TRAINING EXPECTATION FULFILMENT AND ITS INFLUENCE ON THE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT OF TERRITORIAL FORCE ARMY RECRUITS

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ABSTRACT

Territorial Force army recruits (N=184) participated in this study which aimed to determine the influence of pre-training expectation fulfilment on organizational commitment (OC) at the conclusion of, and six weeks after, their basic recruit training course. The study also aimed to identify what aspects of basic training recruits perceived as being better or worse than expected. Recruits filled out three questionnaires over a period of approximately nine weeks and the data was subjected to two hierarchical regression analyses. Results of the first regression analysis showed that the extent of training fulfilment was a significant positive predictor of OC at the end of basic training. More positive affective reactions to recruit training and higher levels of initial OC were also found to be predictive of OC at the conclusion of basic training. In the second regression analysis lower age and greater OC at the conclusion of basic training were found to be significantly predictive of greater OC six weeks after basic training. Fulfilment of expectations during basic training was not found to be predictive of OC at that point. A principal components analysis was conducted on the training fulfilment items in order to identify underlying dimensions of training fulfilment. Results showed that aspects associated with higher order needs (personal development, staff approachability, and physical challenge) were less fulfilled than those associated with lower order needs (living / working conditions, equipment adequacy). Overall, the results tend to question how pervasive the influence of fulfilled expectations during army basic training is on the attitudes of part time recruits after they leave the training environment. Implications for military advertising and realistic recruitment are also discussed.

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INTRODUCTION

Overview

Work organizations have a vested interest in obtaining a high level of commitment from their members. More committed employees are less inclined to leave the organization and have lower levels of absenteeism (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Other, albeit weaker, evidence has also connected commitment to better job performance and reduced tardiness (e.g.Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989).

Military organizations, despite their unique roles, culture and organizational climate (Bruhns, 1991), are no different from their civilian counterparts in desiring high commitment from their members. Organizational commitment has been linked to the concept of morale (Manning, 1991), which is an important determinant of a military organization's effectiveness in battle and has beneficial effects at the individual level by acting as a 'buffer' against combat related stress (Labuc, 1991). Additionally, concern about voluntary attrition in soldiers (e.g. McKubre, 1976) means that higher organizational commitment is desirable for its relationship to increased employee retention.

Owing to the positive outcomes associated with organizational commitment, a large amount of research has been conducted identifying factors that influence it. A diverse number of factors ranging from personal, job, and organizational characteristics to group-leader relations (e.g. participative leadership) and role states (e.g. role conflict and role overload) are associated with varying levels of organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Various research efforts with soldiers have also identified a number of correlates and predictors relevant to the military situation. For example, Dornstein and Matalon (1989), in a regression analysis utilising data from full-time Israeli army personnel, found that eight major variables accounted for over 60 percent of the variance in organizational commitment. The variables that explained most of the variance were interesting / challenging work (30 percent), and co-workers' attitudes (14 percent). Other variables such as age, education, employment alternatives and the attitudes of family and friends accounted for smaller, significant portions of the variance. In a study of

New Zealand soldiers, F. Alpass (personal communication, July, 1994) investigated a similar variable to organizational commitment (organizational identification; see Morrow, 1983) and found that physical working conditions, job variety, and army management were all significant predictors of organizational identification. The wide range of factors reviewed in these studies draws attention to the danger of looking at influencing variables in isolation. The current study takes note of this point by controlling for other commitment influencing variables prior to looking at those which are the focus of this research.

Research looking at influencing factors on organizational commitment has been predominantly cross sectional in design (Meyer & Allen, 1988). This cross sectional research precludes a view of the way in which commitment develops. An understanding of the developmental nature of commitment across the career span is necessary for the identification of commitment enhancing experiences. Mowday et al. (1982) suggest that:

> The commitment of employees is best characterised as a *process* that unfolds over time. This process may begin before the employee enters the organization and may extend over successive years of employment. To develop a better understanding of employee commitment it is necessary to focus attention on the factors that may influence that development of commitment at different stages of an employees career, and on the process through which employees become committed to organizations (p.45)

The period during the early stages of an employee's career (including the pre-entry period) is extremely important in determining later levels of commitment (Mowday et al., 1982; Meyer et al., 1989; Meyer & Allen, 1988). Factors such as personal values and traits, expectations about the job, and early work experiences are particularly influential in the development of commitment at this time (Mowday et al., 1982).

A prominent early work experience encountered by both New Zealand Territorial Force (TF) and Regular Force (RF) soldiers is basic recruit training. Basic recruit training is an intensive induction course designed to produce soldiers who have acquired basic military skills, knowledge, and values. The influence of basic recruit training on organizational commitment is

probably determined by a number of factors. One of the more salient influences is whether prior expectations about basic training are fulfilled. This proposal emanates from research into outcomes associated with Realistic Job Previews (RJPs; Wanous, 1980). Few research efforts have specifically looked at the expectations associated with training programmes although Wiscoff (1977, cited in Wanous, 1980) studied the non fulfilment of expectations in the United States armed forces and noted that "disappointment stems from the fact that many young men view basic training as a rite of passage into full manhood. They believe the army when it promises to make them into superb physical specimens, and are disappointed when this is not the result" (p.190). Similarly, Hoiberg and Berry (1978) found that people who were discharged from naval recruit training tended to have inaccurate expectations of the recruit course. In light of these findings the current study proposes to investigate the extent to which pre basic training expectations in a sample of New Zealand Army recruits are fulfilled, and the influence that this has on the recruit's organizational commitment.

This research is a partial replication of a study by Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, and Cannon-Bowers (1991). That study investigated the influence of training expectation fulfilment, trainee performance, and trainee reactions to training on the organizational commitment of United States naval recruits. They found, after controlling for demographic variables and initial levels of organizational commitment, that the degree to which training expectations were fulfilled explained significant portions of variance in organizational commitment immediately after recruit training.

The current study also investigates two important issues not addressed by Tannenbaum et al. (1991). Firstly, the pervasiveness of basic training will be examined by looking at the extent to which training fulfilment can predict organizational commitment six weeks after the conclusion of recruit training. The importance of this aspect becomes apparent when one considers the amount of resources required to conduct intensive socialization strategies such as army recruit training. Determining the on-going influence of these strategies (after they have concluded) on desirable outcomes such as organizational commitment is necessary in determining the worth of them. Secondly, an analysis of the aspects of basic training that were better or worse than

expected will also be made. Tannenbaum et al. (1991) viewed training fulfilment as a global construct, yet identifying specific areas that are better or worse than expected can have practical utility in the design of the socialization strategies and in realistic recruitment.

