2007).

Post-positivist approach to workplace relationships fit into the same functions as the principles of naturalism and realism. The workplace relationship is a real object that goes beyond human perceptions, and is observable by indicators. The indicators are self-report of individual assessments, e.g. measuring the quality of superior-subordinate relationships, communication assessments among employees, topics that attract communication, assessing the degree of satisfaction in communication with co-workers. In conceptualizing relationships, the post-positivist approach views relationships as entities that go beyond human perceptions. These

entities like organisations possess the partners in relationships, and their dynamic ways in those relationships are patterned.

Issues addressed by workplace relationships that are guided by post-positive research includes: the nature of workplace relationships and observation of the relational indicators such as measuring attitudes and communication of relationship partners. It examines also the prediction and indication of relationship quality on communication practices, and predictions of relationship quality and quantity over observable organisational outcomes such as productivity, career advancement, and employee satisfaction. Researchers have examined the links between workplace relationships and the context in which they exist. Scholars have researched into the impact of workplace characteristics such as climate, workload on friendship development and proximity (Sias & Cahill, 1998). By dovetailing on the principle of naturalism, researchers have examined the ways workers' physical attributes like biological sex are related with their relationships with others in the workplace (Sias, Smith & Avdeyeva, 2003).

3.6.1.2. Social construction approaches to workplace relationships

Social construction theory is a concept that views reality as a phenomenon that exists outside our perceptions; rather reality is viewed as socially constructed. Berger and Luckmann (1966) argued in a fundamental study of social construction, that first, the behaviour of human beings has its root in knowledge; knowledge and understanding inform the world around individuals. Second, knowledge is the outcome of social practises (Allen, 2005). So then, attention should be on socially contesting and constructing knowledge rather than being objective and real. Third, social construction insists that reality should be socially constructed.

There are many implications for organisational researchers on social construction. First, the human behaviour creates reality and does not indicate it. Reality then is not objective but subjective. Second, reality changes constantly, it is not fixed, it changes with social behaviour. Third, understanding how human behaviour creates knowledge and social reality is the fundamental goal of social construction theory. Social construction organisational research perceives an organisation as a reality that is socially constructed; it is established on the interaction of its members and not in a physical location (Sias, 2007).

Social construction theory is different from post-positivism in many ways. Instead of observing communication as an indicator of an organisation, social construction observes the process of organising. The organisation does not go beyond human perception, but is observable through the organising process. Workplace relationship researchers from a social construction stance

perceive organisations as entities that are established in interaction. Since relationships can only exist between the interactions of the relational partners, the patterns of interaction dictate the presence of relationship (Duck & Pittman, 1997).

3.6.1.3. Critical approaches to workplace relationships

Organisational management and sociology scholars have been studying issues such as politics and power, and hierarchy and control were the centre of organisational processes; order, control and discipline were held by early theories of organisation such as bureaucratic theory (Weber, 1947) and administrative management theory (Fayol, 1949). Managerial bias grew through the study of organisational power and politics until the mid-1980s when it was held that the goal of such research was to enable management to further effectively control employees (Putnam & Pacanowsky, 1983 in Sias, 2008).

Critical theory to organising work was embraced with a different approach. It took a drastic stance on both the organisation and the society. The point of emphasis was the preference of the individual over the organisation. The exploitation and oppression of the individuals was the concern of critical scholars, not the managerial effectiveness of an organisation. Important issues like injustice, marginalisation, power relations and abuses were the focus of critical research (Deetz, 1992; Mumby, 1988 in Sias, 2008).

Language and communication of the organisation processes are the concepts of critical theory. Critical theory conceptualises organisations as socially constructed entities that wield power, domination and control. As individuals construct organisation, they construct a structure of domination that empowers a few and marginalises others (Sias, 2008).

Identification and revelation of the different methods of control, power and domination employed in an organisation are the goals of critical research. Through critical research studies, the power of an organisation is examined by reviewing the relationships among employees' power and meaning (Mumby, 2001). Deetz (2005) spelt out four themes in critical research that attempt to address critical issues (Sias, 2008).

First, reification was a primary concern to critical work. Reification is the way and manner in which individuals in an organisation become naturalised and unquestioned with power, control and domination. In the reification process, critical scholars observe the result of domination power of bureaucratic principles such as hierarchy, rationality and authority (Putnam & Mumby, 1983). Second, another source of concern for critical researchers is the way conflicting

interests are suppressed and managerial interests are universalised (Deetz, 2005). Critical research highlights the unquestioned supremacy of organisational performance goals over individual interests. The questioning of organisational practises and enquiries about whose interests such practises serve is one of critical theory's views, e.g. the introduction of Saturday banking by bank executives with the aim of increasing business, not considering the effect on branch employees (Pearce, 1995). Fourth, matters of consent, authoritarian and bureaucratic styles of management are shaped by obvious and straight control and processes through which individuals consent to the control (Baker, 1993; Thompkins & Cheney, 1985).

These issues are tackled at two basic levels: micro-practices and the macro-level. In micro-practices, the scholars observe control and power according to the social relations in individuals and groups (Mumby, 2000). At the macro-level, the critical scholars are concerned with the revelation of the processes by which character and knowledge are being constructed, replicated, and maintained, and how such functions support the power and political structures in the society (Deetz, 1992).

The approach of critical theory to workplace relationships are framed by a set of concepts and assumptions. Under this approach, workplace relationship is viewed as socially constructed organs that are established in individual interaction. Relationship exists only within the members in relationship, and the nature and quality of relationship depends on the interaction of the relational members. Critical theory conceives relationship not as an instrument of control, power, domination struggle and resistance. In relationships, individual members construct their character, understanding and knowledge of organisational processes, goals and values. The studies done so far on critical workplace relationship leave room for more research areas in the future, for example, how the involvement of workplace relationships constructs and maintains organisational power and domination structures. Critical studies would research in to the processes through which workplace relationship forces like hierarchy in the supervisor-subordinate relationship discriminate in a co-worker relationship (Sias, 2008).

3.6.1.4. *Structuration theory*

Structuration theory was introduced by Anthony Giddens in response to the controversies of post-positivism. In focusing on the fundamental concepts of structuration theory as they affect the research of workplace relationships, there is the need to consider systems, structures, integration of system, and distances in time-space. Structuration theory holds the view that a social system is in existence through the replicated social practices of actors or group of actors

(Giddens, 1984). The system is found and established on these practices through the actions of individuals within a social structure. Structure assumes a dual role of outcome and medium; outcome because the structure is formed and replicated in interaction. It is medium due to the fact that actors draw on structures that have existed before in their actions. Structure involves rules and resources. Rules are contained in the guidelines brought into interactions. Actors use the structure to partake in the practices of the system. The structures enhance the behaviour of individuals (Giddens, 1984 in Sias, 2008).

The concepts of integration and time-space distances are the explanation of how structures assume systematic and institutionalisation. The concepts deal with the ways micro-level practices are moved and adopted by time-space. In constructing institutionalised systems at the macro-level, as structures are established and replicated over time and spaces, orders of relationships at institutions are enacted, coded, celebrated and sealed as context in the structuration of social life (Banks & Riley, 1991 in Sias, 2008).

There are three levels of consciousness acknowledged by structuration theory. First, the discursive level, with is the social practices where individuals express themselves at a conscious level. Second is the practical level, which is the continuous replication of structure and forming of habits. It is a level where it is difficult to put skills and knowledge into words, but they are used in action. Third is the unconscious level, where experiences are difficult to call back to memory, especially common words like ‘hello’, which is used several times daily, but it is difficult to recount how many times they are used (Giddens, 1984: Sias, 2008).

Structuration theory views workplace relationships as enhanced and conscripted by structures that support yet limit the interaction that is needed for a particular relationship, e.g. employees interacting differently with co-workers than with supervisors.

The work of structuration research will be to discover and unravel the structures that permit and conscript various types of workplace relationships, e.g. the need to uncover the structures that govern supervisor-subordinate relationships. Another area of need is to know the processes by which such structure goes beyond time and space, for example, how workplace relationship structures are transported across countries in multi-national organisations.

3.6.2. Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX)

The relationship based perspective to leadership research was developed by Graen, Dansereau and others in 1975 (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975). This

perspective was earlier called “Vertical Dyad Linkage” (VDL) model of leadership (Dansereau, et al., 1975). Later it was developed along two separate dimensions. The first dimension was popularly called Leader-Member Exchange Model (Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982b), and sometimes it was tagged Leadership-making Model (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991). The second dimension of VDL has been presently called “*Individualized Leadership*” (IL) model because of an increase in the studies from the domain.

The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory, since its adoption in 1975, has gone through four stages of development. Each stage builds on the immediate past stage. In stage one, there was a discovery that leaders develop different relationships with their subordinates; which is not the same as the former assumption that leaders displayed consistency towards all subordinates in the workplace, this is called “*Average Leadership style*” (ALS) model. The second focused on the different relationships the leader had within the workplace. The revelation of the network around LMX construct (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) confirmed that most of the research on LMX was conducted with stage two. Stage three was the leadership making model (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991) which shifted attention from leader’s perspective of the subordinate to how the leader may work with each individual to develop a partnership with each individual (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Stage four widens the scope from two people to a larger number of people and organisations, discovering ways that interpersonal relationships are organised within and outside the organisation (Simons, 2013).

The LMX theory has generated a high degree of interest among relationship scholars. Many scholars have expressed reservations regarding how adequate the LMX theory is (Dansereau, Yammarino & Markham, 1995; Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Questions are being generated about the measures of LMX that have been used in the LMX studies (Barge & Schlueter, 1991; Yuki, 1994) and how appropriate the methodologies used for data analysis are (Keller & Dansereau 1995; Schriesheim, Cogliser & Neider, 1995 in Simons, 2013).

Much concern arose because of the fact that the concept of the theory and measurement of the operation of LMX construct evolved from its beginning (Yuki, 1994). The fact is that the development of the LMX theory has been orderly and in sequentially arranged progress, according to Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). Despite the categorisation of the LMX studies, it is not easy to follow the development of the construct from their presentation.

LMX theory contended that leaders develop different relationships with their subordinates via different exchanges that can be called high and low quality (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). When

the quality of relationship is high, the exchanges between the supervisors and subordinates have mutual obligations and trust in a way that permits reciprocation of interaction between the supervisor and subordinates (Graen et al., 1995). By virtue of negotiating the role of subordinates over the years, the subordinates engage in a decision making process that enhances their status as “in-group” members (Liden, Erdogan, Wayne & Sparrowe, 2006). This happens when a subordinate has earned the trust of the supervisor to be able to handle specific tasks, and serve as assistants. The out-going groups include those subordinates that fall within the exchange parameters of role requirements, job descriptions and contract of employment. Such out-going information stems from the supervisor to them unilaterally (Wang, Niu & Luo, 2004).

Leaders in LMX exchange use resources to meet the needs of the subordinates, with the expectation that the subordinate will respond through services. Dienesch and Liden (1986) listed the factors of currencies of exchange as affect, loyalty, contribution and professional respect.

Therefore there is agreement with other scholars that the LMX approach to leadership occurrences has contributed to deepening the understanding of learning and there is room for positive improvement in future studies. From the literature, the levels of the scope of interactions within and between organisations have to be determined in future studies.

3.6.3. Supervisor-subordinate relationships

The characteristics and value of supervisor-subordinate relationship has effects on individuals in the relationship and organisation, sometimes on relationships outside the organisation. The development of useful relationships by supervisors with subordinates means that the supervisor will be informed about issues that are on-going and can receive important feedback from subordinates (Sias, 2008).

Scholarly work on supervisor-subordinate relationship was developed by the introduction of the LMX theory. The theory was centred on the belief that supervisors engage in various forms of relationship with different subordinate employees (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Researchers have sought to know the reasons for the different degrees in the way supervisors relate with subordinates and the processes by which the relationship graduates from stranger, to acquaintance and to maturity status (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). When the relationship is at the stranger level, the nature of the relationship is role taking, where a boundary is drawn and supervisor and subordinate behave according to the dictates of their jobs. With time, either of

them offers an opportunity to take the relationship further. The role taking is intended to transform to role making, where the relationship moves from stranger to acquaintance phase. Growth in the relationship from this level suggests that it has entered into the maturity or role reutilisation phase; where emotions are developed. At the maturity phase, support, mutual trust and respect are displayed for one another.

Also at the maturity stage, the quality of LMX relationship is high. According to Sparrowe and Liden (1997), supervisors and employees who share a constant contact with one another are likely to develop high quality LMX relationships. Scholars have examined the reason why the process of development is impaired, so that most relationships do not reach the maturity phase. The factors that impair the process of development in LMX relationships are race, gender, ability, and personality (Sias, 2008).

3.6.3.1. Ability

According to research studies, an employee's ability to perform tasks assigned affects the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Bauer & Green, 1996; Deluga & Perry, 1994; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). These studies demonstrated that there is a relationship between employee's performance and the LMX. The studies noted that employees that had better performance enjoy high quality LMX relationships with their supervisors. Employees exchange good performance for good relationships with their superior officers. Studies also indicated that the ability of the performance of the supervisor has an effect on the quality of relationship. Bauer and Green (1996) found that the supervisor's ability to delegate was enhanced by the LMX quality. Coglisier and Schriesheim (2000) were of the view that the supervisor's ability to use power was also linked with the LMX relationship quality. The powers of the supervisor are: expert power (for example, the ability to demonstrate skill and knowledge to assist and train employees), and referent power (for example, the perceived competency of the supervisor), and these were deemed to be positively linked with the LMX quality. As opposed to the assertions above, coercive power (which is demonstrated through discipline and punishment) was negatively linked with LMX quality. Former and Aguinis (2005) discovered that the more power the subordinate perceived the supervisor had, the higher the quality of their LMX (Sias, 2008).

3.6.3.2. Personality

It is important to examine the degree to which supervisors' and subordinates' personality affects the worth of their relationships. Kinicki and Vecchio (1994) suggested that employees

that have internal location of control were likely to grow high quality relationships with their supervisors. Porter, Wench and Hoskinson (2007) discovered that a supervisor's disposition was associated to the way employees perceive the approach to the supervisor.

Finkelstein, Protolipac and Kulas (2000) indirectly suggested the authority of a subordinate employee is negatively linked to LMX quality. In examining the extent to which employees are involved in role activities with their supervisors, that is, social activities outside work, they discovered that the more authority the supervisors exhibit, the less regularly the employees involve themselves in extra role activities with their supervisors. Knowing that one of the features of in-group high quality LMX relationships is to negotiate and change the role, therefore authoritative personalities of supervisors makes subordinate employees uncomfortable, particularly outside the prescribed work environment. Finkelstein, Poteet & Allen, (2007) suggested that subordinate employees with authority are not likely to move to the acquaintance stage of LMX easily, because they are not likely to be comfortable accepting the superior's proposition of role change.

Smith and Canger (2004) undertook a study to discover the link between supervisor's personality and supervisor-subordinate relations. They examined the degree to which agreeableness, openness, extraversion, emotional stability, and conscientiousness are linked with a subordinate's satisfaction with their supervisor. The results obtained by Smith et al (2004) was that the more agreeable, open, extroverted, and emotionally stable the supervisor, the more satisfied subordinate employees were with the supervisor. At the same time, the less conscientious the supervisor, the more satisfied the subordinate was with the supervisor. Therefore regarding the association between emotional stability, agreeableness and extraversion to satisfying the supervisor, it was observed that the employees have preference for cool and calm supervisors. An unproductive supervisor is represented by negative relationship between conscientiousness and satisfaction (Chemers, 2014).

3.6.3.3. *Communication*

Relational development is conceived by communication scholars as a process of communication. Gail Fairhurst and Murray Chandler proposed that supervisor-subordinate relationships in usual conversations are socially constructed. The nature of different conversations frames different relationships. From studies, it was observed that communication in which supervisor-subordinate reduced power distance by the use of a communication pattern like non-routine problem solving, insider talk and value convergence, determines high quality

relationships. The conversation that bordered on value distance between supervisor and subordinate using communication patterns like monitoring, competitive conflicts, performance, acts, and face-threatening, determines low quality relationships (Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989). Yrle, Hartman, and Galle (2003) tested the manner in which communication patterns create differences between forms LMX. They observed that coordination and participation were patterns of communication which were linked positively with LMX quality. Coordination is the degree to which superior officers coordinate activities with subordinates in a dual way, not one direction; participation is the degree to which managers invite subordinates to participate in decision making (Simons, 2013). These manners of communication are in line with those proposed by Fairhurst (1993).

Individuals maintain stability in their supervisor-subordinate relationships as they communicate. The quality of supervisor-subordinate relationships determines the strategy to be adopted (Nandedkar & Midla, 2014). Generally, in-group employees adopt personal and direct communication to maintain their supervisor-subordinate relationships; out-group employees use “*regulative*” tactics, for example, avoiding discussing problems, and talking at a superficial level (Lee & Jablin, 1995; Waldron, 1991).

In recognising the need to increase and accelerate reliance on computer mediated communication, Huang (2002) noted the way an employee’s LMX quality is linked with the use of email as a means of communication between supervisors and subordinates. Inference was that there is a positive relation between the aggregates of times subordinate employees communicate with their supervisors by email (Petrie, 2015).

3.6.3.4. *Similarity and dissimilarity*

Most research on supervisor-subordinate relationships has been focused on individual level of analysis. Many scholars have studied the nature of supervisor-subordinate relationships by studying the degree to which similarity and dissimilarity between the supervisor and the subordinate on many factors or working conditions are associated to the quality of relationship. Eagle and Lord (1997) studied the degree to which similarity in attitude between supervisors and subordinates predict the quality of relationships. They also studied the agreement between supervisors and subordinates with respect to leadership qualities like intelligence and cooperativeness.

With respect to performance, the study included the degree to which they agree with subordinate performance criteria such as hard work, honesty, and reliability. They discovered

that agreement on these factors was positively linked with the LMX relationship quality through mediating effect of liking. Meaning that the more similar the supervisors and subordinates were in their attitudes towards social issues, the more similar they were in their response to leader and employee relationship quality. They also discovered that the more the supervisor and the subordinate were in agreement about subordinate performance criteria, the more the supervisors were favourably disposed to the employee.

Therefore their study supports the notion that supervisors like employees who have similar attitudes to them, and liking is an important predictor of LMX relationship quality. The agreement regarding employee performance criteria was more important than leader quality in predicting liking and LMX quality. The discovery above provides a better support for the earlier statement made that the role of employee performance was important in LMX relationship dynamics.

Research has shown that dissimilarity between the personality traits of supervisors and subordinates can facilitate relationships positively. In their study, Allinson, Armstrong and Hayes (2001), focused originally on similarity, and studied the degree to which similar cognitive style between supervisors and subordinates was linked with supremacy and nurturing. Cognitive style is an individual's chosen way of forming and handling information. There are two cognitive styles namely, "*Analytic employee*", which means to be "*compliant, prefer a structured approach to decision making, apply systematic methods of investigation, and be especially comfortable when handling problems requiring a step by step solution*", "*intuitive employee*" and "*relatively non-conformist*", which suggests that the individual chooses a fast, open-ended approach to making decisions, as well as relies on arbitrary methods of examination, and performs maximally on problems favouring an all-inclusive approach (Allinson et al., 2001). Their (Allison et al., 2001) study had a firm root in the similarity approach, and predicted that the more agreeable the supervisors' and employees' personalities are along these dimensions, the higher their relationship qualities. This is indicated by fondness and respect shown to one another and the frequency of communication with each other. It was found that the more dissimilar the workers are regarding personality traits, the more positive the outcomes. It was also discovered that the more intuitive the supervisor was than the employee, the more the employees liked and respected the supervisor.

Recent studies have shown that individual personality is linked with higher supervisor-subordinate relationship quality. Glomb and Welsh (2005) studied personality agreement

between supervisor and subordinate with respect to the 'control' personality traits; that is the degree to which an individual is passive and submissive or competitive and controlling. It was discovered that the more 'controlling' (according to the measurement by personality tests) the supervisor was than the employee, the more satisfied that employee was with the supervisor. The reason given for this was the authoritarian and hierarchical nature of supervisor-subordinate relationship; the expectation of the employees was that their supervisors will be more assertive through control, and the more controlling they are, the more satisfied when the expectations are met (Jain, 2015).

The sum of these is that supervisor-subordinate similarity as measured by performance, competence and working condition is positively linked with the quality of relationship. Dissimilarity, with regard to personality traits, is able to provide positive relational outcomes.

3.7 SUMMARY

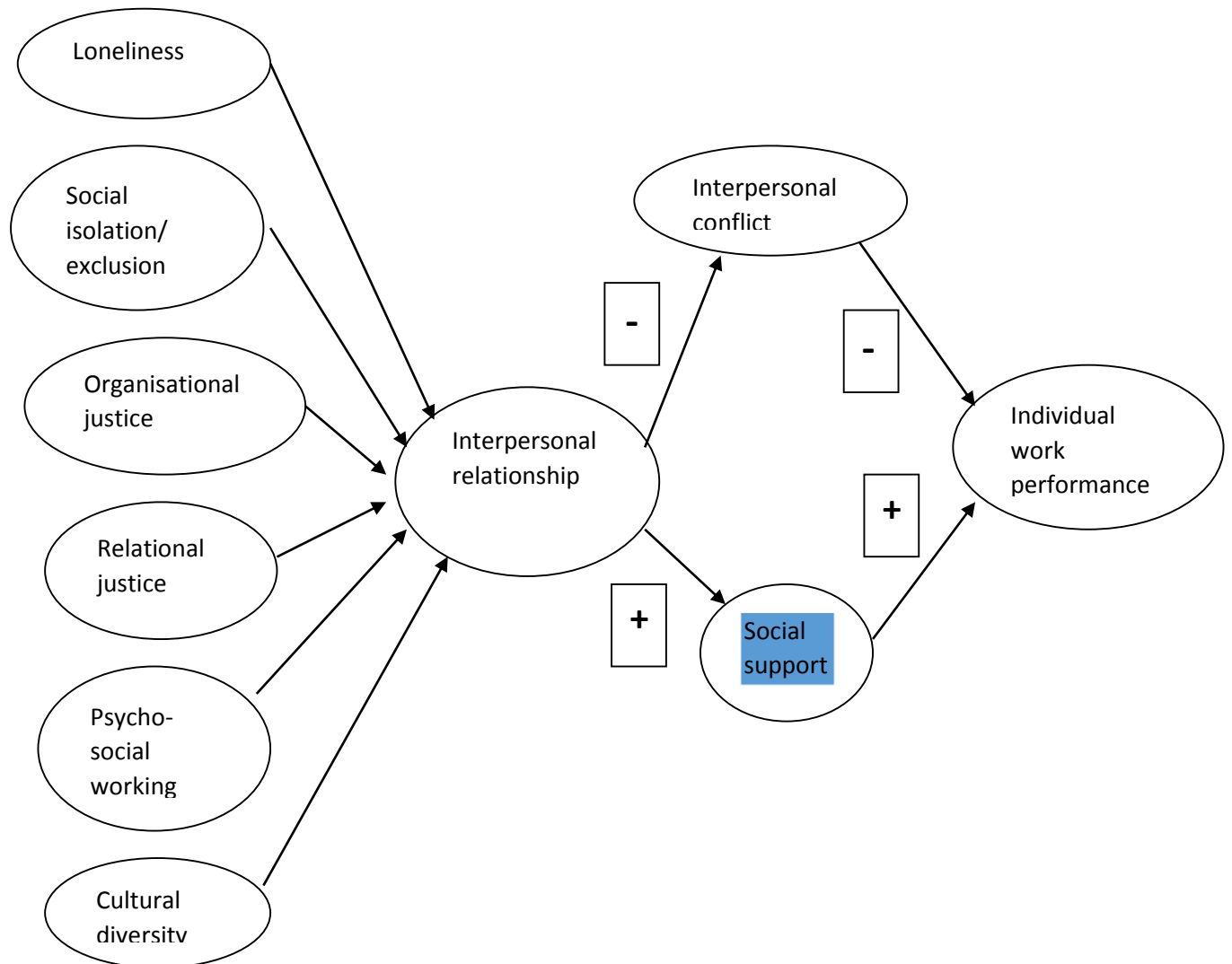
This chapter acknowledged the contribution of different scholars and their efforts to define the concept of interpersonal relationship. The science of relationship paved the way for the future approach to relationships when attention was called away from a traditional approach to the human interactions between two or more individuals. The dimensions of interpersonal relationship were given a perspective when Deutsch (2011) revisited it as the way to measure the presence of interpersonal relationship. This chapter explained the different organisational factors that affect interpersonal relationships, which may likely affect individuals too. The study is at this stage not suspicious of a particular cultural background for the employees of the South African retail industry, but the Chinese background serves as a base from where to draw knowledge.

The study explored the management of workplace relationships as a base for which decisions will later be made as the study progresses. The central theory in this chapter is the LMX theory, which will be applied in subsequent chapter as determinants of interpersonal relationship between supervisors and subordinates in the workplace.

The next chapter will introduce social support, the independent variable that is hypothesised to have a positive influence on interpersonal relationships, and thus work per

CHAPTER 4: SOCIAL SUPPORT

Figure 4.1 Conceptual framework guiding the study



4.1 INTRODUCTION

Scholars of support have attempted to define the construct across from the different results obtained in the measurements. Historically, various disciplines took interest in social support and this in effect was the reason for many definitions. Earlier researchers measured support from social relationships through frequent contact. Subsequent development indicated that social support is a personality variable (Sarason, Pierce & Sarason, 1990).

Three concepts developed from social support focus on the following issues: first, the differences in the influence of individual interpersonal relationships and the way individuals

respond to situations. Second, identification of environmental supportive elements, and the third is, the individual's sense of support (Sarason & Sarason, 2013). The concept is functional and operational in two ways; one is to examine the differences between perceived support and actual received support; two is to determine the types of interpersonal relationships that made support available.

Relational attachment and social integration measures are used in this study to determine whether social relationship exists between two elements or interactional employees (Kaplan, Fredman & Kleinbaum, 1986). Sarason, Levine, Basham and Sarason (1983) developed and designed an instrument for measuring perceived social support. This instrument is adopted for use in this study because it has been proven to be reliable and to have good construct validity. Scores and satisfaction are correlated with the degree of variances to ascertain the connectedness and its influence on performance (Parsons, 2013).

Six provisions of social support in relationships are discussed to highlight the functionality of construct in this study. These provisions are: attachment, social integration, opportunity for nurturing, value reassurance, sense of reliance and guidance (Weiss, 1974). The provisions enumerated above serve as guide for researchers' discoveries and recommendations. The social support functions that are of benefit to individual employees in specific conditions have been outlined (Weiss, 1974). However Sarason et al. (2013) observe that all the conditions may not be engaged simultaneously to assess social support. Moreover, it is necessary to assess the existence of social support. But this study examines the element of interpersonal relationships that make social support available. These elements have been considered in the preceding chapter. Therefore, there is the need to find out whether the element could influence support positively or negatively (Scott, 2012).

4.2. SOCIAL SUPPORT: BACKGROUND

It is possible that different results in the literature of social support could lead to different definitions about the subject across studies or by related measurements (Winemiller, Sutcliff & Cline, 1993). A good example was the study that demonstrated the important effects of family support on depressive symptoms (Sheeber, Hops, Alpert, Davis & Andrews, 1997). Another research work failed to find the important effects of family support on depressive symptoms (Slavin & Rainer, 1990). The first study used multiple measures of the total family environment like elements of cohesion, conflict, and maternal support, and the second study used measure of perceived emotional support. The differences in measurement should be

considered when comparing results from different studies in research and this forms the basis for defining social support (Lin, Dean, & Ensel, 2013).

4.2.1. History of social support

Cooley (1909) came up with the concept of primary group. Durkheim (1951) developed the idea of anomie; Bowlby (1969) had ideas on attachment, and Rogers (1942) developed the concept of therapeutic process. Likert (1961) focused on support as the centre of the supervisory process. All above are contributors to present day thought on the subject of social support.

The first observation of these psychologists was that support (which is the existence of social network or confidant) prevented illness, reduced birth complications, and speeded recovery (Nuckells, Cassel & Kaplan, 1972). Administering emotional support by health personnel was discovered to be of benefit to health in several studies (Auerbach & Kilmann, 1977; Whitcher & Fisher, 1979). Other medical research made data available to the effect of supportive relationships on mortality (House, Robbins & Metzner, 1982).

From the history, many disciplines became interested in the subject of social support. The multi-disciplinary interests gave rise to different definitions on social support and each definition reflects different viewpoints. Early researchers in the field of social support utilise other measures of social relationships like frequent contact with friends and relations, the number of such relationships, memberships, and attendance at meetings. Significantly, social support has been shown to be a personality variable (Sarason, Pierce & Sarason, 1990). This added flavour to the study of social support as a concept applicable to individuals (Spielberger, 2013).

4.2.2. Social support and health

Social support, according to Kim, Sherman and Taylor (2008), is defined as “*information gathered from others perceived as love and care, esteem and valued and part of a network of communication and mutual obligations* (Seaman, 1996)”. The support may come from a spouse or companion, relations, friends, co-workers and people within a community. social support is effective in reducing psychological distress, like depression or anxiety, at the times of stress (Fleming, Baum, Gisriel & Gatchel, 1982), it is also linked with many physical health advantages, like positive adjustment to coronary heart disease, diabetes, lung disease, cardiac disease, arthritis, and cancer (Stone, Mezzacappa, Donatone & Gonder, 1999). Social support may assist in reducing the likelihood of illness, catalyse in speeding recovery from illness when

sickness occurs, and helps reduce the risk of mortality from serious disease (House, Landis & Umberson, 1988). At the same time, lack of social support when an individual is under stress can be stress inducing (Schwarzer, 2014), especially for individuals in need of social support and who are not able to get it, for example, elderly, and victims of sudden unforeseen life events (Sorkin, Rook & Lu, 2002).

4.3 THE CONCEPTS AND THEORY OF SOCIAL SUPPORT

Studies on social support have attended to three notable issues which include: first, the notion of differences in interpersonal relationship influence on how individuals respond to various types of situations; the second is to identify supportive elements of the environment; and third is the individual's sense of being supported. There are three aspects of social support (Sarason et al., 1990); one is the assessment of social support and relating it to important outcomes. Two, is relationship of assessed social support to behaviour in social interactions. Three, is the relative contributions to many outcomes of global and relationship specific support (Spielberger, 2013).

The concept and operations of social support concerns the functions of social support, the difference between perception of social support available and actual received social support, and the types of interpersonal relationships that provide support. Bowlby (1980) proposed a theory of social support, where he made reference to available trusted and responsive others as attachment figures. Attachment figures provide social support in behaviours that are expressed such as affection, love, and care and instrument assistance like help and money. The attachment employees provide a base for personal development ability (sense of coherence) in children to accept help from others. When there are no attachment figures, the tendency of psychopathology increases. Attachment figures help the individual's capacity to stand and overcome frustrations and problem solving challenges (Spielberger, et al, 2013).

Barrera, Sandler and Ramsay (1982) assessed how frequently people receive supportive actions. Henderson (1980) assessed how many people are available and adequate to count on for help in problem solving and also for social integration. All the assessments above are summarised into what Weiss (1974) called the six dimensions of social support which are: intimacy, social integration, nurturance, worth, alliance and guidance.

4.3.1. Social integration measures (existence of social relationships)

According to Sarason et al. (1990), questions asked in epidemiological surveys are likely to include certain relational aspects of the respondents' social network, which can be called social network index, but in real terms they are not a social network measure as such. In social integration measures, when the questions are used as a single scale, it becomes easy and useful for researchers, because the questions are few. This can be easily adapted to interview formats. The measure was proven to be useful in large study populations, but problematic with smaller studies (Kaplan, Fredman & Kleinbaum, 1986).

Sarason et al. (1990) further revealed that one major difficulty in using the social integration measure is its unreliability because of the smallness of the items, and the fact the scale lacks internal consistency. Since the proof of social integration is the existence of relationships, it was mentioned that the fact that a relationship exists does not necessarily mean that the relationships will be supported. Even if a supportive relationship exists, conflict in that relationship can overwhelm the impact of the support behaviourally (Caldwell, 2014; Coyne & DeLongis, 1986).

4.3.2. Social Support Questionnaire for this study (SSQ)

An authentic research on social support demand sounds psychometric, based on validating the indices. The Social Support Questionnaire (SSQ) for 1983, by Sarason, Levine, Basham and Sarason (1983), identifies the development of instruments designed to assess perceived social support; it was reliable and has a good construct validity. It consists of twenty seven items including, *“who can you count on to help you if you had just been fired from your job or expelled from school.”* The SSQ responds to two scores, one, measures the number of available employees (individuals) that a person can turn to at the time of need (number of perceived availability score), and the second measures satisfaction with the support perceived to be provided (satisfaction score). Both are presented on a five point Likert scale from very satisfied, to very dissatisfied. The SSQ takes about 10 minutes to administer, it has been proven to have a good internal consistency and test-retest reliability.

The SSQ was derived from factor analysis of a large number of items intended to measure the functions served by social networks. The factor analysis of the two SSQ scores will show number and satisfaction of different units of dimensions. A large number of data sets will show moderate correlation between two elements. The range of correlations is usually between 30 and 40 percent. Scores on number and satisfaction will be negatively related to individual

performance. The correlation of the SSQ will be measured with the tendency to experience the variables of performance. The SSQ will be compared with the open-ended questions designed to assess social support relationships (Sarason, Pierce & Sarason, 2013).

4.3.3. Social networks

The social support that focused on interpersonal links has raised concern about the structure of individuals' social networks, the size and correlates. Researchers on social networks have assumed that the structure of a social network, for example, the volume of interconnectedness of network members, affects the social interactions of network of members. This probably might be the reason for differences in the patterns of social interactions that fashion different support networks. Measurement of network, size, and availability of support, or adequacy of support, has been shown to be weak in association (Seeman & Berkman, 1988). This may be due to the fact that the size of the network or the size of the group of network members to which an individual feels related can indicate the measure of support that the individual can receive. The presence of social network is the measurement of the importance in studying the relationship of social support to those who depend on the measures (Spielberger & Sarason, 2013).

Sarason, Sarason, & Pierce, (1990) observed that the network tools that are used frequently are those that relate to either individuals who have direct personal connections or those with whom they have important links that provide the individual with the needed support at a point in time. They further illustrated that network measures appear to differ from other categories of measures. The differences have been noted to be: one, specific questions asked; two, specific networks are targeted; three, specific components to be measured (O'Reilly, 1988).

The measurement of network size and availability of support were shown to be weakly related (Seeman & Berkman, 1988). It may be due to the fact that the network size and the size of the group of network members that an individual feels attracted to can show the measure of actual support the individual receives (Stokes & Wilson, 1984). The measurement of network size and satisfaction are not exclusive to the traditional network format and they are easily obtainable by approaches that are less intensive such as the use of a questionnaire (Denscombe, 2014).

One exceptional characteristic of the network approach is the assessment of the network's concentration (density), that is, the degree of mutual relationship among individuals. Research work over time has proven that it is time consuming to acquire, it is not a productive way of

linking social support to adjustment or potential outcomes (Hirsch, 1980; Gallo, 1982; Harrison, 1985).

According to Sarason et al. (1990), the conventional network measures have not demonstrated their worth in the field of social support when relating the support to health outcomes. The format for the measurement does not have an intrinsic appeal, although knowledge of the outcome variables that are exceptional to the network measures may be of value in developing a theoretical model, if the specific features of the stressors are studied to the population under study and the relationship to social support may be established.

4.4. FUNCTIONS OF SOCIAL SUPPORT

Research work that is interested in social support functions have outlined the aspects that are of benefit to individuals in specific types of stressful conditions. Weiss (1974) forwarded six specific provisions of social relationships namely: attachment, social integration, opportunity for nurturance, reassurance of worth, sense of reliable reliance and guidance. In their theory, Cohen and Wells (1985) said that cushioning the effect of social support serves to protect those who might be vulnerable to the effects of stress, which function between the specific need manifested by the stressors and the type of support given. According to Spielberger and Sarason (2013), the issue with the instruments of measuring specific functions of support is that the scales tend to have high correlations. The correlations between the functions are high in scale reliabilities. Many researchers have indicated their dissatisfaction with the functional approach to social support. This study will consider four basic supports as mentioned below.

4.4.1. Sense of support

Sarason et al. (1990) suggested that the one distinct measure of perceived social support is the controversy of whether to divide social support into various functions and assess how available each component of support can be, or viewing social support from a general factor, which is called sense of support. They further explained that the growth of a stable feature that links perceived support and propensity of behaviour interpretation as supportive is called by them, a sense of social support. The sense is the result of the personality development that emanates from such experiences (King, 2015).

4.4.2. Sense of acceptance

The sense of acceptance is derived from decisions about self that relate to but are not mentioned in the sense of support. It is the belief of an individual that others accept them for their

personality, including their best and worst dispositions; such a person is energised when they observe that others are willing to support them (Spielberger & Sarason, 2013). The sense of acceptance is also an aspect of coherent personality, that is, constellation that promotes effective coping with demands and challenges, and enhances the ability to receive social opportunities (Hayes, Levin, Plumb-Villardaga & Villate, 2013). It is necessary in the growth of personality because it begins with a chain of activities that contribute to the growth of competencies, which makes individuals stand in a good position to deal with situations in a task oriented manner. When the sense of acceptance is high, stress experiences are likely to reduce (Asai & Kato, 2014).

4.4.3. Perceived support

The contributions that relate to adjustment are an important issue that concerns perceived support available and the support received. Information that relates to actual support received is obtained from self-report of the receiver of support; through recipient's personal account of what the individual regards as helpful. The agreement between the givers and recipients on the support given is important when using the information from the actual recipient of support. This information may only be considered averagely not in totality (Antonucci & Israel, 1986). It might not be right to view this finding as invalid regarding the actual received support measure. Rather, the result may be valuable when compared with how the recipients evaluate the support and the objective structures of supportive transactions. This was derived when the recipient's evaluation of support was not the same with the reports suggested by other variables. Two elements involved here are: objective properties of supportive interactions and the respondent's interpretation of the interactions.

The importance of perceived support suggests the need to give consideration to intra-interpersonal contexts in which support is made available (Sarason, Pierce & Sarason, 1990). Intra-personal context focuses on personal perceptions of social relationships, e.g. recognition of internal representation of self, important others and the nature of interpersonal relationships that affect perceptions of social support. The interpersonal contexts are the transactional quality of relationships, e.g. the extent to which conflict occurs. Perceived support instruments often seek to find out about how adequate and available support is. They tend to be only moderately inter-correlated, the correlations are higher than those measured based on other definitions, and e.g. those derived from the network or received support concepts (Lin, Dean, & Ensel, 2013).

4.4.4. Received support

The study of received support has focused on what individuals get from others. Social support is conceptualised as “the specific acts of others that can be seen as either enacted support (Tardy, 1985), where attention is on the actions performed by others to help an individual.” It is received support where the attention is on the receiver’s account of what the individual noted as something coming from other people that was helpful or intends to assist him or her.

Sarason et al. (1990) noted that an important issue about the two definitions above is that they yield different reports. Studies on the diverse support by the giver and the receiver have been discovered to have a moderate level of agreement when specific support was measured. The result was a level of between 50 to 60 percent (Antonucci & Israel, 1986; Shulman, 1976). Investigations on the study of received and given supports that were paired together had disagreements in reporting. The inconsistencies are in the giver’s report when they claim to give more than the report of the receivers. The perception of those who reciprocated was discovered to be a better predictor of wellbeing than the actual support exchanged (Ingersoll-Dayton & Antonucci, 1983). It is necessary to determine the aspects of the individual and the environment that impacts the perceptions in order to know which theory to engage with.

Data on support that is given by others is collected from the self-report of the receiver. The term ‘received report’ is appropriate to data availability (Sarason et al., 1990).

In assessing the overall structure of a measure of received support, the inventory of social supportive behaviour (ISSB) (Barrera, Sandler & Ramsey, 1981) and a measure of perceived support available by the SSQ 1 (Sarason, Levine, Basham & Sarason, 1983), discovered that the measures were different and isolated. The results indicated that if the measures of support received were derived from the reports of what the receiver perceived they have been given by others, it is distinct from the perception of the available had they wished or needed it (McCormick, Siegert & Walkey, 1987).

Sarason et al. (1990) discovered a snag with the received support, that is, understanding the implications of received support as a factor in promoting health, in that supportive behaviour received by an individual is a function of who is available for support and the perceptions of others about the individual’s need for assistance and support (Uchino, 2009). The implication of this is that received support represents an image of confounded support available, the coping skills of the individual and the extent of severity of life stress that the individual is perceived by others to be experiencing at a point in time (Thoits, 2011, 1982).

It seems evidently clear from examination of different studies that received support has precise implications that are not related to other aspects of social support measurement. Inconsistencies and failures in the use of received support might be traceable to different findings using the measures of received support (Thoits, 2011).

4.5. WORKPLACE SOCIAL SUPPORT

The concept of work place social support has its roots in the wider social support literature. It is perceived from different dimensions of meaning that fluctuates according to different individual researchers. Cobb (1976) defined social support as the belief that an individual is loved, valued and that the wellbeing of the individual is considered as part of a social network of mutual obligation. Other researchers viewed social support as comprising perceptions that an individual has to access helpful relations of different quality or strength, which makes available resources such as communication of information, emotional empathy, or tangible assistance (Grabner-Krauter, 2009; Viswesvaran, Sanchez & Fisher, 1999).

The view of this study is that both ideas defined above are all encompassing as they carry with them all the characteristics of different dimensions of social support. The assumption is that social support is a critical job resource that makes the demand for which support is given to be integrated positively. Workplace social support is the extent to which individuals perceive that their wellbeing is valued by their workplace sources, for example, supervisors and their employers (Ford et al., 2007), and the perception that these sources that are identified will provide help to support this wellbeing.

Workplace social support is derived from: 1) multiple sources such as supervisors, co-workers and organisations; and 2) different types of support that are general to the content or specific to the content. General work support is the extent to which employees perceive that supervisors or employers care about their general wellbeing on the job through providing positive social interaction resources. Specific content support is perceptions of care and the provision of resources to reinforce a particular type of role demand (Baranik, Rolling & Eby, 2010).

4.5.1. Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and perceived organisational support

Most research work on LMX has studied the relationship among the LMX member attitudes and behaviours. The researchers showed that high quality LMX leaders make available tangible and intangible resources to members (Liden, Sparrowe & Wayne, 1977), which can lead to higher job satisfaction (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The subordinate's way of repaying the benefits

is through high performance and exercising behaviour that will benefit the leader, like citizenship behaviours (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman & Taylor, 2000).

Two limitations were identified with this line of research. The first is that examined researches that focus on communication have assumed that leaders have the same potential to make available benefits to subordinates. It was noted that leaders have exchanges with those more highly placed than them in the organisation in addition to their exchanges with subordinates. Leaders are likely to have fewer or greater resources to offer to subordinates, it depends on the quality of exchange they have with those above them in ranks. LMX is based on social exchange theory which predicts that an individual may receive resources from a relationship and give them to a different individual in another relationship (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 2001). To understand what happens in a LMX, it is better to widen perspectives to include leader upward exchanges with their own superiors (Cashman, Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1976). The second limitation is that LMX literature was criticised for paying limited attention to moderators (Erdogan & Liden, 2002); whether all LMXs have equal satisfaction, or that all members reciprocate high LMX with high performance (Kraimer, Seibert, & Astrove, 2015).

According to Erdogan and Liden (2002), supervisors' exchanges with the organisation will increase the benefits that employees will derive from LMX that will lead to stronger relationships between LMX and the satisfaction of subordinates. The benefits of higher LMX member will enhance the motivation to reciprocate by strengthening the association between LMX and performance. Assuming the supervisors hold the linking pin or point of connection between the subordinates and the organisation, their exchange will be important because of LMXs. The exchange between the supervisor and the organisation can be conceptualised by using the perceived organisational support (POS). THE POS refers to the extent to which the individuals believe that the organisation cares, provides and values them with available help and support. The LMX is involved with the exchanges with the leaders, and the POS indicates the exchanges with the organisation (Masterson et al., 2000).

According to Erdogan and Liden (2007), three contributions are imminent by studying the supervisor's POS as a moderator of the relationship between the LMX, satisfaction and performance. One, examination of different levels of exchange and interconnections enriches the literature of LMX. Studying the interconnections among exchanges is an imperative step forward as noted by research in the past (Sias, 1996; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). Two, the number of studies examining the moderators of LMX are small as at 2006 (Bauer, Erdogan,

Liden & Wayne, 2006; Kacmar, Witt, Zivuska & Gully, 2003). Research that focused on job satisfaction and performance as outcomes which are studied frequently as LMX outcomes (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Gerstner and Day concluded their study that LMX-job satisfaction and LMX-performance relationships were different, therefore there was a need for research on moderators. Three, studying the implications of supervisors' POS for subordinates is a contribution to research (Erdogan & Liden, 2007).

4.5.2. Leader-Member Exchange, job satisfaction, and job performance

There is a consistency with the LMX literature that is, the positive relationship with job satisfaction (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The assumption was that high LMX relationships make available tangible and intangible benefits to members. The tangible benefits are decision influence (Scandura, Graen & Novak, 1986), empowerment (Liden, Wayne & Sparrowe, 2000), career advancement (Wakabayashi, Graen, Graen & Graen, 1988), and salary progress (Wayne, Liden, Kraimer & Graf, 1999).

The intangible benefits are: communication with leaders (Hofmann & Morgeson, 1999; Yrle, Hartman & Galle, 2002) and having a trust-based relationship (Bauer & Green, 1996). Both the tangible and intangible benefits create a positive environment for members, leading to higher job satisfaction (Wang & Chen, 2005). From the social exchange theory, the observation of the members that receive support, trust and benefits from their leaders is that they develop obligation to reciprocate with their leaders by the demonstration of high performance.

4.5.3. General supervisor support

The suggestion of social support research was that individuals have a set of general expectations and attributions of their close relationships that show their ideas about the availability and forthcomingness of individuals' likelihood within social environment.

This is the general expression of concern of the supervisor (emotional support) or tangible assistance (instrumental support) that is intended to develop the wellbeing of the subordinate (House, 1981). The focus of general supervisor support is on personal effectiveness of the subordinate at work.

Person-specific expectations and attributions are not general perceptions of support available. The development of expectations and attributions of individuals' beliefs in the availability of social support in specific relationships is called person-specific perception of social support. Both the general and relationship-based perceptions of support play vital roles in personal

adjustment. Pierce, Sarason and Sarason (1991) related the measures of general and relationship-based perceptions to personal adjustment. They discovered that perceived available support from specific relationships added to the prediction of loneliness, after taking into account the assistance made by general perceived available support. Further, they summed up their findings that an independent relationship exists between relationship-specific perceptions of available support and loneliness (Pierce et al., 2013; 1991).

4.5.4. Supervisor and organizational support

Employees have developed a general belief about the degree to which the organisation values their inputs and cares for their wellbeing. The opinion of the employees that an organisation has a favourable or unfavourable orientation towards them is nurtured by their assignment of humanlike characteristics to the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 1986). It was observed that employees have the tendency to view the organisation as a living entity because it is responsible for the actions of its agents, enacts policies and norms that makes available the perpetuity of the organisation and the behavioural roles, power dominion on individual employees through its agents (Shanock, 2006).

Organisational support theory considers the growth, characteristics and outcomes of perceived organisational support (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). According to the theory, employees grow perceived organisational support to meet socio-emotional needs and to determine the organisation's readiness to reward increased efforts made on its behalf (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The theory of social exchange maintains that based on the norm of reciprocity, workers trade effort and dedication to their organisation for such tangible reward as pay and fringe benefits, and such socio-emotional benefits as esteem, approval, and caring (Eisenberger, 1986).

Resources that contribute to perceived organisational support are made available to groups of employees, e.g. payment across the board, staff increments, and sick leave policies (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Supervisors have the tendency to play a broader role in individualised treatments with subordinates such as informal feedback about job performance and the determination of merit pay to employees. Supervisors act as agents of the organisation in directing and evaluating employees; the subordinates tend to attribute the support of such treatment to the organisation and not to the person of the supervisor. As a result, the perception of supervisor's support has a strong impact on the subordinates' perceived organisational support. Eisenberger, Vandenberghe, Sucharski and Rhoades (2002) discovered through the

use of longitudinal panel design that employees in the retail industry's perception that their supervisor valued their contributions and cared for their wellbeing) was related positively to the employees' changes in perceived organisational support over a given period of time (Rhoades et al., 2001).

The perceived supervisor support precursors the subordinates' perceived organisational support in term of roles. There has not been much written on the theoretical or empirical consideration of factors that lead supervisors to treat subordinates supportively. Consequently, Shanock (2006) was of the opinion that there is a possibility that a supervisor's perceptions supported by the organisation may lead to treating the subordinates supportively, with positive results for subordinates' PSS and performance (Shanock, 2006).

4.5.5. Supervisors' perceived organisation support and subordinates' supervisor support

Both the managerial employees and the lower level employees have embraced the growth of perceptions of organisational support (Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). The organisational support theory postulates that perceived organisational support leads to a felt obligation to help the organisation reach its objectives, plus the participation in extra-role behaviours like helping other employees (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Eisenberger et al. (2001) discovered that employees working in the postal office felt obliged to the organisation, this mediated a positive relationship between perceived organisational support and extra-role behaviour as helping co-workers and the supervisor. By assisting other employees carry out their jobs effectively, it will lead the organisation to a greater level of productivity (Bell & Mengue, 2002), and positive relationship between perceived organisational support and extra-role behaviour for managerial level employees and lower level employees. The managers with high POS were more likely to assist other employees who had been absent, offer orientation to new employees on their jobs, assist others with increased workload, and help others in their duties. The study by Wayne et al. (1997) made available preliminary evidence that managerial level employees and lower level employees reciprocated POS with extra-role behaviour that benefits the organisation by assisting others to better carry out their jobs (Eisenberger, Shoss & Kragoniar, 2014).

Towing the line of organisational support theory, Masterson (2001) analysed social exchange in organisations as the obligation of employees to repay positive treatment offered by the organisation. According to Masterson, where service employees are involved who perceived that the organisation treated them fairly, they responded by treating customers well. Bell and

Mongue (2002) indicated that service employees with high POS were rated by their customers as being more attentive, courteous and concerned with the customers' best interests than employees with low POS. Tepper and Taylor (2003), being specific about the relationship between supervisors and their subordinates in their argument, said supervisors who perceived they were treated fairly by the organisation could reciprocate by treating subordinates more favourably. In their report, supervisors' perception that they received fair treatment from the organisation was positively related to their subordinates' ratings of extra-behaviours exhibited by their supervisors, even when difficult assignments were added, indicating respect and help in skill building.

The development in social support mentioned above agrees with the implication of organisational support theory that supervisors who experience POS would feel the obligation to repay their employers and suggests that such obligation will lead to increased support of other employees (Lieberman, 2009). The organisational support theory did not consider provision of support to subordinates as a possible means for supervisors to reciprocate POS. The models of Masterson (2001), Tepper and Taylor (2003), suggested the need for expansion of perceived organisational support's consequences to include supportive actions toward others not previously considered relevant, like subordinates (Shanock, 2006).

4.6 SOCIAL SUPPORT AND CULTURE

An important contribution to cultural psychology is the understanding that there are cultural differences in the way individuals view self and others in relationships. In the United States where individual culture is practiced (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), the predominant model of the self-view is that self is independent. Persons are regarded as keeping a set of attributes on which actions are based when personal beliefs are to be expressed and personal goals are to be achieved (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Individuals are free to make their own decisions voluntarily. Relationships are viewed from the point of independence; they are perceived to be freely chosen and require few obligations (Adam & Plaut, 2003). In collectivist cultures such as in Asia and Africa, the model of the self-view predominantly views self as interdependent; it regards an individual as a flexible, relational entity who is bound to others, and considers group goals as primary, while personal needs, beliefs and goals are considered as secondary (Kitayama & Uchida, 2005). This implies that as the culture is, so are relationships, and in the collectivist culture, relationships take an interdependent form, they are less voluntary and more sacrificial (Adams, 2005). But, South Africa seems to have an interplay of both the collective

and individualist cultures in the workplace. Being a 'rainbow nation', diverse cultures, races and ethnicity could be influencing the way in which interpersonal relationships play-out in the workplace.

The differences in the expectations and norms of culture about the way relationships are coordinated should have an effect on how individuals apply social support, and how effective the seeking of social support and the mode of social support used by individuals. Individuals in the individualistic cultures may request social support with little caution, and the assumption is that people should be proactive to follow after their wellbeing, and others have the freedom to make the choice to assist according to their willingness. On the other hand, individuals in collective culture may be more cautious about alerting others with their personal issues for the purpose of seeking assistance. They share the assumption that individuals should not increase the burden on their social networks and that other people share a similar sense of social obligation. Kim, Sherman, and Taylor (2008) examined the use of social support among Asian American and European American cultures, the cultures where differences in the models of self and relationship were well recorded (Kim, Sherman, & Taylor, 2008). This study examines the interplay of interpersonal relationships on work performance in the South African retail sector.

4.6.1. Cultural differences in social support

In a series of studies that compare the differences in the Asian American and European American cultures and social support (Sasaki & Kim, 2008; Hashimoto, Imada & Kitayama, 2007), the studies have reliably shown cultural differences in individual's voluntary use of social support for dealing with stressors. In an earlier research, Taylor et al. (2004) used both open-ended and close-ended methods to demonstrate that Asian Americans reported using social support to help them cope with stress better than European Americans.

The studies that examined cultural differences widely in stressful situations, involved community samples of European American and Asian Americans (Sasaki & Kim, 2008) comparing different generations of Asian Americans (Chu, Kim & Sherman, 2008), and between European American and Japanese (Hashimoto et al., 2007). Stressors and samples that line up with patterns have been considered. Specifically, first generation Asian Americans, that is, those who were Asian born, viewed seekers of social support negatively. Evaluation of individuals seeking social support predicted that the degree to which they reported using social support to cope with their stressors was such that the more negatively the social support seeker

was evaluated, the less inclined the evaluator was to support seeker (Yamagishi, Hashimoto & Cook, 2012).

Asians and Asian Americans are clearly cultural groups with different experiences, they share similar cultural heritage; and the argument was that shared cultural experiences cause the tendency not to seek social support. The discovery from many cross-national studies supported this cultural explanation. The same line of result was discovered with Koreans (H.S. Kim et al., 2008), and with Japanese (Hashimoto et al., 2007).

Two studies that avail clear evidence that the extent of exposure to Asian versus American cultures moderates the cultural differences in the use of social support (Chu et al., 2008; Taylor et al., 2004). The studies noted that the role of cultural factors help in fashioning the cultural differences observed. There are reliable cultural differences in the extent to which Asian American and European Americans seek social support (Kim, Sherman & Taylor, 2008). Despite the array of work done elsewhere in Asia and America, there is a scarcity of studies that have examined the influence of culture on interpersonal relationships at work in the African and South African context respectively. South Africa is a multiracial nation and could benefit from such a study.

4.6.2. Explanations for cultural differences in social support

Kim, Sherman and Taylor (2008) brought out three explanations about cultural differences in the use of social support. First, it is assumed that Asians and Asian Americans may not request the use of social support, because more unsolicited supports are available to them than to the European Americans. In Asian cultures, the belief may be that it is not until an individual asks for support before it is made available, rather others should anticipate the needs for support and provide it before the support is sought. Second, it is also assumed that Asians and Asian Americans believe strongly more than the European Americans that an individual's personal issues should be solved independently, because each individual should be responsible for his or her own personal snags. But in the rest of Africa, individuals naturally ask for and receive social support when needed, yet, South African workplace can not be said to be like every other workplace in Africa because of the historical antecedent of the country and its multi-racial nature.

Third, another assumption may be that Asians and Asian Americans are more concerned about the negative results of seeking social support, like disturbing group harmony or being criticised by others. In order to reduce negative relational results, individuals may choose not to disclose

their distress. Kim, Sherman and Taylor (2008) studied to know whether the social support unsolicited concerns that are independent or concerns of relationships would explain the cultural differences in support seeking behaviour. Their expectation was that the basis of analysis of the model of relationships in each culture, and concern for relationships will account for the impact of culture on seeking of social support.

In this context, a study investigating how social support is asked for and received in Africa and particularly South Africa will be beneficial to the body of knowledge. This study examines social support to ascertain if it will predict interpersonal relationships at the South African rail sector.

4.6.3. Forms of social support and culture

Evidence from studies has revealed that individuals from collectivist cultures use less social support than individuals from individualistic cultures. It is necessary to know how individuals from different cultural backgrounds engage in social support, i.e. seeking and receiving of support. By implication then, social networks among Asians and Asian Americans or individuals from collectivist cultures are less supportive, or that Asians and Asian Americans may not benefit from any form of social support. The evidence from studies for the impact of the benefit of social support, i.e. to have a supportive social network and to know that an individual is being cared for by others close by, has a way of cushioning the individuals against stressful events. Many studies on multicultural samples show the benefit of both perceived and received support from others close by (Dunkel-Schetter, Sagrestano, Feldman & Killingsworth, 1996; Morling, Kitayama, & Miyamoto, 2003). It is not impossible that individuals from different cultures have benefited from social support, but there may be cultural differences in the way individuals seek or receive social support from their social networks.

The cultural background of individuals from Asia may use social support to cope with stress in culturally acceptable ways that are different from the Western way of social support transaction that views explicit seeking and receipt. Kim, Sherman and Taylor (2008) proposed that individuals that have Asian cultural backgrounds seek and benefit from those forms of social support that are not risky. Social support that can be utilised without conversing or relating problems may be culturally acceptable for Asians and Asian Americans.

To differentiate between implicit and explicit social support, Taylor, Welch, Kim and Sherman (2007) defined explicit social support as “people’s specific recruitment and use of their social networks in response to specific stressful events that involves the elimination of advice,

instrumental aid, or emotional comfort.” Implicit social support is defined as “*the emotional comfort one can obtain from social networks without disclosing or discussing one’s problems vis a vis specific stressful events.*” Implicit support can take the form of reminding oneself about close others without discussing or disclosing issues or problems.

The explanation of implicit support is the same as “perceived support” (Turner et al., 1983) which refers to reliance and comfort offered through knowledge and existence of a social network and not through a support network. Implicit support is different from perceived support because perceived support involves an individual’s beliefs on people and groups for assistance or reliance if need be. The point of emphasis on the concept of implicit support is the absence of explicit disclosure and sharing of stressful problems. The receivers of social support in using implicit social support can enjoy the benefits of support not with the concerns implications of explicit support use in relationships, e.g. worrying others or losing face. The implicit support is a coping strategy for social support, but does not depend on disclosure and discussing the source of the stress (Kim & Sherman, 2007).

4.6.4. Impacts on intercultural interactions

Researchers of social support have discovered support for the idea that effectiveness of social support is determined by whether the support provided corresponds with the needed support by distressed persons (Cohen & Wills, 1985). This matching fact can be drawn-out to social support among individuals from different cultural backgrounds. A clear fact from the research reviewed was that there are cultural differences in the social support provided. People from Asian and Asian American culture may like to provide more implicit support, such as being present without conversing about the problems at hand, while people from the European American culture may like to provide explicit support such as putting attention on issues and providing encouraging words (Street, 2014).

A possibility of wrong matching between the needed support and provided support can result in intercultural relationships to the degree that close individuals recognise the distress of an individual in need, and their efforts to provide social support may likely match their own cultural expectations. An individual’s quest for implicit support may meet with explicit support provision, or the other way, an individual’s wish for explicit support may meet with implicit support provision, and resultantly, though the provider has the best interest to be supportive, the effectiveness of such efforts may be lessened (Kim, Shearman & Taylor, 2008).

The result of the wrong matching can also be considered at the institutional level. In the United States, whether it is at the educational or organisational set, a cultural minority's lack of support or seeking of advice may be seen as a sign of satisfaction by a European American supervisor, who is either a teacher or manager. If a person in distress is expected to speak out in order to cope with an issue, and the person does not, several potentially serious issues that could be solved through the instrument of help such as harassment or academic difficulties may go unnoticed. Yet these problems may be difficult for anyone to disclose. This means that there are tendencies for individuals in collectivist cultures to have greater difficulties (Kim, et al 2008). It could be of importance for individuals in supervisory roles to be aware of cultural differences in the use of social support, and there is therefore the need for more indirect and contextual cues to detect the needs of these individuals (Street, 2014).

4.7 SUMMARY

According to Wang and Chen (2005), the benefits of the supervisors and subordinates are both tangible and intangible. The tangible and intangible support generates a positive environment for supervisors and subordinates. The result from different studies indicated that support, trust and benefits given to subordinates by the supervisors lead to obligations on the part of the subordinates to reciprocate with high performance.

High quality relationships moderate between LMX and job performance. According to Epitropaki and Martin (2005), when tangible benefits are not available for support, intangible benefits will be used as means of exchange. This makes high quality relationships valuable between the supervisors and subordinates.

Erdogan and Liden (2007) concluded that LMX and performance relationships are positive; subordinates report high perceived organisational support supervisors.

On social support and culture, Adams (2005) indicated that as relationships are viewed as interdependence, so is culture. Culture is viewed as interdependence, as they are voluntary and sacrificial in nature. Kim, Sherman and Taylor (2008) assumed that social support that is not solicited with concerns of relationship, explain the differences in culture and social support seeking behaviour.

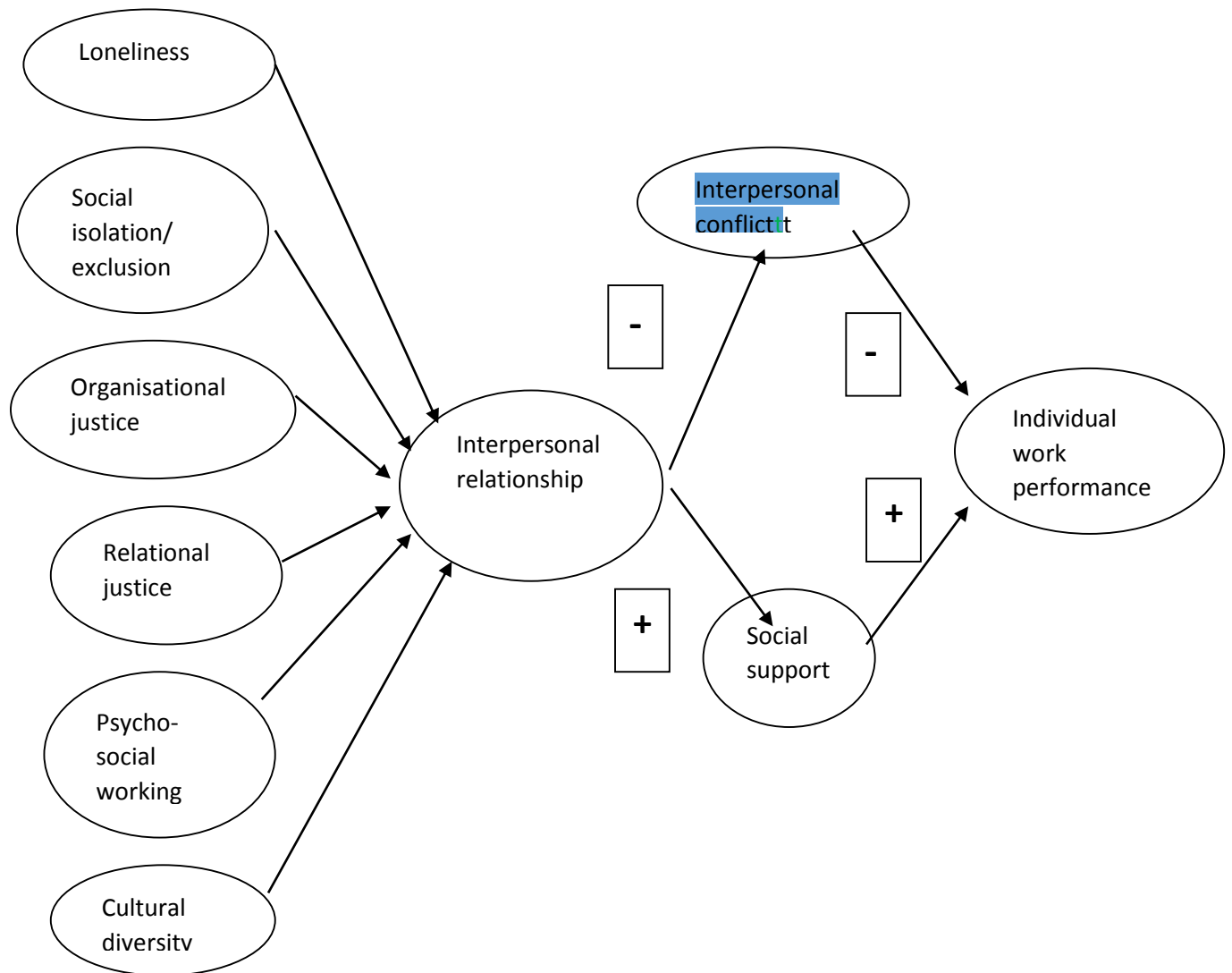
In differentiating between the implicit and explicit social support, Taylor, Welch, Kim and Sherman (2007) were of the opinion that an individual's cultural orientation (individualistic and collectivist), may determine the response (acceptance or rejection) of social support. They explained that the implicit support is the same as perceived support. It is the strategy for coping

with the social support. Explicit social support is of benefit to individuals in the individualistic culture (Kim et al., 2007).

The next chapter will introduce interpersonal conflict, the independent variable that is hypothesised to have a negative influence on interpersonal relationships, and thus work performance.

CHAPTER 5: INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT

Figure 5.1 Conceptual framework guiding the study



5.1 INTRODUCTION

The scholars of conflict management have given various meanings to conflict. Many viewed conflict from the issues around it; others considered the meaning from the behavioural angle. The perspectives on conflict have widened from the traditional attack and defend, to withdrawals, confrontations, and negotiations (Rubin, Pruitt & Kim, 1994). Individuals are said to be at conflict if they are socially disengaged; or if one of the parties is not in accord with others and refuses to interact with others; and /or if they decide to respond to solutions to the

conflict. Conflict is conglomerated behaviourally when individuals' intentions are gathered to form a peculiar element of conflict behaviour. Conflict is goal directed when plans for achievement are put in place (Van de Vliert, 2013).

The concept of conflict resolution has been reinforced by three conceptions: namely, conflict management, conflict resolution and conflict transformation. But conflicts must be identified before they can be resolved. Identification of complex and multi-dimensional conflict source, method of coping and analysis of the conflict outcome is called conflict management (Miall, 2000). Conflict resolution is the attempt to shift individuals from destructive patterns of conflict to positive or constructive outcomes (Burton, 1990). Conflict transformation is a systematic way of changing relationships to support the continuation of conflict (Boege, 2006).

However, the negative influence of interpersonal conflict at work has been proven to hold more than the positive influence, when measured with the wellbeing of individuals (Rock, 2001). This study will take into cognisance the extent that job strains motivate interpersonal conflict at work to provide negative outcomes (Spector & Jex, 1998). Scholars agreed that interpersonal relationships between supervisors and subordinates are dissimilar (Frone, 2000). But whether interpersonal conflict between supervisors and subordinates will be different from their relationships such that this will have influence on their individual outcome at work remains subject to the findings of this study.

This chapter follows the pattern suggested by Frone (2000), which maintains that the effort of interpersonal conflict at work should be directed towards determining two things: one, is to develop the interpersonal competencies between supervisor and subordinate employees. This is geared at considering the interpersonal relationship among co-workers and building them up. Two, is to identify and manage the work characteristics that have negative effect on health, low self-esteem, poor employment attitudes like commitment, and accountability. The aim is to consider interpersonal relationship between supervisors and subordinates (Frone, 2000).

5.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF CONFLICT

According to Van de Vliert (2013), when an individual experiences discord because of matters that are socially induced, it is called conflict. It demonstrates complex, goal directed reactions and produces reward or costs for any person involved. Researchers of social conflict have given different meanings to conflict issue and conflict behaviour. The meanings have widened the perspectives on management of conflict from traditional attacking and defending, to

alternatives of handling conflicts like withdrawal from confrontation and negotiation (Rubin, Pruitt & Kim, 1994).

Discussions on conflict and its management strategies have been present since ancient Greek times (Darling & Walker, 2001). The word conflict has its roots in the Latin word, “configure” meaning “to bump together”, this can be translated to mean “to have an argument” or “to be at logger heads with another person” (Latein Worterbuch, 2007). These meanings have remained relevant around the definitions of conflict (Moore, 1924).

Conventionally, conflict was described as destructive and dysfunctional; an interaction which can be avoided and prevented as early as it is perceived. Conflict avoidance and its management were traditionally discovered in many cultures (Augsburger, 1992). From the 1950s, scholarly views on conflict changed and it received positive perspectives and constructive potency (Daily & Dalton, 1992). The processes of constructing conflict are made clear by: sharing similar interests, perceiving similarity in goals, friendly and cooperative relationships, and to positively further the goals and influence of all parties involved. These processes improve interpersonal relations and impact the effectiveness of business growth, higher self-esteem and personal development (Johnson & Johnson, 1989).

Georg Simmel (1992), in opening up the theory of conflict, described it as “a positive element in society, which may lead to positive personal and interpersonal change and growth.” In his consideration, Baudieu (1992) viewed conflict as constructive and an embodiment of positive potential in society. Coser (1956) described conflict as “natural and necessary for the development of a free society.” That conflict is a “struggle over values and claims which scarce opponents are to neutralise, injure or eliminate their rivals.” Bradshaw (2006) defines conflict as “a communication process between a number of individuals or groups, intended through a process of give and take, or creative problem solving, to arrive at a mutually acceptable agreement.” Bradshaw saw conflict as an active process that can be experienced positively or negatively, but the outcome is to arrive at a consensus.

From the emerging change in view of conflict as destructive to constructive force, the subject is commonly considered as a “normal part of human life” (Myers & Filner, 1994) that has its roots in individual, social and organisational interaction systems.

In the developed society, the approach and relevance of afforded conflict and its management have changed radically since the two world wars (Wallenstein, 2002). With the rapid global social changes, trends in globalisation, internationalisation of organisations, migrations from

rural to urbanisation, the climatic changes in weather, and intercultural conflict, the need for constructive management of conflict has become unavoidable globally and individually (Miall et al., 1999).

5.3 EXPLANATIONS OF CONFLICT

An individual is in conflict when he/she is blocked or nauseated by another individual/group, and the individual reacts beneficially or in a costly manner (Van de Vliert, 1997). If a supervisor accuses a subordinate of laziness, the parties are at conflict with each other. The aspects and implications of the definition of conflict are that: one, conflict is a social engagement, because another is involved. Two, conflict can be one-sided, when only one party experiences discord and avoids communicating the problem to another. Three, one-sided conflict is a road map to the concept of handling conflicts in terms of a one-sided not two sided response.

5.3.1 Conflict issue

An individual's experience on a subject of discord because of prevention or irritation by one or more people is called a conflict issue. Conflict becomes an issue when an individual becomes personal about it, if the individual feels threatened, anxious, damaged, devalued or insulted (Dallinger & Hample, 1995). The aspects and implications of the definition is that: one, the experience of conflict issue is subjective and has no real objectivity; two, conflict issues may be cognitive or affective in nature, because of the perceived blocked goals and disagreement, or feelings of repulsion, fear and hostility; three, the size and intensity may vary; conflict escalates when the discord increases, de-escalates when the discord decreases; four, a conflict issue may not be associated with particular conflict behaviour toward the other party in conflict (Van de Vliert, 2013).

Individuals' belief about realities that are not compatible, individuals' 'disagreement about goals and actions, scarce resources and individual competitiveness and individuals' identity that brings discontentment (Deutsch, 1973; Rahim, 1992). Deutsch (1973) referred to these issues outlined above as veridical conflicts when they objectively exist and can be perceived well accurately. Deutsch distinguished them from illusory conflicts which are based on misunderstanding, misperception or displacement of the discord (Van de Vliert, 2013).

5.3.2 Conflict behaviour

This refers to an individual's manifest or displayed reaction to the conflict issue experienced by the individual. Conglomerated conflict behaviour is displayed when individuals' intended

or displayed reactions are aggregated into a unique manifestation of components of conflict behaviours. When a supervisor accuses a subordinate of laziness, the reaction of fighting will be bound up in smaller or larger, verbal or non-verbal components of compromising, problem solving, or accommodating. Each of the conglomerated conflict behaviour may be either goal directed or to express an individual's feelings. In goal directed conflict behaviour, there may be a conscious plan to achieve certain outcomes. Sometimes reactions may be strategic or instantaneous (spontaneous), that is, they may be deliberate or not deliberate; they may be directed at specific outcomes. The terms conflict behaviour, conflict handling, and conflict management are used simultaneously for both strategic and instantaneous goal directed reactions (Van de Vliert, 2013).

The conflict issues and conflict behaviour are elements of human relationship. The conflict issues are mostly intrapersonal experiences, the conflict behaviour is interpersonal. The technicality of a conflict issue is that it is viewed as an element received from a second person, and conflict behaviour is seen as sent back to the second party. A similar issue may elicit different behaviours from different people or from the same person over a period of time. Conflict issues and behaviour though are independent phenomena, but are combinable through discernment of the compounds of each component, e.g. anger plus fighting, anger-avoiding and anger-compromising or distrust- fighting and disappointment-fighting. In Burton (1990), issues and behaviour were combined by contrasting negotiable issues of dispute and intractable conflict issues that have their origin in human behaviour, for example, ethnic discrimination versus role negotiation (Burton, 1990).

The collection of possible reactions has been classified by conflict scholars into categories. The popular categories of conflict behaviour are examined accordingly:

5.3.2.1 Dichotomy

This is the exhibition of “fight-flight” responses by individuals. This fight-flight prepares the individual to “attack or flee” from the other party (Baxter, 1982). The fight-flight split does not acknowledge behavioural alternatives like the ones used in bargaining. A comprehensive dichotomy may not permit cooperation, e.g. the use of experimental gaming to foster cooperation and prevent competition to keep away social conflict (Tjosvold, 1988).

Cooperation is viewed as agreement to constructive process that controls discord, while competition is seen as a tool of disagreement and destruction that permits discord. Many conflict scholars have criticised the fight-flight and cooperation-competition dichotomies. The

scholars demonstrated that a single dimension is not enough to reflect the many behaviours used in handling interpersonal or small group conflicts (Daves & Holland, 1989; Van de Vliert & Prein, 1989).

5.3.2.2 Trichotomy

Horney (1945) began the categorisation of “moving away” from people, “moving toward” people and “moving against” people. Putnam and Wilson (1982) discovered three ways of handling conflict, calling them non-confrontation (moving away), solution orientation (moving toward), and control (moving against). The same result in a factor analysis was reported by Bell and Blakeney (1972) and Wilson and Waltman (1988).

5.3.2.3 Four-part typology

The framework for this typology proposes five forms of managing conflict which are summarised as follows: one, impartiality/neutrality withdrawal; two, smooth over, cohabitation in peace; three, compromise bargaining; four, problem solving, working through; five, suppress, win-lose power struggle (Blake & Mouton, 1984). Hall (1969) and Filley (1975) gave a definition to the five types of conflict management as “loss-leave, yield-lose, compromise, synergistic, and win-lose styles.” Van de Vliert (2013) defined five components of handling conflict as avoiding (moving away), accommodating (giving into the other party), compromising (settling through mutual agreements), problem solving (reconciling the parties’ basic interests), and fighting (contending with adversary directly or indirectly).

The value of the categorisations is useful for mapping and developing a research work in social conflict. They also assist in understanding the character of different reactions to conflict issues, inspire the construction of measuring instruments; they help to make possible the development of theories concerning the past and outcomes of specific types of conflict behaviour (Bacharach & Lawler, 1981; Rubin, Pruitt & Kim, 1994). According to Van de Vliert (2013), conflict researchers are likely to soon reach a point where reliance on conflict behaviour will be slow instead of hastening the theoretical progress. Van de Vliert explained further that categorisation does not recognise frequent occurrence and relevance of complex behaviours. This leaves room for those who dispute this theory to express themselves. He concluded his study by saying that investment in this field of study may likely soon create a block, except there is a paradigm shift from categorisation of conflict behaviour to looking at investigating conflict behaviour.

5.3.3 Conflict outcomes

Outcomes are the end of benefits and costs that are the results of both parties' behaviour. For example, the supervisor that accuses the subordinate of laziness could settle by identifying the right level of work effort. The overall causes of the outcome consist of issue-based desired outcomes, conglomerated conflict behaviour which results in benefits or costs. This means that handling complicated conflict is seen as being able to fulfil an individual's desire or the desire of the other party (Van de Vliert, 2013).

To define conflict issue, behaviour and outcome, the terms should be understood from an individual and not collective level of analysis. The view is that it is easier to view the discord and conflict behaviour of an individual than a group experience. The assumption is that only an individual member of an organisation can experience conflicts through interactions and produce outcomes. Intergroup conflicts are referred to as conflicts because they are carried out by individuals who manifest conglomerated conflict behaviour through other individuals; it could be at home, work or anywhere. Sometimes, individuals in a group act on behalf of the group members (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Van de Vliert, 1996).

5.4 CONCEPTS OF RESOLVING CONFLICTS

Constantino and Sickles Merchant (1996) gave a valid statement that "organisations have many ways of responding to conflict, the choice of a particular method might be from the perceived importance, context or players. The response of organisations to conflict happens with the organisational culture or the attitudes, practices and beliefs of the system and its members. "The way things are done around here, provides a collective view point for an organisation and its key players to view internal disagreement and external threat." Three concepts underpin conflict resolution, namely conflict management, resolution and transformation.

5.4.1 Conflict management

Many scholars have referred to conflict as penalties or differences, values and interests that happen according to the effect of power (Francis, 2003; Rahim, 2001). One major challenge of conflict management is to identify the source of conflict, which oftentimes is multi-dimensional, complex and uneasy to evaluate. In multi-dimensional conflict, the sources are many and deeply embedded in the system in which they occur. They are contained in the history and constructed through a complex pattern of relationships between individuals, departments

and organisations (Miall et al., 2000). The patterns of conflict are an important source in conflicts. These patterns are experienced and interpreted between different conflict partners. Conflict management can be described as a process of identifying the source of the conflict, methods for coping with it, and analysis of the outcome of the conflict (Miall et al., 2000). The conflict source is pivotal to the theory of conflict management, in that its activities are developed on the basis of the sources and context and types of conflict (Laine, 2002). Cultural differences have been suggested as a cause of conflict (Gartzke & Gleditsch, 2006).

It is common knowledge among scholars of conflict management that the best way to manage conflict is to approach it by situation or contextually (Francis, 2003; Rahim, 2001). Situational or contextual approach in conflict management means to implement interventional strategies with respect to the conflict embedding system; the context in which conflict occurs. Channelling appropriately, inevitable conflict through the art of intervention is called conflict management (Miall et al, 2000).

Bloomfield and Reilly (1998) defined conflict management as *“The positive and constructive handling of difference and divergence. Rather than advocating methods for removing conflict, it addresses the more realistic question of managing conflict; how to deal with it in a constructive way, how to bring opposing sides together in a cooperative process, how to design a practical, achievable, cooperative system for the constructive management of difference.”*

Rahim (2002) illuminated the concept that *“conflict management does not imply the avoidance, reduction or termination of conflict. It helps to design effective macro-level strategies to minimise the dysfunctions of conflict and enhancing the constructive functions of conflict in order to enhance learning and effectiveness in an organization. Here, conflict management is a tool to manage power and power imbalances.”*

Practically, there are different technical approaches to managing conflict. The frequently used ones are: negotiation (Castro & Nielsen, 2001), facilitation (Hill, 2005), and mediation (Busch, 2006).

First, negotiation is a popular technique of conflict management and is implemented to satisfy the mutual needs and interests of the parties in negotiations (Ury, 2000). By using negotiation, goals can be achieved, and interpersonal relationships can be established and maintained. Negotiation methods are normally used as basic conflict management techniques (Crump & Zartmann, 2003). Bradshaw (2006) distinguished between two main negotiation styles: the distributive approach and the integrative approach. The distributive approach is linked with the

parties choosing extreme positions and afterwards meet somewhere between the two positions (a win-lose approach). The integrative approach endeavours to achieve equal gains for both parties. Information is shared and the basis for negotiation is defined as a learning session (win-win approach).

The second facilitation technique is a method of third party intervention: this permits an independent person to facilitate constructive communication through moderating, implementing rules and communication styles that has no direction. The technique covers the positive side of conflict and endeavours to determine the possibilities of synergizing between the conflicting domains. Under facilitation, the system is viewed as a functional unit or analysis. The defining characteristics of facilitation are that it happens when gain transfer creates an improvement in the functional level of the system (Wayne et al., 2007).

Third is mediation, which attracted attention recently as a conflict management tool in intercultural conflicts (Busch, 2006). It is a third party intervention method that is based on a distinct and organised model, roles, and settings in the negotiation process. The mediator is all-partial and empathetic towards all parties (Mayer, 2006). The methods of mediation will include negotiation techniques, like active listening, reframing, and detailed questions and answers.

5.4.2 Conflict resolution

The conflict resolution theorists widely do not accept the political power view of conflict (Schellenberg, 1998). Rather, their argument is that in communal and identity conflicts, parties cannot compromise on their fundamental needs (Miall et al., 2000). According Miall et al. (2000), the contention was that conflicts can be transcended if parties can be helped to explore, analyse, question and reframe their positions and interests. A third party is expected to demonstrate knowledge and skill without using power. The snag for the third party in conflict resolution is in fostering of innovative thinking and new relationships. Through change in thinking and relationships, a new perspective on position can be entrenched, the source of conflict is identified and solutions are discovered. Conflict resolution attempts to move parties from destructive patterns of conflict to positive or constructive outcomes. Azar and Burton (1986) emphasized that the goal of conflict resolution is to effectively find a way for all parties to resolve conflict.

Burton (1990) professed that conflicts have their source in human needs. The resolution of conflict at times demands major environmental and policy restructuring. Resolution refers to

the “transformation of relationships in a specific case by solving the problems which lead to the conflicting behaviour in the first place.” Conflict resolution focuses on the treatment of the problems that are at the root of conflict. In conflict, the behaviour of persons, groups or organisations goes beyond the point of “normal disagreement or confrontations that characterise much of the usual social, economic and competitive life of people” (Burton, 1990).

5.4.3 Conflict transformation

The scholars who represent conflict transformation approaches (Lederach, 2008; Miall, 2004) thought that the features of contemporary conflicts need new concepts for effectiveness. The new concept should take certain aspects of conflict into consideration: the violent conflicts are usually asymmetric; they should be marked with inequality of power and status; conflicts often stay longer than expected; conflicts often change instantly from violence to non-violence; they happen in cyclical models of conflict phases and conflicts warp individuals and organisations, economies, and regions into a local and global context. Meyer (2008) wrote that the complications of conflict in modern times are different from the simple approaches to conflicts and their resolution; there is therefore the need to review the concepts of conflicts to fit the contemporary times.

Miall et al. (2000) raised an argument that constructive conflict should be viewed as “the agents for change” for conflict transformation. The promoters of conflict transformation argue that contemporary conflicts need more than reframing of positions and identification of win-win outcomes (Boege, 2006; Miall, 2004). Individuals, relationship patterns and conflict are system based and need to be conceptualized. Conflict transformation works with a systemic approach of transforming relationships, interests, discourses and organisational structures that support the continuation of conflict (Boege, 2006).

The individual as a system, the team as an organisation, or the organisation itself, the local, regional and global levels, all have their part in the transformation of conflict and building of a peace process. All participants in the system such as departments or branches contribute to the transformation of conflicts which is a long process. The process supports a systematic transformation of conflict, a series of steps that are adaptable by the positive response of participants (Miall et al., 2000).

Laderach (1995) referred to conflict transformation as “the promotion, integration and envisioning of human and cultural potential and resources from within a given setting. This includes the long term aim of conflict transformation that is, validating and building human

beings and their resources.” Lederach identified four levels of conflict transformation and changes that accompany it: personal level (emotional, perceptual and spiritual aspects of conflict); relational level (expressive, communicative and interactive aspects of conflict); structural level (areas related to human needs, access to resources, and institutional decision-making patterns); and cultural level (the way culture impacts the development and handling of conflict). The assumption of this study is whether conflict management, resolution or transformation have both positive and negative aspects.

5.4.4 Social relations theory

The social relations theory was developed by Fiske (1992). This theory was the basis for interpersonal conflict at work (ICAWS) that was later modelled by Frone (2000). The social relations theory was modelled into two perspectives:

Social model one: Communal sharing

This model proposed that individuals have a feeling of being united by a mutual personality; the attention is on team spirit and not distinct individual selves. All social players should treat each other as social equivalents; individuals in communal sharing relationships want to be liked by others who are similar to them (Fiske, 1992). Therefore, the relationships between subordinates reflect communal sharing.

Social model two: Authority ranking

In this type of relationship, employees relate to one another according to organisational hierarchy. The supervisors control the products of labour (work schedules, pay raises, and promotions) of subordinates with low ranks. The supervisors act as agents of the organisation. Interpersonal conflict between supervisors and subordinates may adversely affect an employee’s communal sharing relationship with their supervisor. Therefore, the subordinates’ relationships are based on communal sharing and the supervisors’ relationships are based on authority ranking (Frone, 2000).