It is also worthwhile at this point to justify the use of part time TF personnel as participants. The TF makes up almost 50 percent of soldiers in the New Zealand Army (Department of Statistics, 1994), yet are only required to complete a minimum of 20 days training per year in order to be considered 'efficient'. These factors, combined with the feature that TF service is both voluntary and intermittent, and therefore 'competes' with members' other interests, means that the effectiveness of TF units is probably much more dependant on the commitment of its members than their RF counterparts. By using these part time soldiers, implications for the socialization of other part time workers may be drawn.

The introductory chapters of this thesis will aim to provide the reader with the theoretical rationale for the conduct of the study. As organizational commitment is the focus of this research, an appropriate point to begin is with a conceptual definition of the organizational commitment construct. Chapter Two will describe the process of commitment development and the influential factors believed to be prevalent at each stage of the development process. Chapter Three will then look at the role of socialization strategies on the development of commitment, with particular attention being given to military basic recruit training. Chapter Four will contain the aims and hypotheses for the study.

CHAPTER ONE

A Conceptual Analysis of Organizational Commitment

This chapter will begin by exploring the various concepts of organizational commitment and will aim to give the reader an understanding of the organizational commitment construct as it is used in this research. The importance of developing an understanding of this concept at this early point cannot be understated. The chapters following this will constantly refer back to some of the theoretical issues presented in the following sections, and thus these sections provide the basis for the remainder of the thesis.

1.1 Organizational Commitment - An Introduction

The construct of organizational commitment comes under the general heading of work commitment, which is a term incorporating a wide range of work related attitudinal and behavioral constructs. Morrow (1983) identified 30 forms of work commitment including such things as job involvement, job attachment, work ethic, and career orientation. Other forms, such as professionalism (Morrow & Goetz, 1988), have also been included under its auspice. Given this large number of conceptually similar constructs it is hardly surprising that Morrow (1983) has suggested that a great deal of conceptual redundancy exists. Griffin and Bateman (1986) also note that "depending on ones point of view, the study of work commitment may be characterised by either (a) healthy eclectism, or (b) schizophrenic fragmentation" (p.165).

Despite this, an examination of the facets of the organizational commitment construct has identified it as empirically distinct from other forms of work commitment (Morrow, 1983). The large amount of scholarly attention given to organizational commitment over the last few decades (Angle & Perry, 1983) has come about because of the organizationally desirable behaviors believed to be associated with it (Randall, Fedor, & Longenecker, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). Organizational commitment is negatively related to employee turnover (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Abelson, 1987; Somers, 1995) and absenteeism (Somers, 1995). Organizational commitment is also a better predictor of an employee's intention to

turnover and actual turnover than other work-based attitudes such as job satisfaction (Porter et al., 1974; Hom, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979).

One notable drawback from this increase in research interest is the diversity of conceptualizations and methods of operationalising the organizational commitment construct. Popper and Lipshitz (1992) have suggested that this has lead to 'conceptual confusion' within the domain of organizational commitment research, and this is supported by Oliver (1990) who refers to 'conceptual chaos'. Despite this, some similarities can be identified among some of the more common definitions of commitment[1] . For example, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) propose that a common theme in most definitions is "a bond or linking of the individual to the organization" (p.171), and that differences exist only in the way in which this bond is believed to develop.

Although there have been a number of taxonomies presented (e.g. Popper & Lipshitz, 1992; Oliver, 1990) one of the most common ways of distinguishing between the various organizational commitment definitions is to group them into either attitudinal or behavioural types (Oliver, 1990; Hulin, 1991; Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994). Oliver (1990) suggest that these groupings represent two distinct approaches to the concept of commitment adopted by a large number of organizational commitment researchers.

1.2 Behavioral Conceptualizations Of Organizational Commitment

The behavioural conceptualization of commitment can be further broken down into two sub-categories. The first of these stems from the work of Salancik (1977) who presented a concept of commitment based on dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957, cited in Myers, 1988) and the work of Kiesler (1971). Kiesler (1971) defines this type of commitment as the "pledging or binding of the individual to behavioral acts" (p.30), and, as such, views commitment as the result of a retrospective analysis of behavior which serves to reconcile inconsistencies between the behaviors and the attitudes held by the individual. In line with this, Salancik's (1977) view of commitment can be seen as a constraint. He says:

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[1] From this point onwards the term 'commitment' refers to organizational commitment.

> Commitment suggests that certain things will not change - namely the behaviour to which you are committed. Behavior serves as a constraining reality around which our beliefs, interpretations, attitudes, and justifications revolve. The more committing the action, the more constraining its effects. (p.21)

Elaborating on this, Salancik (1977) identifies four characteristics of these behaviors which he believed would enhance their committing potential. These are (1) that the behavior is unequivocal and observable to others, (2) difficult to change, (3) widely known to others, and (4) freely engaged in (Mowday et al., 1982). A example of this form of commitment was provided in research by Staw (1974). This study looked at a group of individuals who had joined the Reserve Officers Training Corps (ROTC), partly to avoid being drafted (as the study was conducted during the Vietnam war). Of the individuals who subsequently received a number in the draft lottery that made their chances of being drafted unlikely, it was found that those who had signed a formal committing agreement to remain in the ROTC developed far more pro-organizational attitudes than those who had not. This irrevocability of their decision to join the ROTC was attributed by Staw (1974) to be influential in the development of pro-organization behaviours.

The other form of behavioural commitment concerns what Mathieu and Zajac (1990) term calculated commitment. Calculated commitment is an attachment to the organization which develops as a result of 'investments' in the organization, thus resulting in a reluctance by the employee to leave lest they lose these investments (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). These individuals who have invested more (through such things as pension plans) will be desirous of remaining linked to the organization. This view of commitment has developed from the work of Becker (1960) who coined the notion of becoming committed through 'side-bets'. This notion suggests that individuals stake some personal interest (a side-bet) on behaving consistently (i.e. remaining with the organization) and deviation from this consistent behavior would result in the loss of this 'side-bet'. This form of commitment, therefore, represents an exchange process totally independent from any affective reaction that the individual may feel toward the organization (Wittig-Berman & Lang, 1990) and is strongly associated with 'rational' economic

behavior (Stevens, Beyer, & Trice, 1978). Some of the more common indices of this type of commitment are age and organizational tenure (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984), since these are often associated with increased organizational side-bets. The adequacy of these two indices of calculated commitment, however, has been questioned (e.g. Cohen & Lowenberg, 1990).