This study adopted the social relations theory as the basis for measuring supervisor and subordinate interpersonal conflict at work.

5.5 INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT AT WORK (ICAW)

Organisations are social systems that relate in a way that participants engage in activities that are organised to attain collective goals (Simon, 1976), and interpersonal relationships are at the root of these activities (March & Simon, 1958). It has been generally noted that individuals’

daily interactions at work are positive (Watson, 2000). Research evidences advocate that negative actions, such as interpersonal conflict, hold more influence than positive actions, particularly with regards to individual wellbeing (Rook, 2001). Apart from considering its effect on individual wellbeing, understanding the reactions of individuals to interpersonal conflict has other salient implications. Interpersonal conflict at work has been associated with decrease in job satisfaction, lower organisational commitment, high turnover intentions, and increased counterproductive work behaviour (Fox, Spector & Miles, 2001; Frone, 2000).

The negative actions are stimulated by job strain that interpersonal conflict causes (Fox et al., 2001). Karasek (1979), when he proposed interpersonal conflict as a job stressor, stated that job demands surround psychological stressors that are associated with accomplishing work load. “The stressors are linked with unexpected tasks, and stressors of job-related personal conflict.” Regarding the evidence of interpersonal conflict as a stressor, scholars noted that it has been well studied in the field of occupational stress literature (Spector & Jex, 1998). The general effect of interpersonal conflict has been significantly researched by scholars (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Friedman, Tidd, Currall & Tsai, 2000; Van de Vliert, 1996), not much attention has been given to employees’ immediate responses to conflict. Examining individual effects of interpersonal conflict on employees’ immediate stress and identifying factors that can reduce the negative effects has the potential to contribute to the literature on conflict as a stressor by understanding psychology through which interpersonal conflict brings about stress (Ilies, Johnson, Judge and Keeney, 2011).

Interpersonal relationships may have a positive influence on an individual in a work environment, as documented in the literature on social integration and social support (Berscheid & Reis, 1998). Interpersonal relationships have a negative aspect (Berscheid & Reis, 1998). Veroff, Douvan and Kulka (1981) discovered that interpersonal problems are said to be one of the sources of unhappiness in individuals. Many researchers suggested that bad relationships may have a stronger effect on individuals than positive relationships (Frone, 2001). Studies that noted the positive and negative impact of poor interpersonal relationships in employees focused on general relationships or marital relationships. According to Spector and Jex (1998), work environment represents an important social context.

The goal of studying interpersonal conflict at work is to expand older research by developing and examining psychological outcomes of interpersonal conflict at work. Interpersonal conflict at work is viewed as a potential stressor for employees of a different age bracket. There are two

reasons for interpersonal conflict at work. The first is the development of interpersonal competencies between the adolescent ages of 16 and 18 years to 22 years (Institute of Medicine, 1998). The interpersonal conflict event represents the presence of work stressors among employees. Second, part-time employment has become normal among growing young employees, especially those in schools (Frone, 1999; Institute of Medicine, 1998).

There is therefore the need to identify and manage the work characteristics that have a negative effect on the psychological health, for example, low self-esteem and poor employment attitudes like low organisational commitment of employees to work is important because of the need to prevent the workers from carrying such attitudes forward into their future (Frone, 2000). Kasl (1998) clearly differentiated between interpersonal relationships with supervisors and with co-workers. It seems a plus that an individual's relationship with his/her supervisor is different from his/her relationship with co-workers. It is therefore not impossible that interpersonal conflict with supervisors and co-workers may be different in relationship to organisational and personal outcomes. Rather, a total measure of interpersonal conflict that limits these differences would be related to both organisational and personal psychological outcomes according to Spector and Jex (1998).

For organisational practice, there are two implications to the findings of Frone (2000). Firstly, there is a need for efforts to be made to enhance employee wellness in order to improve the relationships among personnel. Secondly, it is important to improve employee (supervisors' and subordinates') behaviours and feelings towards the organisation and their jobs so as to enhance interpersonal relationships in the workplace.

5.5.1 Affectivity and interpersonal conflict

According to Keenan and Newton (1985), interpersonal conflict includes: *“negative interpersonal encounters, covert hostility, verbal aggression, and angry exchanges between individuals.”* They defined interpersonal conflict as: *“a negative interpersonal encounter characterised by a contentious exchange, hostility or aggression.”* Incidents of interpersonal conflict may be isolated, or a common occurrence; it is wider than bullying or social undermining, which may be called aggressive behaviours that an individual repeats and it endures (Duffy, Ganster & Pagon, 2002). Interpersonal conflict may be manifested through rude behaviour but is not like workplace incivility (Anderson & Pearson, 1999); at times it could be seen in instances of respectful but contentious disagreement (Ilies, Johnson, Judge and Keeney, 2011).

Negative affect is a psychological distress indicator when considering the short term effects of job stressors, and researchers are convinced through evidences that stressful events or demands, including those known by high workloads (Ilies, Schwind, Wagner, Johnson, DeRue & Ilgen, 2007), arguments (Vittengl & Holt, 1998) and interpersonal frustrations (Peeters, Buunk & Schaufeli, 1995). All examples above are linked to negative affect both within individuals and among individuals. Watson (1988) associated negative affect with stress response and discovered that negative affect was strongly associated with a measure of perceived distress. The literature on daily work hassles documented occurrence of daily conflict with co-workers or supervisors at work. It has been established that hassles and interpersonal conflict have a direct effect on employees' negative affect (Vittengl & Holt, 1998). Average levels of self-reported interpersonal conflict have a link with negative emotions (for example, an individual's state of anxiety and frustration) and symptoms of depression (Frone, 2000; Spector & Jex, 1998). Evidences suggest that interpersonal conflict has a strong effect on negative affect in relation to other stressors (Bolger, De Longis, Kessler & Schilling, 1989).

Ilies, Johnson, Judge and Keeney (2011) were of the view that interpersonal conflict at work will influence employees' negative affect, in a way that employees or individuals in an organisation will report heightened negative affect provided they experience more conflict, compared to periods when they experience less conflict. Agreeableness will moderate employees' affective distress response to interpersonal conflict at work. Social support at work moderates employees' affective distress responses to interpersonal conflict at work, such that increase in the levels of social support should weaken the intra-individual effect of interpersonal conflict on negative affect (that is, the interpersonal conflictnegative affect relationship will be stronger at lower rather than higher levels of social support).

5.5.2 Influence of conflict between supervisor and subordinate

Abusive supervision is referred to as "the prolonged hostile treatment toward subordinates, excluding physical violence" (Tepper, 2000). Research shows that supervisors are likely to abuse their subordinates, especially those supervisors who perceived that they are victims of interaction or procedure injustice, which are linked with subordinate relationship conflict (Aryee, Chen Sun & Debrah, 2007). Other researchers have argued that the effect of this conflict that channels supervisors' frustrations into abusive behaviours against subordinates happen because the subordinates are harmless targets on which supervisors can vent their frustrations (Tepper, Duffy, Henle & Lambert, 2006). The argument suggests that abusive

supervision may be a response to frustrating workplace activities like co-worker relationship conflict.

Supervisor- subordinate conflict has been associated with objectionable emotional states and can negatively affect interpersonal relationships (Bergmann & Volkema, 1994). Researchers on emotional states are of the opinion that the anger and frustration associated with interpersonal conflict is able to promote verbal aggression like shouting, and behaviour aggression towards the other party in conflict (Ambrose, Seabright & Schminke, 2002). These behaviours apart from physical violence will fall under Tepper's (2000) definition of abusive supervision if targeted at subordinates.

Displaced aggression happens "when individuals experience mistreatment from one party who responds by mistreating a second party" (Hoobler & Brass, 2006). Many reasons for displaced aggression have been recognised like social injection (Twenge & Cambell, 2003), negative feedback (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998), and unpleasant workplace events (Miller, Pedersen, Earlywine & Pollock, 2003). Abusive supervision fits the criteria of displaced aggression, provided it is induced by events that are beyond the control of the subordinates. Thus abusive supervision may be both a cause of displaced aggression and a type of displaced aggression (Harris, Harvey & Kacmar, 2011).

Knowing that subordinates have low levels of retaliatory power, the supervisor can use abusive supervision as a means of venting frustration. It can serve as a lower risk target for venting behaviours than employees in position of greater hierarchy (Tepper, Duffy, Henle & Lambert, 2006). Precipitation research for victims also supports this idea, that displaced aggression is targeted at those who are not able to defend themselves, as is the case among subordinates who can be terminated or disciplined by their supervisors (Aquino, 2000). In the context of displaced aggression, the desire of supervisors to vent frustration at subordinates who are not associated with the earlier conflict, is similar to the notion of "kick the dog" after a bad day at work. Supervisor-subordinate relationship conflict is a source of stress and frustration that is not pleasant, and therefore, individuals are encouraged to engage in coping behaviours that will diminish their presence (Deffenbacher, Lynch, Oetting & Kemper, 1996). At times, the emotional coping behaviours can take the form of hostile behaviours like sabotage and verbal assaults (Douglas & Martinko, 2001), thus, the conflict between supervisor and subordinate may induce aggressive behaviours like yelling at each other, that is a coping function.

According to Thomas (1976), “the power of the parties to a conflict influences the manner in which both parties will respond to each other. When the power levels of the parties are equal, as in co-workers, hostile responses are likely to be met with retaliation. It is also possible that the target of retaliation may respond with more hostile behaviour, thereby creating a rising cycle of conflict (Harris, Harvey & Kacmar, 2011). On the other hand, subordinates are usually reluctant to respond to hostile supervisor behaviours for fear of losing their jobs. The fact remains that the subordinates in most cases are not the cause of supervisors’ frustration; the frustration of the supervisor may be caused by his peer workers which means that the subordinate may have little impact on the behavioural response if the response is caused by emotion and not logic. So then, the desire to vent anger of co-worker relationship conflict on a safe target overrides the concern that the subordinates are not the logical targets for retaliation, knowing that they are likely not the cause of the conflict (Harris, Harvey & Kacmar, 2011).

5.5.3 LMX relationship as a moderator

Thomas (1992) concluded a study that “*a conceptualisation process takes place between the conflict experience and the outcome of behaviour in which information is processed and behavioural choices are evaluated.*” Harris, Harvey and Kacmar (2011) argued that “*an evaluation of relationships with subordinates is particularly relevant when behaviours toward these individuals are concerned.*”

LMX theory proposed that the quality of leader-member relationships differ from high to low (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Subordinates that are in high quality exchanges are viewed to be more in favour and receive advantages from their supervisors compared to their low quality LMX peers (Liden, Sparrowe & Wayne, 1997). Those members that have high quality exchanges receive preferential treatment from supervisors who are inspired to maintain these resourceful relationships.

The expectation is that supervisors who experience a high level of subordinate relationship conflict are likely to become abusive toward subordinates, but may be selective in choosing which subordinate to target. Abusive supervisors behaviourally have a negative impact on the victims’ motivational level and attitude to their jobs (Schat, Damarais & Kelloway, 2006). Supervisors may not want to risk these consequences with all employees, LMX theory suggests that supervisors are motivated to maintain effective relationships with their high quality LMX subordinates. Harris, Harvey and Kacmar (2011) proposed that supervisors who are frustrated by the subordinates’ relationship conflict and opt to react abusively will generally choose low

quality LMX subordinates as their targets. The implication of this is that when conflict driven abuse happens, the subordinates in low quality LMX will experience it more severely and frequently than the members in high quality exchanges.

These can be viewed from the support of justice and victim precipitation theories (Aquino, 2000). From the justice angle, instead of perceiving members of low quality LMX relationships as less risky targets for abuse, it can be viewed that supervisors find it easier to justify abuse toward these employees. Those subordinates with low quality exchanges are often viewed as having low performance levels (Deluga & Perry, 1994). So then the supervisors who use abusive behaviours to maintain relationship conflict driven frustration may feel justified in having their attention on these subordinates. The rationale might be that the supervisors will convince themselves that low quality performing subordinates in low quality LMX relationships deserve the abusive behaviour.

Research on victim precipitation also recommends that a common characteristic of low quality LMX subordinates is that they are made targets of abuse. Behaviours that are provoking and threatening have been associated with retaliatory aggression (Aquino & Baron, 2002). Of more importance in the victim precipitation research of LMX relationships is that from indication, abusive individuals sometimes target those who are seen as weak or harmless. Individuals who are slow to defend themselves or view their situations as negative appear to catch the attention of aggressive supervisors (Tepper, 2007).

As mentioned earlier, organisational hierarchy of relationships might likely promote abusive tendencies between supervisors and subordinates, making the subordinates safe targets for abuse. The members of low LMX particularly might not be willing to further spoil their relationship with supervisors by retaliating against abuse. Rather, they might internalise their undesirable status. This can promote negative perceptions in the workplace competence and performance (Ferris, Brown & Heller, 2009), which may provoke victimisation. Victim precipitation research was of the opinion that these aggressors are likely to engage in abusive behaviour as a way to preserve their social status and boost perceptions of their control over a situation (Felson, 1978). Therefore, Harris et al. (2011) view such research as a notion that subordinates might be targeted for displaced abuse and that low quality LMX subordinates are likely to be seen as vulnerable.

This study will not explore the moderating effects of LMX on supervisor-subordinate relationship. It is left for studies of this nature in the future.

5.5.4 Independence of jobs and conflict at work

In the phase of globalisation of businesses with many organisations operating in different countries, it is important to know how cultural differences affect individual employees' work behaviour; the impact of interpersonal conflict at work and cultural differences in relation to job stressors (Frone, 2000; Jamal, 2010).

Supervisors have been viewed as probable sources of interpersonal conflict at work (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006). The conflict of supervisor is the conflict between supervisor and his subordinates in the form of minor disagreements, hatred and arguments, and physical fights (Spector & Jex, 1998). According to Parkes (1985), in a study reported by nursing students, suggested that a possible reason for conflict with a supervisor is lack of job autonomy. Job autonomy is the extent to which an employee has freedom to determine how to carry out job tasks and job schedules (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Conflicts of supervisors are culturally sensitive in behaviour. A perspective that describes national difference is power distance. This refers to the degree to which an individual accepts power distribution in a society (Hofstede, 2001). Supervisor conflict and its results may be different in countries that endorse a different level of power distance. Not much is known yet about the nature of vertical conflicts in cross-cultural settings (Xin & Pelled, 2003).

Researchers of cross-cultural conflicts rely on quantitative rating scale data collected in different countries to produce mean and compare the relationships, when studying stress in cross-cultural settings. Although the quantitative approach is helpful, it is not sufficient in making comparisons; the qualitative approach is needed to strengthen the result that is to be obtained in cross-cultural nature (Keenan & Newton, 1985). Qualitative data collected through interview or open-ended questionnaires could strengthen quantitative results in three ways. Firstly, it complements the quantitative results by permitting more detailed information concerning the variable under study (Parkes, 1985).

If a hypothesised relation is not supported by the quantitative data, the qualitative data will describe it by shedding more light on the mechanism between the two variables and the possible complements. Secondly, both the quantitative and qualitative approaches complement one another when research hypotheses are supported by both types of data; this way, researchers can make research conclusions confidently. Thirdly, insights can be gained by scrutinising the qualitative descriptions made available by respondents from different cultural backgrounds.

Ideas could be generated since they are not limited by the quantitative data and a particular context alone (Liu, Spector & Shi, 2011).

This study adopts the mixed method approach, so that open-ended questions will be able to compliment the results that will be obtained by the use of a quantitative method.

5.5.5 Differences in culture between the West and the East

Culture plays an important role in an employee's stress at work (Xie, Schaubroeck & Lam, 2008). Individualism and collectivism, and power distance are factors that explain differences in culture between the United States and China (Schwartz, 2004). These may affect employees' independence at work and conflict with supervisors.

5.5.5.1 *Individualistic and collectivist cultures*

Individualistic culture is that cultural orientation that puts emphasis on independence and individual achievement. The collectivist culture is that orientation that believes in group cohesiveness and interests (Hofstede, 2001). The United States is an example of an individualistic country which practices superiority of individual effort over group goals, and a solid need for control and independence. China is a good example of a collectivist country, which practices subordination of individual goals, a sense of compliance and interdependence (Schwartz, 2004). Research work has indicated that the individualistic culture reported more job independence and sense of control than the collectivist culture (Nauta, Liu & Li, 2010).

The concern of this study is to find out the effect of interpersonal conflict on employees' work performance in the retail sector in South Africa.

5.5.5.2 *Power distance*

Power distance refers to social inequality and the degree of authority of an individual over others (Hofstede, 2001); the degree to which the less powerful members of an organisation within a country expects and accepts that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 2010). Liu, Spector and Shi (2011), in a cultural difference study, showed a difference between American employees and Chinese employees. According to them, the United States is a low power distance country with small tolerance for inequality in the distribution of power among individuals (Hofstede, 2001). Power distance with the American is seen as a sign of invasion into an individual's rights and limitation of that individual's power. Contrarily, the Chinese have had a history of power distance at high level and this has its roots in the state ideology in China. In Chinese society, individuals that are in authority are respected by the less powerful

members as a rule (Schwartz, 2004). Power distance will affect employees' relationships with their superiors.

Hofstede (2010) wrote that individuals start their work life as young adults after having some experiences in the family and at school. They have created relationships between parents and child, teacher and learner, and now at work, supervisor and subordinate relationship, a new pair roll. It should not be surprising if the former rolls are transferred into the new roll and they see their bosses as their parents or teachers. In the large power distance situation, superiors and subordinates view one another as existing unequally.

5.5.5.3 *Job independence*

Job independence is an important element of control. It is the people's freedom to determine work performance, work schedules and job engagement (Zhou, Lens & Soenens, 2005). High job independence means freedom and control over an individual's work, low job independence means supervisory control and close monitoring. In a high level of perceived control, an individual may use effort to deal with external challenges; while where there is no such control counter-productivity may result in responses that might involve doing wrong thing to others that may provoke conflict. A low level of job independence can be stressful on employees, and it has been associated with various forms of job strains like mental disorder, job dissatisfaction, low performance, absence from work, and emotional distress (Spector, 1986).

Research indicated that in western cultures that value individualism and job independence, the need for job independence is high, unlike in the East (China) where obedience and collectivism are more embraced; employees may not expect independence at work (Diener & Oishi, 2000). Close monitoring may be desired by the Eastern employees. However, Liu, Spector, Liu and Shi (2011) concluded that low levels of job independence would relate with high levels of conflict with supervisors in the West (United States), but not in the East (China).

5.6 SUMMARY

The interpersonal relationships interactions have revealed the behavioural relationships between supervisors and subordinates (Frone, 2000). The degree to which interpersonal conflict will affect an individual's outcome at work is the focus of this chapter. The conflict resolution concept is viewed from three dimensions: managing conflict, resolving conflict and transforming conflict (Miall, 2000). Patterns of conflict are shifting from negative to positive outcomes (Boege, 2006).

Van de Vliert (2013) made a strong remark that a lot has been explored in terms of conflict processes in behaviour; rather let there be a shift to investigating conflict behaviour.

Work place conflict and the dual concern theory is viewed by scholars as a strategy for finding middle ground between concessions for others and self, as well as threats and promises (Van de Vliert, 1997). Interpersonal conflict at work, according to Fox, Spector and Miles (2001), is linked with a decrease in job satisfaction, low commitment to an organisation, high turnover intent, and increased counter-productivity in work behaviour. They added that negative outcomes are as a result of job strains or stresses. Ilies, Johnson, Judge and Keeney (2011) concluded that understanding the psychology that brings about stress through interpersonal conflict can assist to reduce the negative effects. Jex (1998) argued that the workplace is a social context, and interpersonal conflict at work should be studied to examine psychological outcomes of the subject.

The question this study is raising because of the statement above is: what happens to the management outcomes of interpersonal conflict at work; particularly outcomes of interpersonal conflict at work that affects an employee's performance directly? These outcomes are the responsibilities of the management of organisations

Aryee, Chen Sun and Debrah (2007) emphasised that supervisors may abuse subordinates, especially those who perceive that they have been victims of procedural justice, that are associated with conflict in relating to subordinates. Ambrose, Seabright and Schminck (2002) are of the view that anger and frustration associated with interpersonal conflict may promote verbal aggression between supervisors and subordinates, because of the low retaliatory ability of subordinates. Supervisors that are abusive can use this to vent their frustrations on the subordinates (Tepper, Duffy, Henle & Lambert, 2006).

Harris, Harvey and Kacmar (2011) submitted that in most cases, subordinates are not the cause of the supervisor's frustration, it may have been caused by colleagues or senior employees, which means that the impact of the subordinate in the supervisor's behavioural response may be minimal.

The result from this study will indicate what the relationship between supervisor and subordinate will be, when the supervisor introduces support to subordinates, and in the face of interpersonal conflict.

Subordinates who have high quality exchange relationships are those who are in favour, or receive advantages and preferential treatment by the supervisors and are likely to have the low

conflict relationship, while subordinates with high relationship conflict with supervisors may have abusive relationships (Schat, Damarais & Kelloway, 2006).

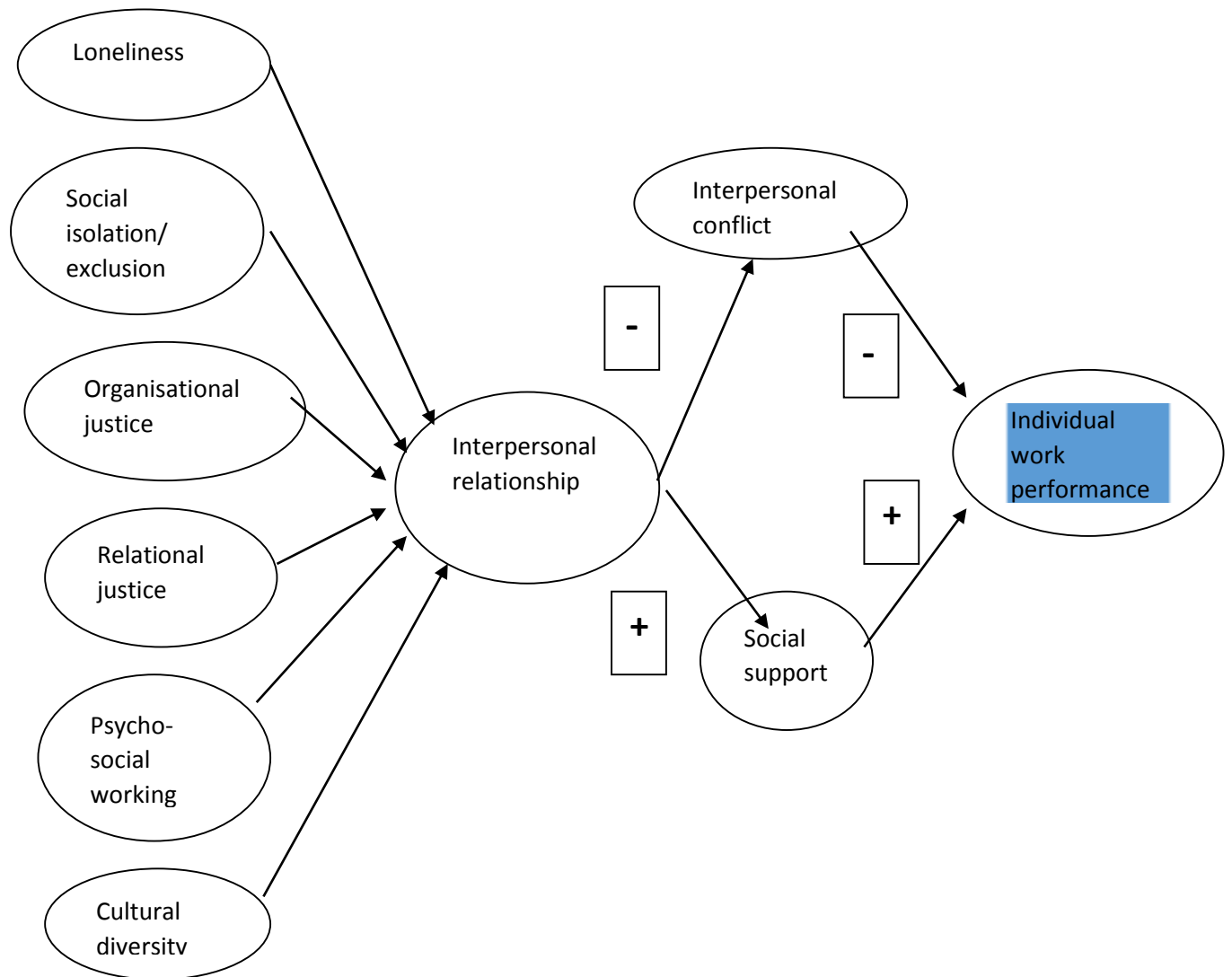
Supervisors' conflicts are culturally sensitive in behaviours. This study recognises two classifications of cultural orientations, that is, individualistic and collectivist cultures. Examples are made with United States as people with individualistic culture, and China as people with collectivist culture. The individualistic culture is low on power distance and the collectivist culture emphasises power distance. Generally power distance influences the relationship between supervisors and their employees.

Job interdependence is another element that also affects control, freedom, work performance and employee job engagement. The individualistic culture is associated with high job independence because it permits freedom of control from supervision and close monitoring. The collectivist culture is lined with low job independence because it emphasises control by supervision, which leads to job strains and conflict.

In the next chapter, literature related to the dependent variable, namely work performance, will be presented.

CHAPTER 6: EMPLOYEE BASIC WORK PERFORMANCE

Figure 6.1 Conceptual framework guiding the study



6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter, in considering the antecedents of employee basic work performance, examines the characteristics that define work role by examining the individuals and their roles at work (Ashforth, Harrison & Cooley, 2008). It further explores literature on the feelings and reactions of individuals in a bid to fulfil their needs and values as they perform their roles at work (Rich et al., 2010). Additionally, Deci's (1975) description of the concept of intrinsic motivation is highlighted. Attempts were made to follow different research studies as they graduate in

understanding from Goffman (1961) to Deci (1975) and the call to invest in emotional, physical and cognitive efforts that are available relationally from result of studies.

There are terms that are relative to employee task performance. This study attempts to define and explain the meaning of the following terms: work engagement (Kahn, 1990), job characteristics (Hackman & Oldman, 1976), dispositional features of job characteristics (Macey & Schneider, 2008), social support (Christian et al., 2011), physical demand (Humphrey et al., 2008), contextual performance (Rich et al., 2010), and organisational citizenship behaviour (Ogan, 1988; Cho et al., 2008). This study assumes that employee performance could be improved or enhanced if healthy interpersonal relationships exist between supervisors and subordinates.

Gerstner and Day (1997) indicateds that leaders can affect employees' motivation and performance at work. This study attempts to follow several studies from Gerstner et al. (1997) to Frankel (2012), who examined the impact of the LMX theory on supervisors. Hu and Liden (2013) came up with the Relative Leader-Member exchange (RLMX) as the relative stand of members in the form of exchange connection with the leader. This study adopts the employee task performance scale used by Tsui, Pearce, Porter and Tripoli (1997). The scale is envisaged to be able to assist the researcher to select between employees' basic tasks and activities that fall outside their tasks. This study also used the work of Jehn and Shah (1995) on group work processes and task performance to explain individual task performance. The assumption is that primarily, group members are made up of individuals. The work processes that happened among groups can be related to individuals.

6.2 ANTECEDENTS OF JOB PERFORMANCE

Most of the research work that is to improve understanding of differences in work role performances has been looking at concepts that explain the slim aspects of individual employees. The individual is conceived by the cognitive energy that is allocated to various work and non-work areas according to the identities that define individuals and their roles (Ashforth, Harrison & Corley, 2008). For example, job involvement is the extent to which employees relate to their jobs compared to their lives as a whole, so that when an individual shows high job involvement, the person is said to identify with his job strongly, and the individual is mindful of his job even outside the work environment (Kanungo, 1982).

Job involvement affects organisational features, supervisory behaviours, and individual differences (Brown & Leigh, 1996) which forecast job performance. This is so because

employees who identify strongly with their jobs have their thoughts and attention on work and interpret situations as opportunities to perform work role activities (Hillman, Nicholson & Shropshire, 2008).

Emotional reactions that are related to human desire to fulfil psychological needs or values is another flow of work based explanation of the individual in research (Rich, Lepine & Crawford, 2010). For example, there is a robust stream of research on job satisfaction. “Job satisfaction is the positive emotional state resulting from appraisal of an individual’s job experience” (Locke, 1976). Favourable perceptions of job features, supervisors and co-workers are elements that support job satisfaction (Russell, Spitzmuller, Lin, Stanton, Smith & Ironson, 2004). Job satisfaction is affected by individual differences in personality (Judge, Heller & Mount, 2002). There is a positive feeling linked with high satisfaction with one’s job, it is the result of favourable evaluations of what an organisation offers its employees to make them more willing to carry out behaviours linked with tasks that add to organisational effectiveness (Judge, Bono, Thoresen & Patton, 2001).

Theory exists that refers to the individual fundamentally, to the physical energies that view specific task activities that result from the need to feel competent and maintain autonomy and control over different actions. The concept of intrinsic motivation is one of such research. Intrinsic motivation is the wish to exert pressure on a task when external constraints or contingencies are absent (Deci, 1975). Work contexts and differences in individuals nurture feelings of competence and autonomy, and relationship supports intrinsic motivation (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Intrinsic motivation has been argued to affect performance, because of the quest to satisfy the three intrinsic needs that facilitate self-motivation and effective regulatory functioning through internalised organisational valued goals (Baard, Deci & Ryan, 2004).

Research that attempt to study the concepts with job performance have their attention on various aspects of the individual in explaining the reason for employees’ choice of investment in self and their work roles. Job involvement is involved with the cognitive energy of individuals to invest and maintain identities that relate to their work. Job satisfaction attends to affective responses and the need to maintain happiness. Intrinsic motivation has to do with efforts and persistence of individuals to maintain autonomy and control. When considering the explanations above collectively, they complement different variables of performance. According to Goffman (1961), investing in the emotional, physical or cognitive energies has resulted in more available choices holistically and relationally.

6.3. TERMS RELATIVE TO EMPLOYEE TASK PERFORMANCE

For the purpose of this study, the terms to be discussed include: work engagement, job characteristics, physical demand, social support, contextual performance and organisational citizenship behaviour.

6.3.1 Work engagement

Nowadays, work engagement has become a popular construct to practitioners and researchers. Streams of research is emerging on the common concept of work engagement in the form of high levels of personal investment in the work tasks performed by an employee on a job (Kahn, 1990; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Lepine & Crawford, 2010). There remain issues that are not resolved on the important effect of the future of work engagement research in times past. Work engagement research had the problem of inconsistent construct definitions and operationalized concept (Macey & Schneider, 2008). The inconsistency has left researchers with confusion as to the treatment of work engagement as a concept or empirical construct that is different from other constructs (Dalal, Brummel, Wee & Thomas, 2008). Many researchers are uncertain about the incremental value of engagement over other constructs as a predictor of behaviour (Newman & Harrison, 2008).

Kahn (1990) defined personal work engagement as a state where employees “bring in” their personal selves to perform work roles; investing personal effort and experiencing an emotional relationship with their work. Work role here is viewed as opportunities for employees to apply their behaviours, energies and express themselves holistically and in the same manner (Kahn, 1990). Work engagement is primarily a motivational concept that is involved with the active allocation of personal resources toward tasks that are related to work role (Rich et al., 2010). Kahn’s conceptualization of work engagement had two notable features. First, work engagement has a psychological relationship with task performance and not attitude towards the organisation or job (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). Second, work engagement involves self-investment of personal resources in to work. Work engagement represents a semblance among physical, emotional and cognitive efforts that employees bring to their work role (Rich et al., 2010). It means individuals engage their work at multiple levels of connection and not at a single level. Distinct dimension refers to many measures of investment of multiple personal resources (Schaufeli et al., 2002); composite measure is investing the entire self (Saks, 2006). Studies which reported dimension-level correlations revealed strong correlates among

factors, and Christian, Garza and Slaughter (2011) considered engagement as a higher order construct.

Conceptualizing engagement as a “state” against it as a “trait” is a factor worthy of consideration to define engagement. Most researches on engagement have viewed it as relatively stable individual differences which vary between individuals (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). The recent studies in this field indicated that engagement is subject to moderate day level fluctuations around average level (Sonnentag, 2003). A debate has come up on whether engagement should best be considered as a stable trait, as a temporary state, or both (Dalal et al., 2008).

6.3.2 Job characteristics

According to Hackman and Oldham (1976), the work environment characteristics suggest that environment assists motivation, which is recorded empirically (Fried & Ferris, 1987). Macey and Schneider are of the opinion that certain aspects of work are intrinsic and will impact the degree to which an individual is willing to self-invest their personal effort in their tasks. Humphrey, Nahrgang and Morgeson (2007) have expanded the job characteristics model with three categories of motivating factors linked with work design. They are motivational, social and contextual characteristics.

Motivational features likely linked with engagement are autonomy (which is independence in conducting one's work), task variety (that is performing varying tasks on a job), task significance (involves the extent to which a job affects the lives of others), feedback (the degree to which a job offers performance information), problem solving (the degree to which a job involves creativity or new ideas) and job complexity (difficulty in performing a job and complications). These features assist employees by stimulating experiences of meaning, responsibility and knowledge of results (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Individuals who have resources to facilitate their job tasks are more prone to invest their efforts and personal resources in their work roles (Salanova, Agut & Peiro, 2005).

Dispositional features - Studies have argued that dispositional individual differences are likely to shape employees' inclinations toward engagement (Kahn, 1990). Dispositional factors are the important sets of antecedents in the Macey and Schneider (2008) framework. The personality traits involved with human agency, or individuals' ability to control their thoughts and emotions to connect with their environments, are to lead to engagement (Hirschfeld & Thomas, 2008).

6.3.3 Social support

It is the degree to which an individual's job makes available opportunities for help and advice from superiors or colleagues at work. Social support is a social feature that may be linked with engagement. Kahn (1990) suggested that engagement increased when work included rewarding relationships with co-workers. Social features can be motivated by introducing meaningfulness (Gersick, Bartunek & Dutton, 2000), resilience and security (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Christian et al. (2011) suspected that engagement would be positively linked with social support. Details have been written in the preceding chapter on social support.

6.3.4 Physical demand

Physical demand is the quantity of physical effort necessary for a job. Physical demand and work conditions like temperature, noise and health hazards are contextual work features that are likely linked with engagement. Humphrey et al. (2007) suggested that contextual characteristics should be a concept that is integrated with the job characteristics model developed by Hackman and Oldham (1976). Their reason was that contextual features are a class of job characteristics that have attention on contextual aspects of an individual's work and they are not redundant with motivational or social characteristics. The social characteristics are focused on an employee's job elements and relational components. Kahn (1990) suggested that physical demands and work conditions make employees to perform tasks as if they are supervised by external documents, rather than by personal investment in the work, and this may lead to negative experiences at work (Humphrey et al., 2007). Engagement may be negatively linked with physical demands and work conditions.

6.3.5 Contextual performance

When employees put effort into their work roles, they ought to have higher contextual performance, which is connected to an individual's susceptibility to behave in manners that will ease the social and psychological context of an organisation (Borman & Motowildlo, 1993). Engagement is imagined to be an indicator of a person's willingness to use discretion to help the employer (Erikson, 2005). The suggestion was that individuals who invest in themselves and their work roles may likely carry a wider conception of that role and they will likely step outside their formal job boundaries to ease the organisation at large and the people within (Rich et al., 2010).

6.3.6 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

According to Smith, Organ and Near (1983), in order to achieve effective organisational operation, three forms of behaviour should be examined: one, the willingness of an employee to stay with the organisation, two, the actions of an employee that is beyond their job description, three, and the proactive behaviour of an employee beyond their job responsibilities. One and two above are within the roles of the individual, but the third is outside the employee's role, to involve cooperation among co-workers, improving on self, and creating a right image in the organisation. Innovation and spontaneous behaviours are important for an organisation to perform effectively. These behaviours may not be required for performance, but they are contributors to the organisational operations and performance. Organ (1988) defined OCB as "self-initiated by employees". These kinds of behaviours can assist the overall effectiveness of an organisation's performance; the organisational reward system does not recognise the behaviours. Williams and Anderson (1991) proposed that OCB involves "The proactive cooperation and assistance among colleagues working together."

Organ (1988) acknowledged the following perspectives of OCB: one, altruism, when an employee takes initiative to assist members of an organisation to resolve problems; two, conscientiousness, apart from complying with the rules of the organisation, acting beyond the required level through hard work; three, sportsmanship, obedience, to organisational rules, tolerating faulty situations without complaint; four, courtesy, avoid problems at work by reminding and informing colleagues earlier; Five, civic virtue, being attentive and proactive when performing all organisational activities. Despite attempts by many scholars to define OCB, the definition given by Organ (1988) still stands comprehensive (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach (2000).

Many scholars are investigating OCB in the tourism and hospitality industries (Cho & Johanson, 2008, Van Dyne, 2003, Walz & Niehoff, 2000). Raub was of the opinion that workers in the hotel industry should show more OCB in the work environment.

6.4 LEADER MEMBER EXCHANGE AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Research work has demonstrated that managers who are leaders or supervisors can affect employee's job motivation and job performance (Gerstner & Day, 1997). XLi, Sanders and Frenkel (2012) used LMX theory to examine the effect of the supervisor. The argument was that a supervisor's support as perceived by employees encourages employee engagement which contributes to job performance. LMX is the quality of interaction between supervisor and

subordinate (Graen & Scandura, 1987). The assumption of LMX is that supervisors use an uncommon approach with each of their subordinates.

The relationships between supervisors and subordinates are influenced across different cultures by respect, trust and obligation (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In two studies, Law, Wang and Hui (2010) reported that LMX was positively linked with job performance and organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) in the initial work, while the second work indicated that LMX was linked with contextual performance. LMX affects job outputs through various factors like organisational job embeddedness (Harris, Wheeler & Kacmar, 2009), supervisor trust (Wat & Shaffer, 2005), and avoiding feedback behaviour (Moss, Sanchez, Brumbaugh & Borkowski, 2009). In the studies that examined the effect of LMX on service employees' emotions, Huang, Chan, Lam and Nan (2010) discovered that LMX were negatively linked. XLi et al. (2012) examined work engagement by combining emotion and cognitive disposition as mediators between LMX and employee job performance. Organisations in the service sector should seek to engage individuals who are more proactive in their jobs and feel more responsible, to offer quality outcomes (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). Li et al. (2012) studied to integrate LMX with a human resource management system.

According to the shift noted recently, attention of practitioners has shifted from recruitment, selection and performance appraisal (HRM practices), to implementation of HRM practices by line managers and interpretation by employees with organisational performance (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). Therefore, the more employees perceive consistent policies on the purpose of HR practices, the stronger the LMX effects on work engagement and employee job performance (Li et al., 2012).

Earlier work has examined LMX outcome relationship contingencies like style of leadership (Harris et al., 2009), task features (Dunegan, Uhl-Bien & Duchon, 2002), personality of employees (Harris et al., 2009), support of the top management (Erdogan & Enders, 2007), and psychological climate of employees (Tordera, Gonzalez-Roma & Peiro, 2008).

The study of LMX has shown the significance of the role of supervisors in fashioning employees' job attitudes and performance.

High quality exchange associations between supervisors and subordinates include mutual influence and respect, and the low quality exchange associations are identified by contract exchanges and one-way downward effect. When the quality of exchange in association is high, the supervisor supports the subordinate by offering trust and emotional support; this is called

in-group support. Where the quality of exchange in association is low, both the supervisor and subordinate offer nothing extra outside their job requirements; this is called out-group support (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

The theory of LMX argued that actions that are positive by the leader can prompt a sense of indebtedness by the subordinate through gifts or exchange of favours (Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). Favour provokes some form of indebtedness with different perspectives like consideration, trust, competence, and organisational resource control (Bernerth, Armenakis & Field, 2007). Earlier studies suggested that employees' job motivation can be enhanced by high quality supervisor interactions (Klein & Kim, 1998). LMX has been proven to have positive influences on employee job performances like satisfaction, superiors, total job satisfaction, employee job performance and organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) (Ilies, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007). Some studies report associations that are not significant between LMX and performance and OCB (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008), this gave room for more exploration on potential moderators and mediators of LMX-outcome relationships.

6.4.1 Relative Leader-Member Exchange (RLMX) and job performance

RLMX is different from LMX because RLMX examines members' relative stands in the form of exchange associations with the leader, while LMX is the measurement of the quality of relationships between leaders and their subordinates (Hu & Liden, 2013). RLMX is clearly different from LMX social comparison (LMXSC). RLMX reflects the extent to which an individual's LMX is different average LMX of individuals working in a workgroup; LMXSC is an individual's subjective comparison evaluation and is obtained from focal employees (Vidyarthi, Liden, Anand, Erdogan & Ghosh, 2010).

Recent research on RLMX has revealed that it has relationship with job outcomes beyond the influence of LMX (Hu & Liden, 2013). Graen, Liden and Hoel (1982) developed the operational performance of LMX as mean workgroup LMX minus each group member's individual LMX score. Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bummer and Tetrick (2008) discovered that LMX is positively linked with psychological contract fulfilment, dominating the individual's perceptions of LMX. Hu and Liden (2013) reported that RLMX is positively associated with job satisfaction and job performance. Vidyarthi et al. (2010) viewed LMXSC as a mediator of the association between RLMX and OCBS, but that LMXSC partially mediates the link between RLMX and job performance after the influence of LMX is controlled.

That is related conceptually to, but different from, LMX and LMXSC. Therefore, Tse, Ashkanasy and Dasborough (2012) should be able to explain the meaningful variance in the attitudes of employees at work and behaviours of the individuals' perceptions of LMXSC and LMX (Tse, Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2012).

6.5 SOCIAL IDENTIFICATION AND JOB PERFORMANCE

The outcomes of members in a work group are measured by the degree to which members' work performance goes beyond their prescribed job demands and expectations at work (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). Tse et al. (2012) treated job performance as an outcome variable. Job performance is measured by work requirements outlined in employees' job descriptions (Williams & Anderson, 1991), which include quality and quantity of work expected to be performed by employees.

Social identification has the tendency to increase individual job performance by permitting individuals to evaluate the way their work can add to overall group success (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Van Knippenberg (2000) showed that as soon as individuals align with the values of their work group, their attention will be on the interests and purposes of all. Individual effort and work role is viewed in addition to the collective efforts of the overall group. On the other side, this assists the importance of performance because both quality and quantity of an individual's job is perceived to be related to overall group effectiveness. Roy, Square-Storer, Hogg and Abrams (1991) contended that the impact of social identification on work performance is explainable because of the cognitive and affective identification with groups that increases a person's "self-concept" and "self-efficacy" (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher & Wetherell, 1987). Self-concept and self-efficacy should motivate individuals to perform their duties in a better way. Stamper and Masterson (2002) were of the opinion that individuals who view themselves as insiders in groups or an organisation should be willing to accept their responsibilities and roles in order to perform effectively.

In their study, Tse et al. (2012) argued that social identification that is driven by social comparison might explain the link between RLMX and job performance. Tajfel and Turner (1986), in their theory of social identification, reflect group members' perceptions of self-concept and job performance.

6.6 EMPLOYEE BASIC TASK PERFORMANCE SCALE

Items that were used for employee task performance outcomes were picked to make selection between employees' basic tasks and events that fall outside those tasks. Employees' tasks vary in nature with their jobs, industries, and organisations. Tsui, Pearce, Porter and Tripoli (1997) developed items that were generic, not that they were peculiar to one specific job. Six of the items, quantity, quality, and efficiency of employees, were among the items developed to measure basic task performance. Supervisors on these items indicated the degree to which they agreed that an employee's performance on the job was higher than that of other employees in the same job. The response scale for this study ranges from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". Other additional items were adapted from Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (1990), which measure core task performance. The items focused on an employee's job quantity, job quality, efficiency, professionalism, job standard, total ability, sense of judgment, job knowledge, accuracy, and creativity in performing assigned tasks. Rater's response will be on the five point scale, ranging from "unsatisfactory" to "excellent".

6.7 INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS AND GROUP TASK PERFORMANCE

Group process is known as the behaviour or pattern of interaction among members of a group (Weldon & Weingart, 1988). Research work on process consultation, T-group, sensitivity training and team growth, assumed that interpersonal relationship among members of a group leads to task performance improvement (Guzzo & Shea, 1992). The studies have indicated how interpersonal associations among group members minimise process loss. Process loss is the degree to which the performance of a group is limited through lack of understanding, wrong communication and dislike among group members (Steiner, 1972). Process loss is the outcome of unproductive group effort and reduced performance because of interpersonal difficulties. The dysfunctional impact has been recorded by researchers such as role ambiguity, miscommunication, and mistrust that result in difficulties of satisfaction in different task groups like airline crews, military combat units, management teams and student groups (Hacman, 1991).

Past research studies on cohesiveness and performance have resulted in controversial outcomes (Guzzo & Dickson, 1996). Friendship and cohesion are two different constructs, but they have similar common and independent elements. They both focus on interpersonal associations among members of a group. The assumption is that interpersonal attraction is the basis for friendship and this assists cohesion among group members. Seashore (1954) suggested that the

association between cohesion and group performance depends on group norms. In a group where cohesion is high, norms to measure high and low performance prompted a high and low level of performance.

Group processes that are needed for optimal performance may depend on the nature of task being performed (Jehn, 1995). Processes that are necessary for one task may be negative to another. There are cognitive and repetitive tasks. Cognitive tasks accommodate conceptual skills and problem solving abilities, while repetitive tasks emphasise physical skills and speed (Shah, 2000). Jehn and Shah (1993) suggested that group processes that are associated to positive interpersonal relationships improve group performance, by examining the following seven processes of information sharing, planning and communication, morale building critical evaluation, commitment and cooperation.

6.7.1 Sharing of information

Information sharing in groups is making statements to other members of a group about a task. Collective information sharing is the disclosure of facts and task-relevant information to group members (Henry, 1995). Information sharing also involves the notion of task behaviour (Bale, 1951). Active task behaviour is giving opinions, suggestions and information. Passive task behaviour is requesting information, suggestions and opinion. Speaking about tasks, expression of feelings and ideas, and freely exchanging task-associated thoughts are samples of sharing information.

Information sharing increases attention on task and energy which in turn increases task performance (Weldon et al., 1991). Task performance benefits from information shared about skills and knowledge prescribed on how to perform a task. Group performance on cognitive tasks increases when members share task-related information (Stasser & Stewart, 1992). The individual members bring different information and expertise to a group. The peculiar information that each individual possesses is called unshared information (Larson, Christen & Abbot, 1996). The small group involved with fact finding discussions increase performance by putting emphases on peculiar and salient information that members possess (Stasser et al., 1992). If the group members increase the sharing of different opinions and information about task-relational skills and strategies, it can aid group performance, for the fact that information that is valuable to groups will become important to individuals (Larson et al., 1996).

Individuals share acquired information at work with selected target employees often using fairly simple technologies like, email and face to face conversation (Rioux, 2005).

6.7.2 Planning

Planning is an identified task-relational communication where members form actions that relate to time and function that leads to identified goals (McGrath, 1984). Planning involves identifying procedures of task and delegation of task responsibility, to determine temporal order for a task (Weldon et al., 1991). Explicit process planning is the verbal planning behaviour that happens while group members are working on a task and not the planning that happens preceding a task (Weingart, 1992). When group members discuss how to get a task done or who should get it done, or whether or not to do a certain act, they are planning.

Research has demonstrated that planning is positively associated with group performance (Dean & Sharfman, 1995). Planning affects the effectiveness of performance in two ways: either the group members share strategies adopted in the past and implement them, or develop or adopt new plans (Hackman & Morris, 1975). When the quality of planning is high, it reduces the problems associated with coordination, which prevents task performance, and increases the chances that the group will uncover more efficient and effective plans (Smith, Locke & Harry, 1990). Coordination, which is the participating of persons to achieve a task (Van de Ven, Delbecq & Koenig, 1976), is important because of collective effective action. Planning permits group members to work together for best distribution of work, to coordinate the actions of individual members to give room for members to share information (Weingart & Weldon, 1991).

6.7.3 Critical evaluation

Critical evaluation takes place when one or more members find fault with or decides the quality of other individual members. Lack of agreement or arguments about the manner a group member performs his/her duty, disapprovals, criticisms and instances can cause critical evaluation. It involves examination, judgment, analysis, and scrutiny of group members' work output.

Research has indicated that those who manage relationships well manage their disagreements differently from non-relational employees (Aboud, 1989). Relational folks offer more explanations to those with whom they have relationships at work, criticise more, and are probably likely to get confirmatory information relative to non-friends (Gottman & Parkhurst, 1980).

Where personal relationships exist between group members, they are likely to critically evaluate one another's ideas (Knapp, Ellis & Williams, 1980). Studies have shown that conflicts and criticism about individual members of a group are more common in close relationships than with acquaintances (Argyle & Furnham, 1983). A supportive relationship that is established by existing relationships may substitute questions and challenges of ideas in a manner that is non-threatening. Security because of relationships may reduce the uncertainty of retaliation or negative repercussions that are the outcome of critical comments. Critical evaluation may be inhibited in relational groups, due to norms of politeness that govern social interaction among strangers (Mikula & Schwinger, 1978).

Research work on interpersonal relationships suggested that individuals may avoid conflict with friends in order to maintain their relationships. Relational individual members in a group are occupied most of the time with maintaining their relationships and are unwilling to critically evaluate each other's ideas and opinions (Davidson & Duberman, 1982). Individual members who participate in interpersonal relationships in groups experience few arguments compared to non-relational employees. Threats to the relationship at times lead to restrictions in exchange of information and processing (Gladstein & Reilly, 1985). Experience in the group may lead to the same task interpretations that may reduce the possibility of conflicts (McPherson & Smith-Lovin, 1987).

Critical evaluation as a component of decision-making tasks allows a group to explore other ways of making informed decisions. Performance in decision making is improved through analysis and prioritising options (Alisson, 1971). Critical evaluation can reduce the negative effect of group thinking (Janis, 1982) by questioning assumptions and permits the generation of acceptable alternate ideas (Cosier & Schwenk, 1990).

6.7.4 Morale building communication

Communication among work groups includes communication that is task related like information sharing, critical evaluation and planning; and communication that is not task related like building of morale (Weldon et al., 1991). Communication of morale building in an individual is that communication that enhances a group member to perform better by transacting positive group comments, projecting confidence, displaying positive attitude, offering words of encouragement and demonstrating zeal.

According to Jehn and Shar (1997), morale building communication increased the result is both positive and negative, depending on the type of task the group is involved with. Morale building

communication makes available a sense of value among group members, provokes their emotions, and prompts group work faster on a repeated task (Thorns, Moore & Scott, 1996). Performance is influenced when group members' effort increases through morale building communication (Weldon et al., 1988).

The same morale building communication can obstruct cognitive task performance. It is the quality of decision that is important and not the speed; the emotional promptings in morale building communication may not be essential. The individual worth can make employees put in little in cognitive tasks (Bandura, 1982). At the same time, communication that is non-task related can create a friendly work environment, particularly when the task is repetitive in nature; this may interfere with the demands of decision-making tasks. Shah and Jehn (1993), on decision making tasks, indicated that positive and negative emotional exchanges that are high lessened the concentration of group members. The trend of group members to socialise and not put attention on a task is a negative factor that affects task performance. Open communication and individual disclosure can have a negative effect by causing interpersonal complications that can hinder productivity (Jehn, 1995).

6.7.5 Commitment

Commitment to work is the strength of a member's identification and involvement with work (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). Identification was described as the basis for attachment in organisational commitment because individual members desire to be affiliated with a group (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Committed individuals feel committed to the group, identified, obliged and are emotionally attached to the group.

Expectation is that the commitment level of an individual will be higher among employees that have relationship because of strong interpersonal association. Friends will likely have their attention on the group, as they define their identity in the group (Brass, 1984). Commitment to the work will make members increase their task effort, irrespective of the type of task being performed (Whitney, 1994). Commitment and identity to the group encourages members to perform well. It also encourages members to work harder to protect group and individual identity (Klein & Mulvey, 1995); this serves as a catalyst to performance.

6.7.6 Task monitoring

An administrative step that individuals take to make sure that a task is performed and completed on time is task monitoring. Tasks are monitored when individuals assess the progress of their

performance and the possibility of reaching the set goals and objectives (Weldon et al., 1991). For individuals with a specific deadline, it is necessary to monitor behaviour by checking the clock for the time remaining to complete a task and assess the quantity of work left. Relationships within the groups with group accountability and reputation can make members monitor their behaviour to be sure of success. The individuals that are concerned with the effects of reputation in the group are more likely to perform the monitoring work (Robinson & Weldon, 1993). The members who are not serious about identity, tend to have less affinity to monitoring.

Research work has indicated that monitoring behaviour among individuals is positively related to performance, the same is the situation with groups (Weldon et al., 1991). Monitoring permits individuals to update their level of input and identify when strategies to increase performance are necessary (Robinson et al., 1993). Changes made as a result of strategies and evaluations of the process are likely to increase individual and group performance on tasks (Ashford & Cummings, 1983).

6.7.7. Cooperation

Cooperation supports performance of individuals and facilitates the contribution to coordinate efforts (Weldon & Weingart, 1988). Cooperation involves individuals assisting one another with tasks and includes a mutual beneficial behaviour.

Differences in social exchanges like assisting behaviour and task support makes cooperation among individuals in friendships greater than those who are not acquainted. Mutual support based on an assumption that individuals can count on one another when the need arises, is a strong indication of relationship (Argyle & Furnham, 1983). The assistance that friends offer each other is based on needs and desires; strangers and friends do this to respond to past benefits or receive future responses. Cooperative orientation and role expectation in close relationships makes friends more likely to focus on the needs of others (Clark, Mills & Corcoran, 1989). Those individuals who feel better after supporting may seek friendship because of the help offered to them (Harlow & Cantor, 1995).

Cooperation among members is an important element of task performance (Whitney, 1994). Group members who support each other on a task can increase their efforts towards higher rates of productivity (Hackman, 1987). Members of a cooperative group share information, focus, are rich in communication and they perform better on an interdependent task (Weldon et al., 1988).

Jehn (1995) posits that task performance will be positively linked with information sharing, commitment, morale building, planning task monitoring, and cooperation. They suggested that individuals in relationship engaged with performance processes on a task should be encouraged, because of its influence on performance.

6.8 SUMMARY

The attention of scholars in the area of employee work performance has been on the concepts that explain the individual as an employee. An individual is perceived from the effort they put into the work and other activities that are not related to work (Ashforth et al., 2008). This study synonymously uses the words individual performance and employee performance throughout the study. The attention of this study is on the outcome of an individual who works as an employee in an organisation.

From Kahn's concept of work engagement, two elements were significant: one, is the psychological association between work engagement and task performance; two, is self-investment of personal resources to work by individuals (Kahn, 1990; Maslach et al., 2001). This study explained the job characteristics model and the different factors associated with work design. The state of independence in performing tasks is called motivational factor; and the individual differences in work engagement is known as dispositional factors (Salanova et al., 2005).

The general assumption of LMX is that the superior officers use different approaches with each of their subordinates. The relationship between supervisors and subordinates are affected by diverse cultures through the following factors: respect, obligation and trust (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Different studies supported the fact that LMX is linked positively with job performance (Law, Wang & Hui, 2010). In another study, the report was that LMX is related to contextual performance.

According to Bakker and Leiter (2010), organisations should endeavour to engage individuals who are proactive in their jobs, and are responsible to be productive. Li et al. (2012), in integrating LMX to HR management practices, maintained that attention of practitioners should be on interpreting the organisational performance. The more employees perceive consistency in following policies of the HR practices, the stronger the LMX effects on job performance (Li et al., 2012).

When the quality of LMX relationship is high, supervisors support the subordinates. Where the quality of LMX relationship is low, both the supervisors and the subordinates offer nothing extra apart from each performing their job requirements (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Positive action by the supervisor may prompt a sense of indebtedness and motivational reciprocation by subordinates (Bernerth et al., 2007). LMX has been proven to have positive effect on job performance (Ilies et al., 2007). The relationship between RLMX and job performance was examined. It was revealed that RLMX has a link with the job outcomes more than the LMX. RLMX is positively linked with job performance (Hu & Liden, 2013).

Jehn and Shah (1993), in measuring group processes between interpersonal relationships and group performance, examined that they are positively associated. They examined the following group processes: information sharing, planning, commitment, morale building, critical evaluation, communication and cooperation.

Having completed a review of the literature on all the variables, the next chapter will present the methodology used to conduct the empirical component of this thesis.

CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter comprehensively explicates the practical processes engaged in the study, by primarily acknowledging the research questions and research objectives that form the basis for the study. The study is investigating the association between individual interpersonal relationship and work performance in the South African retail sector.

This chapter examines the different research philosophies and chooses the most appropriate for the study. The philosophy that accommodates relationship between variables will be more suitable for this study. Two research approaches have been explained in this chapter, according to the scholars, on approaches to development theories (Saunders, 2009). The one chosen was based on whether it examines law, knowledge, and the theory to formulate objectives, data collection and analysis and interpretation of findings in order to support the objectives (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

In designing this research work, this study employed different strategies to probe the influence of individual interpersonal relationship on performance. The study used techniques, instruments and tools to translate the research problems into meaningful understanding.

7.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

Research philosophy involves the expansion and the environment of knowledge. These are assumptions made about a view of the world. The assumptions determine the research strategy and the method of choice in the research strategy (Johnson & Clark, 2006). There are different research philosophies that inform research strategies. This subsection will briefly touch on each of them.

Positivism is the research philosophy that follows the line of the natural science, which believes that objects are real, assessable and generalizable as actual knowledge (Saunders et al., 2009). Constructionism is the belief that reality exists and it is socially constructed (Bryman, 2012). Realism is the orientation that assumes that social phenomena have to use the same method to arrive at specific answers (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Interpretivism is the opinion that sees a social actor different from their behaviour. It points out the reliability, validity and generalization as tests (Kellilier, 2011). Pragmatism is the philosophy that relies on actions, results and situations that challenge other researches (Saunders et al., 2009).

After considering each of the research philosophies thoroughly, this study adopted pragmatism as the most suitable to support its objectives. Pragmatism supports the linkage between individual interpersonal relationships on work performance. Different from viewing information about truth and reality, pragmatism studies questions and problems. It believes that the use of multiple approaches is necessary to arrive at improved outcomes (Creswell, 2009). The researcher is free to adopt an appropriate method or methods depending on the extent to which a better result is needed by the use of pragmatic research (Freshwater & Cahill, 2013). Because of the diverse nature of the world, pragmatics sees the need to engage with multiple techniques to meet each challenge as they present themselves (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). It also suggests research to engage multiple data collection and analysis in order to do thorough work, or overcome inadequacies. Pragmatism gives room for various perceptions, assumptions and approaches that lead the study to better data collection, data analysis and interpretation of results to bring about a good research outcome (Creswell, 2009).

In view of the fact above, this study used mixed methods, that is, quantitative and qualitative approaches to collect data. The adoption of pragmatic strategies as a belief philosophically, is among the best manner of justifying the combination of numerical and non-numerical approach of enquiry in management science (Morgan, 2007).

7.2.1 Research approach

Having duly considered the strength and short-comings of both the inductive and deductive approaches, this research adopts the integrated approach as being more suitable for the investigation of the linkage between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance (Creswell & Clark, 2011). This is in line with the pragmatic assumption that this study adopted. The framework for this study was supported with the integrated approach, which made it possible for the researcher to make answers available for the gap between individual interpersonal relationships and performance (Guest, 2011). In management science research, the use of an integrated framework has assumed a wide acceptance because of its ability to make quality results available (Bellot, 2011; Morgan, 2007).

7.2.2 Type of research: Descriptive

A descriptive research is carried out to make sure there is proper description of the characteristics of variables in an investigation of interest (Sekaran et al., 2009). Descriptive research makes available information that relates to the characteristics of variables in a phenomenon. It allows a comprehensive discussion on former exploratory research or both at

times (Saunders et al., 2009). Descriptive research rides on the back of exploratory research in order to provide arguments or discussion.

This study adopts the principles proposed by Ali and Birley (1999) in the integrated approach by describing the HR policies on the relationship between individual interpersonal relationships and performance in the South African retail sector. The study makes a descriptive analysis of the influence of interpersonal relationships on individual performance at work.

7.2.3 Research method: Mixed method

Mixed method is the integration of two approaches, qualitative and quantitative techniques of collecting data and procedures for analysing data either consecutively or concurrently (Saunders et al., 2009). The subsection below represents the form of mixed method adopted in this study, as acknowledged by Creswell (2009).

7.2.3.1 Transformative mixed method

This approach depends on the problem of the research, research questions, and objectives of the study. Numerical or non-numerical data may be collected, analysed and interpreted sequentially or concurrently (Hanson, Creswell, Clark, Petska & Creswell, 2005). The researcher by his/her discretion may give priority to one method over the other, and decide to collect data, analyse the data using sequential or concurrent, or both at the same time (Creswell, 2009). Transformative mixed method gives access to information from diverse opinions. It encourages the perceptions of the participants to facilitate and improve constructs in an investigation (Hanson et al., 2005).

7.3 RESPONDENT SELECTION

This section considers and determines the approximated population of the study. It also chooses among the different sampling methods, the one that is appropriate for the study. This includes population as well as sampling. The assumed samples size for the study will be considered as well.

7.3.1 Population for the study

According to Saunders et al. (2009), the population of any study is the entire universe out of which a sample is selected. Wilson (2010) referred to population as *“the group of cases distinct from which a researcher can draw.”* Sekaran et al. (2009) referred to it as *“the entire group of people, events or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate.”*

From the setting of this study, population is the whole group of employees in the selected retail companies in South Africa taking part in the study. These employees are supervisors and subordinates in the employment of those companies that agreed to participate in the study. The target population includes the four retail companies chosen in South Africa for this study. The estimated research population was 2,000 employees. The names of the retail companies are not to be disclosed because of the request for anonymity by the respective companies. The study investigated the connection between the employees' interpersonal relationships and their individual performance at work in the retail sector acknowledging supervisor-subordinate relationships by Sias (2008).

7.3.2 Sampling method: Convenience

A technique of non-random sampling is whereby samples are drawn because they offer convenience to the researcher. The technique is established on how accessible and willing the respondent is to participate in the research work. The technique permits researchers to select subjects according to their access and willingness to be part of the research until the sample size is complete (Saunders et al., 2009). This study found convenience sampling more adaptive, despite the weaknesses associated with the sampling technique. The researcher observed that the employees in the retail industry are sensitive and their job schedules are hectic. The reason the researcher chose convenience sampling is that it is easy to apply and it offers closeness to participants. It is cost effective and less time consuming, and access to respondents that are willing to participate in the study is easy. In order to overcome the weaknesses related to convenience sampling, the researcher decided to use a mixed method approach to data collection. This resulted in the use of methodological triangulation, due to the use of numerical and non-numerical data collection (Saunders et al., 2009; Sekaran et al., 2009).

7.3.2.1 Steps to sampling approach

The procedure adopted in this study for sampling approach is to consider the sample population and the technique of sampling appropriate. The steps for the sampling approach considered are: one, select a sample of retail companies and the types of retailers from the mix of "convenience" (those who would co-operate in making their company a case study). Two, the selection of branches from where to collect data by "convenience", as suggested by the retail head office. Three, the selection of supervisors and subordinate workers that participated in the study. The survey was given to those who were available and willing to co-operate in "convenience". The study attempted to reach a consensus with all the staff that participated, so

that the resulting samples were “self included” (that is, those who chose to respond) and therefore also “convenience”.

7.3.3 Sample size

The researcher wrote to many retail companies inviting them to participate in the study. Only four of them indicated interest and agreed to participate in the study. The researcher selected 400 employees from the four retail companies that participated. The researcher distributed 100 questionnaires to each company as the estimated sample size in order to collect primary data with the assistance of questionnaires. The researcher compared the above with the first rule of thumb for selection of appropriate sample size, promoted by Roscoe (1975) in Sekaran and Bougie (2009); 400 as a sample size was within the range that is greater than 30, less than 500. Krejcie and Morgan’s (1970) table of minimum sample sizes for different population sizes at 95% confidence level was applied to support the decision.

7.3.4. Sampling design

The sampling designs basically include probability and non-probability sampling. The techniques of probability sampling are simple random, systematic, stratified random, cluster and multi-stage sampling (Wilson, 2010). The non-probability sampling is quota, snowball, purposive sampling and convenience sampling. This study chose non-probability sampling, that is convenience sampling already discussed.

7.4 DATA COLLECTION

This section will give consideration to the manner in which the survey was designed and the fact that all the instruments have been adapted from previous studies. Closed and open-ended questionnaires will be used in this study as the core research instruments to collect primary data from the respondents. The intention was to bring out the information that is imperative to describe the relationship between individual interpersonal relationships and basic work performance. Open-ended questions were also used to collect important information on interpersonal relationships, social support, interpersonal conflict and performance of individuals.

The gap acknowledged in the review of literature was aligned in designing the instrument. The weaknesses observed in previous studies on the subject of linkage between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance may be circulated to the management staff of the retail companies that participated in the data collection process. However, it was

imperative to gather information from the employees in the retail stores who experience interpersonal relationship, to contribute to the organisational goals and objectives by their attitudes and behaviour (Guest, 2011). The survey was distributed to the store employees in sales, a butchery, merchandising, administration, and to a cashier across the retail companies through the help of the HR managers.

7.4.1 Data collection instrument

The main instrument used in this study was a questionnaire, comprising multiple choice questions of numerical data, and open-ended non-numerical data questions. The aim was to accomplish the objectives of the study by applying concurrent transformative mixed methods for data design, collection and analysis. The questionnaire was used to collect the numerical and non-numerical data at the same time (Creswell, 2009).

A questionnaire is often used to collect three main types of data variables: they are opinion, behaviour and attributes variables. The variables that document the feelings, emotions and thinking of participants about the true or false nature of a given phenomena being investigated is called opinion variables. When information is gathered in respect of an event that happened in the past, or in the present, or for something in the future, it is behavioural variables. When data is gathered that relates to a participant's characteristics as evident in the demographic part of the questionnaire, it is referred to as attribute variables.

7.4.1.1. Idea behind the instrument

The variables in this study were considered by the researcher in the process of designing the questionnaire for gathering data. The issues considered in preparing the instruments were as follows: consideration was given to each of the objectives of the study, aligning the research questions, and objectives to the questionnaire. The second issue was the construction of the questionnaire. All the questions were structured in simple but communicable writing for the respondents to understand. The questions were succinct and direct to the point. Third, was the coverage of the questionnaire, that is, the population of the study, which covered all working employees of the four retail companies in South Africa? All of the above was considered before explaining the linkage between individual interpersonal relationship and performance in the retail sector in South Africa. Forty-seven questions in total, divided into five sections were contained in the questionnaire.

7.4.1.2 *Instrument design*

Section A of the survey questionnaire comprises of those questions designed to collect personal variables that relate to the participants; those variables specified in the study that involved the linkage between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance in the retail sector in South Africa. The study used a six point Likert-type rating scale (Wilson, 2010). The scale was adopted by this study because it is not difficult to construct and interpret (Hartley, 2014). Another reason for choosing the point six Likert scale was that it offers the respondents more options and alternatives from where to choose, thereby, not sitting on the fence (Saunders et al., 2009). The essence was to not make respondents neutral when it concerns employee interpersonal relationships and their basic work performance.

In section B, the instrument chosen for this study was the *Interpersonal Conflict at Work Scale (ICAWS)* that was advanced by Frone (2000). The ICAWS was adopted to elicit information about the influence of negative actions by employees at work, caused by interpersonal conflict (Watson, 2002). The actions are stimulated by job strain, which are the direct cause of interpersonal conflict (Fox et al., 2001). The ICAWS had a five (5) items questionnaire. Section C, is the *Social Support Scale (SSS)* developed by Sarason, Pierce and Sarason (2013), Sarason, Levine, Basham and Sarason (1983). The social support scale was designed to identify the perceived social support. It comprises of 12 items with a five point Likert scale. It measures the number of individuals available for perceived support, and the satisfaction that the support receiver obtains from support available. Section D is the *Employee Basic Task Performance Scale (EBTPS)* adopted in this study, which was developed by Tsui, Pearce, Porter and Tripoli (1997) to measure quantity, quality and efficiency. The response scale was a four point Likert scale. Other items were adopted from Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (1990). The items measure employee total ability, judgment, job knowledge, accuracy and creativity. Section E, the LMX Scale, was designed to demonstrate the role of supervisors in employees' attitude and performance. If the exchange between supervisors and subordinates is high, it involves mutual influence and respect. If the exchange relationships are low in quality, it involves contract exchanges and one-way downward effect.

Section F comprises of open-ended questions, four structured questions that were to bring out the non-numerical data simultaneously with the quantitative data collection in sections B to E of the research instrument. The reason for the open-ended questions was to establish the view of participants on the connection between individual interpersonal relationships and their basic

work performance in the retail sector. The open-ended questions were analysed by the use of content analysis as a way of validating the recommendations of the research.

7.4.1.3. Strength of the research instrument

The salient points of the survey questionnaire in this study as the major instrument for collecting data are as follows:

1. Anonymity and confidentiality of the participants was emphasised and protected in the questionnaire design.
2. Consent of the participants was sought as required by the university's ethical committee.
3. The questions were written in simple language to give clear understanding of the questions to participants.
4. The use of unfamiliar terms and professional language was carefully avoided to guide against misinterpretation.
5. Open-ended questions permitted the participants to express their independent and personal view.
6. All the research questions are aligned with the objectives of the study in the survey questionnaire.
7. The survey questionnaire was a better approach to collect data from a large number of respondents, permitting the presentation of results in histograms, tables, bar-charts and percentages.
8. The data collection process was cost effective and less time consuming because of the simultaneous collection of quantitative and qualitative data.

7.4.1.4 Limitations of the research instrument

The main set-backs were the procedures of obtaining permission from the retail companies to use their companies as a case study. Many of the major retail companies declined out right because of business sensitivity, and the busy schedules of concerned employees that may likely participate in the study.

Efforts were made to surmount the setbacks. A series of meetings were set up at the head offices of the retail companies; the aim was to convince them through presentations that the study will not threaten the sensitivity of their business, but to obtain information that will support the validity of this study. The researcher tried to convey the benefits of the research to the HR staff delegated to be the link between the researcher and the organisations. Anonymity and

confidentiality was also guaranteed. Four out of eight agreed and granted permission, with the request that a copy of the final draft will be sent to them at the end of the study.

7.4.2 Research instrument administration

All the instruments adopted for this study have been previously used with high level of validity and reliability (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2013). The researcher obtained permission to embark on the field work in a letter approved by the University of KwaZulu- Natal committee on research ethics dated 13th October 2014 reference no HSS/1332/014D, and an amendment letter dated 24th March, 2015 respectively. The field work was conducted from the end of October 2014 to March 2015.

7.4.2.1 Place/timing

The questionnaire was administered to the respondents at the location of their offices, during working hours on the date approved by the talent managers of each of the retail companies. At each office visited, the purpose of the exercise was communicated to respondents prior to the administration of the instrument. None of the retail organisations were restrictive to specific time, but emphasised that the end of the month and the first week of the month were not appropriate for the data collection process. The researcher complied by visiting the stores only between the second and the third week of the month. Each questionnaire distributed was accompanied with a confidentiality clause and letter of consent, expressing the freedom to participate and the willingness of participants to withdraw at any time during the exercise. The participants signed the letter of consent, declaring their intention and approval to participate.

Four hundred copies of the questionnaire were printed. The instrument was distributed equally among the four retail companies that were served in their branches across the KwaZulu-Natal province in South Africa. The survey was served on the 7th of January 2015, and was collected on the 7th of March 2015. The researcher chose to administer the questionnaires personally, so that each respondent could be given the opportunity of asking questions on the spot (Sekaran et al., 2009).

7.5 DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected in sections A to E in the questionnaire was analysed by the use of descriptive statistics. The descriptive statistics are frequency counts, mean and standard deviation, simple percentages presented in tables of frequency distribution, pie charts, and bar graphs. The collected data in section E of the questionnaire for subordinates and F for supervisors (which

is open-ended questions) were labelled, coded, and analysed by the use of inferential statistics. It was captured by the IBM (SPSS) version 22 software. The software was used to work the descriptive statistics and the inferential statistics like Pearson's correlation coefficient and regression analysis.

Non-numerical data was collected in the last sections of the questionnaire, and was analysed by the use of content analysis.

7.5.1 Data capture/entry

Before entering the gathered information from the respondents into SPSS, it was important to prepare a codebook. The codebook contains the summary of all the instructions that were needed and information from each subject before they are converted to the SPSS. The process of preparing the codebook was: one, to define and label each of the variables; two, assign numbers to each of the possible responses from the questions in the questionnaires that were filled in; three, to save the recorded information; four, to abbreviate names with numbers to enable entry into SPSS (Pallant, 2011).

7.5.2 Data editing/cleaning

Data cleaning is a procedure in which an individual identifies and corrects errors that emerged or minimise the effects on the study (Van de Broeck & Fadnes, 2013).

The study has established that the version 22 of the SPSS was used to analyse the quantitative data. The fact that SPSS is software that is widely used for quantitative analysis does not preclude it from error. Therefore, before embarking on the analysis of the data, the study checked for possible data errors. These errors were entries made not in sequence with the intended composition.

According to Van de Broeck et al. (2005), three distinct processes were stated. One, data screening, or data detection stage; two, data diagnosing; three, editing abnormalities in data, that is, altering the value of the data that is shown to be missing or incorrect. The data editing reveals the data values when the data view tab is selected. If there is any error, it will be detected from the variable data selected, and the correct value can be allocated to an entry.

7.5.3 Bivariate analysis

In a statistical analysis of continuous or categorical data, there are common themes that characterise associations among observable variables (Oakes, 1989). The association leaves opportunity for explanations about specific phenomena under investigation. The observed

bivariate distribution may lead to positive or negative associations or outcomes. Data that was cleaned and edited was processed through SPSS to access the possibilities of the following associations: one, influence between social support and employee performance; two, the influence between interpersonal conflict at work and employee performance; three, influence between interpersonal relationships and employee performance; and four, influence between social support, interpersonal conflict and employee performance.

7.5.4 Descriptive statistics

This is a statistical technique used in describing or summarising numerical data; the tools of descriptive statistics for categorical or demographic data by applying frequency distribution tables to demonstrate the number of events and percentages of other categories of data in a specific study (Wilson, 2010). Data presented in tables can also be shown in pictures with the help of graphs, pie or bar charts and histograms for the purpose of ambiguity. Data analysis begins with descriptive statistics in order to create an impression in the mind of the reader about the data collected, prior to the presentation of the analysis (Sekaran et al., 2013). The researcher in this study also thought it wise to begin the analysis with descriptive statistics.

In this study, the descriptive statistics were used to answer basic research questions asked in order to meet the objectives of the study.

7.5.5 Inferential statistics

When interpretations are drawn on population to get a particular sample size, it is inferential statistics (Wilson, 2010). It is also the evaluation of population and confirmation of research hypothesis (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Two major tests of research hypothesis are parametric and non-parametric tests (Saunders et al., 2013). Parametric tests are used when sample size is drawn from a population that has normal distribution. Non-parametric tests are the case when data is drawn when data is abnormally distributed. The parametric tests work with numerical data and the non-parametric tests are carried out with data that is in categories (Saunders et al., 2009). Inferential statistics in this study are engaged with parametric tests by the help of different software packages applied. The parametric statistics are discussed below.

Pearson's product correlation coefficient (PPMC): PPMC is the measurement of the strength, direction and the importance of bivariate relationships among different variables (Saunders et al., 2013). The strength of the relationships among variables that are investigated in this study was examined by using Pearson's correlation coefficients through the IBM SPSS version 22.

This is applied by introducing the variables into the measurements. The bivariate relationships between the variables are demonstrated in the coming chapter with the assistance of correlation matrix presented in tables for the purpose of clarity and better interpretation of results. The bivariate statistics are based on the need to describe the interaction between the independent variables and the dependent variables in this research work. The correlation coefficient reveals the connections between exogenous and endogenous variables (Bryne, 2013). In the current study the exogenous variable is the individual interpersonal relationships, while the endogenous variable is the individual basic job performance in the South African retail industry. This was assessed with indicators like interpersonal conflict and social support. These different classes of variables were analysed through the use of PPMC as parametric statistics via primary data collected with the assistance of the SPSS version 22 statistical software.

7.5.6 Content analysis

The attention of content analysis is on how the contextual implications of a transcript are assessed (Krippendorff, 2013). It answers to narrative information by non-numerical presentation of data used often by researchers (Twycross & Shields, 2008). Usually, the content and context of transcribed information that is being investigated is assessed (Spencer, Ritchie & Connor, 2003). In this study, content analysis was used to interpret the questions contained in section E of the subordinate survey, and section F of the supervisor survey respectively, as a way of interpreting the transcript data. This was done through the application of codes to the various themes and patterns acknowledged. Grouping the information into themes and sub-themes is important when analysing non-numerical data. The purpose was to obtain first-hand information from respondents without necessarily imposing a predetermined view, in order to be able to explain the connection between individual interpersonal relationships (supervisor-subordinate relationship) on work performance. The analysis permitted logical argument through the textual meaning of transcripts.

The following steps explain the analysis of the non-numerical data in section E and F of the survey instrument. At the initial stage of the process, all the questions in each section of the questionnaire were numbered. The next stage was sorting to identify the respondents that did not fill the non-numerical questions in the questionnaire. In the third stage, texts were taken out of the questionnaire and organised into themes according to the structured questions. Sub-themes that emerged were also taken out. In the fourth stage, both the themes and the sub-themes were interpreted as they were in the analysis chapter. Stage five was professional

consultations made to seek supervisor's opinion about data, for verification and interpretation of results to avoid any bias.

7.6 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

This subsection considers the extent to which the instruments can be relied upon. This is the measurement of the reliability and the validity of the different scales used in this study.

7.6.1 Reliability

Wilson (2010) referred to reliability as the degree to which a measuring instrument produces a steady and dependable result. Stability, consistency and dependability of any measuring instrument chosen for a study, depicts reliability. An instrument becomes reliable, when it is able to produce the same result, under the same conditions, over time (McBurney & White, 2007). The internal consistency of the instruments applied in this study was measured with Cronbach's alpha coefficient. It is a statistical tool to test the degree of consistency of a set of data (Pallant, 2011). It measures the degree to which an instrument applied in a study is positively correlated (Sekaran et al., 2013). When the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is close to one, the internal consistency of the study will be higher (Matkar, 2012). When a coefficient alpha is 0.7 and over, such is considered reliable (Pallant, 2012). The researcher, by the range above, is able to determine the stability, dependability and reliability of the construct adopted to develop a basis for efficient analysis of data.

The study was able to adopt data triangulation by the use of multiple sources of data collection. Methodological triangulation was achieved with the incorporation of numerical and non-numerical data collection and procedure for analysis. Effort was made to ensure consistency of items, while the questions were made easy and appropriate for respondents.

7.6.2 Validity of data

The degree to which an instrument measures what it was designed to measure is called validity. It spells out the connection between a construct and its indicators (Wilson, 2010). This study recognises two forms of internal validity. First, the content validity, this is the evaluation of the face validity of an instrument by expert opinions and academic knowledge of professionals in the field of research. In this study, a supervisor and a statistician's view was also sought before administering the instrument. Second, content validity; alignment of the construct to objectives and research questions was made appropriately.

In this study, the validity of the constructs was guaranteed by incorporating instruments that have been previously used by experts in the field of study. Data was also collected from different data sources that led to triangulation of data as a way of validating the construct.

The reliability and validity of the qualitative data was also determined. Efforts were made to ensure that biases in the content analysis were reduced, by double checking the coding of the transcripts before categorising the objectives.

The external validity of the instrument was achieved by comparing the outcomes of this study with similar studies that were conducted in other sectors elsewhere.

7.6.3 Triangulation

The statistical approach of this study for the mixed method that was adopted is called the concurrent transformative mixed method (Creswell, 2009). The study developed an open structured questionnaire that combined both numerical and non-numerical questions. The numerical part of the questionnaire had questions from four different scales that were previously used and tested. While the non-numerical part is four open-ended questions, the approach is concurrent because the quantitative and qualitative data questions were answered at the same time (Creswell, 2009). The approach is transformative because the qualitative questions allowed information from participants of diverse opinions (Hanson, 2005).

7.7 SUMMARY

The chapter offered a discussion on the research philosophy that is appropriate to this study. It highlighted the strong and weak points, and the discipline where it could be applied. The researcher chose pragmatism as the appropriate philosophy for this study. In the chapter, a thorough explanation was given to methodology and a justified research design was selected. The study embraced non-experimental research design, by the use of a correlational approach to explain the design. A concurrent transformative mixed method was used to advocate for numerical and non-numerical data. The study applied different sampling techniques to carefully consider the population. Proximity, availability and subjects' willingness to participate were the bases for selecting the sample size for the study. Convenience sampling was used in selecting the branches of the retail companies in KwaZulu-Natal that participated in the study. The design of the research instrument for collection of data, and the procedures for administering the survey instrument are explained. The software packages engaged for the analysis of the primary data in each section of the survey was explained with justification. The

shortcomings of the methodology were mentioned and the ethical compliance of the researcher to the codes and ethics of the research ethics committee was clearly stated.

CHAPTER 8: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Data analysis and interpretation of the results is according to the response collected from those who participated in the data collection in the field. The collected data was analysed by the use of a statistical software package (SPSS Version 22). The SPSS was used to analyse the inferential and descriptive statistics. The descriptive statistics were used to analyse the demographic data by the aid of the SPSS software.

Bivariate analysis was used to measure the different characteristics of the research situations in this study and to answer the research questions and objectives in order to explore the relationships between social support and employee performance; the effect of interpersonal conflict on employee performance, the influence of interpersonal relationships and employee performance, and the association between social support, interpersonal conflict and employee performance. Correlations and regressions are the inferential statistics used to test the objectives of the study.

The structured open-ended questions in section F of the survey were analysed with content analysis to warrant the use of data and methodological triangulation in the process of exploring the linkage between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance in the South African retail sector.

8.2 RATE OF RESPONSE

In quantitative research, the guide for minimum sample size is from the population of the study. This research work distributed 400 questionnaires to the respondents in four retail companies in KwaZulu-Natal. A total of 322 surveys were returned, 12 of the questionnaires returned were discarded for lack of information; 310 questionnaires were fully completed, which represents a 77.5% response rate.

The sample size obtained for this study is appropriate to give room for bivariate normal distribution and guide against the violations of assumptions of sample size and normality (Pallant, 2013). The sample size for this study is justified by comparing its sample size with previous studies that are relative to the investigation at hand, according to Table 8.1 below.

Table 8.1 Justification of sample size

Author	Topic	Sample size
Brunetto & Farr-Wharton (2010)	The impact of supervisor-subordinate relationships on commitment, job satisfaction and performance of virtual workers.	375
Neves (2012)	Organisational cynicism: Spillover effect on supervisor-subordinate relationships and performance.	274
Michel, Mitchelson & Pichler (2010)	Clarifying relationships among work and family, social support, stressors and work and family conflict.	156
Sonnentag, Unger & Nigel (2013)	Work place conflict and employee wellbeing: The moderating role of detachment from work during off job time.	291

8.3 INSTRUMENT RELIABILITY

The assessment of the reliability of the instruments for measurement engaged in this study is Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The coefficient measures the degree to which set items are correlated positively (Sekaran et al., 2009). According to the rule of thumb for internal consistency of items in the scale, alpha coefficients of the instruments for this study are listed in Table 8.2 below, they are also within the acceptable range of good and excellent (George & Mallery, 2003). The alpha coefficient in Table 8.2 below demonstrates the range of internal consistencies of the instruments used in the study.

Table 8.2 Alpha Coefficient of Instruments

Reliability statistics		
Instruments	Cronbach's alpha	Items
Interpersonal conflict at work scale (ICAWS)	.855	6
Social support scale (SSS)	.96	12
Employee basic task performance scale (EBTPS)	.76	11
Leader-member exchange scale (LMX)	.825	7

8.4 DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FOR SUPERVISORS AND SUBORDINATES

The survey used in the present study was designed to highlight eight different categories of demographic data from both the supervisor and subordinate respondents respectively. This information includes: gender, age, marital status, department at work, educational qualification, number of years in present position, number of children and job title.

8.4.1 Gender

Gender represents the classes of subordinate workers of the four retail companies who participated in the study, they are male and female.