1.3 Attitudinal Conceptualizations Of Organizational Commitment

The second major type of organizational commitment focuses on the attitudes of employees rather than their behaviors. Attitudinal commitment has been most commonly espoused by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) who describe it as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (p.226). They further note that it is characterised by (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. Mowday et al. (1982) says that this form of commitment represents an active relationship between the individual and the organization that extends beyond passive expressions of commitment. Morris and Sherman (1981, cited in Wittig-Berman & Lang, 1990) also describe this form of commitment as 'positive high-intensity involvement' with the organization.

This attitudinal form of commitment is also similar to a number of less utilized conceptualizations. Etzioni (1975, cited in Penley & Gould, 1988) referred to 'moral commitment' which was described as "the acceptance and identification with organizational goals" (Penley & Gould, 1988, p.46). Allen and Meyer (1990) devised a three component model of commitment which identified affective, continuance, and normative types. While the continuance dimension corresponded to that mentioned earlier, the affective and normative were viewed by Allen and Meyer (1990) as being distinct, despite evidence which showed them to be highly correlated (Randall, Fedor, & Longenecker, 1990).

Attitudinal commitment has also been noted as being a better predictor of outcomes, such as intended employee turnover than its behavioral counterpart (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Ferris & Aranya, 1983). This feature, along with considerations to the sample group used in this study (i.e. new recruits would have had less time to accumulate side-bets), means that this form of commitment is the most appropriate in these circumstances and thus will be used in this research.

Despite the contrasts between the attitudinal and behavioral conceptualizations, Mowday et al. (1982) point out that there is a degree of inter-relatedness among them. More specifically, they view commitment development as a reciprocal relationship between the two major concepts. That is, greater attitudinal commitment is believed to make it more likely that the employee will engage in behaviorally committing acts (such as extra effort) which in turn leads to even greater attitudinal commitment. The relationship between these two forms of commitment is shown pictorially in Figure 1.
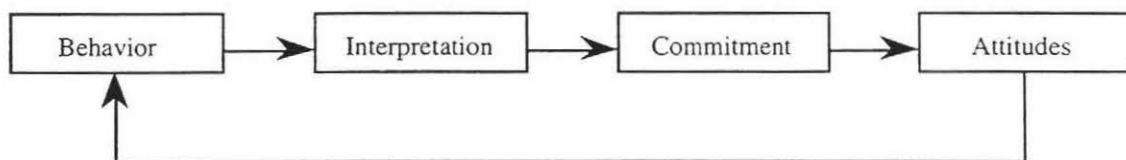
Figure 1. *Model Showing The Relationship Between Behavioral And Attitudinal Commitment*
Source: Hulin (1991) p.490

This reciprocal relationship is evident in Mowday et al.'s (1982) theoretical basis for the development of commitment where they draw heavily on the work of Salancik (1977).

Having established the way in which organizational commitment is to be defined in this research, attention will now focus on the way in which commitment is believed to develop. The next chapter will describe the 'stages' in commitment development, and give particular attention to the factors which are believed to influence commitment at each stage.

CHAPTER TWO

The Development of Organizational Commitment

This chapter will look at each of the stages in the process of commitment development, and aims to give the reader an understanding of the major influences at each stage. In line with the current study, the major focus of this chapter will be on the factors which influence commitment prior to, and soon after, organizational entry. Particular attention will also be given to the way in which expectations develop prior to entry, and the consequences of unmet expectations on the behaviors and attitudes of new members.

2.1 The Developmental Process of Commitment

Mowday et al. (1982) identified three phases in their developmental framework, corresponding to various periods of organizational tenure. These they labelled anticipation (incorporating the period prior to organizational entry), initiation (corresponding to approximately the first year in an organization), and entrenchment (incorporating the period after one year of tenure). Buchanan (1974), in his investigation of the socialization of new managers, also identified three distinct phases based on organizational tenure. These corresponded to the period during the first year in the organization, the period between the second and fourth years, and the period from the fifth year onwards. Contrasting these slightly, Ornstein, Cron, and Slocum (1989) applied the phases in Super's (1957, cited in Ornstein et al., 1989) career development model to the development of job attitudes (including organizational commitment). They suggested that the four phases within this model (trial, establishment, maintenance, and decline) were closely linked with the development of job attitudes.

Although there would seem to be some divergence in these conceptualizations of the development process, some notable similarities emerge. The most obvious of these is the realisation of that different factors are influential at various phases of development. As well as this most authors emphasise the importance of the early phases of commitment development, particularly the early period within an organization (e.g. Morrow & McElroy, 1987).

In line with this the following sections will review the literature pertaining to influences at each of the developmental stages. Owing to the divergence of terminology among the various authors, the phases of organizational tenure used for this review will most closely resemble those proposed by Mowday et al. (1982), although research from other authors will also be included. These phases are pre-entry influences, early post-entry influences, and late post-entry influences.

2.2 Pre-entry Influences.

As was mentioned previously, Mowday et al.'s (1982) view of commitment development begins prior to an employee's entry into the organization. This stage of development, which they termed *anticipation*, focuses not on organizational commitment *per se*, but an employee's propensity to become committed. That is, they believe that employees enter organizations with different commitment propensities, resulting from a number of pre-entry influences. In addition to being influential on commitment, pre-entry factors have also been cited in other research looking at organizational outcomes. Studies have found that pre-entry variables have an influence on retention (e.g. Bachman & Blair, 1976; Youngblood, Mobley, & Meglino, 1983) and military delinquency (e.g. Gibbs, 1955). Mowday et al. (1982) hypothesized that the main influences on commitment propensity were personal characteristics, job expectations, and characteristics of the job choice.

Personal Characteristics

Age was predicted to be positively related to organizational commitment by Mowday et al. (1982). That is, the older the employee, the greater their commitment. Findings across a range of samples have provided support for this prediction (e.g. Meyer & Allen, 1984; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Cohen, 1992) and research into attrition in military organizations tend to indicate a similar relationship between age and turnover (e.g. Stolzenberg & Winkler, 1983). Mowday et al. (1982) reasoned that this positive relationship was attributable to the scarcity of alternative employment opportunities for older employees which encouraged greater commitment towards their employing organization.

An employee's level of education is also believed to be associated with commitment but, unlike age, is generally hypothesized to have a negative relationship (Mowday et al., 1982). Explanations for this proposed negative relationship have ranged from the higher expectations of better educated individuals (Mowday et al., 1982) to the lack of vocational mobility of lower educated employees (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Research on the relationship between education and organizational commitment, however, suggests that it may not be as clear cut as either of these hypotheses suggest. Both Cohen (1992) and Mathieu & Hamel (1989) have reported findings to suggest a possible moderating effect of occupational type or level (i.e. professional / non-professional, white collar / blue collar). In a similar study using a military sample Dornstein and Matalon (1989) found that education was a significant negative predictor of organizational commitment among enlisted personnel but not officers.

Gender was cited by Mowday et al. (1982) as being influential on commitment, with females proposed to exhibit more commitment to organizations than males. They suggest that this is because of the extra effort and barriers that females have to overcome in order to gain organizational membership. Drawing on Salancik's (1977) framework, they propose that the process of overcoming these additional barriers is behaviorally committing. This hypothesis would appear to be particularly relevant for military organizations since they tend to emphasise masculine identity (Eisenhart, 1975; Faris, 1976; Arkin & Dobrofsky, 1978) and still provide obstacles for women's career advancement (Smith & McAllister, 1991). On an intuitive level it would seem that factors such as this would discourage commitment by women to the military. Unfortunately a paucity of research exists examining the relationship between gender and commitment in military organizations thus making the applicability of Mowday et al.'s (1982) hypothesis difficult to test.

The influence of marital status on organizational commitment is not as well researched as other personal characteristics (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). They suggest that married employees are more likely to become committed to an organization because of the financial burdens associated with married life. Despite this hypothesis they could only produce a small correlation in their meta-analysis to support it. As was the case with education, the empirical evidence shows signs

of the relationship between marital status and commitment being moderated by occupational type (Mathieu & Hamel, 1989; Cohen, 1992). It is also possible that the influence of marital status on commitment is an indirect one. Some authors suggest that family responsibilities increase the propensity for role conflict (e.g. Werbel, 1985) which in turn influences commitment.

This last suggestion has particular relevance to TF personnel since they must not only assume the role of a soldier but also as a family member and a holder of a full time civilian job. Conflicts between these multiple roles have been blamed for problems of retention in the British Territorial Army (Walker, 1990). Conflict between family and military service has also been touted as a contributing factor towards attrition and decreased job satisfaction (Hodge, 1988; McLeod, 1991; Perry, Griffith, & White, 1991).

While much of the research concerning the influence of personal factors on organizational commitment appears to be non definitive, it is nonetheless worthwhile to consider these variables when looking at other predictors of organizational commitment. The current research does this by adopting a strategy similar to Tannenbaum et al. (1991) and controlling for a number of socio-demographic variables before looking at the influence of the primary variables of interest on the organizational commitment of recruits.

Pre-entry Expectations

Wanous (1980) saw organizational commitment resulting from a 'matching' of the newcomer's needs to the organization's ability to meet these needs. Additionally, congruence between the values of the organization and the employee are also believed to increase the propensity to become committed. Employees, prior to entering organizations, develop expectations about how well the organization will be able to satisfy their needs, and how much congruence there will be between their values and the organization's (Mowday et al., 1982).

Meyer and Allen (1987) suggest that pre-entry expectations often are inflated due to inaccurate information or cognitive distortion on the part of the potential recruit. The result of this is an

unrealistically optimistic view of the ability of the organization to satisfy needs and value congruence. Reilly, Brown, Blood, & Malatesta (1981) point out that one of the proposed reasons as to why RJPs encourage organizational attachment is by stimulating self selection by lowering pre-entry expectations to a more realistic level.

While there would appear to be personality and value traits unique to the military (Bruhns, 1991; Card, 1977; Tziner, 1983), the process of determining whether a potential recruit matches these traits usually begins with an information search about the job and organization (Lee & Mowday, 1987). This information can be gained through exposure to early military role models (such as parents) and friends with military experience (e.g. Whitworth, Frowen, & McEwan, 1978). Additionally, more formal recruiting information is available from the military organizations themselves. Some research on military recruiting efforts have described it as inaccurate. For example, McKubre (1976), in a study on New Zealand RF personnel, found that 72 percent viewed recruiting advertisements as misleading, and 68 percent thought the same of army recruiters. Recommendations for more realistic recruiting have also been made in TF studies (e.g. Whitworth et al., 1978).

The consequences of encouraging misleadingly high expectations does not become apparent until after the new recruit joins the organization. Whitworth et al. (1978) note this by saying that "advertising and recruiting that raises expectations to unrealistically high levels may succeed initially, but in the long run may create a pool of dissatisfied ex TF servicemen in the community" (p.51). The result of these inaccurate expectations will be discussed more fully in the next section.

Job Choice Factors

The third aspect of the anticipatory phase of commitment development concerns the job choice factors that accompany the decision to join a particular organization. This influence on commitment propensity has been based primarily on the work of Salancik (1977) and the behavioural justification approach to commitment which was outlined in the previous chapter.

As was mentioned previously, Salancik (1977) identified four characteristics of the job-choice process which he predicted would lead to greater commitment propensity.

In addition to the study by Staw (1974) some other research has investigated the influence of job choice factors on commitment. Mowday and McDade (1979) also found that irrevocability and high volition were predictive of commitment at an employee's first day of work and one month after that. Contrasting these somewhat is research that was conducted by Meyer, Bobocel, and Allen (1991). In their study of recent university graduates, they found that neither volition nor irrevocability of job choice were predictive of commitment at six or 11 months. This conflicting information, combined with a paucity of research dedicated to this area, precludes making definitive conclusions as to the influence of these factors on commitment propensity.

2.3 Early Post-entry Influences

The early term of organizational membership has been identified as a crucial period in the development of commitment (Morrow & McElroy, 1987; Mowday et al., 1982; Meyer et al., 1991; Pierce & Dunham, 1987; Buchanan, 1974). This is the time when new members gain firsthand experience of life in the organization. Indicative of the importance of this period to the commitment process is the rate of attrition during the first year of employment. For example, Wanous (1980) notes that new employees account for the highest turnover rates. In military organizations this problem is especially relevant to reserve or territorial forces. Walker (1990), in an analysis of the British TA, noted that on average 28.9 percent of new recruits leave within the first year. Willet (1989) also points to a high early turnover rate in the Canadian army militia. While these findings do not specifically refer to organizational commitment, it would be reasonable to assume a corresponding trend in commitment levels. It is also worthwhile to point out that commitment levels tend to be relatively unstable during this early period. Mowday et al. (1979) cited the test-retest reliability co-efficient of a group of retail management trainees as being .62 over a three month period. Similarly, Mowday et al. (1982) noted that commitment levels among a group of hospital employees on their first day of the job could only produce a correlation co-efficient of .19 with commitment one month later. These findings would tend to

indicate that the relatively short time frame being used in this study (approximately nine weeks) is appropriate when looking at the commitment development of new recruits.