Table 8.4 Classification of subordinates by gender

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Male	16	10.9
Female	131	89.1
Total	147	100

Table 8.3 above represents the distribution of the gender of subordinates that participated in the data collection exercise. A total of 89.1% of the respondents were females, and 10.9% of the respondents were males respectively. Therefore, the majority of the subordinate respondents for the study were females. The reason for having female domination might be what Valodia, Lebani, Skinner and Devey (2006) referred to as increase in low wages and informal employment in South African labour market which favour the female gender. Female domination may likely favour the employment or recruitment policy of the retail companies in

South Africa due to the nature of retail business. The assumption might be that customers buy more when they see female employees. Pallant (2013) mentioned that unequal group sizes as represented in Table 8.3 above may affect the appropriateness of the result of analysis. The analysis of this study describes the results where the retail industry workers (subordinates) are predominantly female. Generally on the result obtained above, where potential heterogeneity occurs like the case of the subordinate gender (female domination) in this study, Barling and Kelloway (1999) advised that research should be sensitive, such may affect employees' experience at work.

Table 8.4 Classification of supervisors by gender

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Male	65	39.9
Female	97	59.5
	1	0.6
Total	163	100

Table 8.4 above shows that 59.5% of the respondents in the supervisory grade that participated in the exercise were female, and 40.5% of the respondents that participated as supervisors were male. This distribution of employees in the supervisory grades may constitute a fair representation of supervisors, and the result of analysis obtained from supervisors may be more dependable.

8.4.2. Age

It is important to categorise the employees by age, in order to be able to draw correct inferences and assumptions based on results. Categorisation of employees by age assists studies in predicting workers' pattern of behaviour at work (Treiman, 2014). Table 8.5 and 8.6 highlight the age distribution of workers that participated in this study.

Table 8.4 Classification of subordinates by age

Valid	Frequency	Percent
18-27 years	58	39.5
28-37 years	60	40.8
38-47 years	17	11.6
48-57 years	12	8.1
Total	147	100

The frequency distribution Table 8.5 above represents the of age classification of subordinate workers. There are four age categories in the study. The first category was from 18 to 27 years, which has 39.5% of the respondents. The second category was from 28 to 37 years, which has

40.8% of the respondents. The third was 38 to 47 years, which has 11.6% of the respondents. The fourth was from 48 to 57 years, which was 8.2% of the respondents. The subordinates between the ages of 28 to 37 years had the most representation; they are 60 in number which is approximately 40%. This may imply that employment in the South African retail sector attracts middle aged employees as workers.

Table 8.4 Classification of supervisors by age

Valid	Frequency	Percent
18-27 years	56	39.5
28-37 years	70	40.8
38-47 years	28	11.6
48-57 years	5	8.1
6	4	2.5
Total	147	100

Table 8.6 above classified the ages of supervisors that participated. A total of 34.4% of the supervisors that participated were between the ages of 18 and 27 years; 42.9% of them were between the ages of 28 and 37 years; 17.2% were between ages of 38 to 47 years, and 3.1% of them were between the ages of 48 and 57 years. The highest representation was supervisors between 28 and 37 years. It signifies that employees that are supervisors tend to be a bit older, which is expected.

Table 8.7 Classification of Subordinates by departments

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Management	22	15.0
Cashier	48	32.7
Sales	46	31.3
Receiving	3	2.0
Loss prevention	1	0.7
Others	27	18.4
Total	147	100

From Table 8.7 above, six departments were outlined as areas from where the respondents for this study were considered. Management of the retail shops were 15%, cashiers were 32.7%, sales 31.3%, receiving 3%, loss prevention 0.7% and other departments 18.4%. The cashiers have the most subordinate employees that participated in the study with the population of 48 and 32.7% respectively. The reason for having more cashiers was that all the retail stores that

participated in the study had many of their workers performing the same roles in different shifts in the retail shops. Although in most of the stores visited by the researcher, subordinates were told to identify their primary departments.

Table 8.8 Classification of supervisors by departments

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Merchandising	38	23.3
Admin	30	18.4
Butchery	6	3.7
Receiving	13	8.0
Security	1	0.6
Others	74	45.4
Missing data	1	0.6
Total	163	100

Table 8.8 above represents the classification of different operational departments of the supervisors that participated in the exercise. A total of 23.3% of the respondents were from merchandising, 18.5% were from admin, butchery was 3.7%, receiving was 8%, others like sales and cashiering had the largest representation of 45.4%.

8.4.4. Educational qualifications

Tables 8.19 and 8.10 below show the distribution of both the supervisors and subordinate workers' educational qualifications.

Table 8.9 Subordinates' educational qualifications

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Matric	125	85.0
National Diploma	18	12.2
National First Degree	1	0.7
Honours Degree	2	1.4
Professional Qualification	1	0.7
Total	147	100

A total of 147 respondents were gathered from subordinates in the retail shops that participated in the data collection process, 125 of them, which was 85%, had high school educational standard (matric); 18 of them, which was 12.2%, had national diploma certificate; one person had a degree which is .7%, while two of them, which represents 1.4%, had an honours degree, while only one person had a professional qualification, according to the

distribution above. Although a professional is not expected to be a subordinate, it might just point to the fact that the employment does not need any higher education.

Table 8.10 Supervisors' educational qualifications

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Matric	134	82.2
National Diploma	28	17.2
Honours Degree	1	0.6
	163	100

Out of a total number of 163 supervisory participants, 82.2% of them had a matric certificate, while 17.2% had national diploma certificate. Less than 1% of the population had an honours degree. It implies that most of the employees grow with the job.

8.4.5 Number of years in present position

Table 8.11 and 8.12 below shows the distribution of supervisors and subordinate workers' classification of the number of years spent in the present position.

Table 8.11 Subordinates classified by years in present position

Valid	Frequency	Percent
1-5 years	101	68.7
6-10 years	30	20.4
11-15 years	6	4.1
16-20 years	10	6.8
Total	147	100

The distribution Table 8.11 above indicated that 68.7% of the subordinates that responded in this study had spent between one and five years on the job. Only 20.4% of them spent between six and 10 years in their present position; 4.1% of the respondents have spent 11 to 15 years in their present position; 6.8% of them have spent between 16 and 18 years on the job. For those who have spent many years on the job and are still subordinates, the only visible explanation might be that they have not improved on themselves. Those that spent one to five years in their present position are the majority. It implies that the retail job is dynamic, with people being employed and leaving the jobs for somewhere else. The distribution also indicates that most of the employees have little work experience in their present position.

Table 8.12 Supervisors classified by years in present position

Valid	Frequency	Percent
1-5 years	101	62.0
6-10 years	42	25.8
11-15 years	14	8.6
16-20 years	6	3.7
Total	163	100

Table 8.12 above shows that 62% of the supervisors have spent between one and five years in their present position; 25.8% of the supervisors have spent six to ten years in their present position; 8.6% have spent between eleven and fifteen years in their present position and 3.7% have spent over sixteen years in their present position. It is observable to note that the majority of the supervisors don't have long years of experience in the job.

8.4.6 Job title

Table 8.13 and 8.14 represent the distribution of supervisors and subordinate workers' job titles.

Table 8.13 Job title (subordinates)

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Management	20	13.6
Cashier	57	38.8
Sales	67	45.6
Receiving	3	2.0
Total	147	100

Table 8.13 for job title above describes the distribution of subordinates that participated in the study. It was observed that the majority of the subordinate participants were from sales where about 45.6% was recorded, which totalled about 67 of them. This was followed by cashier which was 38.8%, approximately 57 subordinates. Percentage distribution of others is negligible.

Table 8.14 Job title supervisor

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Manager	106	65.0
Officer	2	1.2
Supervisor	36	22.1
Clerk	8	4.9
Temporary Worker	10	6.1
Missing Data	1	0.6
Total	163	100

Table 8.14 above indicated that 65% of the supervisors that participated in the exercise were branch managers, 1.2% of them were officers, 22.1% were supervisors, 4.9% were clerical officers and 6.1% were temporary staff. It is an indication that most of those who participated as supervisors in this study are in a position to offer support and solve problems in the stores.

8.5 RESEARCH QUESTION ANALYSIS

The research questions framed in this study are serially analysed underneath. This is done to provide answers to the statement of problems and the objectives of the study. Two different questionnaires were used in this study. One questionnaire was designed for the subordinate employees and the other for the supervisors. There are four research questions in this study. Research questions one and two were answered with the subordinate data in the questionnaire, while research questions three and four were answered using the supervisor data in the questionnaire.

8.5.1 Question one (subordinate dataset)

This section examines the influence of social support on employee performance by answering the questions raised appropriately.

8.5.1.1 Determine the influence of social support on employees' performance at work

In order to establish the relational influence between social support and employees' work performance, the researcher used the Social Support Scale (SSS) to measure the number of individuals available for perceived support and the satisfaction the receiver of support receives from the person giving the support. Therefore each question on social support provides two answers. There are six dimensions to measuring the number of individuals available for perceived support. One, measures the employees' relational attachment. Two, measures the social integration of employees. Three, measures availability of opportunity to nurture perceived support. Four, measures the assurance of value at work. Five, was the measurement of employees' sense of reliance. Six considers the individual's sense of guidance. The research question was: *What influence does social support have on employees' work performance?* The field work responses on these items (C1, C2, C3 and C4) in the SSS measures the influence between social support and individual work performance, and are represented in the figures below. These are the items considered best to answer the questions.

1. Employee Relational Attachment

The title relates to the first and second items on the SSS incorporated into this study. It is important to note that social support assessment takes into consideration dichotomous judgment of two things; one is the availability of perceived support at 40% and two, the degree of satisfaction that the respondent receives from support available at 40% (Sarason et al., 1983, 1990, 2013). It measures the attachment of employees and their relationships to each other. The C1 question in the survey reads as follows: *How many managers, supervisors, or workers can you really count on to listen to you when you need to talk?* The C2 question was: *Rate the level of support you received from the managers, supervisors, or co-workers mentioned above?*

Table 8.15 Scores of employee relational attachment (Question C1)

Valid	Frequency	Percent
One	58	39.5
Two	46	31.3
Three	20	13.6
Four	11	7.5
Five	12	8.2
Total	147	100

Table 8.15 indicates the distribution of the scores of employees' relational attachment. Table 8.16 shows the degree of satisfaction that employees derived from relational attachment.

The result indicated in Table 8.15 shows that 39.5% of the subordinate respondents are in support of the fact that they have only one employee that they can count on to listen; 31.3% of them agreed that they have two superior officers that can listen; 13.6% of them affirmed to three people; 7.5% affirm that they have four superior officers; 8.2% agreed that they have five. The description above signifies that more of the subordinates have only one person they can count on to listen when that subordinate wants to talk at 39.5%. It also signifies that the number of managers, supervisors and co-workers that are not supportive and prepared to listen are more than those willing to listen to a subordinate. The meaning of the result above is that social support is a personality variable that develops as a consequence of people's relationship attachment (Sarason et al., 2013). Support that subordinate receives is less than the support available.

Table 8.16 Satisfaction of employee relational attachment (Question C2)

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Satisfactory support	66	44.9
Desirable	35	23.8
Not satisfactory	20	13.6
Little support	13	8.8
No support	13	8.8
Total	147	100

The degree of satisfaction derived from available support is measured according to Table 8.16. A total of 44.9% of the subordinates agreed that they are satisfied with the support received from their superior officers and co-workers, a 23.8% rate of the subordinates agree that they have desirable support, and 13.6% attest to the fact that they have no support. This indicates that 77.5% of the subordinates are satisfied with perceived support which they find satisfactory. A total of 8.8% agree that they have little support, and 8.8% are of the opinion that they have no support in their organisations.

Though subordinates appear to be satisfied with the support available to them, at 44.9%, the result of the data above indicated that the level of subordinate employees' relational attachment is low. Out of five options of people they can relate with, they chose to relate with only one, which means they only use support when they are under stress and need to talk. The behavioural effect of such insecure attachment, as seen above, is that it affects subordinates' coping skills, their feelings of personal effectiveness or self-efficacy (Sarason et al., 2013).

Table 8.17 Descriptive statistics of relational attachment, and sense of judgment

Supervisor	Mean	Standard deviation
Relational attachment score (C1)	2.74	1.45
Relational attachment satisfaction (C2)	1.87	1.14
Subordinate		
Relational attachment score (C1)	2.14	1.25
Relational attachment satisfaction (C2)	2.13	1.32
Sense of judgment (D8) employee performance	3.20	0.710

Table 8.17 above represents the description of the mean for employees' relational attachment for both supervisors and subordinates. The item on employee performance that relates to relational attachment is employee sense of judgment (D8). Using employee sense of judgment

to measure relational attachment from the result above, the following interpretation was tenable. The assumption was that when an employee finds a person to listen to them, the person listening uses their sense of judgment to know when and what to reply to the employee speaking. This will either prolong the interaction or terminate it. From the statistics above, employee performance has a higher sense of judgment (3.20) than their relational attachment. According to Tsui et al (1997), employee sense of judgment relates to the employees' core task on the job. It means the employees have a higher degree of performing on the job than to attach themselves relationally.

2. Employees' social integration measures

This relates to the existence, structure and function of social relationships. The social integration of employee measures pertains to certain aspects of respondents' social network index. It assesses employees' presence of social ties and the extent of these relationships at work (House & Kahn, 1985). This study will attempt to measure the function. Table 8.18 below measures the availability of scores and Table 8.19 below measures the degree of satisfaction derived from the available support from subordinate employees in four retail companies in South Africa.

Table 8.18 Scores of social integration measures (Question C3)

Valid	Frequency	Percent
One	56	38.1
Two	46	31.3
Three	20	13.6
Four	13	8.8
Five	12	8.2
Total	147	100

Table 8.18 signifies the measure of the number of employees and the degree of social integration. Table 8.19 measures the satisfaction that employees derived from social integration.

Table 8.19 Satisfaction with social integration measures (Question C4)

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Satisfactory support	71	48.3
Desirable	39	26.5
Not satisfactory	13	8.8
Little support	13	8.8
No support	11	7.5
Total	147	100

Tables 8.18 and 8.19 above also answers the question one of the study. C3 and C4 are part of the answers to research question one. It measures the employees' social integration in the questionnaire.

C3 question in the questionnaire reads: *How many managers, supervisors or co-workers could you really count on to help you out in a crisis situation, even though they would have to go out of their way to do so?* From the figure C3 below, 38.1% of the subordinate respondents are in support of the fact that they have one superior officer or co-worker that can go out of their way to offer assistance when the subordinate is in crisis situation. A total of 31.3% agreed that they have two superior officers or co-workers that they can count on; 13.6% agreed that they have three superior officers or co-workers that can help them; 8.8% of the subordinates confirmed that they have four superior officers that can help them; and 8.2% of them agreed that they have five.

It is interesting to note that the trend of satisfaction flows like the number of people who can support as in C3. C4 measures the satisfaction of the subordinates' support.

C4 question from the questionnaire reads as follows: *Rate the level of support you received from the managers, supervisors, or co-workers mentioned above?* From the table of distribution, 48.3% of the subordinates agreed that they are satisfied with the support they receive from their superior officers; 26.5% of them agreed that they are desirable of support; 8.8% confirmed that they are not satisfied with the support available; 8.8% of the subordinates agreed that they have little support; and 7.5% of them attest that they have no support.

The available scores above in Table 8.18 are measured by activation of support transactions (Kahn & Antonucci, 1980). When finding out the interpersonal transactions involved in the distribution, there are three things to consider: need/ desire, seeking and provision/receipt. The need is demonstrated in the percentage of available persons that emerged differently among employees that desire to give support; according to the analysis above the highest is 38.1%, which is not up to 40% or average distribution. Therefore the need is low. Seeking is the extent to which they seek support. This is measured by considering the desirable support which is 26.5%, which is also low. Provision of receipt is willingness to use the little support available, which is 8.8%; this is also low for consideration.

Table 8.20 below describes the mean and standard deviation of both employee social integration levels (C3 and C4). C3 mean was 2.18 and standard deviation was 1.259 and C4 mean was 2.01, standard deviation was 1.269. Measure of employee ability was most suitable

to answer this question. The mean and standard deviation of employee ability was 3.25 and 0.710 respectively. It means that the level of employees' ability to perform tasks was higher than the social integration of the employees. Social integration is a proof that relationship exists between employees, but that does not mean that the relationship will be supported (Coyne & DeLongis, 1986). The result above shows that employees' ability to perform tasks assigned, and to delegate and use power, takes up their attention much more than the existence of relationship.

Table 8.20 Descriptive statistics of social integration and employee ability

<i>Supervisor:</i>	Mean	Standard deviation
Relational attachment score (C3)	2.37	1.29
Relational attachment satisfaction (C4)	1.74	1.04
<i>Subordinate:</i>		
Relational attachment score (C3)	2.18	1.26
Relational attachment satisfaction (C4)	2.01	1.27
Sense of judgment (D8) employee performance	3.25	0.75

8.5.2 Research question two (subordinate data set)

This section presents the result of participants' responses to the questions relating to interpersonal conflict at work.

8.5.2.1. Effect of interpersonal conflict on employee work performance

Interpersonal conflict at work between supervisors and subordinates has been proven to cause dissatisfaction with the job itself and reduces organisational commitment of employees, which affects job performance (Harris, Harvey & Kacmar, 2011). In taking the investigation further, this study wants to answer questions around the above to ascertain the position of Harris et al. (2011). The question relates to the items B1, B2 and B3 on the ICAW scale that was adopted for use in this study. These questions represent the negative information about employees which are as a result of interpersonal conflict. The assumption of the proponents of the ICAW scale was that one, employees have a feeling of being united by a common identity; two, the focus is on commonalities and not individual identities; three, employees need to treat each

other as social equivalents; and four, employees want to be liked by others (Fiske, 1992). These assumptions are the basis for answering the questions.

8.5.2.2 Social Relations Theory: interpersonal arguments between supervisors and subordinates

While organisations endeavour to maintain a professional work environment, employees resorting to arguments at work are becoming common (Penney & Spector, 2005). It was reported that 75% of the arguments at work happen between supervisors and subordinates (Mulki, Jaramillo, Goad & Pescura, 2015). This study attempts to answer the questions above, in order to find out the situation in the South African retail sector.

Table 8.21 Arguments between supervisors and subordinates B1 question: Subordinate responses

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Never	77	52.4
Rarely	34	23.1
Sometimes	27	18.4
Quite often	2	1.4
Very often	7	4.8
Total	147	100

The B1 from the interpersonal conflict at work survey question reads: *How often do you get into arguments with your supervisors at work?*

This question does not affect the first rule of social relations theory that involves employees' communal sharing at work. It affects the second social model of the social relations theory which postulates that employees relate to one another according to hierarchy. The supervisor is in control of the products of labour. Therefore, constant arguments with the supervisor may mean constant conflict between them. This can affect employees' feelings about the job. The result presented below in B1 in Table 8.21 indicates that 52.4% of the subordinate respondents agreed that they never had arguments with other employees at work. A total of 23.1% of them agreed that they rarely have arguments at work, 18.4% are of the opinion that they sometimes do, 1.4% of the subordinates agreed that they have arguments quite often; and 4.8% submit that they very often engage in arguments.

The result of the data in B1 does not appear to suggest that interpersonal conflict is rife between subordinates and supervisors to affect employee performance in the South African retail sector.

Table 8.22 Descriptive statistics of argument and employee quality of work

Supervisor	Mean	Standard deviation
Argument (B1)	2.20	0.840
Subordinate		
Argument	1.83	1.08
Employee quality of work (D2)	2.86	0.761

Table 8.22 represents the descriptive statistics of interpersonal conflict at work when employees argue. The mean and standard deviation for supervisors are 2.20 and .840 respectively. The mean and standard deviation of subordinate workers are 1.83 and 1.08. The mean and standard deviation of employee quality of work are 2.86 and .761. The level of employees' quality at work was higher than that of arguments in the workplace.

8.5.2.3 Social Relation Theory: Yelling at work between supervisors and subordinates

Einersen (1999) referred to yelling as a category of bullying that involves repeated actions and practices that are directed at one or more employees; which are not wanted by the victim, which may be done deliberately or unconsciously, but causes humiliation, offence and distress, and they interfere with job performance and cause an unpleasant environment at work (Einersen & Raknes, 1997).

The question on B2 in the survey reads: *How often do you yell at other employees at work?* The question B2 also relates to the second model of social relations theory which emphasised that the supervisors act as agents of the organisation (Fiske, 1992). Therefore, interpersonal conflict at work between supervisor and subordinates may affect the employees' cognition to job and employer.

Table 8.23 Yelling at work between supervisors and subordinates (Question B2)
Subordinate response.

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Never	76	51.7
Rarely	39	26.5
Sometimes	19	12.9
Quite often	5	3.4
Very often	8	5.4
Total	147	100

The result of B2 in Table 8.23 below supports the second research question. It measures the regularity of the occurrence of interpersonal conflict by employees yelling at each other. The result indicated that 51.7% of the subordinate respondents agreed that they never yell at others; 26.5% of them agreed that they rarely do, 12.2% of them marked that they sometimes yell at other employees, 3.4% agreed that they quite often yell at subordinates, while 5.4% owned up that they very often yell at subordinates. The result indicates that subordinates do not yell at their supervisors in the South African retail sector.

Table 8.24 below describes the descriptive statistics of yelling at work and employee quality of work. The mean and standard deviation for yelling among supervisors are 1.87 and 1.007 respectively. The mean and standard deviation of subordinate workers are 1.84 and 1.12 respectively. The mean of the quality of employee work used to measure interpersonal conflict are 2.86 and .761. The employee performance level (quality of work) is higher than yelling at work.

Table 8.24 Descriptive statistics of yelling and employee quality of work

Supervisor	Mean	Standard deviation
Argument (B2)	1.87	1.007
Subordinate		
Argument (B)	1.84	1.12
Employee quality of work (D2)	2.86	0.761

8.5.2.4 Social Relations Theory: Rudeness at work between supervisors and subordinates

The question asked in B3 reads: *How often are you rude to others at work?* The question is in line with the second model of social relations theory which proposed that employees relate based on authority ranking in the work place. The relationship between supervisor and subordinate is on the basis of linear hierarchical order. The supervisor is recognised as having authority over subordinates. Therefore, interpersonal conflict may affect the subordinates to the extent that they may not be willing to share their communal relationship with supervisors (Fiske, 1992).

Table 8.25 Rudeness at work and quantity of work (Question B3) subordinate response

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Never	95	64.6
Rarely	21	14.3
Sometimes	20	13.6
Quite often	2	1.4
Very often	9	6.1
Total	147	100

Table 8.25 represents the response of subordinate employees to rudeness at work. A total of 64.6% of them are of the view that they are never rude, 14.3% remarked that they are rarely rude, 13.6% agreed that they are sometimes rude, 1.4% are often rude, and 6.1% of the workers are very rude.

Table 8.26 Descriptive statistics of rudeness at work and employee quantity of work

<i>Supervisor:</i>	Mean	Standard deviation
Rudeness (B3)	1.93	0.985
<i>Subordinate:</i>		
Rudeness (B3)	1.70	1.143
Employee quality of work (D2)	2.66	0.840

Table 8.26 represents the descriptive statistics of both supervisors and subordinate workers' rudeness at work. The mean and standard deviation of supervisor rudeness was 1.93 and 0.985. The mean and standard deviation of subordinates' rudeness at work was 1.70 and 1.143. The item of employee performance used to measure rudeness at work was the quantity of work (D1). The mean and standard deviation was 2.66 and 0.840. This indicates that the level of workload of employees (quantity of work) was higher than the level of their rudeness at work. The result of the descriptive statistics of the three items considered in the scale shows that the mean of interpersonal competences of the employees are lower to affect the employee performance. Interpersonal conflict may be said to be at minimum in the South African retail sector. According to Harris et al. (2011), "minimum conflict alone may not drive employee

performance, but when coupled with share market information, learning processes are enhanced, leading to increased knowledge that can create value” (Narver & Slater, 1990).

8.5.3 Question three (supervisor data set)

The third question in this subsection was answered using the supervisor data sets. It examines the influence that interpersonal relationships have on employee performance, from the perspective of the LMX theory.

8.5.3.1 The influence of interpersonal relationships and employee performance

Interpersonal relationships measure the flow of influence between the supervisors and the subordinates, and avail knowledge provision on physical and social external environment of relationships (Berschied & Reis, 1998). Interpersonal relationships brought about the idea of LMX which measures the characteristics of relationships between the supervisor and the subordinate. There are four dimensions of relationships: one, co-operation and competitiveness, which seek to identify task orientation and social emotion; two, power distance or distribution among employees; three, level of intimacy, where there is no relationship, it is called dissociation; when the relationship is weak, it is not close enough because of distance or association. Four, is the intensity of activities between supervisors and subordinates (Deutsch, 2011; Triandis, 1972). The questions measure the ability of the employees to be willing to maintain interpersonal relationships. In order to answer the research question, the research considered questions E5 and E7 of the LMX scale in the questionnaire.

1. Leader-member exchange theory: Stages in relational influence between supervisors and subordinates

The LMX is based on the tenet that leadership has its source in the exchange between leaders and followers. It is about the collective engagement between supervisors and subordinates in order to generate quality relationships at work to allow effective leadership results (Graen et al., 1995).

The question in the questionnaire is as follows: E5 - *Regardless of your formal authority at work, what are the chances that you (the supervisor) will stand up for your subordinates at your expenses.* This question highlights the stages of influence between the leader and member relationships at work. Kelman (2006) added three perspectives to the already existing stages of relationships, these are compliance, identification and internalisation. Stage one is when the leaders' influence on a subordinate is according to the process of compliance. The relationship between supervisors and subordinates are based on contractual transactions. The relationships

are driven by the goal to attain rewards, i.e. recognition, praise or punishments for poor performance appraisals. The power (authority) source of the leader is based on the ability to withhold resources. Stage two is acquaintance; the influence between supervisor and subordinate moves towards identification. Both personalities are developing and describing the role required in their relationships. Power (authority) source is based on mutual liking and the desire to enhance relationship quality. Stage three is where the influence is by the process of internalisation. Both supervisor and subordinates have developed value and belief systems. Power (authority) source is based on mutual trust (Kelman, 2006).

Table 8.27 Willingness of supervisors to stand for subordinates (Question E5): supervisor's response

Valid	Frequency	Percent
None	8	4.9
Small	20	12.3
Moderate	54	33.1
High	50	30.7
Very high	162	18.4
Missing data	1	0.6
Total	163	100

The results presented above in Table 8.27 indicate that 4.9% of the supervisors are not willing to stand up for the subordinates; 12.9% of the supervisors agreed that they will stand up for them to a small extent, 33.1% indicated that they will moderately stand for the subordinates, 30.7% of the supervisors agreed that they will highly stand up for the subordinates and 18.7% of them are in support of highly standing up for the subordinates. The percentage (82.2%) of those supervisors willing to demonstrate the presence of interpersonal relationship by standing up for subordinates, is more than those not willing to stand up for subordinates (17.8%). Such an overwhelming support for subordinates is as a result of mutual trust that has developed between supervisors and subordinates over time. The willingness of the supervisor to stake his authority for the subordinate is also proof that trust was important in their relationship.

Table 8.28 Descriptive statistics of standing up for subordinates and efficiency on the job (Question E5)

Supervisor	Mean	Standard deviation
Standing up for subordinate (E5)	3.45	1.084
Subordinate		
Standing up for subordinate (E5)	Not applicable	Not applicable

Employee efficiency on the job (D3)	2.66	0.840
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Table 8.28 above represents the descriptive statistics of supervisors only; the question refers to their opinion of the subordinates. The mean and standard deviation was 3.45 and 1.084 respectively. Employees' efficiency on the job was used to measure the supervisors' stand for subordinate workers. The mean and standard deviation of employees efficiency on the job was 2.88 and 0.768. The mean of the supervisors' stand for subordinates was higher. It signifies the presence of interpersonal relationship between the supervisors and the subordinate workers.

2. LMX theory: Characteristics of LMX relationships

LMX theory has its roots in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). The assumption of the LMX theory is that a supervisor has a peculiar relationship with the subordinate employee (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The relationship is measured over time as a result of role expectations and fulfilment between the supervisor and the subordinate (the dimensions of the relationships are explained in figure 8.4.3. above).

The question E7 is taken from the survey distributed for this study. It measures outrightly the presence of interpersonal relationship between supervisors and their subordinates. The question was: *How would you (the supervisor) characterise your relationships with subordinates?*

Table 8.29 Supervisor's characteristics of relationship with subordinates (Question E7)

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Extremely ineffective	4	2.5
Worse than average	7	4.3
Average	63	38.9
Better than average	61	37.7
Extremely effective	27	16.7
Missing data	1	0.6
Total	163	100

The results are that 2.5% of the supervisor respondents agreed that the relationship was extremely ineffective, 4.3% of the supervisors are of the opinion that the relationship was worse than average, 38.7% of the supervisors attest that the relationship was average, 37.4% of them marked that the relationship was better than average, and 16.6% of them agreed that it was

extremely effective. The percentage of supervisors who agree that there was relationship was 82.7% as opposed to those who concluded that the relationship was bad (17.3%).

Table 8.30 Descriptive statistics of characteristics of relationship and creativity (Question E7)

Supervisor	Mean	Standard deviation
Characteristics of relationship (E7)	3.62	0.900
Subordinate		
Standing up for subordinate (E7)	Not applicable	Not applicable
Employee creativity on the job (D3)	3.25	0.742

The descriptive statistics of the Table 8.30 above are represented as follows: mean for the item characteristics of relationship was 3.62, and the standard deviation was 0.900. Creativity was used to measure employee performance in order to answer this question. The mean of creativity was 3.25 and the standard deviation was 0.742. The characteristics of relationship are higher than employee creativity on the job. It signifies the presence of interpersonal relationship.

A quality of relationship as obtained above is characterised by favourable response exchanges between supervisors and subordinates (Kelly & Thibaut, 1978). These exchanges are connected to numerous positive outcomes such as better performance, more commitment, job satisfaction and mutual liking (Illies et al., 2007).

8.5.4. Question four (supervisor data set)

Extent to which social support and interpersonal conflict influences employee performance:

The question above was different from the rest of the questions. The study used the objective four to answer this question. In answering the question, it was vital to explore the predictive capacities of social support and interpersonal conflict on employee performance. In order to meet objective four and answer this question, the three instruments used to explore the predictive capacities of the construct are: social support scale (SSS), interpersonal conflict at work scale (ICAWS), and employee basic job performance scale (EBJPS). The predictive power was the total beta value of each of the variables under investigation, represented by total social support, total interpersonal conflict and total employee performance for supervisors and subordinates respectively. The question also helped in providing information about the

regression model used in objective four as a whole, and measures the relative contribution of social support, interpersonal conflict and employee performance that make up the model. By this question the study can test whether the combination of social support and interpersonal conflict contributes to the prediction of the model, over and above the variables that have already been included in the model. The aim of this question is to control statistically an additional variable, when the study is exploring the prediction of the model (Pallant, 2013).

Table 8.31 Descriptive statistics of interpersonal relationship and employee performance

	Mean	Standard deviation	Number of subordinates
Total employee performance	33.4028	5.84775	147
Total interpersonal conflict	10.1088	5.65459	147
Total social support	25.6190	8.28543	147

Table 8.31 above described the standard deviation for total interpersonal conflict, total social support and total employee performance among 147 subordinate employees. The average distribution of the employee performance is higher than that of social support and interpersonal conflict. From the description in Table 8.32 above, the average of total among employee performance is higher than that of total social support and total interpersonal conflict, at 163 supervisors. The information above describes the characteristics of the samples and the distribution of scores on employee performance. The scores are obviously lower for social support and interpersonal conflict among supervisor and subordinates. Table 8.32 below describes the statistics of the sum of interpersonal conflict, social support and employee performance.

Table 8.32 Descriptive statistics of interpersonal conflict, social support and employee performance

	Mean	Standard deviation	Number of supervisors
Total interpersonal conflict	10.0736	3.34730	163
Total social support	25.7914	7.55919	163
Total employee performance	33.5706	6.25879	163
Total LMX	25.5890	4.89233	163

8.6 BIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The associations between the variables applied to measure the different dimensions of interpersonal relationships were examined using Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient. This method of correlation was used to describe the strength and direction of linear bivariate relationships (Pallant, 2011). Primary examination was carried out to permit no infringement of the assumption of normality, linearity, and homoscedascity in corrections of variances (Pallant, 2011). The rule applied to determine and interpret the strength and route of correlations was taken from Pallant (2011), as follows $r=.10$ to $.29$ being weak, $r=.30$ to $.49$ being medium and $r = .50$ to 1.00 being strong in relationships.

Figure 8.1 Normal P-Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

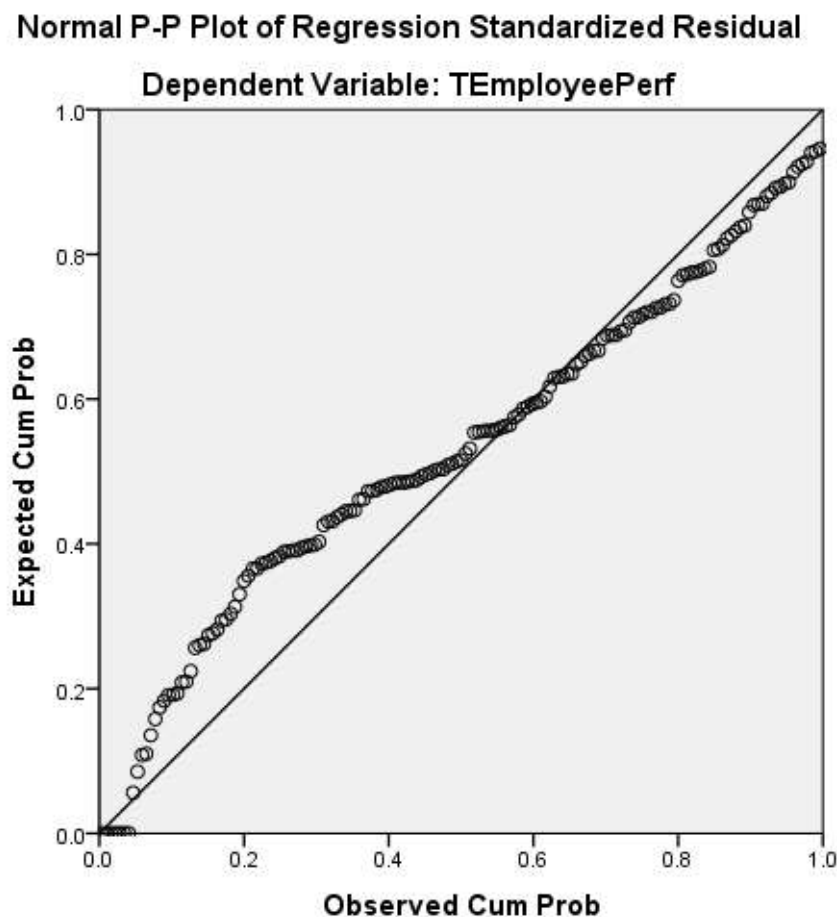


Figure 8.1 above represents the observed cumulative probability of the dependent variable on the expected cumulative probability.

Table 8.33 Distribution table of tolerance and VIF values for independent variables

Variables (Constant)	Tolerance	VIF
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Total social support	.990	1.01
Total interpersonal conflict	.910	1.10
Total LMX	.902	1.11

From Table 8.33 above, the high correlation coefficients of 1.00 and below .900 were not included in the regression model, based on the value of tolerance computed above. The VIF values were 1.01, 1.10, and 1.11 respectively. The values were below 10 which is the cut-off point according to Pellant (2011). It signifies that the study did not violate the assumptions of multi-collinearity. Therefore, having conducted the preliminary checks, the formulated objectives for subordinate and supervisor data were tested by using appropriate inferential statistics, presented, analysed and interpreted as follows.

8.6.1. Connection between social support and employee performance

Social support in recent times is regarded as an interpersonal relations resource that is good. The investigation of this study seeks to examine its effect on employee performance (Sarason et al., 2013). The assessment of the correlation between social support and employee performance was measured using the Pearson standard correlation matrix as follows:

8.6.1.1. Correlation between social support and employee performance (subordinates)

The correlation matrix below explains the result of the connection between social support and employee performance for all the subordinate workers represented in the study.

Table 8.34 Correlation matrix for subordinate social support and employee performance

	Mean	Standard deviation	R	P
Total social support	25.62	8.29	-	0.00
Total employee performance	33.40	5.91	-.032	-

N = 144 significant at 0.05 (2 Tailed)

The SPSS (version 22) provided bivariate result on Table 8.34 above, on the correlation coefficient between social support and employee performance among subordinate workers.

The number of samples used for the subordinates' analysis was 144 out of 147; it means there were three missing samples which is negligible (Pallant, 2013). The Pearson correlation coefficient between social support and employee performance indicates -.032, for subordinate social support, and .704 for employee performance, when the significant level is 0.05 that is ($r = -.032, P > 0.05$). It shows clearly that social support level is low, while employee performance level is high, which means that there appears to be no relationship between the social support and employee performance. There might be a causal connection which is likely to intervene or suppress the observed zero-order association between social support and employee performance (Treiman, 2009).

8.6.1.2. Correlation between social support and employee performance (supervisors)

The second objective of this study is the association between social support and employee performance. The aim of the objective was to see if any difference exists between the categories of workers in the South African retail sector, among other reasons are as follows:

Table 8.35 Correlation matrix for supervisors' social support and employee performance

	Mean	Standard deviation	R	P
Total social support	25.79	7.56	-	0.00
Total employee performance	33.57	6.26	-.028	-

N = 163 significant at 0.05 (2 Tailed)

The second result obtained from the SPSS bivariate analysis in Table 8.35 above is in respect of the association between social support and employee performance for supervisors. There were 163 samples used for the analysis, meaning there was no missing sample. The correlation coefficient for supervisor social support was -.028, and the employee performance was .078, when the significant level was 0.05, that is ($r = -.028, P > 0.05$). From the coefficient correlation of the two variables, social support is low, and employee performance is also low, which means there is no relationship (Pallant, 2013). The negative sign on the correlation coefficient of supervisors is an indication that there is a negative correlation between the two variables. Therefore, the bivariate result for both the subordinates and the supervisors in terms of assessment showed that there is no statistical significance between social support and employee

performance in the South African retail sector. The result obtained above indicates that there might be variables that are missing in the equation between social support and employee performance, such that could change the result observed in this construct.

8.6.2 Influence between interpersonal conflict and employee performance

Interpersonal conflict at work is regarded as that part of the interpersonal relationship problem that has a negative influence on employees in the workplace (Berschied et al., 1998). This objective is constructed to find out the plausible effect of interpersonal conflict on employee performance.

8.6.2.1 Correlation between interpersonal conflict and employee performance (subordinates)

The result of this construct was aided by the use of Pearson's standard correlation matrix as follows:

Table 8.36 Correlation matrix for subordinates' interpersonal conflict and employee performance

	Mean	Standard deviation	R	P
Total interpersonal conflict	10.08	5.68	-	0.00
Total employee performance	33.40	5.91	-.011	-

N = 144 significant at 0.05 (2 Tailed)

The SPSS (version 22) provided the bivariate result according to Table 8.36 above, assessing the correlation between interpersonal conflict and employee performance. A total number of 144 samples were used out of 147, which means three samples were missing for the subordinates. The correlation coefficient of the subordinates are -.011 for interpersonal conflict, and .893 for employee performance, when the level of significance is 0.05 ($r = -.011$, $P > 0.05$). The coefficient of correlation of the two variables indicated that interpersonal conflict is low, while employee performance is high. It signifies that the relationship between the variables is going in a negative direction. It also means that the subordinates did not specify the relationships between interpersonal conflict and employee performance in the South

African retail sector. Observations that have been made in previous studies about dissociations like this are discussed in the findings of this study.

8.6.2.2. *Correlation between interpersonal conflict and employee performance (supervisors)*

Pearson's standard correlation was used to examine the position of this construct as stated below in Table 8.37.

Table 8.37 Correlation matrix for subordinates' interpersonal conflict and employee performance

	Mean	Standard deviation	R	P
Total interpersonal conflict	25.59	4.89	-	0.00
Total employee performance	33.57	6.26	.078	-

N = 163 significant at 0.05 (2 Tailed)

A total of 163 samples were used to compute the bivariate result for the supervisors from the SPSS (version 22); there was no missing data. The coefficient correlation for the supervisors was .078 for interpersonal conflict and .120 for employee performance, when the level of significance is ($r = .078$, $P > 0.05$). The study observed that the correlation value of both interpersonal conflict and employee performance are low, which indicates that the relationship is in the positive direction, though the strength of the relationship is small or low (Pallant, 2013). Therefore, the bivariate result between the two variables showed that for subordinates the relationship is negative, and for supervisors the relationship is positive, but it is too weak to make a significant contribution. It is not impossible that a variable added to the equation might likely strengthen the relationship between interpersonal conflict and employee performance among supervisors.

8.6.3 Link between interpersonal relationships and employee performance

The interpersonal relationships between the supervisors and the subordinates have their roots in LMX transactions which give credence to the supervisor as the dictator of the relationship (Graen et al., 1995). The examination of the influence between interpersonal relationships and employee performance is of interest to this study as follows:

8.6.3.1 *Correlation between interpersonal relationship and employee performance (subordinates)*

Pearson's standard of correlation was to derive the following result in Table 8.34.

Table 8.38 Correlation matrix for subordinates' interpersonal relationships and employee performance

	Mean	Standard deviation	R	P
Total interpersonal relationships	25.68	10.55	-	.
Total employee performance	33.40	5.91	-.031	0.00

N = 144 significant at 0.05 (2 Tailed)

The SPSS (version 22) was used to compute the bivariate result obtained above in Table 8.38 on the influence between interpersonal relationships and employee performance for both subordinate workers. For the subordinates, 144 samples were used for the analysis, and out of 147, three samples were regarded as incomplete. The correlation coefficient of the subordinate was -.031 for interpersonal relationships, and .709 for employee performance, when the level of significance was ($r = -.031$, $P > 0.05$) and ($r = .709$, $P > 0.05$). The study observed that the correlation coefficient of interpersonal relationship was low and that of employee performance was high. This indicates that the direction of the relationship is negative, while there appears to be no significant association between interpersonal relationship and employee performance among subordinate workers in the South African retail sector. The demographic representation of the female gender domination in this study might have influenced this result; it means addition of a mediating variable might change the link between the construct.

8.6.3.2 *Correlation between interpersonal relationships and employee performance (supervisors)*

The connection in this objective was tested by the use of SPSS and bivariate result was obtained as follows.

Table 8.39 Correlation matrix for supervisors' interpersonal relationships and employee performance

	Mean	Standard deviation	R	P
Total interpersonal relationships	25.59	4.89	-	0.00
Total employee performance	33.57	4.89	.122	-

N = 144 significant at 0.05 (2 Tailed)

The Table 8.39 above refers; supervisors that participated were about 163, and all samples were used for the computation. The correlation coefficient of the supervisors was .122 for interpersonal relationships and .120 for employee performance, when the significance level is ($r = .122$, $P > 0.05$). This result indicated that both interpersonal relationships and employee performance have low correlation coefficients. It signifies the presence of a small relationship in a positive direction, but the association is not statistically significant. According to Treiman (2009), where the relationship is weak between two variables, there might be a causal connection between the variables. Applying the discovery of Treiman (2009) to this study, a missing variable added to this construct might cause a connection between interpersonal relationships of subordinates and supervisors in the South African retail sector.