When determining the influences on commitment during this period Mowday et al. (1982) identified variables ranging from those associated with job characteristics and supervision, to those concerning the work group and remuneration. This diversity prompted Mowday et al. (1982) to identify a common theme among them. They established that the committing potential of any variable was determined by the degree of *felt responsibility* towards the organization that the variable induced. Using Salancik's (1977) framework it was proposed that factors increasing the felt responsibility of new organizational members served to behaviorally commit them. Retrospective analysis of these factors then lead to attitudinal restructuring and an increase in commitment.

A variety of factors can be used to increase the felt responsibility of new organizational members. Mowday et al. (1982) suggested, among other things, that greater group cohesion and social involvement served to increase the felt responsibility of new members. Pierce and Dunham (1987) found that greater job complexity in newly employed hospital staff was predictive of greater felt responsibility and organizational commitment, and Bauer and Green (1994) found that greater work accommodation, which included acceptance by work peers, was predictive of greater organizational commitment. Mowday et al. (1982) also noted the importance of socialization variables in the establishment of felt responsibility among new employees, and these will be considered in more depth in the next chapter,

Another aspect of the influence of early work experiences, which is particularly salient for this research, concerns the degree to which pre-entry expectations are fulfilled. As was mentioned previously, recruits enter organizations with expectations about various aspects of organizational life. The early period of membership is an opportunity to test the accuracy of these expectations. Wanous (1980) proposed that the nonfulfilment of pre-entry expectations, which he termed 'reality shock', reduces commitment and is attributable for much of the early

turnover. The theoretical rationale by which Wanous (1980) believed expectation fulfilment to influence commitment is presented pictorially in Figure 2.
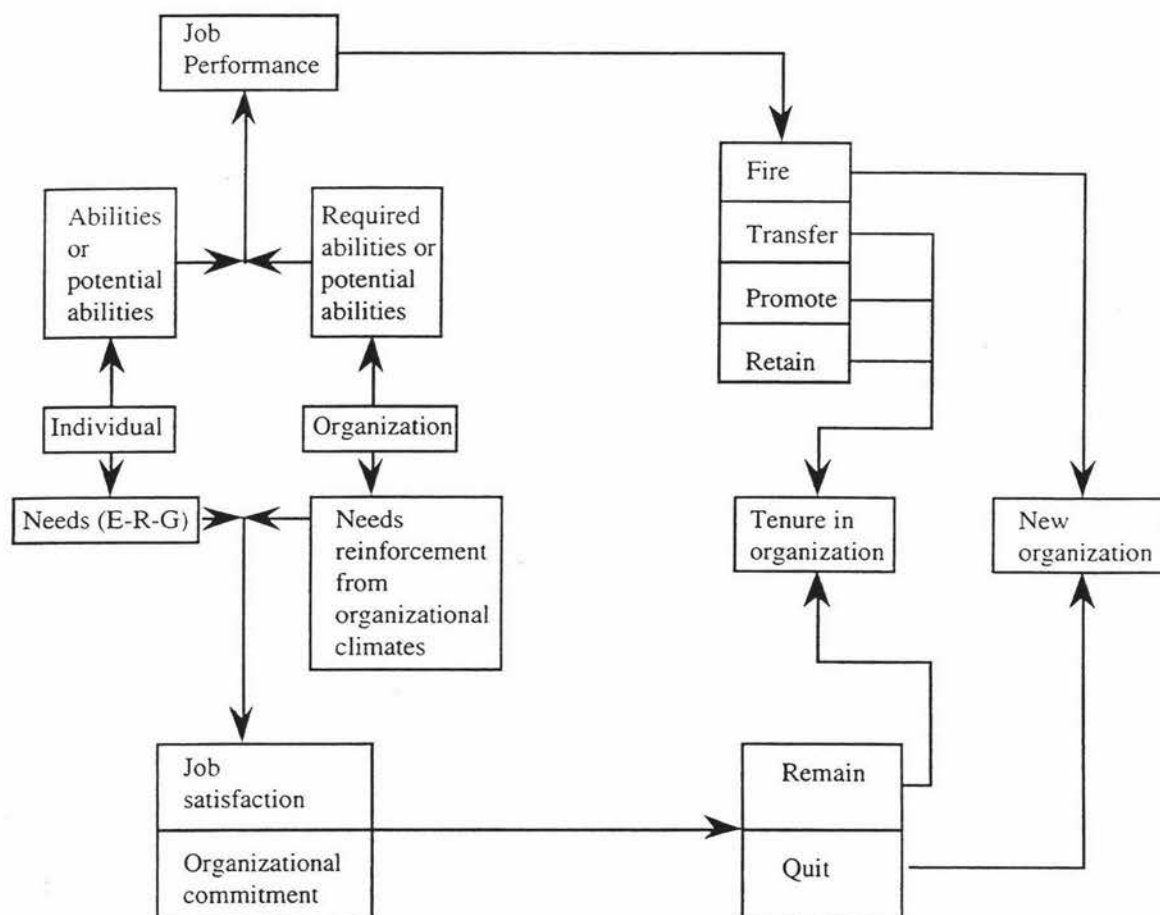
Figure 2: *Matching Individual and Organization*

Source: Wanous (1980) p. 11

As can be seen from this theoretical model, the influence of expectation fulfilment on organizational commitment is partly a function of individual needs. The ability of an organization to satisfy these needs is an important determinant of commitment. Wanous (1980) used Alderfer's (1972, cited in Wanous, 1980) three category model (Existence, Relatedness, Growth; ERG) of human needs to provide a basis for this part of his matching model..

Research in civilian organizations has generally supported the proposition that expectation fulfilment is predictive of early commitment levels (e.g. Meyer & Allen, 1987; Angle & Perry, 1983; Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992) and attrition (e.g. Stumpf & Hartman, 1984; Porter & Steers, 1973; Lee & Mowday, 1987). A similar amount of research interest has been shown concerning the influence of met expectations in military recruits. As was mentioned earlier, many recruits enter the military with unrealistically high expectations born of inaccurate recruiting information. Research has shown that failure to fulfil inaccurate expectations is responsible for attrition during initial training (Hoiberg & Berry, 1978) and decreases in organizational commitment by the end of initial training (Tannenbaum et al., 1991). In studies utilizing New Zealand soldiers similar findings emerge. For example, McCone (1995) has found unmet expectations to discriminate between basic trainees who completed recruit training and those who did not. Similarly, McKubre (1976) found that of those New Zealand soldiers who did not plan to re-engage, 83 percent felt that army recruiting was misleading compared to 66 percent of re-engagers.

Despite this rather convincing argument for the accuracy of pre-entry expectations on organizational commitment and retention, two methodological issues concerning expectation research need to be examined. Firstly, with a few exceptions (e.g. Tannenbaum et al., 1991), research has generally focused on discrepancies between expectations and perceptions. Intuitively, if an aspect of the organization was not what was expected, its influence on organizational commitment or other outcomes would depend on how important or desirable this aspect was to the individual (Porter & Steers, 1973). Tannenbaum et al. (1991) rectified this shortfall by not only measuring expectations and perceptions of recruit training, but also by incorporating a measure of aspect desirability in their overall fulfilment measure. Fulfilment of each aspect was therefore calculated by establishing the difference between expectations and perceptions, and multiplying this difference by the desirability or salience of the aspect. This approach will also be adopted by this research.

Secondly, Wanous (1980) failed to suggest if a non matching of either existence, relatedness, growth needs resulted in the same outcome. Evidence suggests that opportunities to satisfy

higher order (i.e. growth) needs are predictive of greater organizational commitment (Shouksmith, 1994; Flynn & Tannenbaum, 1993). While this research does not specifically aim to identify whether higher or lower order needs are predictive of organizational commitment, it does aim to try and identify what aspects of basic training are better or worse than expected. Intuitively, if certain types of needs are not being met then this could have implications for outcomes such as organizational commitment.

2.4 Late Post-entry Influences

Although the focus of this research is on pre-entry and early post-entry influences, a review of the developmental process would not be complete without looking at the hypothesized influences during the later periods of organizational tenure. Despite the observation that this late stage of commitment development has been theoretically neglected (e.g. Griffin & Bateman, 1986), it is generally assumed that organizational commitment and other work related attitudes develop to a point where they become much more enduring and stable (Mowday et al., 1982; Buchanan, 1974). However, the point where this more stable level of commitment begins is subject to some disagreement. For example, Mowday et al. (1982) believed that this stage, which they termed 'entrenchment', began approximately one year into organizational membership. Buchanan (1974), however, saw the final stage of commitment development occurring approximately after the fifth year of organizational tenure.

Mowday et al.'s (1982) conceptualization of this stage of commitment saw the major influences derive from the increasing length of service with the organization. More specifically, they proposed that increasing length of service corresponded to increased likelihood of challenging work assignments, greater investments (in such things as pension plans) and social involvement, and decreased job mobility. In terms of the behavioural concept of organizational commitment, these would all result in a strengthened attachment to the organization. Buchanan (1974) observed that since the final stage of commitment development encompassed the most amount of organizational tenure, prediction of influences during this time was difficult. They did, however, predict that organizational dependability (i.e. the continued confirmation of important expectations, such as inducements) would be the most important determinant of

commitment during this stage. The subsequent study conducted by Buchanan (1974), however, failed to substantiate this prediction and found instead that group attitudes towards the organization and work commitment norms were significantly predictive of organizational commitment during this stage. They also found, albeit somewhat surprisingly, that the fulfilment of expectations during the early period with the organization was also predictive of commitment at this stage. Buchanan (1974) suggested that a retrospective analysis of their initial period in the organization might be responsible for this finding.

Despite these findings, their still appears to be a lack of concerted theory and empirical research concerning this stage of commitment development (Griffin & Bateman, 1986). Research by Jans (1989a, 1989b), on Australian army officers, has indicated that organizational commitment in mid to late career stages tends to still be influenced heavily by work experiences. In these cases a particularly salient influencing factor is the posting location of middle career officers. It was found that these officers serving in the Department of Defence (primarily a desk bound function) had significantly lower organizational commitment than those posted elsewhere. This finding tended to contradict Mowday et al.'s (1982) proposal of influences during this stage being a relatively passive accumulation of behaviorally committing occurrences. It would seem from Jans' (1989a, 1989b) research that even at this late stage individuals are actively reassessing their commitment to their employing organization. It would probably be worthwhile to heed Griffin and Bateman's (1986) advise and re-evaluate the theoretical underpinnings of this stage of commitment development.

Having reviewed the way in which organizational commitment is believed to develop, the focus will now turn to how socialization factors, during the early period of organizational tenure, influence this development process. The next chapter will 'set the scene' for the specifics of the current study by applying much of the theoretical knowledge presented in the previous two chapters to a socialization or training situation.

CHAPTER THREE

Socialization In Organizations

This chapter will begin by looking at organizational socialization in a broad context. Issues associated with the content of socialization and how it influences organizational commitment will be discussed. This will be followed by a description of the socialization tactic which is the focus of this research - army basic recruit training. This description will 'set the scene' for the conduct of the current study.

3.1 Organizational Socialization - An Overview of Major Concepts

Organizational socialization refers to "the process by which an individual comes to appreciate the values, abilities, expected behaviors, and social knowledge essential for assuming an organizational role and for participating as an organizational member (Louis, 1980, p.229-30). In order to understand how this transition occurs, and what its relationship is with organizational commitment, the following sections will focus on the content and outcomes of socialization. Although a large amount of research has also looked at the stages of socialization (e.g. Wanous, 1980; Van Maanen, 1975), the stages in each model tend to be situation specific (Fisher, 1986) and thus will not be discussed in any detail here. Nonetheless, it is sufficient to make the reader aware that organizational socialization is continual and on-going throughout an employee's tenure (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

The Content of Socialization

When discussing the content of socialization, one refers to *what* is actually learnt during the socialization process (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Klein, & Gardner, 1994). Although the range of possible learning outcomes is essentially limitless, several authors have sensibly reduced them to a number of categories.