8.6.4 The extent that interpersonal conflict, social support influence and employee performance

The study attempted to answer the research question four with this objective by the use of a regression model to predict the power of the variables under investigation, provide information from the model, and establish the contribution of each variable accordingly (Pallant, 2013).

8.6.4.1 *The regression model of interpersonal conflict, social support and employee performance (subordinates)*

Table 8.40 below represents the regression model that describes the response of subordinates on the interplay between interpersonal conflict, social support and employee performance as follows.

Table 8.40 Regression model of interpersonal conflict, social support and employee performance: subordinates' response

	R	R square	Adjusted R square	F	T	Beta	P
Subordinates	0.32	.001	-.013	.077			.582
Social support					-.367	-.031	-.714
Interpersonal conflict					-.098	-.008	.922

N = 144

The SPSS (version 22) was used to compute the analysis of regression according to Table 8.40 above. The regression table above shows the association between social support and interpersonal conflict on employee performance. The adjusted R square explains the level of prediction between the independent variables, in this case, interpersonal conflict and social support. The adjusted R square of -.013 for subordinates shows a variance level of 1.3% on employee performance. The percentage of the variation for subordinate employees is very low. The relationship between the variables is not significant when ($P > 0.05$). The standardised beta (coefficient) explains the contribution of independent variables in the regression model. For social support ($B = -.031$), ($P > 0.05$) and for interpersonal conflict is ($B = -.008$), ($P > .05$) respectively. The social support had a higher contribution of 3.1%, and interpersonal conflict's contribution is negligible at 0.8%. Both interpersonal conflict and social support have low contribution compared to employee performance. It signifies that there is no significant contribution between independent variables (social support and interpersonal conflict) and employee performance (dependent variable) in the South African retail sector.

8.6.4.2 The regression model of interpersonal conflict, social support and employee performance (supervisors)

Table 8.37 below represents the regression model that explains the supervisors' responses on the link between interpersonal conflict, social support and employee performance. It is important to note that the dependent variable (employee performance) is constant. The aim of the regression was to predict the percentage of social support and interpersonal conflict needed to affect employee performance.

Table 8.41 Regression model of interpersonal conflict, social support and employee performance: supervisor's response

	R	R square	Adjusted R square	F	T	Beta	P
Supervisors	0.082	.007	-.006	.077			
Social support					-.334	-.028	.739
Interpersonal conflict					.985	.078	.326

N = 163

The regression Table 8.41 above shows the association between social support and interpersonal conflict on employee performance. The adjusted R square explains the level of prediction between the independent variables, in this case, interpersonal conflict and social support. The adjusted R square of -.006 for supervisors, indicates the supervisors had a variance of .06% on employee performance. For any change in social support and interpersonal conflict, .06% of employee performance will be needed. The relationship between the variables is not significant when ($P > \text{standardised } 0.05$). The beta (coefficient) explains the contribution of independent variables in the regression model. For social support ($B = -.028$), ($P > .0.05$) and for interpersonal conflict is ($B = .078$), ($P > .05$) respectively. Though the contributory value of both social support and interpersonal conflict are low, the interpersonal conflict contributes more at 7.8%.

Because of the low contributory value of social support and interpersonal conflict for both supervisors and subordinates, one may not be confident to say that they are predictors of interpersonal relationship in the South African retail sector.

8.7 ANALYSIS OF QUALITATIVE DATA

This section represents the structured open-ended questions in section E of the subordinate questionnaire, and section F of the supervisor questionnaire. The items in the sections cover the information that relates to the respondents' perceptions about what should be done to reduce interpersonal conflicts between supervisors and subordinates in the South African retail sector. Secondly, it gives expressive ways of improving support in their organisations, in order to improve relationships between supervisors and their subordinates. Third, it allows each respondent to put forward their ideas on improving interpersonal relationship between supervisors and workers in the South African retail sector. Fourth, it shows whether interpersonal relationships can improve performance of employees in the retail sector in South Africa; for this question, the respondents were limited to two options of 'yes' or 'no'. The other questions one to three were not restrictive; the respondents' opinion was sought by the study. The qualitative data aided the platform for methodological triangulation and it provides more information that is not easy to assess through the quantitative data or method of data collection. The non-numerical data collected in this study was analysed and interpreted in a tabular form systematically.

8.7.1 Interpersonal conflicts reduction strategies in the South African retail sector

Interpersonal conflict may be referred to as deleterious interpersonal encounter branded by a contentious interchange, hostility or aggression. It could be seen in instances of respectful but contentious disagreement (Ilies, Johnson, Judge and Keeney, 2011). The general effect of interpersonal conflict has been studied (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Friedman, Tidd, Currall, & Tsai, 2000; Van de Vliert, 2013) and much attention is now on employees' immediate response to conflict and engaging in strategies that can reduce it (Van de Vliert, 2013). Nevertheless, the respondents concurred that interpersonal conflicts can be reduced between supervisors and subordinates in the retail sector in South Africa. Comments of respondent employees of four different retail companies in South Africa on ideas to reduce interpersonal conflict from various respondents have been categorised together as follows:

The question was: *"What do you think should be done to reduce conflicts between supervisors and workers in your organisation?"* The researcher chose to highlight responses by both the supervisors and the subordinates that are uniform, and offer the same meaning though differently framed in answering the qualitative questions. The responses of the supervisors and subordinates to question F1 in the questionnaire are represented by Table 8.38 as follows.

8.7.1.1. Communication and listening

The comments of participants with respect to communication and listening are presented below.

Supervisor respondent 40

“Communication is the best thing that can reduce conflict. Management should have an open-door policy, and be open to criticism from the staff, and be willing to adjust to improve work conditions.”

Subordinate respondent 14

“Work as a team, respect each other at all times, communicate accurately, no private decision on issues.”

The responses above indicate that supervisors and subordinates must find ways to ensure that there is flow of communication between them at all times. Almost half of the respondents share these views about the need to communicate as a way of reducing interpersonal conflict between the supervisors and the subordinates. It seems the supervisor should be the one to open the line of communication and always listen to the subordinates. From the comments above, communication opens other factors like respect; open door policy means that subordinates should have access to communicate through any available means with supervisors, and the supervisors must be willing to listen.

Some other comments made by respondents with respect to communication and listening are in the appendix of this thesis.

8.7.2. The association between social support and employee performance

Question F2 in the questionnaire was: *“How do you think support can be improved in the organisation to enhance relationship between supervisors and subordinates?”* Extracts of the responses of the supervisors are as follows: The researcher was particularly interested in uniform comments raised by both supervisors and subordinates as strategies to enhance social support in the South African retail sector. This is represented by respondents’ comments below as follows.

8.7.2.1 Team work

Participants in this study made the following comments with regards to team work.

Supervisor respondent 146

“Through team work, team building workshops, explanation of tasks given to each subordinate.”

Subordinate respondent 66

“Differentiating between being a leader and management would be beneficial. Team work is the primary support.”

The comments above suggest that the management in the South African retail industry should be conscious of programmes that will help to manage organisational change and employee development. As a means to support employees, experts in team building French and Bell (1995), are of the view that a typical team building meeting should start by the facilitator interviewing each of the team leaders and group members before the commencement of the meeting. Questions that relate to the problems of the team can be asked and how the individual thinks the group functions. If the problems of each employee can be identified, then team interventions can be reached to assist both supervisors and the subordinates in solving their problems. What he/she thinks is the hindrance that is preventing the group from better performing. From the remarks above, it may be that facilitators have not had time to question each employee during team building exercises.

8.7.2.2 Training

On training, the following responses were recorded.

Supervisors respondent 41

“Training and education can help to enhance the relationship between the supervisors and subordinates.”

Subordinate respondent 71

“Team buildings, workshops and more training will help.”

Continuous investment in employee skills and education is important to enhance the relationship between supervisors and subordinates. When organisations invest in skills training, managers have a good feeling about what they want their subordinates to learn during training. So in the area of improving the relationship between the supervisor and subordinates, managers should take an intuitive approach to what they desire for their workers as training needs (Blanchard & Thacker, 2007). The remark from the respondent above indicates that the employees want more education on the job, especially learning that points towards improvement in the relationship between supervisors and subordinates. Other comments of respondents concerning the need for training are in the appendix of this thesis.

8.7.3 Improving on interpersonal relationships and employee performance

Question F3 in the questionnaire reads as follows: *“How do you think the relationship between supervisors and workers can be improved in your organisation?”* The study considered the important comments of the following respondents in the supervisory grade summarised as follows.

8.7.3.1 Respect

Supervisor respondent 153

“By respecting each other.”

Subordinate respondent 121

“Respect each other and communication.”

In the theory of respect for persons by Kant (1929), and cited in Harris, Pritchard and Rabins (2005), the author’s referring to respect said: *“So act as to treat humanity, whether in your own person or in that of another, in every case as an end in itself, and never as a means only.”* This reflects in employees’ obligation to each other in order to determine acceptable behaviour in the workplace. The human resource ethical policies should set objective standards against which all actions of employees are measured. Respect is one of the ethical standards that will guide the relationships between supervisors and subordinates.

Some other comments of the respondents on ways of improving interpersonal relationships and employee performance are included in the appendix of this thesis.

8.7.4 Whether supervisor-subordinate interpersonal relationship improves employee performance

The question F4 in the questionnaire reads as follows: *“Do you think that an improvement in interpersonal relationship between supervisors and subordinates will improve performance among employees?”* The response was a two dimensional scale of *Yes/No*. The response of the supervisor indicates that out of 163 supervisors that responded, 160 marked *yes*. Only three respondents marked *no*. A total of 99.98% of the supervisor respondents are of the opinion that improvements in interpersonal relationships between supervisors and subordinates will improve employee performance. Out of 147 subordinates that responded, only four of them marked *no*, of about 143 respondents, 99.97% are in favour that interpersonal relationship between supervisor and subordinate will improve employee performance.

8.8 COMPARING THE RESULTS OF QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE DATA

The data presented, analysed, and interpreted was the result of quantitative and qualitative data sets that were used in this study. These data sets revealed the following important areas of data methodological triangulations as presented below.

8.8.1 Connection between social support and employee performance

Objective one does not support the association between social support and employee performance in the South African retail sector (see Table 7.30). The quantitative data further revealed that there is no significant relationship between employees' (both supervisor and subordinates) perceived support and their performance (see figure 7.5.1).

However, the qualitative data offset the result of the quantitative by offering a more comprehensive explanation to the analysis of quantitative data. Respondents affirm that the relationship between social support and employee performance will be enhanced when the following human resource factors are introduced: skills (communication, training, and team-work), attitudes (respect, uniform treatment, problem solving, and open-minded/meetings), and behaviour (understanding/expectation) (see figure 7.6.2). The qualitative data analysis revealed the reason why social support is not significant to employee performance in the retail sector in South Africa. The reason was that support received from superior officers and management is generally low; the focus of the management has been on meeting estimated sales targets even if it means not communicating the need for support.

8.8.2 The connection between interpersonal conflict and employee performance

The second objective investigated the association between interpersonal conflict and employees' performance (see Table 8.31). The quantitative data revealed that there is no significant relationship between interpersonal conflict and employee performance in the South African retail sector for both supervisors and subordinates. The result demonstrated that interpersonal conflict does not influence performance of the employees in the South African retail sector; that employees in the retail stores don't yell, argue or disagree with each other.

The connection between interpersonal conflict and employee performance was supported in the qualitative data through the affirmation of respondents. In view of the notion of no relationship above from quantitative data, the respondents' natural contribution to reducing interpersonal conflict was that there should be communication, team-work, training, respect, meetings, understanding, fairness, staff motivation, sharing ideas, problem solving, and a

friendly environment (see subsection 7.6.1). The qualitative data analysis revealed the reason why interpersonal conflict is not significant in the retail sector in South Africa. Employees communicate more with technology instead of communicating with co-workers.

8.8.3. The link between interpersonal relationships and employee performance

Objective three considered the relational levels between supervisors and subordinates and their performance at work (see Table 8.32 and figure 8.5.3). The quantitative data for subordinates indicated that there is no significant relationship between subordinates' interpersonal relationships and their performance at work when ($r = -.031$, $P < 0.05$, $N = 147$). The quantitative data result of supervisors indicated that there is significant relationship between interpersonal relationships of supervisors and their performance at work, when ($r = .122$, $P < 0.05$, $N = 163$). It means that interpersonal relationship of supervisors has lesser influence on employee performance in the South African retail sector (see subsection 8.5.3).

The qualitative data was set to highlight and offset the weaknesses of the quantitative data resulting in a more acceptable overall conclusion to be reached from the total data collected. The respondents (both supervisors and subordinates) subscribed to the fact that interpersonal relationships have influence on employees' performance; they also suggested ways of improving interpersonal relationships, it includes communication/listening, team work, training, respect, staff motivation/behaviour, decision making/work environment, frequent meetings, sharing ideas, policies and procedures, support or friendliness and treatment at work (see subsection 8.6.3.). The insignificance of interpersonal relationships was highlighted when both subordinates and supervisors suggested the need for friendship and fairness in the treatment of both class of employees at work.

8.8.4 The interactional effects of social support and interpersonal conflict on employees' performance

The fourth objective examined the interplay between social support and interpersonal conflict by using regression analysis. The results of the quantitative data signified that social support and interpersonal conflict has no significant contribution to employee performance in the retail sector in South Africa (see figure 8.5.1. and Table 8.30). Adjusted R square which indicates the extent of the interaction between the independent variables indicate that for subordinates $-.013$ and for supervisors $-.006$ which falls in the region of no relationship, means that the contribution of the two independent variables are minimal to affect employee performance in the retail sector in South Africa. The reason for the low level of relationship might be that employees' level of communication may be low in the retail sector in South Africa; this was

justified by the responses of both subordinates and supervisors in their own words (qualitatively).

The qualitative data findings provided beneficial explanations to the quantitative data results. To ascertain whether an improvement in interpersonal relationships (social support and interpersonal conflict) would improve employee performance, 160 supervisors out of 163 agreed. One hundred and forty three out of 147 subordinates also agreed. The result was directly proportional, which means that if the level of interpersonal relationship is low among employees, the performance will be low, and if it is high, then employee performance will be high according to the respondents.

8.9 SUMMARY

This stage of the report presented and analysed the quantitative and qualitative data by the use of suitable and matching procedures of data analysis. The demographic data was presented and analysed by the application of descriptive statistics. The categories of variables in the demographic data were presented in both frequency distribution tables. The research questions and objectives were assessed by using descriptive and inferential statistics respectively. Pearson's moment correlation coefficient was incorporated in the analysis of objectives one, two and three of the study and the regression approach was used to extend comparisons between independent variables in objective four.

The statistical reliability and validity of the constructs used in this study were considered by the use of IBM SPSS statistics version 22. Content analysis approach was used to present and analyse the qualitative data. The empirical outcomes were compared with the findings of this study to assess the degree to which the data triangulated in the methodology.

The results indicated that there is no statistical significant connection between interpersonal relationships and employee performance for this sample from the South African retail sector. However, the study did suggest that if the organisations improve on employee communication, listening, respect, team work, training, treatment of employees, friendly environment, frequent meetings, sharing ideas, and employee motivations, interpersonal relationships between supervisors and subordinates will improve positively. The knowledge revealed above is regarded by the researcher as human resource factors that affect employee interpersonal relationships and outcomes. These factors are subject to being tested empirically to know the

degree of association with interpersonal relationships and employee performance in other sectors of the economy in South Africa.

The following chapter presents the interpretation and discussion of findings of this study. It connects the research questions, objectives and the outcomes of earlier studies.

CHAPTER 9: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the outcomes that were presented in the preceding (data analysis) chapter. The discussion acknowledges the research questions and objectives that were formulated for the study from the statement of problems outlined. A detailed discussion is also presented on the degree to which the findings support through reference, previous studies and literatures on the connection between interpersonal relationships and employee work performance, and the link between social support, interpersonal conflict and performance of employees at work.

The intention of this chapter is to ascertain whether the objectives of this study have been realised or not, and to demonstrate that answers to the research questions have been provided. The discussion on the findings stem from the objectives of the study, which made available explanation, confirmation and theoretical assumptions on the connection between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance in the retail sector in South Africa. Beyond the acknowledgement that there is no statistical significant relationship between the relationships among the variables, the chapter provided alternative explanations that may be considered on how individual interpersonal relationships influence their work performance in the South African retail sector.

9.2 DISCUSSIONS ON RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIVES

The research questions and objectives were arranged sequentially in a way that they dovetailed on each other. The answering of a question puts a test on the objectives simultaneously. The results are discussed according to the research questions and objectives formulated in the presentations below.

9.2.1 The influence of social support on employee performance

Social support is an offshoot of interpersonal relationship at work that has the possibility to promote the wellbeing or coping abilities of the employees who receive it in an organisation (Abu Al Rub, 2004; Cohen, 1998). The reliability for this construct was good. The alpha coefficient of social support is 96% and employee performance is 76%.

9.2.1.1 The influence between social support and employee performance

Below are detailed explanations on the results of the association between social support and employee performance.

1. Subordinate on quantitative analysis result

The coefficient of correlation between the social support and employee performance for the subordinate employees indicated that there is an inverse relationship. While social support is low with the correlation level at $-.32$ which is negative, the employee performance level is $.709$ which is high and positive. The result indicated that there is no direct relationship between social support and employee performance for the subordinate employees.

There is the need to relate the result to the research question. The result provided an answer to the question 8.5.1.1(1) in the analysis chapter, which assesses employees' relational attachment. The result indicates a low level of employee relational attachment. When employee relational attachment support is low, it signifies that the number of persons available to give support to one subordinate is less than aggregate of available persons willing to offer support, even when (five) at maximum are an option to offer support. The satisfaction level of that one is 44.9% (from the descriptive statistics), which is less than the satisfaction that five supervisors will offer in terms of support.

The fundamental reason why a study of this nature may come up with such quantitative results could be because of the unitary concept of social support. The concept is complete in itself (Pierce et al., 1991). Sarason et al. (2013) gave a strong distinction between personal-versus-environmental resources, and may be the reason for questions in social support: "When the

assessment of support is by self-report or experiment, the result scores may reflect trait-like personal perceptions to a greater or lesser degree (depending on the question's wording). Once a given measure pertains to perceived social support, it confuses personal with social resources, which in turn compromises the chance that research will generate an unclouded picture of the independent or interactive effects of the two classes of variables" (Sarason et al., 2013). The above explanation accounts for the non-relational result of the quantitative inference of the subordinate data. Relating this to the result obtained, the benefit or cost of social support is personal to an employee, and work performance is an environmental/organisational resource. So then the virtue of social support and employee work performance in an objective like this case may not be conceded.

The logic of elaborating on the dissociation above might be the need to consider a spurious or intervening variable which is likely to mediate the association completely or partially (Treiman, 2012). The intervening variables were mentioned as strategies to enhance support. These potential variables are: communication, respect, training, teamwork and a friendly work environment.

2. Supervisor on quantitative analysis result

The correlation coefficient of the construct for the supervisor respondents in the quantitative analysis indicated that there is a low relationship. The social support correlation level is low at $-.028$ and that of employee performance is also low at $.078$, which clearly shows that there is no significant relationship between social support and employee performance for supervisors. One reason for low association between social support and employee work performance as in the case of the supervisors, was explained by Pierce et al. (1991). The dichotomous judgment involved in the assessment of social support could vary a quantitative result with any other variable in association. Dichotomous judgment refers to the assessment pattern of social support, that is, assessing the number of available scores and the degree of satisfaction derived from an available person willing to give support. This judgment on its own is complicated and demands a careful examination; adding another variable to it could further complicate the result (Spielberger, 2013).

In measuring the result obtained to the question 8.5.1.2 (data analysis chapter), on employee relational attachment, Sarason et al. (2013) argued that employee relational attachment is based on a self-concept (self-image), which believes that people who differ in social support will also differ in self-image and how they believe others perceive them. The result obtained from the

question indicated that the employee relational attachment is low, and the coefficient of correlation corroborates to answer the question. According to Sarason et al. (2013), low social support is associated with excessive worry, self-preoccupation and relative difficulty in focusing attention on a particular task. Low social support may cause maladjustment in adulthood because of childhood stress (Sarason et al., 2013). This view may explain the state of the supervisors in the South African retail industry.

This study from the quantitative analysis revealed that both supervisors and subordinates use less social support. Such minimal use of social support by employees may have its roots in the cultural background of employees. Triandis (1995) had made a distinction between cultural collectivism and individualism. Ford, Heisen and Langkamer (2007) recorded that employees who use less support are of the collective cultural background, while the individualistic use more support. Explanations for employees' minimal use of social support by collectivist cultural employees was that: one, available support should not be solicited before it is made available, support givers should anticipate the need; two, the needs of employees should be met independently (Deutsch, 2011); three, the concern of employees under collective culture is about the negative results that may be associated with seeking support (Kim, Sherman & Taylor, 2008). This study supports the explanation given by Kim et al. (2008), that supervisors and subordinates in the South African retail sector may have collective culture, because of their low response to social support.

3. Content analysis result

The qualitative content analysis corroborated the view of Sarason et al. (2013) by how much it gave reasons for the negative association between social support and employee performance. It shifted the focus of the study from promises, not on the social support equation that was enumerated in the quantitative analysis to strategies that will help the employees to assess and receive support.

It is interesting to note that the majority of the subordinate respondents remarked that their supervisors don't listen to them. Over forty percent of the supervisors that participated in this study were of the view that employees need to communicate more. This is a strong indication that lack of communication among employees may mean that the majority of the employees are introverted, and that can affect their relational attachment (Sarason et al., 1990). Relational attachment is the available, trusted and responsive others that an employee can count on to listen when the employee needs to talk. Employees' relational attachment in social support is

the basis for expressive behaviour and personal development (Bowlby 1988). Spielberger et al. (2013) documented that social support is often communicated through specific behaviours such as money loans, advice, and willingness to listen uncritically to another's concern.

Where superior employees are not listening to subordinates, communication will be hampered and the subordinates may not be in a position to receive support. Irrespective of the number of superior officers willing to offer support to an employee, once communication is hindered, the employee may not be satisfied with the support level. In a study, Erdogan and Liden (2007) observed that the connection between LMX and performance will be more positive for employees that report to high supervisor perceived organisational support (POS).

On the second question which examines the social integration of employees, social integration occurs when employees belong to the part of a group of employees who share common interests, concern and recreational activities that are clustered as a factor that is different from other factors that reflect the receipt and provision of social support (Weiss, 1974). Social support measures the perceived availability and adequacy of people to count on to help an employee in a crisis situation. It was discovered from the qualitative content analysis that as much as the employees need support, they crave a friendly environment and approachable superior officers.

When employees are in crisis and the work environment is hostile, request for support may not be too easy for them. The human resource policies on group development in the retail industry in South Africa may attend to this need. Masterson (2001) documented that service employees who perceive that their organisation treated them fairly should respond by treating customers well. Supervisors who perceived they were treated fairly should respond by treating subordinates with more favour (Tepper & Taylor, 2003).

If the work environment is friendly, employees of both ranks under consideration will not request for friendliness; it means then that the social integration level of employees is low. When social integration of employees is low, three kinds of support are needed to boost employees' level of social integration. They are intimate support, instrumental support and companionship at work (Sarason, 2013). Intimacy is the people available with whom an employee feels emotionally close or connected (Hawkey, Masi, Berry & Caciopo, 2006). Instrumental support is the perceived available people who can provide functional assistance to complete daily tasks (Cohen, 2004). Companionship at work, which is friendship, may be the most relevant. Friendship is the available companions or persons with whom an employee can interact or affiliate with at work (Hawkey et al., 2006).

The opinion of the scholars on social support was that social support as a unitary concept is good. As a resource, employees should take advantage of the support available in their organisation. The assumption is that social support should enhance the best in any employee (Sarason et al., 1983; Sarason et al., 1990, Spielberger et al., 2013). With respect to the results obtained through this objective, the study found that social support did not influence employee performance. Although there is likely to be a missing factor or variable, if the factor is added, it may affect the result of the association between social support and employee performance. The qualitative derivatives of social support should not be neglected as observed in this study. Its spurious association with other variables like communication, training, team work, respect and other human resource behavioural and cognitive factors should be constructed to find out the possibility of associations. This leaves room for further studies, to determine the behaviour of each of these elements with employee performance. There may be the need to find perceived social support scales that are inter-reliant and not self-reliant, even if consideration will be given to the cost or benefit associated with support.

9.2.2 The effect of interpersonal conflict on employee performance

Interpersonal conflict at work has been described as negative interpersonal encounters that are characterised by a contentious exchange, hostility or aggression (Illies et al., 2011). Interpersonal conflict may include arguments, yelling and rudeness (Anderson & Pearson, 1999). It may also be respectful but contentious disagreements at work.

9.2.2.1 Effect of interpersonal conflict at work on employee performance

The goal of this objective was to examine the association between individual interpersonal conflict and employee performance by differentiating the categories of employees as supervisors and subordinates. The reason for the categorisation of employees was based on Fiske's (1992) theory of social relations, that subordinates' interpersonal conflict is based on communal sharing; that the supervisor's interpersonal conflict is based on authority ranking between supervisor and subordinate. The view of this study was that categorising the employees will assist the study to be able to define the interpersonal context in which conflict occurs among the employees (supervisors and subordinates), through either of the following ways: arguments (question B.1.7), yelling (question B.1.8), and rudeness (question.1.9) in the South African retail sector. The nature of the interpersonal conflict questions B1.7 to B1.12, were framed such that the respondents answering the questions must belong to the

supervisor/subordinate category. Therefore, categorisation of respondents was the first approach to answering the interpersonal conflict at work scale (ICAWS) question.

1. Supervisor and subordinate quantitative analysis result

The coefficient correlation of the subordinates was $-.011$, and of the supervisors was $.078$; both are not statistically significant ($P > 0.05$). The quantitative results for the subordinates indicate that there is no relationship between the variables under consideration. For the supervisors, the relationship is weak; it is going in the negative direction. The quantitative results obtained above are in agreement with previous studies (Kasl, 1998; Spector & Jex, 1998; Frone, 2000). Spector and Jex (1998) documented that interpersonal conflict at work both personally and organisationally in relation to psychological outcomes were negatively correlated to job satisfaction and self-esteem.

From the result of the quantitative analysis, categorization of individual conflict behaviour has not helped the findings of this study. According to Van de Vliert (2013), categorization does not take into account frequent occurrence of conflict and relevance of complex behaviours. He further explained that because interpersonal conflict as a concept has negative influence, attention of scholars and practitioners in conflict behaviour, management and outcomes should be goal directed reactions. Irrespective of the outcomes of associations (whether positive or negative) provided outcome has costs and benefits associated to the individual and not collectively to all (Van de Vliert, 2013).

2. Interpersonal competencies between supervisors and subordinates

The study's second goal was to examine the development of the interpersonal competencies between individuals (supervisors and subordinates) at work (Frone, 2000), to identify and manage the work characteristics that have a negative effect on employee performance. This goal was achieved through the qualitative data responses of supervisors and subordinates. Homogenous views of the respondents were divided into two; one was major and the other minor areas of competencies. The major view recognised the development of interpersonal competencies according to the number of persons in support of a view. This directly reflects on the skill development policies of the retail companies in South Africa.

The respondents unanimously mentioned that training, team work, communication and respect could reduce interpersonal conflict between supervisors and subordinates. The study decided to recognise training as the umbrella view that can accommodate other major characteristics. Through effective training, employees can learn, build and develop skills in communication,

team abilities and skills, and learn the ethical principles of respect. This will make them treasured resources of their organisations (Ruth & Nel, 2012). The minor views identified are uniform treatment, regular meetings, understanding of expectations and problem solving. All these fall under developing a strong organisational culture and learning. According to Cross (2011), organisations should discover a natural pathway that inspire innovation and performance, other than the formal learning.

Based on the suggestion of Van de Vliert (2013), attention of scholars and practitioners in management conflict should not be on categorization of individuals, but investigating the conflict behaviours. This study considers the major and minor elements that can reduce frequent interpersonal conflicts as enumerated above via the qualitative analysis, to say that interpersonal conflict influences employee work performance negatively, but that the influence can be positive if the major and minor elements are affected in the South African retail sector. Culturally the result of Liu, Spector, Liu and Shi (2011) on the link between job independence and conflicts, gave meaning to the quantitative result of this study. They discovered that a low level of job independence would relate to a high level of conflicts among supervisors. Culturally, low level of independence is associated with individualistic culture, and high job independence is linked with collectivism. The result obtained in this study indicated that the level of interpersonal conflict is low, which signifies that for both supervisor and subordinates, the level of job independence is high because of supervisory controls, strain and performance, and the employees are collectivistic-oriented culturally (Hofstede, 2010).

The position of this study on the connection between interpersonal conflict and employee performance is that interpersonal conflict could not affect employee performance. However, there is the need to find out the possibility of association, if communication, training, team work, and respect mediate this objective.

9.2.3 Link between interpersonal relationships and employee performance

Interpersonal relationships in the workplace grow from employees' exploration (Teboul & Cole, 2005), sizing up one another and seeking to initiate relationships with similar others (Sias & Cahill, 1998), and those who could be of benefit through mutual expectations, shared understanding and building loyalty (Teboul & Cole, 2005). This subsection will discuss the findings of this objective and the research questions related to it.

9.2.3.1 Examining the association between interpersonal relationships and employee performance: LMX theory

The goal of the question and objective was to examine whether an association exists between supervisors and subordinates' interpersonal relationships and their performance on the job,

using the LMX theory to answer the research question. The question that addressed this objective was E7 in the supervisor questionnaire, which refers to the characteristics of interpersonal relationships.

1. Subordinate: result of quantitative analysis

The correlation coefficient of subordinates' interpersonal relationships indicated a relationship in the negative direction, demonstrated in a way that when ($P > .05$) ($r = -.031$). According to Triandis (1972), the correlation above was referred to as "Dissociation". In the dimensions of relationships, dissociation is a sign that the level of interaction at the subordinate's cadre is low, and that employees are not close (Berscheid et al., 1998). The construct above reflects that there is no relationship between interpersonal relationships and employee performance among subordinate employees.

The LMX theory was based on the premise that leadership is rooted in the transaction between leaders and followers. The attention of this study is about how supervisors and subordinates collectively engage to generate a quality of relationship at work that permits them to effectively produce leadership results (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The LMX theory does not acknowledge the followers (subordinates). The focus gives privileges to the leaders (supervisor) as the driver of the relationship building process (Uhl-Bien, Graen & Scandura, 2000). From the leadership position expressed above, though the subordinates and supervisors co-create relationships together, recognition is given to the supervisors over subordinates (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe & Carsten, 2014).

2. Supervisor: result of quantitative analysis

The correlation coefficient of the supervisor interpersonal relationships on employee performance indicated that when ($P > .05$) ($r = .122$), the relationship is weak. When associations are weak the implication of leadership is that there is low quality of exchange. This may be characterized by low levels of trust, support, self-disclosure, less open communication and more direct supervision (Graen et al., 1995). Low quality supervisor relationships emphasize power distance through monitoring performance, face threatening acts and conflict (Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989). Low quality of LMX is noted by patterns of communication. The patterns may be by co-ordination or participation. Coordination is where supervisors and subordinates interact mutually and not in one direction. Participation is when a supervisor invites equipped employees to take part in decision making (Yrle, Hartman & Galle, 2002). Employees report low LMX relationships when they perceived supervisors used position centred communication; this is characterised by authority and direct supervision (Fix

& Sias, 2006). All these are strong indications that the relational quality of employees in the study conducted may be low.

3. Content analysis result

To complement the quantitative data position of low quality relationship as enumerated above, the respondents' remarks on interpersonal relationships and employee performance in the qualitative data may be imperative. Approximately forty-five percent of the respondents were of the view that interpersonal communication between the supervisors and subordinates is fundamental to their relationship. Assessment of interpersonal relationships through the patterns of communication between supervisor and subordinates, by examining the high quality relationships and low quality relationships, was the focus of relationship scholars until the mutual concept emerged. The mutual concept is where the leaders develop different types of relationships with their subordinates in order to affect performance on both sides (Sias, 2013). The constitution of LMX relationship is on the concept of leaders and members together, who provide leadership with their peculiar relationship through communication. Carsten and Uhl-Bien (2015) refer to this concept as co-creating relationships. The human resource policies on people development should be developed to train supervisors and subordinates in mutual communication for effective relationships at work.

The position of this study on this objective is that for subordinates, interpersonal relationship does not influence employee performance. For the supervisors, interpersonal relationship has partial influence on employee performance. This result leaves room for causal assumptions about variables that may need to be added to the construct to either mediate or moderate it for better results. The remark of the qualitative data respondents on improving communication of employees is in line with the view of interpersonal relationship scholars (Sias, 2013). This study is in support of the previous studies on interpersonal relationships.

9.2.4 The influence of interpersonal conflict and social support on employee performance

Organised activities are continuous in any social system such as an organisation (Simon, 1976). Interpersonal interactions are fundamental to organisational activities (March & Simon, 1958). Although a reasonable proportion of employees' interaction and activities have been reported to be positive, like social support (Watson, 2000), evidence suggests that there are negative occurrences like interpersonal conflict, which holds more potency than positive events (Rook, 2001). The aim of this objective is to combine the two activities and investigate their association with employee performance.

9.2.4.1. Influence between negative and positive interpersonal relationship on employee performance

The result of the analyses presented on this research objective allows the study to answer the research question four, which examines the interplay between interpersonal conflict, social support and employee performance.

1. Subordinate and supervisor result of quantitative analysis

The standard regression model indicated that the subordinate employees had a higher variance of 1.3%, over the supervisor variance of 0.8% in employee performance. Of the two variables in consideration, the social support made a higher contribution of -.031 over -.008 of social support. Although the beta value of 3.1% of social support and .8% of interpersonal conflict are not statistically significant, the implication is that for any additional change to social support and interpersonal conflict, employee performance will change by 3.1% (Pallant, 2013). Where the quality of relationship is low, as obtained in the regression model Table 8.36 and 8.37 (in data analysis chapter), Fairhurst and Chandler (1987) emphasized that the supervisors will have to resort to the use of power distance to threaten or support subordinates. The standard regression model was applied practically to answer question four of this study, and question four in section E of the supervisor questionnaire. Assuming the HR management of the retail companies decide to use expert power to assist the employees' form of conflict between the supervisors and the subordinates, to be able to affect the performance of employees, every unit of expert power introduced, 3.1% of employee performance is needed to either increase or decrease performance (Farmer & Aguinis, 2005).

Farmer et al. (2005) proposed that the influence of supervisor capacity to make resources available and the intent to do so affects subordinates' outcomes by constructing environment that supports or threatens the identity. They documented that in the bid for supervisors to provide supporting resources, it leads to the best and the worst outcomes (Farmer et al., 2005). The explanation of Farmer and his colleagues supported this study, that social support intended to bring out the best or interpersonal conflict, aimed at bringing out the negative aspect of an individual, may have an effect on employees' outcome.

This explains the complementary position of respondents and their overwhelming remark in the qualitative analysis. When the respondents were asked whether social support and interpersonal conflict will affect employee performance, their response was yes. Ninety-eight percent of them concurred that there is room for improvement through communication, listening, teamwork, training, trust and respect.

9.3 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS (THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK)

The result of this study supports the assumption of social support theory (Sarason et al., 1983) that social support is more strongly related to positive than negative life changes or outcomes; that social support contributes to positive adjustments and individual personal development (Sarason et al., 1990). It also provides a cushion against the effects of stress at work experience by employees. Based on the six dimensions of social support adapted from Weiss (1974), one dimension assesses the relational attachment of employees; two measures the social integration of employees; three is concerned with the opportunity to nurture relationship; four measures the worth of the social relationship; five focuses on the alliance of the employees and six views the employees' sense of guidance. The effect of interpersonal conflict on employee performance was based on the social relations theory (Fiske, 1992). The influence between interpersonal relationships and employee performance was based on the LMX theory (Graen & Dansereau, 1975). Below is a detailed discussion on the theories engaged in order to carry out the objectives of this study.

9.3.1 The influence between social support and employee performance

The result obtained from objective one was based on the dimensions of social support theory (Weiss, 1974). One and two of the dimensions were used in this study to measure availability of support and the extent of satisfaction derived from the support available. The first dimension indicated that employees' relational attachment is not statistically significant to employee performance in the South African retail sector. Relational attachment is the reason for behaviour expressed by employees and personal development (Bowlby, 1988). The second dimension, social integration, relates to the strength of the relationship that gives access to two or more persons (Wellman & Wortley, 1990); the interaction that allows two or more people to share similar interests, concern and recreational activities. Social integration uses relationship to reflect more casual friendships that allows an individual to engage in more social activities. They can be described as support offered to employees to keep them or make them belong to a network. The social integration measure was not statistically significant. The social integration level of subordinate and supervisor employees in the South African retail sector is low from the quantitative analysis result obtained.

The non-significance of the association between social support and employee performance was based on the self-reliant nature of the social support concept. As a phenomenon, social support is complete in itself without attachment or association with any variable. Association with other variables confuses it with personal or environmental resources, such that it generates an

unclouded image of the interactive effects of the two variables (Sarason, 2013). In assessing social support, a dichotomous judgment (double assessment of the presence of support) was necessary to assess the number of scores for available people and the degree of satisfaction the support receiver gets from the people available to give support (Pierce et al., 1988).

The outcome of this study revealed that consideration should be given to the suggestions of respondents in the content analysis, to examine the effect of communication, listening, training, team work, uniform treatment of employees, and improving work environment. This will help in deepening empirical knowledge in this field of study; and advise the human resource management of the respective retail organisations on the need to incorporate the findings.

9.3.2 The effect of interpersonal conflict on employee performance

The outcome of the objective was grounded in the social relations theory, which categorised employees into supervisors and subordinates based on their employment status. The social relations theory posed that subordinates' relationships are based on communal sharing, and the supervisors' relationships depend on their rank at work (Fiske, 1992). The theory enabled the study to measure the interpersonal competencies of the supervisors and subordinates through the statistical results obtained in the association between interpersonal conflict and employee performance. The quantitative result could not identify the communal sharing abilities of the subordinates as demanded by the first social model of the theory. This was revealed by the qualitative result where the employees (supervisors and subordinates) unanimously remarked that the treatment of workers will assist in reducing interpersonal conflict at work. The remark bordered on the organisational justice and relational justice capacities and policies in place in the South African retail sector.

The quantitative result could not also address the second social model assertion that the supervisors' relationships are based on authority ranking in the organisation. The view of respondents in the content analysis was that interpersonal conflict will reduce in the South African retail sector, if supervisors learn to listen, communicate, play team roles, train subordinates and respect them. The remark above throws challenge on the organisational culture in place, and the policies on culture embraced by each retail organisation. This study was able to apply the qualitative results to social relations theory as explained above (Spector & Jex, 1998; Frone, 2000).

The result obtained in this study above on this objective was consistent with previous studies on interpersonal conflict, when Frone (2000) had to rely on qualitative results to draw inferences on associations between interpersonal conflict and outcome variables. This might

be due to the nature of the social relations model, which may or may not have connection between interpersonal conflict and outcome variables. The examination of interpersonal conflict and employee performance in this study gives consideration to the qualitative results obtained.

9.3.3. The association between interpersonal relationships and employee performance

The result of this objective was grounded in the LMX theory that was modified by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). The theory draws on the back of the social exchange theory to acknowledge specific progression in interactions between leader (supervisor) and member (subordinate). The stages in the relationships are as follows:

Stage one = Stranger stage - where the LMX relationship is branded by prescribed transactions, through the supervisor's job specifications to the subordinates, and the subordinate's response to job requirements and demands. Progress at this stage leads to the next stage.

Stage two = Acquaintance stage - refers to supervisor and subordinates sharing information and resources individually and professionally. Development of trust and respect leads relationships to the next stage.

Stage three = Mature partnership - this level of relationship demands behaviour and emotional connections between the supervisors and the subordinates. The relationship is branded by loyalty, support, mutual obligation and respect. The three stages are equal to low, moderate and high level of LMX quality (Sin, 2006; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

This study attempted to apply the LMX theory, by acknowledging the low, moderate and high quality LMX relationships between supervisors and subordinates in the South African retail sector. The result of the quantitative analysis for subordinates for this objective was no relationship, but the result of the supervisor indicated that the quality of relationship between the supervisors and subordinates was low in quality to influence employee performance. The study through the quantitative analysis met the characteristics of the first stage of the LMX theory. The findings of this study quantitatively are in line with previous studies conducted on LMX development by Sin (2006), where it was reported that supervisors and subordinates don't see eye to eye, therefore interpersonal relationships of employees could not correlate with outcome variables, because some of the findings shared a common thread of patterns in their relationships.

Graen et al. (1995) being the proponents of this theory conceptualized that the LMX quality should consist of three distinct factors, namely: respect, trust and obligations. The second and

third stages of LMX theory could only be met through the qualitative analysis, where participants were of the view that for interpersonal relationships between supervisors and subordinates to influence employee performance, there should be information sharing, equal treatment of employees, equal decision making, and trust that answers to the demand of stage two. To meet the behavioural and emotional requirements of interpersonal relationships in stage three, respondents remarked that communication, listening, respect, training, and team work in the South African retail sector is needed to facilitate interpersonal relationships and employee performance.

Conclusively from the findings above, it may be safe for this study to assume that supervisor and subordinate relationships in the retail sector in South Africa is only at the first stage of relationship (stranger stage). There is the need for human resource development strategies to implement the ethical, emotional and behavioural characteristics mentioned above to accentuate the quality of interpersonal relationships to influence employee performance.

9.3.4 The influence between interpersonal conflict, social support and employee performance

This objective was accommodated by the LMX theory developed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), as enumerated in objective three above. This objective drove two salient issues that will be expressed here. One is the attention of this study was drawn to the stage two of the LMX theory, which emphasises the different relationships in the form of acquaintances that the supervisor has in the workplace. The supervisors and subordinates should share resources individually or professionally. Farmer et al. (2005) noted that the attention of subordinates is not only on the resources available to the supervisors, but the intention of the supervisors to do so, which may affect subordinates' outcomes by creating conditions which support or threaten the relationship (Farmer et al., 2005). At the employee level two of those conditions may be social support and interpersonal conflict, which constructs are brought out for examination in this study. The conditions of the quantitative result of this study have not proven to be supportive or threatening to subordinates particularly.