Chao et al. (1994) identified six content domains of socialization which were confirmed by a factor analysis. The first content they labelled 'Performance Proficiency' which refers to content regarding the acquisition of knowledge necessary for the employee's organizational

role. The second content domain was labelled 'People', and involves the establishment of working relationships with other members of the organization. Fisher (1986) suggests that this type of socialisation involves identifying key organizational members and learning how to 'manage' one's co-workers and superiors. The third content domain, which Chao et al. (1994) labelled as 'Politics', involves the learning of "information regarding formal and informal work relationships and power structures within the organization" (p.732). The fourth category of socialization content was labelled 'Language' and involves the learning of jargon, technical language, and any other form of language which is part of the organization or role. The fifth and sixth categories were labelled 'Organizational Goals and Values' and 'History' respectively. These dimensions refer collectively to the learning of goals, values, rituals, and traditions of the organization.

In addition to the content dimensions identified by Chao et al. (1994), it is also worthwhile to briefly describe Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) theoretical basis for socialization and how this relates to the content of socialization practices. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) proposed that organizations can be described in terms of three dimensions: functional, hierarchical, and inclusionary. The functional dimension describes an organization in terms of the tasks that are carried out within it, such as marketing, production, and personnel. The hierarchical dimension describes the organization in terms of its rank structure, and the inclusionary dimension refers to the social or interpersonal structure of the organization. Within each of these dimensions are boundaries through which organizational members must cross as they progress along the dimension. For example, a military organization has a large number of hierarchical boundaries defined as ranks through which a soldier must pass. In light of this theoretical basis, Van Maanen and Schein (1979) suggest that the content of socialization depends on the boundary that was being crossed by the organizational member.

Considering that the focus of this research is on military organizations, it is also worthwhile to examine the content of military socialization practices. The Learning Model (n.d.) identifies a number of 'core elements' which all members of the army must possess for successfully undertaking the army's role. These elements are discipline, teamwork, technical and

professional skills, military values, and self awareness. The Learning Model (n.d.) also notes that the elements of teamwork and discipline are learnt reasonably early in a soldier's tenure, whereas the remainder are continually developing. It is also mentioned that army socialization tries to encourage the personal qualities of responsibility, loyalty, initiative, and courage in its members. Both the core elements and personal qualities are developed by similar socialization techniques.

Socialization and Organizational Commitment

A number of outcomes of organizational socialization have been identified. Kelley (1992) points out that these outcomes can be classed as either affective (e.g. organizational commitment) or behavioral (e.g. role orientation). In line with the focus of this study, the influence of socialization on organizational commitment will be reviewed in this section.

Kelley (1992) proposes that organizational socialization "results in the development of a more thorough understanding of organizational goals and values, and identification with those goals and values" (p.30). Since an important component of organizational commitment is identification with and acceptance of organizational goals and values (Mowday et al., 1982), an obvious outcome of socialization (especially socialization where the content has a large values component) is increased organizational commitment. Kelley's (1992) research into service employees confirmed organizational commitment as an outcome of organizational socialization.

While there would appear to be evidence suggesting organizational commitment as an outcome of socialization, it should also be noted that some other factors moderate the impact of socialization on commitment. The first of these that will be mentioned is the type of 'socialization tactic' used. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) define the "tactics of organizational socialization" by identifying six dimensions by which these socialization tactics can be defined. These are (1) collective vs. individual socialization, (2) formal vs. informal socialization, (3) sequential (i.e. comprising of identifiable steps leading to a target role) vs. random socialization, (4) fixed (i.e. recruits are given specific time frames to make the transition) vs. variable socialization, (5) serial (i.e. where incumbents 'groom' newcomers for the role) vs.

disjunctive socialization, and (6) investiture (i.e. making use of the personal characteristics that recruits bring to the organization with them) vs. divestiture socialization. Jones (1986) simplified this categorization by providing a dichotomy of socialization tactics. The first he labelled *individualized* tactics, which incorporated the individual, informal, variable, random, divestiture, and disjunctive tactics identified by Van Maanen and Schein (1979). The other category Jones (1986) labelled *institutionalised* tactics and this included the other 'ends' of Van Mannen and Schein's (1979) continua. Jones (1986) predicted that institutionalised tactics would result in greater organizational commitment by reducing uncertainty and anxiety associated with organizational entry. His results supported this prediction and a similar finding was noted by Louis, Posner, and Powell (1983).

Another aspect which serves to moderate the impact of socialization on commitment is 'reality shock' (Wanous, 1980). As the reader should now be aware, this discrepancy between expectations and the reality of organizational life is a central theme in this research. Major, Kozlowski, Chao, and Gardner (1995) propose that the influence of newcomer socialization on organizational commitment is limited if the newcomer experiences excessive 'surprise'. Louis (1980) suggests that socialization should focus on helping newcomers make sense of this reality shock, so as to better help them merge into the organizational setting.

The last moderating factor to be reviewed in this section is the influence of co-workers and supervisors during the socialization process. Louis et al. (1983) investigated this and concluded that peers who made newcomers feel effective, and supervisors who were perceived as being available and helpful were related to increased commitment. Major et al. (1995) also noted that newcomer's relationships with co-workers and supervisors were particularly important in the process of sense making (i.e. when newcomer expectations differed from perceptions).

Having considered some of the theoretical aspects of socialization, it is now appropriate to look at army basic recruit training. The description that follows will hopefully give the reader a 'feel' for the type of environment that the participants in this study are part of.

3.2 Basic Recruit Training - A Description.

The focus of this research is on the Army's initial training period for new entrants, commonly referred to as basic recruit training. While all military organizations engage in some form of initial training for recruits, those whose primary mission involves overt military confrontation (such as the army) tend to have more intense basic training (Arkin & Dobrofsky, 1978).

Overall, basic training would appear to be a very uncomfortable time for new recruits. Bruhns (1991) notes that the indoctrination period in the New Zealand Defence Force makes reference to a lack of human rights and peer bonding in adverse conditions. Gibbs (1955), when noting that the majority of his British national service sample were away from home for the first time, suggested that the abrupt transition from the comforts of a supportive family to the rigours of military life, leads to a period of "initial confusion and bewilderment" (p.25). Other research has also noted sharp increases in recruit stress levels, hostility, anxiety, and depression during the initial stages of recruit training (Datel, Engle, & Barda, 1966; Datel & Engle, 1966; Datel & Lifrak, 1969).

Initial training in military organizations serves a number of purposes. From the point of the organization, basic training teaches the recruit the required skills and knowledge for service in the military. Yarmolinsky (1971, cited in Arkin & Dobrofsky, 1978) suggests that basic training involves "the intentional disruption of civilian patterns of adjustment, replacement of individual gratifications with group goals, inculcation of unquestioning acceptance of authority and development of conformity to official attitudes and conduct" (p.158). Tziner (1983) also draws attention to the group rather than individualistic focus of indoctrination in military organizations.