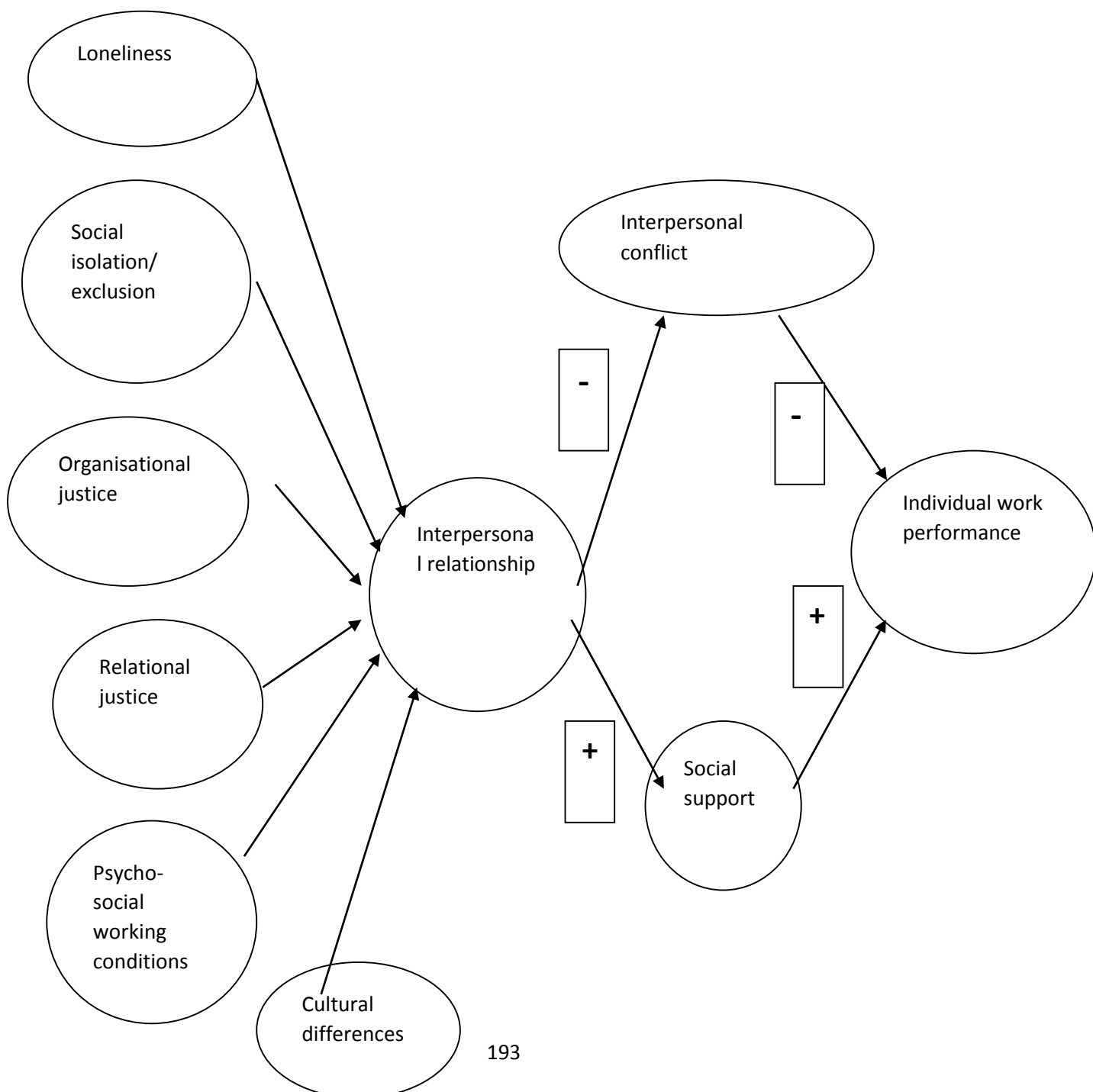
Two, according to Graen et al. (1995), acceptance of any offer should be accompanied with:

1. Mutual respect for the competences of the other.
2. Trust should be deeply reciprocated by both.
3. The assumption that obligation to interact will grow with time as social exchanges that are oriented by career blossom into partnership (Graen et al., 1995).

Carmelli, Dutton and Hadin (2015) documented that respect is the engine that drives new ideas. The qualitative results obtained in this study cover the three factors described above as mentioned in the appendix of this study. However, literature that measures respectful engagements, mutual trust and developmental obligations between supervisors and subordinates are needed to substantiate the view of the employees of the retail sector in South Africa.

9.3.5 The conceptual model for the study: individual interpersonal relationship

Figure 9.1 Conceptual framework guiding the study



The proposed model of individual interpersonal relationship described above represents the different concepts that inform the study. The objectives of the study were constructed based on the concepts. However, the theories of each concept assisted the study in drawing conclusions. It also assisted the model in its formation and placement of each of the concepts where they belong in the model. The model serves as a guide for the study, to ascertain which theory is needed for which of the concepts driven in the study.

Relating the proposed model to the findings of this study, particularly the suggestions of employees in the South African retail sector, the employees suggested that communication, training, teamwork, respect, equal treatment at work, and employee friendliness are factors that could influence interpersonal relationships and employee performance positively. It means that factors considered earlier like loneliness, isolation, organisational justice, relational justice, individual differences, cultural differences and psychological working conditions, will change for the suggested factors written above. This may be beneficial for future studies.

9.4 SUMMARY

The key findings of this study as discussed in detail in this chapter are in accordance with the research questions and objectives of the study. The outcomes indicated that there is no statistical significant association between social support and employee performance in the South African retail sector. This is traceable to the low level of employee relational attachment, caused by lack of communication and listening among employees, and low level of social integration among employees revealed by the employees' request for a friendly work environment in the South African retail sector.

The study also established a 'dissociation' in the relationship between interpersonal conflict and employee performance among subordinates and supervisors in the South African retail sector. The study established the interpersonal competencies of the subordinates and supervisors, in their joint views for training to be improved in order to reduce interpersonal conflict and enhance communication, team work and respect among the ranks of employees in the South African retail sector.

The result of the association between interpersonal relationships and employee performance is different from other results. For subordinates there is no relationship, but for supervisors the relationship is weak in a positive direction. Yet that relationship is not statistically significant.

The result above revealed that supervisors and subordinates have only attained to the first stage of LMX relationship, there is the need to harness the second and third stage as enumerated above in the South African retail sector.

The result of the last objective that combines social support, interpersonal conflict with employee performance has proven to be statistically insignificant. The facts revealed go on to improve on the second stage of LMX theory which specifies conditions for any engagement between supervisors and subordinates in order to improve their relations. These conditions are trust, respect, and obligation which corroborated with the aspirations of respondents in the content analysis.

The discussion of the findings of this study was extended to include the theoretical framework of the study. The social support theory assisted the study in identifying the relational attachment and social integration levels of subordinates and supervisors investigated. The social relations theory was used as a base to assess the interpersonal competencies of supervisors and subordinates. The LMX theory supported the study to enable the study to know the stage of relationships between the supervisors and subordinates in the South African retail sector.

The outcomes of this study contribute to the expansion of knowledge in the field of human resource management and organisational behaviour. This was achieved by suggestions and explanations of respondents on how individual interpersonal relationships can affect employee performance in the South African retail sector, the need to widen the constructs have become inevitable in the future.

The next chapter will bring into perspective, the summaries, conclusion and recommendations of the empirical and literature facts gathered in the course of the study.

CHAPTER 10: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

10.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter explains the overall conclusions and recommendations of this study based on both empirical and literature evidences on the link between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance in the South African retail sector. The general objective of this study was to examine the association between interpersonal relationships, using social support and interpersonal conflict as predictors of employee performance in the South African retail industry. This was assessed from both cognitive and behavioural perspectives of using social support and interpersonal conflict as independent variables in linking individual interpersonal relationships and employee performance. The summary of the major findings from the literature review chapters, and the quantitative and qualitative data analysis are presented in this chapter. The managerial implications of findings are explained for practitioners. The limitations of this study and suggestions for future research are expressed and briefly discussed. The impact on knowledge in the discipline of human resource management and organisational behaviour are highlighted.

The conclusions are based on the objectives of the study, which are as follows:

- To assess the connection between social support and employee performance.
- To examine the influence between interpersonal conflict and employee performance.
- To determine the effect of interpersonal relationships on employee performance.
- To determine the extent that interpersonal conflict and social support influence employee performance.

According to the findings of this study, it was reported that all the research objectives were adequately achieved.

10.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FROM QUANTITATIVE DATA

The research findings of this study fulfil the questions and the objectives that were set for it. The first result obtained from the association of social support and employee performance indicated that there is no direct relationship between social support and employee performance

in the South African retail sector. The result provided reason for low employee relational attachment and low employee social integration. This study offers possible explanations and management implications of the result while looking at the possibility of mediating this relationship with other variables that were suggested as factors that will assist the employees to improve on social support.

The second result was on interpersonal conflict and employee performance which showed that interpersonal conflict was too low for both supervisors and subordinates to affect employee performance, statistically there was no relationship. Recent studies suggest that instead of categorising the persons, the outcome should be on the costs and benefits the association will have on employees (Van de Vliert, 2013.). This result also depicted that interpersonal competencies between supervisors and subordinates in the retail sector is low, and it is incumbent on the human resource management of the retail companies to identify work characteristics that have negative effects on employee performance, and to amplify the positive influences to offset the effect of interpersonal conflict. The aim is to aid employee performance positively in the retail sector in South Africa.

The third result, on the association between interpersonal relationships and employee performance in the South African retail sector, showed that there is no relationship for subordinates and that there is a weak association for supervisors. This result revealed the stage of the relationship between supervisors and subordinate. It also indicated that there is a low level of trust, support and self-disclosure among employees.

The fourth result considered the predictions of both social support and interpersonal conflict on employee performance. The intention was to examine the possibility of combining positive and negative influences on employee performance, knowing that resource availability can cause conflict among employees. The result showed that employees of the retail organisations have not developed their relationships sufficiently to reach the stage of the LMX theory that measured this objective.

10.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FROM QUALITATIVE DATA

The conclusions that were drawn from the comments of the respondents in the content analysis linked with the literature gathered for this study. The study gives due consideration to these comments as they point the way forward, especially those comments that were jointly acknowledged by both supervisors and subordinates.

According to the qualitative research on the link between social support and employee performance, employees agreed that their superiors don't listen. Employees may be introverted due to lack of communication. The pattern of communication might have been the reason employees are asking for respect, trust, and team work as measures to enhance support. Therefore, whether emotional, financial, or cognitive support, employees in the retail sector in South Africa need to be trained on receiving support in the workplace.

The qualitative findings on interpersonal conflict and employee performance described the communal sharing abilities of the employees, which is the first stage in social relations theory. This was manifested when the employees collectively requested for the sharing of ideas, sharing of information and participation in decision making.

Regarding the fourth objective, the qualitative findings indicated that the majority of the respondents' believe that interpersonal relationships will affect employee performance.

10.4 SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND CONTRIBUTION OF THIS STUDY

The knowledge gathered in this study from the literature review and the theories adopted on the link between individual interpersonal relationships and employee performance indicated that extensive studies have been conducted, and the pool of knowledge is expanding especially now that attention of interpersonal relationship scholars has shifted from close relationships to the workplace relationships, where the leader-member transactions or exchanges, and the quality of relationships between employees have become important. The findings of this study have deepened the understanding of the subject of workplace interpersonal relationship, and extend the frontiers of knowledge in the field of human resource development by the revelation of the factors that could lead to the improvements of employees' interpersonal relationship and its management implications in the South African retail industry.

Studies conducted in the past two decades on employee interpersonal relations at work have recognised the role of employees especially the supervisor, as the leader and the subordinates as the member (Graen et al., 1995). The supervisor has been regarded as the driver of the relationship process, and the generator of the quality of this relationship that can offer effective leadership results. Therefore power and control is given to the supervisor (Graen & Scandura, 2000). This study offers an explanation on the role of the two in creating relationships. Application of the LMX theory assisted the study in discovering the stage of employee

relationships in the South African retail sector and the implications of that stage among employees.

10.5 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

Primarily, all the objectives of the study were adequately tested using the standard correlation and regression model. The values of the result of this study have been evidently revealed through the recommendations explained by the study.

10.5.1 Conclusion one

This study discovered statistically that social support is negatively associated with employee performance in the South African retail sector. Respondents (supervisors and subordinates) that participated in the qualitative study unanimously suggested that factors like communication (listening), training, teamwork, respect, trust, fair treatment, information sharing, participation in decision making, and a friendly environment, may affect the quality of relationships and employee performance in the South African retail sector. This result met the objective one of the study to assess the connection between social support and employee performance in the South African retail sector.

10.5.2 Conclusion two

The study also found that interpersonal conflict and employee performance is less significant statistically for both supervisors and subordinates in the South African retail sector. The respondents in the content analysis suggested that communication and respect which relates to individual culture, fair treatment, equal access to management, friendliness, relates to relational justice, and sharing information, sharing ideas, decision making participation, relates to organisational justice. All the suggestions of the respondents are factors that affect team processes in interpersonal relations and performance; which makes the suggestions of the respondents in line with the literature of this study. This result obtained met the second objective of this study.

10.5.3 Conclusion three

The third objective of this study on the influence of interpersonal relationships and employee performance for the subordinate employees, the result indicated that there was no relationship, but for the supervisors the relationship, although in the positive direction, was weak. The respondents in the content analysis also jointly suggested that communication, trust, respect, team work, training, fairness and friendliness are inputs to the equation that can increase

employee performance in the retail sector in South Africa. This study considered these suggestions as variables that may mediate the association between interpersonal relationship and employee performance for different classes of employees. This result met this objective of the study.

10.5.4 Conclusion four

The fourth objective was an interjection of objective one and two on the influence of social support and interpersonal conflict on employee performance. The result indicated that statistically there was no relationship for both categories of employees investigated. A total of 98,4% of the respondents agree that interpersonal relationship can affect employee performance.

10.6 RECOMMENDATIONS AND MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS

From the findings of this study, the following recommendations are advanced to assist the management of the retail companies in South Africa.

10.6.1 Recommendation one: Strengthening relationships

The first recommendation of this study is on strengthening the relational mutuality between the supervisors and the subordinates in the retail industry in South Africa. Teamwork efforts on relationship building between supervisors and subordinates need to be consolidated. The studies into LMX relationships between supervisor and subordinate twenty years ago (Graen et al., 1995) supported the supervisor as the leader, and agent of the relational process (Scandura & Graen, 2000). In 2015, attention of relational scholars is shifting to the subordinate as follower through followership theory (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe & Carsten, 2014). Balancing the relationship between supervisor and subordinate demands the mutual involvement of the two to create, maintain and transform the relationships to maturity. It is better to involve both together in order to avoid the confusion and misunderstanding about followership constructs and how they relate to leadership. A constructive relationship between supervisor and subordinate may emerge, when a supervisor who rewards subordinates based on performance stimulates them to perform beyond expectation (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer & Ferris, 2012).

10.6.2 Recommendation two: Conflict handling

In order to build a stronger relational justice system in the retail industry, managers need to be taught through training, to inculcate the integration style of handling conflict between

supervisors and subordinate employees. Integration is a strategy of reducing interpersonal conflict at work, the strategy emphasised that employees should care for both themselves and others at the same time. According to Solanki (2015), virtual workplaces need to be created for supervisors and subordinates who work in rural or urban areas because of their differences in managing conflicts. Integration means an employee highly considering his/her own interests as well as the interests of others. Pruitt and Rubin (1986) called integrating concern for self and concern for others. A peak level of rewards was accomplished when negotiators work with high concern for self and high concern for others. Integration takes care of the need for respect, fair treatment, employee cooperation, and work environment among supervisors and subordinates.

10.6.3. Recommendation three: Friendly climate

The organisational climate or workplace environment should be friendly. It is not the organisation that will create friendliness in the workplace, but the supervisor. As long as the supervisor and subordinate work together, there will always be work related tasks that capture the connections built between them (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer & Ferris, 2012). Personal friendships have been advocated between supervisors and subordinates, especially when the subordinates are to perform extra tasks, or the supervisor expects extra-role behaviours from their subordinates (Zhang, Li & Harris, 2015). Supervisors should be realistic with subordinates in such case of friendship. Friendship should not influence the administrative decisions of the supervisors (Zhang et al., 2015).

10.6.4 Recommendation four: Trust

Building trust between the employees is a management responsibility. Trust in LMX is a sign that the relationship quality is high and mature (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Relationship formation, maintenance and transformation are factored through trust (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003). Trust is used to measure the value, timing and interests in relationships between supervisor and subordinate (Liden et al., 1997). Building employee trust in order to build relationships between supervisors and subordinates is the responsibility of the management. Trust is identified as the consequence of personal knowledge of an employee's past behaviour. Trust develops progressively over time, depending on the individual's cognitive assessment of the other person's behaviour. High level of trust has been observed among virtual teams (Robert, Dennis & Hung, 2014).

10.6.5 Recommendation five: GTVs and swift trust

This study recommends the use of global virtual teams and swift trust to solve the problems of culture and communication in the South African retail sector both nationally and internationally. Global virtual teams are self managing persons that come from different social systems created to adapt to the need of the global market place. They operate across the boundaries of different countries, they communicate through modern electronic devices (Crisp & Jarvenpaa, 2013).

Swift trust is a peculiar form of trust that happens in temporary, transient and fleeting temporary organisation structures (Jarvenpaa, Knoll & Leidner, 1998). Swift trust is a cognitive process that emphasises the belief of other person's capability, dependability and reliability. Swift trust promotes normative actions that exist through interactions of groups over a period of time. It removes the abuses of group norms and presumptions about competent behaviour (Meyerson et al., 1996). In virtual environments normative actions have been proven to be reliable over norms because social influence emerges that complies with behaviours that are associated with effective actions (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004). Therefore, this study recommends that the management of retail companies should use normative actions to create GVTs across Sub-Saharan Africa, to solve unforeseen interpersonal relationship problems that are rooted in culture and communication of employees.

10.6.6 Recommendation six: Work environment

The study would like to take up one of the respondent's suggestions, that is, improving work environment. The suggestion involves improving on the psychosocial working condition of both supervisors and subordinates, whereby the job demand, job control and job support needs to be balanced to avoid employees strain and illnesses (Kristnesen, Bjorner, Christensen & Borg, 2004). The demand, control and support model predicted psychological strain and illness for individuals faced with high job demands and little control or no support for balancing the demands (Karasek & Theorell, 1990).

Therefore, merging the result of this study with the likelihood that supervisors and subordinates in the South African retail sector who have high job demand, low control and no support may be prone to psychological stress and illness, which indicates that this study is in line with the organisational factors that affect interpersonal relationships mentioned in the literature.

10.7 CONCLUSION OF THE REPORT

The next subsections offer explanations on the summary of findings in the chapter, the contribution of this study to knowledge, summary of limitations of the study, suggestions for practising retail managers and suggestions for future studies.

10.7.1 Summary of the chapter

This chapter confirmed the achievement of the objectives of the study. It also sums up the findings of the study on quantitative data through the fulfilment of the research questions and objectives of the study. It reported that the level of employees' relational attachment and social integration was low. The management of retail companies should identify those work characteristics that influence employees negatively, in order to reduce interpersonal conflict. The interpersonal relationship level of employees was weak when compared with the stages of quality relationship by LMX theory. Therefore employees need to develop their relationships at work according to the stages of the LMX theory.

Findings from the qualitative data acknowledged the suggestions of the supervisors and subordinate workers as they point to the future of this study. Employees in the retail sector in South Africa need to be trained on receiving support, communicating with one another, maintaining team spirit at work and respecting each other.

From the literature review, information on LMX theory and its relationship to all aspects of interpersonal relationships was a common factor observed throughout the study. The study attempted to recognise the relational roles of both supervisors and subordinates as co-creators of relationship; this was a departure from the norm, that a supervisor was the pilot of the quality of relationship that can give leadership in the workplace.

Objective one was concluded on the note that there was no relationship between social support and employee performance for both supervisors and subordinate workers. The conclusion of the second objective investigated was that interpersonal conflict and employee performance were not statistically significant for both levels of employees. Objective three concluded that there was a weak association between interpersonal relationship and employee performance for supervisors, and no relationship for subordinate workers. The fourth objective attempted to combine objectives one and two, which is the negative and positive aspects of interpersonal relationship on employee performance, also responded with no relationship for both supervisors and subordinates. Although the statistical evidence showed that there was no relationship, respondents were of the unanimous view that interpersonal relationship can affect employee performance.

The chapter acknowledged six strategic recommendations for the study. Each recommendation was intended to offer solutions to each of the objectives of the study. The recommendations were the need for the management of retail companies to engage in corporate exercises that will strengthen the mutual interactions among the ranks of employees. They also need to indoctrinate employees with the integration style of handling conflict at work. They need to create a friendly environment at work, and improve on training to educate employees on building mutual trust among each other. The use of a global virtual team is a new strategy that will help South African retail companies that are expanding globally or regionally. The last was to improve the working conditions of employees in the retail sector in South Africa.

10.7.2 Contribution to knowledge

The aim of the study was to examine the combination of negative and positive interpersonal relationship on employee performance. The study contributed to knowledge by way of deepening the understanding of the concept of interpersonal relationships. The study contributed to knowledge by recognising the relational roles of supervisors and subordinates in co-creating relationships. For over two decades, the leadership recognised supervisors as the agent that drives relationship process (Graen et al., 1995).

Another contribution to knowledge as observed in this study was the suggestion of the factors that could influence interpersonal relationships. These factors are: communication, training, teamwork, respect, friendly environment, equal treatment of employees, and listening. The assumption of this study is that the addition of these factors to interpersonal relationship may affect employee performance by changing the present result.

The study has made multi-disciplinary contributions by examining interpersonal relationships, interpersonal conflicts and support which cut across HRM, Psychology and Organisational Behavior. The South African government had enacted the Employment Equity Act (55 of 1998) to assist the hitherto disadvantaged individuals in the workplace. The present study recommends that the implications of the Act on individual interpersonal relationships at work be examined to ascertain its efficacy or otherwise on employee performance. This is because, the South African multicultural and diverse workplace provides challenging interpersonal tasks to HRM practitioners who may struggle to formulate and implement strategies pertinently addressing interpersonal issues in line with regulating statutes. This study becomes meaningful to such HRM practitioners by providing information that could assist them in achieving strategic alignment.

The retail industry, organizational management, and leadership strategies could benefit tremendously by gleaning from the study beneficial information in addressing interpersonal conflicts and designing support strategies in the organisations. The findings could impact on organizational policies and strategies on selection, placement and transfer. It found that in the retail sector in South Africa, there is no relationship between interpersonal relationships and work performance. This suggests that there are no measurable relationships existing between supervisors and subordinates in the sector. Furthermore low support levels found in the study indicates that subordinates were receptive of support and is in line with Kim et al (2009). This finding is novel. The study therefore opens up another slant to the discussion of interpersonal relationships and performance in the workplace.

South Africa is a multi racial nation that has divergent cultures, ethnicities and antecedents. Conducting a study like this opens up discussions that could assist decision makers in the public and the private sectors to further engage interpersonal relationships as a tool for enhancing diversity in the workplace. The study therefore recommends that uniform HRM practices and policies on employee interpersonal relationships be encouraged both in the subsidiary and parent companies all over Africa. This study further recommends that HRM practitioners should encourage transparent and open communication of interpersonal issues between supervisors and subordinates at the workplace. This will promote friendliness at work and strengthen freedom to give and receive support in the working place. It will go a long way to remove undercurrent issues that flame interpersonal conflict at work.

Finally, as an emerging global market, Africa has become attractive to both local African and international retail organisations. The African HRM practitioners can strategically design policies that promote peaceful and supportive workplace environments where employees are comfortable to perform optimally by integrating contents that promote interpersonal relationships at work. This could become an exportable 'service' to the rest of the world.

10.7.3 Limitations of the study

The findings of this study were based on the data collected from four retail organizations operating in KwaZulu Natal province South Africa. Due to the busy schedules of the employees of the retail companies and difficulty in gathering them, the study decided to adopt convenience sampling for the purpose of generalization.

From the model designed for this study, examination of the linkage between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance started from the predictors, that is, social

support and interpersonal conflict, to employee performance. The factors that influence interpersonal relationship were not included in the present investigation. The objectives of the study were not designed along that line of consideration. Maybe, if any of the factors was considered, it might have influenced the results obtained in the present study. However, the focus of the study was to determine the effect of interpersonal relationship among employees. The researcher did not see this as a major issue, and could not do anything about it. Therefore, readers should treat the results of this study with care. Suggestions for improvements in the future research will be given in the next section.

Comparative analyses of the effects of interpersonal relationships between C-suit managers and middle level managers, managers and supervisors, and work performance in three or more sectors could be undertaken as a challenge for future studies. The results of this study are limited to the association between individual interpersonal relationship and work performance in the South African retail industry. The findings are according to the data collected in only four retail companies in South Africa. This study adopted a concurrent transformative mixed method that includes a cross sectional technique to data collection, because of employees' busy schedules at work, and the nature of operations in the retail stores. The study used four retail companies that were interested in being used as a case study, and they were comfortable with the cadre of employees that participated in the study. Therefore the results hold more to the retail companies and their management. Suggestions for future studies will be made in the next section.

This study described the connection between individual interpersonal relationship and work performance, with suggestions of variables that may affect the employees' interpersonal relationships. These variables were suggested by respondents in the course of the study as factors that are able to influence interpersonal relationships positively. The study was not aware of this before the investigation; therefore could not do anything about the suggested factors. This also reflects that the reader of this study should treat the results with care. The suggestions will be included for future research in the next section.

10.7.4 Suggestions for practising retail managers

This subsection offers suggestions to practitioners in the retail industry in South Africa. Application of the LMX theory to the stages of relationship quality of the supervisors and subordinates in the South African retail sector revealed that their relationship is still at the stranger stage, which is the first level prescribed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). The study

acknowledged that the relationship is low, based on the result of quantitative analysis and discussion of findings. This study thereby makes the following suggestions to the management of retail companies in South Africa.

In order to take the relationships between the supervisors and subordinates from stranger stage to maturity, the management will have to understand the mechanisms of the norms of reciprocity. The norms of reciprocity means understanding the formation and maintenance of relationships and the factors involved. The factors are intimacy, immediacy and interests. These factors have been discussed more comprehensively in chapter nine.

The practise before now was that leadership gave the power to drive relationships to the supervisors, but the stand of this study is that it takes both the supervisor and the subordinate to create relationships. Therefore, the role of the subordinate workers should not be undermentioned, rather the subordinates should be assisted to take advantage of the support available in the organisation to enhance interpersonal relationship. Employees need to be trained in this respect in order to improve their relational attachment and their level of social integration.

On interpersonal conflict between supervisors and subordinates, the management should identify work characteristics that have negative influence on employee performance. They need to amplify the positive influence to offset the negative effect on employees. One way of doing this is to train employees to tolerate and listen to each other. The investigation carried out in this study reflects both supervisors and subordinates complaining about the same thing. Managers don't listen to supervisors, and supervisors don't listen to subordinates. It means that the same negative influence cascades down between different ranks and files in the retail organisation.

On interpersonal relationships among employees, trust has been proven to be the yardstick of measuring employee interactional growth. The management needs to train employees with the goal of building interpersonal trust among them. Employees need to be educated on how to receive support and learn the attitude of self disclosure.

The last suggestion to the management of the retail companies is the need to train employees to respect one another. Mutual respect was suggested by the respondents that participated in the study. Where different cadres of employees in an organisation makes the same remark

repeatedly, it is only fear and justifiable for the management to respond to the needs of their employees. Respect is needed as part of the working culture of the retail sector in South Africa.

10.7.5 Suggestions for future studies

Future research work on a similar study could adopt a longitudinal approach to find the causal associations between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance. The focus of this study was to investigate the association between employees' interpersonal relationship and their performance at work in the retail sector. Other studies may offer explanations on the same relationship from the banking sector, manufacturing sector, or public sector. This would permit a basis for comparison of results from different economic sectors. The result obtained in another sector may differ from the outcome of the present study.

Future studies may consider using each of these suggestions by qualitative study respondents as mediating variables, in order to give more detailed explanations about the association between interpersonal relationship and work performance in other growing sectors of the economy. Future studies may also conduct investigation from other perspectives, such as the behavioural perspective. Comparative analyses of the effects of interpersonal relationships between C-suit managers and middle managers, managers and supervisors, and work performance in three or more sectors could be undertaken as a challenge for future studies.

Future studies could be beneficial to the body of knowledge by comparing the findings of this study with other sectors and possibly continents through the formulation of hypotheses to test if interpersonal conflicts and /or social support play moderating or mediating role (s) on employee/supervisor/manager relationships. It is also recommended that future studies on the demographic context of the South African retail sector be examined to ascertain if it plays any meaningful role on interpersonal relationships at work.

10.7.6 Overall conclusion

Through the application of the LMX theory, the stage of supervisor and subordinate relationship were revealed, leaving room for improvement in the future. The study offered explanations to the link between interpersonal relationship and employee performance in the South African retail sector. All the objectives of the study were achieved through standard correlation and the regression model as explained earlier in the data analysis chapter. The study revealed the need for the management of the retail industry in South Africa to engage in serious training, not only on core office demands, but relationally.

Many of the employees remarked that communication is the first thing that needs to be sorted between supervisors and subordinates, while the ethically minded employees feel the employees should be trained on respect for one another. The study explained that where interpersonal relationship is low as evident in this study, employees are likely to be suffering from psychological stresses, illnesses and introversion. Trust is the key word that monitors growth in interpersonal relationships, therefore the management of the retail companies needs to involve employees in activities of team work that will build trust among employees. Fair treatment, rules and regulations, friendliness- these are signs that employees are not close, which means there is room for employees, particularly supervisors and subordinates, to build their workplace relationships.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: ethical clearance letter



13 October 2014

Mr Isaac Idowu Abe (213572826)
Graduate School of Business & Leadership
Westville Campus

Protocol reference number: HSS/1332/014D

Project title: The linkage between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance in the South African retail sector

Dear Mr Abe,

Full Approval – Expedited Application

In response to your application received on 02 October 2014, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol have been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

.....
Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

/ms

Cc Supervisor: Professor Roger Mason
Cc Academic Leader Research: Dr E Munapo
Cc School Administrator: Ms Zarina Bullyraj

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Appendix B: Proof of language editing

LAUREN WALFORD PROFESSIONAL PROOF READING SERVICE

11/26/2015

11 Mc Bean Road
Cowies Hill
3610

To whom it may concern

This is to certify that I have proof read the PhD dissertation by Isaac Abe entitled: "The link between individual interpersonal relationship and work performance in the South African retail sector."

I have made any corrections to grammar and spelling which I felt necessary.

Regards,

Lauren Walford
084 240 9326
laurenb@dbn.caxton.co.za



Appendix C: Questionnaire



College of Law and Management Studies

School of Management, IT and Governance, Westville Campus

Informed Consent Document for Participants in the study

Dear Respondent,

PhD Research Project

Researcher: ABE ISAAC IDOWU (0793530989), E-mail: abeisaac3@gmail.com

Supervisor: PROF ROGER B. MASON E-mail: rogerm@dut.ac.za

I am **ISAAC IDOWU ABE**, a **PhD student**, at the **Graduate School of Business & Leadership**, of the University of KwaZulu Natal. You are invited to participate in a research project entitled “the linkage between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance in the South African retail sector”. The aim of this study is to: determine the extent of the influence that the negative and positive individual interpersonal relationships have on work performance.

Through your participation, I hope to understand the effect that the supervisor and workers relationships have on their jobs in the workplace. The results of the survey will hopefully be a source of information on the solution of interpersonal issues in Human Resource Management (HRM). It is hoped that the findings shall form the essential database for HR practitioners to integrate the knowledge about workplace interpersonal relationship management in formulating human resource policies, especially in the African context.

Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this survey. Confidentiality and anonymity of responses is guaranteed as the records that identify you as a participant will be accessible only to myself and my supervisor, Professor Mason.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above.

The survey should take you about **30** minutes to complete. I hope you will take the time to complete this survey.

Sincerely

Researcher's : Isaac I. Abe

Date _____

Signature

CONSENT

I..... (**Full names of participant**) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

.....

The Linkage between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance in the South African retail sector.

SUPERVISORS

SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

1. Sex

Male	Female
------	--------

2. Date of birth: _____

3. Marital status<<< you could flip this box sideways and save space

Never married
Widowed
Divorced
Separated
Married/living as married

4. Department at work: Please tick the department in which you work

Merchandizing	Admin	Butchery	Receiving	Security	Others
---------------	-------	----------	-----------	----------	--------

5. Educational qualification

Matric	National Diploma	National 1 st Degree	Honours Degree	Professional Qualification	Master's Degree	Doctoral Degree
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6. Number of years in present position

1-5 years	6-10 years	11-15years	15-20 years
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7. Job Title

Manager	Officer	Supervisor	Clerk	Temporary worker
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B.1 Interpersonal Conflict at Work Scale (ICAWS)

Instruction: Please Tick the appropriate Box in answering all questions:

	Never 1	Rarely 2	Sometimes 3	Quite Often 4	Very Often 5
B.1.1. How often do you get into arguments with your subordinates at work?	1	2	3	4	5
B.1.2. How often does your subordinate yell at you at work?	1	2	3	4	5
B.1.3. How often is your subordinate rude to you at work?	1	2	3	4	5
B.1.4. How often does your subordinate do nasty things to you at work?	1	2	3	4	5
B.1.5 Have you ever had a subordinate who is a foreign citizen?	1	2	3	4	5
B.1.6 .Have you ever had argument with a subordinate who is a foreign citizen?	1	2	3	4	5

Section C Social Support Questionnaire

C .1. How many managers, supervisors, or workers can you really count on to listen to you when you need to talk?

1 2 3 4 5

C.2 Rate the level of support you received from the managers, supervisors, or co-workers mentioned above?

A B C D E

Satisfactory Support Desirable Support Not Satisfactory **D: Little Support** (No Support)

C3. How many managers, supervisors or co-workers could you really count on to help you out in a crisis situation, even though they would have to go out of their way to do so?

1 2 3 4 5

C.4. Rate the level of support you received from the managers, supervisors, or co-workers mentioned above

A B C D E

Satisfactory Support Desirable Support Not Satisfactory **D: Little Support** (No
Support)

C.5. How many managers, supervisors or co-workers can you really count on to be dependable when you need help?

1 2 3 4 5

C.6. Rate the level of support you received from the managers, supervisors, or co-workers mentioned above

A B C D E

Satisfactory Support Desirable Support Not Satisfactory **D: Little Support** (No
Support)

C.7. With how many managers, supervisors, and co-workers can you totally be yourself?

1 2 3 4 5

C.8. Rate the level of support you received from the managers, supervisors, or co-workers mentioned above

A B C D E

Satisfactory Support Desirable Support Not Satisfactory **D: Little Support** (No
Support)

C.9. How many managers, supervisors or co-workers do you feel really appreciates you as a person?

1 2 3 4 5

C.10. Rate the level of support you received from the managers, supervisors, or co-workers mentioned above

A B C D E

Satisfactory Support Desirable Support Not Satisfactory **D: Little Support** (No Support)

C.11. How many managers, supervisors or co-workers can you count on to console you when you are very upset?

1 2 3 4 5

C.12. Rate the level of support you received from the managers, supervisors, or co-workers mentioned above

A B C D E

Satisfactory Support Desirable Support Not Satisfactory **D: Little Support** (No Support)

Section D:

Employee Basic Task Performance

Tick the appropriate box in answering the questions below

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Do you agree that your work load is higher than average?				
Do you agree that the quality of your work is higher than average?				

Do you agree that your efficiency on the job is more than average?				
Do you agree that your standards of work quality are higher than the formal standards for this job?				
Do you agree that you can strive for higher quality work than required?				
Do you uphold highest professional standards in your job?				
Do you agree that you are able to perform the tasks assigned to you?				
Do you agree that you have good sense of judgment at work?				
Do you agree that you are accurate when performing your job?				
Do you agree that you know your job when tasks are assigned to you?				
Are you creative when performing your job?				

Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, (1997)

Section E: Items for Supervisors of Leader Member Exchange (LMX)

The phrases below describe your relationship with your subordinate. When answering these questions, please circle the number that best describes (LMX the relationship that you have with your assigned subordinate

Rarely Occasionally Sometimes Fairly Often Very Often

1 2 3 4 5

E.1 Does your subordinate know where he /she stands with you, does he/she usually knows how satisfied you are with what he/she does?

1 2 3 4 5

E.2 how well do you understand the subordinates job problems and needs?

Not a bit a little a fairly Quite a bit Very well

1 2 3 4 5

E.3 how well do you recognize this subordinate's potentials?

Not at all a little moderately mostly fully

1 2 3 4 5

E.4 Regardless of what formal authority you have in your position, what are the chances that you will use your power to help this subordinate solve his/her problems at work?

None Small Moderate High very high

1 2 3 4 5

E.5 Regardless of your formal authority at work, what are the chances that you will stand up for him/her at your expense?

1 2 3 4 5

E.6 The subordinate will have enough confidence in you that he/she will defend or justify your decision even if you are not present to do so

Strongly disagree Disagree Neither Agree Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5

E.7 how would you characterize your relationship with this subordinate?

Extremely ineffective worse than average average better than average extremely effective

1 2 3 4 5

Section F: Open-ended questions

Please answer the following questions in your own words; this is for all respondents (Supervisors and subordinates). Thank you

F.1 what do you think should be done to reduce conflicts between supervisors and workers in your organisation?

F.2 how do you think support can be improved in the organisation to enhance relationship between supervisors and workers?

F.3 how do you think the relationship between supervisors and workers can be improved in your organisation?

.

F.4 Do you think that an improvement in interpersonal relationship between supervisors and subordinates will improve performance among employees? Yes/No

Thank you for participating in the study!!!

The Linkage between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance in the South African retail sector.

SUBORDINATES

SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

6. Sex

Male	
Female	

7. Date of birth: _____

8. Marital status

Never married	
Widowed	
Divorced	
Separated	
Married/living as married	

9. Department at work: Please tick the department in which you work

Merchandizing	Admin	Butchery	Receiving	Security	Others

10. Educational qualification

Matric	National Diploma	National 1 st Degree	Honours Degree	Professional Qualification	Master's degree.	Doctorate Degree

6. Number of years in present position

1-5 years	6-10 years	11-15year	15-20 years

7. Job Title

Management	Cashier	Sales	Receiving	Loss/Prevention

Section B

B.1 Interpersonal Conflict at Work Scale (ICAWS)

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Quite Often	Very Often
B.1. How often do you get into arguments with your supervisors at work?					
B.2 How often does your supervisor yell at you at work?					
B.3. How often is your supervisor rude to you at work?					
B.4 How often does your supervisor do nasty things to you at work?					
B.5 How often does he bully at you when working?					
B.6 Have you ever experience exclusion at work from other employees?					

Section C Social Support Questionnaire

C.1. How many managers, supervisors, or workers can you really count on to listen to you when you need to talk?

1 2 3 4 5

C.2 Rate the level of support you received from the managers, supervisors, or co-workers mentioned above?

A B C D E

Satisfactory Support Desirable Support Not Satisfactory **D: Little Support** (No
Support)

C3. How many managers, supervisors or co-workers could you really count on to help you out in a crisis situation, even though they would have to go out of their way to do so?

1 2 3 4 5

C.4. Rate the level of support you received from the managers, supervisors, or co-workers mentioned above

A B C D E

Satisfactory Support Desirable Support Not Satisfactory **D: Little Support** (No
Support)

C.5. How many managers, supervisors or co-workers can you really count on to be dependable when you need help?

1 2 3 4 5

C.6. Rate the level of support you received from the managers, supervisors, or co-workers mentioned above

A B C D E

Satisfactory Support Desirable Support Not Satisfactory **D: Little Support** (No

Support)

C.7. With how many managers, supervisors, and co-workers can you totally be yourself?

1 2 3 4 5

C.8. Rate the level of support you received from the managers, supervisors, or co-workers mentioned above

A B C D E

Satisfactory Support Desirable Support Not Satisfactory D: Little Support (No
Support)

C.9. How many managers, supervisors or co-workers do you feel really appreciates you as a person?

1 2 3 4 5

C.10. Rate the level of support you received from the managers, supervisors, or co-workers mentioned above

A B C D E

Satisfactory Support Desirable Support Not Satisfactory D: Little Support (No
Support)

C.11. How many managers, supervisors or co-workers can you count on to console you when you are very upset?

1 2 3 4 5

C.12. Rate the level of support you received from the managers, supervisors, or co-workers mentioned above

A**B****C****D****E**

Satisfactory Support Desirable Support Not Satisfactory **D: Little Support** (No Support)

Section D:**Employee Basic Task Performance**

Tick the appropriate box in answering the questions below

Strongly
disagree

Disagree

Agree

Strongly agree

Do you agree that your work
load is higher than average?

Do you agree that the quality
of your work is higher than
average?

Do you agree that your
efficiency on the job is more
than average?

Do you agree that your
standards of work quality are
higher than the formal
standards for this job?

Do you agree that you can
strive for higher quality work
than required?

Do you uphold highest
professional standards in your
job?

Do you agree that you are able
to perform the tasks assigned
to you?

Do you agree that you have
good sense of judgment at
work?

Do you agree that you are
accurate when performing your
job?

Do you agree that you know
your job when tasks are
assigned to you?

Are you creative when
performing your job?

Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, (1997)

Section E: Open-ended questions

Please answer the following questions in your own words; this is for all respondents (Supervisors and subordinates). Thank you

E.1 what do you think should be done to reduce conflicts between supervisors and workers in your organisation?

.....

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.....

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.....

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.....

E.2 how do you think support can be improved in the organisation to enhance relationship between supervisors and workers?

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.....

.....

E.3 how do you think the relationship between supervisors and workers can be improved in your organisation?

.....

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.....

.....

.....

.....

E.4 Do you think that an improvement in interpersonal relationship between supervisors and subordinates will improve performance among employees? Yes/No

Thank you for participating in the study!!!

Appendix D: Article submitted for Journal publication

Dear Isaac Idowu ABE,

I would like to inform you that I've received the paper "The role of individual interpersonal relationships on work performance in the South African retail sector".

Today I'll send the article for review to the Editorial Board.

The Code of your manuscript is **PPM-10-1115**. This code should be cited in all future correspondence.

The expected results of a paper review will be within 1,5-2 months.

With kind regards,

Yaroslava Mospanova

(Editorial Assistant of the journal "Problems and Perspectives in Management")

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**The role of individual interpersonal relationships on work performance in the
South African retail sector**

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Abstract

Partial or non-recognition of the influence of interpersonal relationships at work could impair the growth, diffusion and success of retail business. For instance, South African retailers have been taking advantage of the retail revolution in Africa to reach the rest of the continent with products and services. Therefore, to examine the interpersonal relationships among supervisors and subordinates in this sector for its contribution to individual and organizational outcomes is important. This paper examines the influence of individual interpersonal relationships on employee performance at work. A mixed method approach was adopted and self-reporting questionnaires were administered to 167 supervisors and 144 subordinate workers of four retail companies that participated in the study. The survey instrument contained both closed-ended and open-ended questions to enable a concurrent collection of data. The quantitative data were analyzed using IBM SPSS version 22, while qualitative data was analyzed using content analysis. It was found that the relationship between interpersonal relationships and employee performance for the supervisors was weak, while a less significant relationship was observed among the variables for the subordinate workers. The qualitative analysis

offered explanations for the weakness and dissociation among interpersonal relationships and employee performance.

Key words: Interpersonal relationships, Leader-member exchange, Employee performance

JEL Classifications: J28, M59, J53, L81,

The role of individual interpersonal relationships on work performance in the South African retail sector.

Introduction

Individuals possessing differing behavioural characteristics interrelate with others at the workplaces. Interpersonal relationships at work could be influenced by behavioural characteristics of these individuals. The dissimilar personal behaviours brought into the workplace often manifest through interactive processes at work. (Stoetzer, Ahlberg, Zapf, Knorz, and Kulla (1996). . Prior research examined the interpersonal relationships at work from the view point of the employee's

condition of living and work environment. Song and Olshfski (2008) suggest that family ties, class, ethnic background, race, gender, age, experience, interests and geographical location influence interactions among individuals at work. Interpersonal relationship has been identified as an important factor in the psychosocial work environment that could affect wellbeing, job satisfaction, performance and productivity; Stoetzer, 2010). This paper seeks to examine the association between employees' interpersonal relationships and their job performance in the South African retail sector.

The retail industry is a significant sector of the South African economy and a major employer. It is the fourth largest contributor to Gross Domestic Product with a contribution of about 15% and employs about 22% of the total active workforce of the country (W&RSETA 2011). However, the South African retail outlook is not very encouraging (Bureau for Economic Research, 2013), retail margins are under intense pressure (PriceWaterhouseCoopers, 2012) and international retailers are starting to provide a significant challenge to South African retail businesses (Raman & Fisher, 2010). Thus, the importance of the sector and the difficulties it is facing justifies the need for research on any methods the retailers can adopt to improve corporate and sector performance. In the context of the above, the objective of this paper is stated as follows.

Objective

The main objective of this paper is formulated based on the assumption that employees' experiences, background, circumstances, education, exposure, social-standing, religion, personality, belief-structure, affection and language could influence human behaviour positively or negatively (Billikopf, 2009). This implies that as each individual brings these factors to relationships in the workplace, commonalities could develop among them and positively influence outcomes. On the other hand, these factors could create differences among employees and underlie frustration and demotivation among the individuals at work. Based on these, the general objective of this paper is to determine the association between interpersonal relationships of employees (supervisors and subordinates) and their work performance in the South African retail industry.

Review of previous literature

Prior research conducted by scholars on the variables pertinent to this paper on the role of individual interpersonal relationships on work performance is presented in this section. This is to provide appropriate investigation, analysis and explanations of the variables in order to build a theoretical foundation for this paper.

Interpersonal relationships

According to Sias (2008); citing Wheatley (2001), relationships are necessary for existing systems and are the hub of organizations. It is through relationships that organizations maintain stability (Katz & Kahn, 1978.). Wheatley (2001) further suggests that `scholars should give attention to how a workplace organizes its relationships; not just its tasks, roles and hierarchies, but also, the form of relationships and capacities built to maintain and transform them. Workplace relationships comprise those interpersonal relationships in which individuals are involved in the course of performing their jobs. Such relationships include supervisor-subordinate relationships, peer-worker relationships, workplace friendships, romantic relationships and customer relationships (Sias, 2008). However, this paper focuses on the supervisor-subordinate relationships in the South African retail sector, to ascertain whether interpersonal relationships positively or negatively influenced individual employee performance at work.

Deutsch (2011) proposed a bidirectional assumption to the meaning of interpersonal relationships, namely; psychological orientation and interdependence. Psychological orientation is the consistent complicated, motivational and moral backgrounds involved in any situation that serves to guide an individual's behaviour and responses in that situation. A further assumption was that individuals differ in their ability and readiness to engage with different orientations, and that their engagements might affect their results (outcomes). Deutsch (2011) described interdependence as the perception of the strength of a relationship. For example, whether a relationship is cold, distant, shallow or superficial, just like the relationship in casual friendship. The roles of the player and the probability of the timing of the relationship determine the strength of the relationship (Wish, Deutsch & Kaplan, 1976; Triandis 1972; Marwell & Hage; 1970).

The new interpretations of an interpersonal relationship considers psychological interdependence as follows: One, cooperation-competition, which was explained by Kelly & Thibaut (1978) as positive-negative interpersonal disposition, love-hate, evaluative, friendly-hostile. Two, Power in a distribution "equal versus Unequal". Triandis (1972) called it super-ordination-subordination; Kelly (1979) described it as dominance-submission. Three: Task oriented versus social emotional, this measures the level of intimacy. Social emotional relationships are more informal than task oriented relationships. Four, formal and informal, this is measured by the intensity of the activities in the relationship. Employer-employee, manager-supervisor, mentor-protégé are examples of formal relationships. Professor-student relationship can be both formal & informal.

The dimensions of relationship are important to this paper because they will assist the study have a background about the characteristics of relationships between the supervisors and the subordinates in the South African retail industry. Characteristics of relationship is the same thing as

the strength of interpersonal relationship described by Deutsch (2011). These dimensions are the basis of categorization in this paper between supervisor and subordinate relationships.

Leader-Member Exchange

LMX theory contends that leaders develop different relationships with their subordinates via different exchanges that can be called high or low quality (Graen, & Uhl-Bien, 1995). When the quality of relationship is high, the exchanges between the supervisors and subordinates have mutual obligations and trust in a way that permit reciprocation of interaction between the supervisor and subordinates (Graen, & Uhl-Bien, 1995). By virtue of negotiating the role of subordinates over the years, the subordinates engage in decision making process that enhance their status as “ingroup” members (Liden, Erdogan, Wayne & Sparrowe, 2006). This happens when a subordinate has earned the trust of the supervisor to be able to handle specific tasks, and serve as assistants. The out-going groups include those subordinates that fall within the exchange parameters of role requirements, job descriptions and contract of employment. Such out-going information stems from the supervisor to subordinate unilaterally (Wang, Niu, & Luo, 2004).

Leaders in LMX exchange use resources to meet the needs of the subordinates, with the expectation that the subordinate will respond through services. Dienesch and Liden (1986) listed the factors of currencies of exchange as affect, loyalty, contribution and professional respect.

Employee Basic work Performance

The individual is perceived by the cognitive energy that is allocated to various work and non-work areas according to the identities that define individuals and their roles (Ashforth, Harrison & Corley, 2008). Job involvement affects organizational features, supervisory behaviours, and individual differences (Brown & Leigh, 1996) which can forecast job performance. This is so because employees who identify strongly with their jobs, have their thoughts and attention on work and interpret situations as opportunities to perform their work role activities (Hillman, Nicholson, & Shropshire, 2008).

Research has demonstrated that managers who are leaders or supervisors can affect an employee’s job motivation and job performance (Gerstner and Day, 1997). The assumption of LMX is that supervisors use a different approach with each of their subordinates. Employee’s tasks vary in nature with their jobs, industries and organizations. Tsui, Pearce, Porter & Tripoli (1997) developed items that were generic, not peculiar to one specific job. Quantity, quality, and efficiency of employees were among the items developed to measure basic task performance. The relationships between

supervisors and subordinates are influenced across different cultures by the following factors: respect, trust and obligation (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Research Design and Method

The study adopted a non-experimental research design. The design was implemented by an observational approach using explanatory design, because of the need to collect data (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2012) from employees of retail companies by the use of multiple variables to be able to validate the direction of the influence between variables (Walker & Greene, 2009).

The Employee Basic Task Performance Scale (EBTPS), adopted in this study, was developed by Tsui, Pearce, Porter and Tripoli (1997) to measure quantity, quality and efficiency. The response scale was a 4 point Likert scale. Other items were adopted from Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley (1990). The items measure employee total ability, judgment, job knowledge, accuracy and creativity. *Leader-Member Exchange Scale (LMX)*, was designed to demonstrate the role of supervisors in employees' attitudes and performance. If the exchange relationships between supervisors and subordinates are high, it involves mutual influence and respect. If the exchange relationships are low in quality, it involves contract exchanges and one-way downward effects.

Four open-ended questions were used to collect the non-numerical data simultaneously with the quantitative data collection. The reason for the open-ended questions was to establish the view of participants on the connection between individual interpersonal relationships and their basic work performance. The open-ended questions were analysed by the use of content analysis as a way of validating the recommendations of the research. Four hundred potential respondents were surveyed. The study observed the principles of convenience sampling, based on four retailers who agreed to participate in the study. Questionnaires were distributed to the potential respondents in their workplaces, and then either completed with them, or left with them for completion and later collection. 310 useable questionnaires were collected (163 supervisors and 147 subordinates) giving a 77.5 % response rate.

Analysis and Result

The collected data were analysed by the use of SPSS VERSION 22 using descriptive and inferential statistics. The statistical reliability (Cronbach Alpha) of the instruments were: EBTPS was .76 for 11 items and LMX was .825 for 7 items, which according to Andrew, Pedersen and McEvoy (2011: 202) is considered reliable. Bivariate analysis was used to analyse the questions and objective of the study.

The question in the questionnaire is as follows: E5, *regardless of your formal authority at work, what are the chances that you (the supervisor) will stand up for your subordinates at your expense.* This question highlights the stages of influence between the leader and member relationships at work. Kelman (2006) added three perspectives to the already existing stages of relationships. The perspectives are compliance, identification and internalization. Stage one is when the leader's influence on subordinates is according to the process of compliance. The relationship between supervisors and subordinates are based on contractual transactions. The relationships are driven by the goal to attain rewards .i.e. recognition and praise or punishments and poor performance appraisals. The power (authority) source of the leader is based on the ability to withhold resources. Stage two is acquaintance, where the influence between supervisor and subordinate moves towards identification. Both personalities are developing and describing the role required in their relationships. Power (authority) source is based on mutual liking and the desire to enhance relationship quality. Stage three, is where the influence is by the process of internalization. Both supervisor and subordinates have developed value and belief systems. Power (authority) source is based on mutual trust (Kelman, 2006)

Table 1 Willingness of supervisors to stand up for subordinates: supervisor's response

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None	8	4.9	4.9	4.9
	Small	20	12.3	12.3	17.3
	Moderate	54	33.1	33.3	50.6
	High	50	30.7	30.9	81.5
	Very high	30	18.4	18.5	100.0
	Total	162	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.6		
Total		163	100.0		

The results presented in Table 1 indicate that 4.9% of the supervisors are not willing to stand up for the subordinates. 12.9% of the supervisors agreed that they will stand up for them to a small extent. 33.1% indicated that will moderately stand for the subordinates. 30.7 % of the supervisors agreed that

they will highly stand for the subordinates. 18.7% of them are in support of highly standing up for the subordinates. The percentage (82.2%) of those supervisors willing to demonstrate the presence of moderate to very high interpersonal relationship by standing up for subordinates is more than those not willing (none and small) to stand up for subordinates (17.8%). Such an overwhelming support for subordinates is as a result of mutual trust that has developed between supervisors and subordinates over time. The willingness of the supervisor to stake his authority for the subordinate is also evidence that trust was important in their relationship.

The result of the overall objective of the study was categorized for supervisor and subordinate workers as shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Correlation Matrix for supervisors and subordinates' interpersonal relationships and employee performance.

Respondent type	Variable	Mean	Standard deviation	Correlation	
				R	P
Subordinates	Total interpersonal relationships	25.68	10.55	-.031	0.00
	Total employee performance	33.40	5.91		
Supervisors	Total interpersonal relationships	25.59	4.89	.122	0.00
	Total employee performance	33.57	4.89		

Significant at 0.05 (2 tailed)

The correlation coefficient of the subordinate employees was $r = -.031$, when ($P < 0.05$) among 144 workers. The relationship was in the negative direction and no significant association between interpersonal relationship and employee performance for the subordinate employees was found in the construct.

The correlation coefficient for supervisor was .122 for employee performance. The level of significance are, ($r = .122$, ($P > 0.05$) among 163 employees. It indicates the presence of a small relationship in a positive direction but is not statistically significant. Treiman (2009) was of the view that when there is a weak relationship between two variables, there might be a causal connection between the variables. Applying this indicates that there is likely to be a missing variable that might cause a connection if added to the correlation above.

Discussion of findings

The correlation coefficient of subordinates' interpersonal relationship is $-.031$, which indicated a relationship in the negative direction, demonstrated by $r = -.031$, ($p > 0.05$). This implies that when interpersonal relationship is low employee performance is high. According to Triandis (1972) this type of correlation is referred to as "Dissociation". In the dimensions of relationships, dissociation is a sign that the level of interaction with the subordinate's cadre is not close (Berscheid and Reis, 1998; Deutsch, 2011). The construct above reflects that there is no relationship between interpersonal relationships and employee performance among subordinate employees in the South African retail sector.

The result above supports the LMX theory that was developed on the premise that leadership is rooted in the transaction between leaders (supervisors) and followers (subordinates). The attention of this study is about how supervisors and subordinates collectively engage to generate a quality of relationship at work that permits them to effectively produce superior work performance (Graen, & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The LMX theory gives privileges to the leaders (supervisor) as the driver of the relationship building process (Uhl-Bien, Graen & Scandura, 2000). From the leadership position expressed above, though the subordinates and supervisors co-create relationships together, recognition is given to the supervisor rather than to subordinates in building relationships (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe & Carsten, 2014).

The correlation coefficient of the supervisor interpersonal relationships on employee performance was $r = .122$, ($p > 0.05$). This relationship is weak. When associations are weak the implication for leadership is that there is a low quality of exchange. This may be characterized by low levels of trust, support and self-disclosure, less open communication and more direct supervision (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). Low quality supervisor relationships emphasize power distance through monitoring performance, threatening acts and conflict (Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989). Low quality of LMX is noted by the patterns of communication. The patterns may be by co-ordination or participation. Coordination is where supervisors and subordinates interact mutually and not in one direction. Participation is when the supervisor invites equipped employees to take part in decision

making (Yrle, Hartman, and Galle, 2002). Employees report low LMX relationships when they perceived that supervisors used position-centered communication. This is characterized by authority and direct supervision (Fix & Sias, 2006). All these are strong indications that the relational quality of employees in the South African retail sector is low.

To complement the quantitative data findings of low quality relationship as enumerated above, the respondents' qualitative remarks on interpersonal relationships and employee performance were analysed. Approximately forty-five percent of the respondents were of the view that Interpersonal communication between the supervisors and subordinates is of primary importance. Assessment of interpersonal relationships through the patterns of communication between supervisor and subordinates, by examining the high quality relationships and low quality relationships was the focus of relationship scholars until the mutual concept emerged. The mutual concept is where leaders develop different types of relationships with their subordinates in order to effect performance on both sides (Sias, 2013). The constitution of the LMX relationship is based on the concept of leaders and members together producing leadership and their unique relationship through communication. Carsten & Uhl-Bien (2015) refers to this concept as co-creating relationships. Human resource policies on people development should therefore be developed to train supervisors and subordinates in mutual communication for effective relationships at work.

The qualitative remarks from respondents focused on the need to improve interpersonal communication among employees to improve employee interpersonal relationships. This strategy is in line with interpersonal relationship scholars' views discussed below.

For supervisors and subordinates to use communication to create high quality relationships, they have to engage in communication patterns like problem solving, insider talk, value convergence (Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989). In order to create low quality relationships they would have to engage in communication patterns like monitoring, competitive conflicts, performance acts, and face threatening (Sias, 2008). Moreover, coordination and participation are communication patterns that have been shown to be positively related to LMX quality (Yrle, Hartman & Galle, 2002).

The objective of this paper was based on the Leader-Member Exchange theory modified by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). The theory draws on the social exchange theory which acknowledges specific progression in interactions between leader (supervisor) and member (subordinate). The stages in the relationships are as follows:

Stage one = Stranger stage, where the LMX relationship is branded by prescribed transactions, through the supervisor's job specifications, with the subordinates, and the subordinates' responses to job requirements and demands. Progress at this stage leads to the next stage.

Stage two = Acquaintance stage, which refers to supervisor and subordinates sharing information and resources individually and professionally. Development of trust and respect leads relationships to the next stage.

Stage three = Mature partnership, which demands behaviour and emotional connections between the supervisor and the subordinates. The relationship is characterised by loyalty, support, mutual obligation and respect. The three stages are equal to low, moderate and high levels of LMX quality (Sin, 2006; Graen, & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

This study attempted to apply the LMX theory, by acknowledging the low, moderate and high quality LMX relationships between supervisors and subordinates in the South African retail sector. The result of the quantitative analysis for subordinates for this objective showed that there was no relationship, but the result for the supervisors indicated that the quality of relationship between the supervisors and subordinates was low. The study, through the quantitative analysis, identified the characteristics of the first stage of the LMX theory. The quantitative findings of this study are in line with previous studies conducted on LMX development by Sin, (2006), where it was reported that supervisors and subordinates do not see eye to eye. Therefore interpersonal relationships of employees could not correlate with the outcome variable.

Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) conceptualized that LMX quality should consist of three distinct factors, namely: respect, trust and obligations. The second and third stages of LMX relationship in this paper were assessed through the qualitative analysis, where participants were of the view that for interpersonal relationships between supervisors and subordinates to influence employee performance, there should be information sharing, equal treatment of employees, equal decision making and trust, which reflect the demands of stage two. To meet the behavioural and emotional requirements of interpersonal relationships in stage three, respondents remarked that communication, listening, respect, training and team work, is needed to facilitate interpersonal relationships and employee performance in the South African retail sector,.

Previous studies done on the reason why the process of development may be impaired, such that most relationships do not reach the maturity stage, indicated causative factors like race, sex, ability & personality (Sias, 2008). There is also the need to consider educational background of employees.

Contribution to knowledge

The aim of this paper was to examine the role of interpersonal relationship on employee performance. The study contributed to knowledge by way of deepening the understanding of the concept of interpersonal relationships. The study recognized the relational roles of supervisors and subordinates in co-creating relationships. For over two decades, the leadership literature emphasized supervisors as the agent that drives the relationship process (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Another contribution to knowledge as observed in this study, was the suggestion of the factors that could influence interpersonal relationships and employee performance. These factors are: communication, training, teamwork, respect, friendly environment, equal treatment of employees, and listening. The assumption of this study was that the addition of any of these factors to interpersonal relationships may positively affect employee performance by changing the present result.

Suggestions to Practitioners

Based on the data analysis and the results obtained in this study, the following suggestions are put forward for practitioners in the retail industry:

Friendly climate

The organizational climate or workplace environment should be friendly. It is not the organization that will create friendliness in the workplace, but the supervisor. As long as the supervisor and subordinate work together, there will always be work related tasks that capture the connections built between them (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer & Ferris, 2012). Personal friendships have been advocated between supervisors and subordinates, especially when the subordinates are to perform extra tasks, or the supervisor expects extra role behaviours from their subordinates (Zhang, Li & Harris, 2015). Supervisors should be realistic with subordinates in such case of friendship. Friendship should not influence the administrative decisions of the supervisors (Zhang and Harris, 2015).

Trust

Building trust between the employees is a management responsibility. Trust in Leader-Member Exchange is a sign that the relationship quality is high and mature (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Relationship formation, maintenance and transformation is factored through trust (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003). Trust is used to measure the value, timing and interests in relationships between supervisor and subordinate (Liden, et al, 1997). Building employee trust in order to build relationships

between supervisors and subordinates is the responsibility of management. Trust is identified as the consequence of personal knowledge of an employee's past behaviour. Trust develops progressively over time, depending on the individual's cognitive assessment of the other person's behaviour. Interestingly, high levels of trust have been observed among virtual teams (Robert, Dennis & Hung, 2009).

GTVs and swift trust

This study recommends the use of global virtual teams (GTV) and Swift trust to solve the problems of culture and communication in the South African retail sector both nationally and internationally. Global virtual teams are self managing persons that come from different social systems created to adapt to the need of the global market place. They operate across the boundaries of different countries, communicating through modern electronic devices (Crisp & Jarvenpaa, 2013).

Swift trust is a peculiar form of trust that happens in temporary, transient and fleeting temporary organization structures (Jarvenpaa, Knoll & Leidner, 1998). Swift trust is a cognitive process that is based on the belief of the other person's capability, dependability and reliability. Swift trust promotes normative actions that exist through interactions of groups over a period of time. It removes the abuses of group norms and presumptions about competent behaviour (Meyerson, Weick & Kramer, 1996). In virtual environments normative actions have been proven to be reliable because social influence emerges that complies with behaviours that are associated with effective actions (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004). Therefore, this study recommends that the management of retail companies should use normative actions to create GTVs across Sub-Saharan Africa, so as to solve unforeseen interpersonal relationship problems that are rooted in the culture and communication of employees.

Work environment

We suggest the adoption of one of the respondent's suggestions for improving the work environment. The suggestion involves improving the psychosocial working condition of both supervisors and subordinates, whereby the job demand, job control and job support needs to be balanced to avoid employee strain and illnesses (Kristnesen, Bjorner, Christensen & Borg, 2004). The demand, control and support model predicted psychological strain and illness for individuals faced with high job demands and little control or no support for balancing the demands (Theorell, Karasek & Eneroth, 1990).

Given the likelihood that supervisors and subordinates in the South African retail sector, who have high job demand, low control and no support, may be prone to psychological stress and illness.

This study therefore confirms the organizational factors that affect interpersonal relationships as mentioned in the literature.

Conclusion

The objective of this paper was to determine the influence between individual interpersonal relationships and work performance. This objective was fully tested and met. The value of the results have been demonstrated through the recommendations offered by the researchers. Statistically, this study identified that interpersonal relationship is negatively associated with employee performance for subordinate employees, and weakly associated for supervisors in the South African retail sector. Explanations of the implications of the negative associations as obtained in this study have been offered to management. However, both the supervisors and the subordinate employees are of the view that if communication (listening), training, team work, respect, trust, information sharing, fair treatment of employees, and adequate understanding of tasks are enhanced by the management of the retail organizations, then the quality of relationship will be high, such that it will positively influence employee performance.

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Appendix E: Qualitative data: comments of respondents on various variables examined in the study

Interpersonal conflict at work

Respondent's strategies	Research comments	Supervisor's comments	Subordinate's comments
1.Communication and Listening	<p>The responses indicate that supervisors and subordinates need to find ways to ensure that there is flow of communication between them at all times. Most respondents share this view about the need to communicate as a way of reducing interpersonal conflict between the supervisors and the subordinates. It seemed that supervisors are in a better position to initiate communication and always listen to the subordinates. From the comments, communication seemed to be the gate that opens factors like respect, friendliness, and understanding.</p> <p>Open door policy means that subordinates should have access to communicate through any available means with supervisors and the supervisors should be willing to listen</p>	<p>Respondent 40</p> <p><i>“Communication is the best thing that can reduce conflict. Management should have an open-door policy, and be open to criticism from the staff, and be willing to adjust to improve work conditions.”</i></p>	<p>Respondent 14</p> <p><i>“Work as a team, respect each other at all times, communicate accurately, no private decision on issues.”</i></p>
2.Respect	<p>No less than 27 subordinates and 25 supervisors were of the opinion that respect between supervisor and subordinates could reduce interpersonal conflict. The comments above have to do with the employee morality and ethics in the workplace. A person is not respected when another conducts themselves rudely, or impolitely. This conduct can be offensive and may not show the respect required from other persons by morality</p>	<p>Respondent 123</p> <p><i>“Both the supervisor and the worker should respect one another and listen to one another.”</i></p>	<p>Respondent 66</p> <p><i>“Team work and communication, open door policies, and respect.”</i></p>

	(Shaw, 2013). From the comments above, it seems supervisors and subordinates in the South African retail sector have issues with ethics, and this causes conflict between the supervisors and the subordinates.		
3.Training	According to Nel and Warner (2011) cited in Nel and Ruth (2012), training is the instrument to develop the best effectiveness of important resource that an organisation possesses, that is its people. Relating this to interpersonal conflict, five subordinates and three supervisors were of the view that educating employees at different levels of engagement and improving their relational skills will assist in reducing interpersonal conflict in the South African retail sector. The comment above indicates that training supervisors on the skill of handling and treating subordinates will go a long way in reducing interpersonal conflict between supervisors and subordinates.	Respondent 114 <i>The organisation should spend more on training and counselling."</i>	Respondent 130 <i>"First of all they need to be educated on how to treat the people who they work with. Not to treat us like dogs, and not to have favourites at the store level and give people positions with their qualifications not by race, as most of our managers have no matric."</i>
4.Team work	From the comments above, it is interesting to note that the supervisor respondent 116 associated team work with other variables like communication and understanding. The assumption was that during team building exercise, employees may be taught how to communicate and understand each other. Team work may be a strategic tool to assist the employees to achieve the goals and	Respondent116 <i>Team work, communication and understanding each other."</i>	Respondent 27 <i>"We should work as a team in order for the business to prosper. If there are any conflicts, we should be able to resolve these as a team."</i>

	objectives of their retail organisation. Therefore, collectively as a team, interpersonal conflicts may be resolved if there is any.		
5.Uniform treatment	Seven supervisors and three subordinates commented on the need for uniform or equal treatment among employees. According to Dessler (2011), employees are faced with ethical choices every day. Fairness is an issue in most human resource decisions that may be difficult to separate from justice. Any form of unfair treatment perceived by a subordinate may trigger conflict among workers. From the responses, one may assume that supervisors and subordinates in the retail sector in South Africa perceived unfair treatment at work which might have led to conflict.	Respondent 134 <i>“Treating each other fairly and knowing what is required of you makes the job easy.”</i>	Respondent 67 <i>“Equality in terms of treatment, no discrimination, no judgments but supervision and advice; Be productive at work, be careful and put opinions when it is needed.”</i>
6.Regular meetings/ open mindedness	The comments indicated that employees, whether subordinates or supervisors, are of the opinion that information should be disseminated to employees regularly, while others feel it should be daily. The meetings are to be conducted in such a way that all employees can freely express their views without prejudice or fear of being misunderstood. Considering the nature of operations in the retail business where many employees start	Respondent 96 <i>“Have meetings daily, in the mornings, to get to know each other more; the meetings to be open discussions so everyone has a chance of saying or giving their opinions to make working relationships work for everyone.”</i>	Respondent 135 <i>“Supervisors should treat all workers equally, they should not have favourites at work, supervisors should not have to fear to speak the truth, even if it hurts, and the supervisors should have to be open, speak to the workers.”</i>

	work as early as 5am in the morning, morning meetings might be difficult. Meeting after hours might also not be easy for workers who are already tired from standing throughout their shift.		
7.Understanding/expectation	Employees' needs and personalities form the basis for their expectations on the job. Due to the fact that the personality of each employee differs, so is their expectation. This is observed through the different levels of understanding displayed by each employee at any point in time (Nel, Werner, Du Plessis, Ngalo, Poisat, Sono & Hoek, 2011). From the comment, a level of understanding needs to exist between the supervisor and the subordinate, despite their personal goals, needs and expectations. This understanding will help each of them to be in control even when a situation demands yelling, rudeness or argument. A team of supervisor and subordinate should be exposed to the culture of the organisation by knowing what is expected of them or what behaviour is acceptable (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1998). Supervisors and subordinates in the retail sector in South Africa are of the view that there should be need for understanding between the cadres of employees to reduce interpersonal conflict.	Respondent 159 <i>“Mutual understanding and knowing what their expectation is.”</i>	Respondent 81 <i>“For the parties to both understand their role and job responsibilities.”</i>
8.Problem solving	The two comments give the impression that supervisory employees in the retail sector	Respondent 29	Respondent 69

	<p>may not have been taught about the need for them to be professional in solving problems. Twelve respondents commented about the need for problem solving, and the manner in which problems are being handled among the employees in the retail stores.</p> <p>The comments indicate that the supervisors in the South African retail sector should be able to demonstrate competency and professionalism on the job when conflict arises. Therefore, employees, whether supervisor or subordinate, for professional development need to be taught basic theoretical principles of problem identification and solving skills in the workplace (Dessler, 2011).</p>	<p><i>“If supervisors have a problem with the worker, he/she must call the worker so they can solve the problem, not just shout in front of other staff.”</i></p>	<p><i>“Address the problem at hand rather than coming up with assumptions to the problem, come up with solutions to the problems, and talk to the worker as a supervisor rather than addressing the problem in front of customers or co-workers.”</i></p>
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Social support

Topic	Research comment	Supervisor's comment	Subordinate's comment
1.Communication and listening	<p>Not less than seventy-eight percentage of the respondents suggested that supervisors and subordinates in their organisation need to listen to each other. Judging from the uniformity in the response of retail employees from different organisations, it is important that employees be educated continuously on practical communication. Supervisors and subordinates should not assume that they are good in communication. At times employees don't formulate their messages clearly and accurately, and they don't listen attentively to what</p>	<p>Respondent 58</p> <p><i>“Open communication channels and discussions on all matters relating to work i.e. work forecasts, progress and results.”</i></p>	<p>Respondent 27</p> <p><i>“Much more communication and both listening to one another.”</i></p>

	<p>others say (Nel, Werner, Du Plesis, Ngalo, Poisat, Sono & Hoek, 2011). If it becomes obvious that communication is a problem among employees, management should make efforts to address it as a way of supporting employees. Openness means opportunity for two way communication between supervisors and subordinates. When subordinates ask questions, a supervisor should listen carefully (George & Jones, 1997).</p>		
2.Team work	<p>The comments suggest that the management in the South African retail industry should be conscious of programmes that will help to manage organisational change and employee development. As a means to support employees, experts in team building, French and Bell (1995), are of the view that a typical team building meeting should start by the facilitator interviewing each of the team leaders and group members before the commencement of the meeting. Questions that relate to the problems of the team can be asked and how the individual thinks the group should function. If the problems of each employee can be identified, then team interventions can be reached to assist both supervisors and the subordinates in solving their problems. What he/she thinks is the hindrance that is preventing the group from better performing. From the remarks above, facilitators should change their approach towards engaging employees in team building exercise.</p>	<p>Respondent 146</p> <p><i>“Team work, teambuilding workshops, explanation of task given to each associate.”</i></p>	<p>Respondent 66</p> <p><i>“Differentiating between being a leader and management would be beneficial. Team work is the primary support.”</i></p>
3.Training	<p>Continuous investment in employee skills and education is important to enhance the relationship between supervisors and subordinates. When</p>	<p>Respondent 41</p> <p><i>“Training and education can</i></p>	<p>Respondent 71</p>

	<p>organisations invest in skills training, managers have a good feeling about what they want their subordinates to learn during training. So in the area of improving the relationship between the supervisors and subordinates, managers should take an intuitive approach to what they desire for their workers as training needs (Blanchard & Thacker, 2007). The remark from the respondents indicates that the employees want more education on the job, especially learning that points towards improvement in the relationship between supervisors and subordinates</p>	<p><i>help to enhance the relationship between the two.”</i></p>	<p><i>“Team buildings, workshops and more training.”</i></p>
4.Respect	<p>Many of the subordinate respondents share this view that they need to be respected by their supervisors. Respect is the regard that an individual perceives for every one as a source of value, irrespective of social political and cultural difference (Faulkner & Laschinger, 2008). Respect is an ethical behaviour that is important, employees expect respect. Interpersonal treatment reflects things like paying attention to, and taking another person seriously (Laschinger, 2004); decency of the superior or junior officers, the politeness of the person doing assessment, and the extent of the two way communication (Weaver & Trevino, 2005).</p>	<p>Respondent 13</p> <p><i>“Nothing more than respect each other and give support to each other.”</i></p>	<p>Respondent 116</p> <p><i>“Everyone must be treated with respect and alike.”</i></p>
5.Meetings	<p>Employees obviously look forward to forums where they can have the opportunity to discuss issues that are either not clear to them, or matters that deserve the attention of the management. Such issues are brought to the open in meetings and they are discussed. The nature of the retail business does not give room for staff meetings regularly, because of the shift duties that most employees run. It may be</p>	<p>Respondent 35</p> <p><i>“They need to frequently organise meetings, this will help them let everything they want to see</i></p>	<p>Respondent 38</p> <p><i>“For senior management to have regular one on one chats.”</i></p>

	<p>difficult for the branch manager of a retail shop to call for regular meetings, due to the fact that most of the subordinates that need to attend meetings might not be on duty. Therefore, circulation of information either electronically or through an office notice board will still offer support to enhance relationship. The remark above indicates that retailers in South Africa still need to do more to disseminate information to employees more promptly and effectively.</p>	<p><i>happening take place. If there is a problem to be ironed out, it will be in such meetings where these issues will be discussed, stop favouritism, engage more, and listen more to each other.”</i></p>	
6.Understanding/Knowledge	<p>Understanding as requested by the respondents above means that there are moments when another employee who is an associate may need help and assistance, if the second employee close-by does not know what that person is going through, it might be difficult to offer support. There is a need for the organisations to teach their employees a strong sense of organisational stake-holding. This may be done during team building meetings or service delivery trainings. The strong employees can undertake for the feeble ones, it depends on the sense of understanding imbibed in the culture of the organisation.</p>	<p>Respondent 98</p> <p><i>“By knowing the people you work with, in this way you can support the person.”</i></p>	<p>Respondent 87</p> <p><i>“To understand each other, not to judge each other and to hold each other if someone needs help.”</i></p>
7.Uniform treatment/fairness	<p>The ethical background of any organisation will determine how well its employees will function. Fairness is the same as justice, a just retail organisation is equitable, fair, impartial and unbiased in its approach to things. The remark above gives the</p>	<p>Respondent 10</p> <p><i>“By treating all workers the same way and not have</i></p>	<p>Respondent 61</p> <p><i>“Supervisors and managers should treat workers equally, when</i></p>

	<p>impression as if the relationship among employees generally whether supervisor or subordinate is impaired through unfair treatment of employees in the retail sector in South Africa. Employees feel they will be supported if there can be equity and fairness in treatment.</p>	<p><i>favouritism among workers.”</i></p>	<p><i>there is a problem, they need to listen, understand and come up with a solution to the problem, not just ignore the workers and treat them as if they are just workers and not human beings.”</i></p>
<p>8.Staff motivation</p>	<p>The comments above signify that the retail companies in South Africa should engage more in different strategies of motivating their employees whether supervisors or subordinates. Motivation should be attached to something meaningful. This becomes a tool for supporting employees when they have done well. For maximum performance, it is important to do more in terms of motivating employees.</p>	<p>Respondent 30</p> <p><i>“By motivating the workers, praise them when they have done good things and reprimand them when they have done something wrong.”</i></p>	<p>Respondent 122</p> <p><i>“A simple ‘well done’ can encourage workers to do their best when performing their jobs.”</i></p>
<p>9.Sharing ideas</p>	<p>Depending on the human resource policy of an organisation, there are organisations that demand as a policy that employees should disclose facts to each other. This could be an operational policy, whereby if an employee is deemed to withhold facts, such could face disciplinary actions. It is also necessary for employees to share relevant information about tasks to be conducted. It is an incentive to support when an employee freely gives his opinion, suggestions and information to others with the aim</p>	<p>Respondent 131</p> <p><i>“By sharing ideas and discussing problems.”</i></p>	<p>Respondent 86</p> <p><i>“We must share ideas and one must understand each other, if the worker has a problem, a supervisor must help that worker even if it is not a</i></p>

	of getting the job done. The retail sector in South Africa will need to promote group sharing of information.		<i>work problem, even a problem at home.”</i>
10.Problem Solving	The respondents themselves acknowledged that from time to time employees are bound to come up with problems of various kinds, ranging from operational related problems, financial problems, family problems, interpersonal relationship problems etc. Sometimes the nature of the problems that an employee has may be intrapersonal with the employee or with some other persons in the workplace. Whatever, the nature of the problem the respondents are of the view that the problems should not be spread among employees through gossip or bickering of the supervisors, but should be treated in store meetings.	Respondent 19 <i>“The meetings every week and the points can be raised on how to solve problems.”</i>	Respondent 14 <i>“No gossip, listen to each other’s problems and put ourselves in their shoes.”</i>
11.Friendly environment at work	There is a strong need for organisations to adapt to survive despite all the pressures around. So it is important to create a stable environment where employees can co-exist within the few hours they spend at work. Friendliness involves the internal environment of the workforce, to permit the free flow of activities among employees; they need an environment of friendliness where subordinates can freely relate with a supervisor without prejudice of any kind.	Respondent 112 <i>“There is a need to be friendly to each other, respect each other, and get instruction from the supervisor immediately.”</i>	Respondent 117 <i>“Friendliness, listening, love and laughter.”</i>

Interpersonal relationships

Respondents' strategies	Research comment		
1.Communication and listening	Many respondents are in unison over communication and listening. A good number of them remarked that communication is the most important factor that supervisors and subordinates need to keep and improve their relationships. Opening the line of communication means that employees should be provided with information, and management should also be open to provide to the concerns and suggestions of the employees. Communication is a strong tool for interaction among employees. The reoccurrence of communication is an indication that managements of the retail organisations in South Africa should take the issues of communication among employees seriously.	Respondent 59 <i>“By having an open channel of effective communication and having an open mind.”</i>	Respondent 139 <i>“Interact with workers regularly, listen to their concerns and ideas, and do not look down on them.”</i>
2.Team work	When two or more employees with harmonising skills interact with one another according to a strategy to achieve specific	Respondent75 <i>“Don’t overburden one worker; everyone</i>	Respondent 111 <i>“Working as a team, being</i>

	<p>goals with shared common identity, they are referred to as team. According to the respondent above a strong feature of a performing team is that the interpersonal relations among the team members are implemented with open communication and mutual support. The conscious interaction between supervisors and subordinates to achieve specific goals and objectives is inevitable in the retail sector in South Africa.</p>	<p><i>should work as a team, when a team works together it makes the tasks easier and quicker to understand. All workers must be treated with respect, dignity and equally irrespective of race, colour or creed."</i></p>	<p><i>accountable and responsible for one's department."</i></p>
3.Training	<p>Training is those activities technically designed to assist employees to become more effective at work, through improvement update or refining of knowledge and skills. The respondents above called for training on the treatment of lower cadre employees by the superior officers. This is inevitable where an organisation is losing workers because of the treatment of their supervisors. The majority of the respondents work in the sales department where interpersonal relationship is important not</p>	<p>Respondent 141</p> <p><i>"There should be more workshops where the managers and supervisors are reminded on how to treat their employees and let their employees feel worth it within their organisation and valuable aspect, communication is the first thing that will help to better the situation."</i></p>	<p>Respondent 81</p> <p><i>"Workshop where both the supervisors and workers attend."</i></p>

	only between employees and customers, but among the ranks of sales employees in the retail stores in South Africa.		
4. Respect	In the theory of respect for persons by Kant (1929), according to Harris, Pritchard and Rabins (2005). “So act as to treat humanity, whether in your own person or in that of another, in every case as an end in itself, and never as a means only.” This reflects in employees’ obligation to each other in order to determine acceptable behaviour in the workplace. The human resource ethical policies should set objective standards against which all actions of employees are measured. Respect is one of the ethical standards that will guide the relationships between supervisors and subordinates.	Respondent 153 <i>“By respecting each other.”</i>	Respondent 121 <i>“Respect each other and communication.”</i>
5. Staff motivation/behaviour	The ability to inspire employees (supervisors and subordinates) to work voluntarily and with enthusiasm towards attaining the goals of the organisation is	Respondent 3 <i>“At the present moment, the rate of demotivation is high. If we can combat</i>	Respondent 131 <i>“This can be improved only if people’s mind-sets change, if we have</i>

	<p>motivation. The leadership of the retail sector in South Africa cannot distance itself from the complexities and the uniqueness of people and the way they impact on their external and internal environments. The respondent above was able to identify the level of motivation in his/her retail company. Assuming the second respondent is from another retail company, then motivating employees has become imperative as a management function in each of the retail companies in South Africa.</p>	<p><i>demotivation and negative attitude we will conquer.”</i></p>	<p><i>the same objectives, reach for our goals and work hard. The supervisors and workers should stand together.”</i></p>
<p>6. Decision making/work environment</p>	<p>To make the work environment more effective for employees, the decision making parameters of the superior officers help to shape the interpersonal relationships between the supervisors and the subordinates. To make decisions the supervisor needs to identify problems that need solutions, consider the possibilities that have better potential to solve the problem.</p>	<p>Respondent 2</p> <p><i>“Make working more effective, by creating a better working environment.”</i></p>	<p>Respondent 99</p> <p><i>“Getting the workers more involved in decision making, listen to their ideas.”</i></p>

	<p>The above comment gives the impression that the retail industry will need to continue to encourage its workers on making sound decisions in the retail stores.</p>		
<p>7. Frequent meetings</p>	<p>How often employees will meet in any retail organisation will be determined by the human resource policies of the organisation. However, for employees of our concern cadres to make demand for more frequent meetings, it means there might be underlying issues that may threaten the interpersonal relationships between supervisors and subordinates if not carefully handled. Holding meetings daily might also not be easy or visible for many retail companies because of their nature of business, and how tedious it is for employees to stand around the store throughout the day.</p>	<p>Respondent 109</p> <p><i>“Hold regular meetings and discuss the day to day meaning of the business, exchange ideas, and encourage training.”</i></p>	<p>Respondent 139</p> <p><i>“We need to sit daily and talk about problems.”</i></p>
<p>8.Sharing ideas</p>	<p>It is a general knowledge that sometimes employees don’t only work in the same industry,</p>	<p>Respondent 58</p>	<p>Respondent 88</p>

	<p>they also have interpersonal relationships. This allows them to share ideas about innovations in their organisation that might be beneficial to other retail companies. The extent to which an employee can share information will depend on their human resource policies, employees may get frustrated when they have innovative ideas that can move the organisation forward and they have no forum or opportunity to share these ideas. An organisation may lose valuable employees, and it may lead to losing many others, which can result in ultimate loss for the company. Retail companies need to provide an environment in the workplace for employees to share valuable ideas with their superior officers.</p>	<p><i>“Honest sharing of information and openness, as workers and supervisors can feel involved as part of the organisation.”</i></p>	<p><i>“We must have flow, co-operate and share ideas, vision, like learning new things each week with open minds.”</i></p>
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