In order to achieve this change military organizations use a number of tactics. The use of role models to reinforce appropriate behaviors is common. Faris (1976) noted that drill sergeants are the image of the 'ideal soldier', and that they become the standard that many recruits want to achieve. Garnier (1972, 1973) also noted the use of role models in British military academies. In this case, public school educated cadets who already had developed values and attitudes

appropriate for a military officer were used as role models for other cadets who had not had that type of schooling. In addition to role models, rituals are often employed to encourage change in recruits. For example, Arkin and Dobrofsky (1978) noted that the haircut given to recruits as they enter basic training serves to expose them to discipline and signifies removal from their civilian lifestyle. This ritual is a classic example of a divestiture socialization tactic as defined by Van Maanen and Schein (1979).

Basic training in the New Zealand Army also employs a number of these strategies to force a change from civilian to soldier. The Learning Model (n.d.) suggests the use of the following tactics for this purpose:

1.   Situations which emphasise the importance of discipline and teamwork, without denigrating the role of individuals or the skills they bring to a group. Usually this is best achieved by physically demanding situations which also break recruits out of their 'civilian' mode.

2.   Training staff who adopt command responsibility and concentrate on the development of recruits, both in terms of soldier skills and in terms of pride in being a member of the army.

3.   Training staff who consistently model correct behaviors, values, and attitudes and act as examples for recruits.

4.   Situations which emphasise the differences between civilian and military life, without degrading either (p.3).

The type of basic training which will be investigated in this research is the three week Territorial Force Recruit Course (TFRC). This course is for members of all Corps and aims "to produce a soldier who can apply the skills and knowledge required of all TF soldiers" (Anonymous, Personal Communication, 1995). In order to achieve this aim, recruits undergo training in military subjects such as drill, weapons handling, and field living. The TFRC is conducted at the Army Depot at Waiouru (in New Zealand's central North Island), and requires recruits to live in communal barrack accommodation with other recruits for the duration of the course. Apart from being considerably shorter than its RF counterpart, one notable difference about the TFRC is that recruits go on the course when it suits their personal circumstances (Calder,

1994). This means that some recruits may have spent considerable periods training with their home units, prior to beginning the TFRC. This is somewhat different to the situation faced by RF recruits, for whom basic training is their first experience of army life. It also stems from this that the training done prior to commencing basic training may have influenced organizational commitment in recruits. With this in mind, the current study will seek to control for any training done prior to basic training before considering the influence of other variables on organizational commitment.

In light of this description of basic recruit training, the reader should now be able to appreciate the situation in which the participants in this study find themselves. With this background it is now appropriate to describe the aims and hypotheses of the study, which will be presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

Hypotheses and Aims of the Current Research

The previous three chapters have equipped the reader with an understanding of the theoretical and empirical background of this research. Chapter One provided a conceptual analysis of organizational commitment. and identified the way in which commitment was to be defined in this study. Chapter Two explained the way in which commitment was believed to develop and identified a number of factors which were believed to influence commitment. Chapter Three provided the reader with an understanding of organizational socialization and a description of the setting in which the current research will be conducted in. Having done this, it now becomes possible to state the aims of the current research and the predictions that have been made.

The first aim of the research is to determine what influence the fulfilment of pre-training expectations has on organizational commitment at the conclusion of basic recruit training. This aspect of the study is essentially a replication of Tannenbaum et al.'s (1991) research, and will follow their lead by controlling for a number of variables that may have an influence on organizational commitment. In addition to this conceptually similar variables to training fulfilment will also be included in any analyses. For this research the other two variables that will be included are trainee reactions and training adequacy. In this way, the unique contribution of each variable to the variance in organizational commitment can be identified, and any overlapping variance between these three variables will be discarded. From the findings of Tannenbaum et al. (1991) and numerous other research efforts linking fulfilled expectations to organizational commitment and employee retention (e.g. Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis. 1992) the following hypotheses can be generated:

Hypothesis 1. Greater levels of fulfilment of pre-training expectations will be predictive of greater organizational commitment at the end of basic training.

Hypothesis 2. Greater levels of positive affective reactions to training will be predictive of greater organizational commitment at the end of basic training.

Hypothesis 3. Greater levels of perceived training adequacy will be predictive of greater organizational commitment at the end of basic training.

Following the suggestion of Tannenbaum et al. (1991), the current study will investigate recruit's organizational commitment in their post-training environments. Specifically, the second aim of this study is to determine the influence of training fulfilment on the organizational commitment of recruits six weeks after the conclusion of basic training. While this post-training aspect was not addressed by Tannenbaum et al. (1991), other research would suggest that socialization strategies such as basic training have reasonably long term influences on the attitudes of employees (e.g. Bauer & Green, 1994; Meyer & Allen, 1988). In line with this the following hypotheses can be proposed:

Hypothesis 4. Greater levels of fulfilment of pre basic training expectations will be predictive of greater organizational commitment six weeks after the conclusion of basic training.

Hypothesis 5. Greater levels of positive affective reactions to training will be predictive of greater organizational commitment six weeks after the conclusion of basic training.

Hypothesis 6. Greater levels of perceived training adequacy will be predictive of greater organizational commitment six weeks after the conclusion of basic training.

The final part of this study will be a closer examination of the expectations and perceptions that recruits have of basic recruit training. The aim of this part is to determine what aspects of basic training that recruits perceive as being better or worse than expected. Previous research would suggest that recruits expect greater challenge and personal development than is actually perceived (Whitworth et al., 1978; McCone, 1995). These findings promote the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7. Recruits will find expectations of basic training associated with higher order needs, to be less fulfilled than those expectations associated with lower order needs.

Having established the aims and hypotheses for the study, the next two chapters will describe the detailed methodology and results. The final chapter will discuss the degree of support the results gave to the hypotheses in light of the research and theory presented in the previous few chapters.

CHAPTER FIVE

Method

5.1 Respondents

Respondents consisted of 184 New Zealand Army TF personnel, from a variety of army corps and trades on their basic recruit training course (148 males, 35 females, 1 unspecified). Two recruit courses, both conducted at the Army Depot in Waiouru, were used as sources of participants for this study. Those who agreed to participate in the initial stage of the research had ages ranging from 17.2 to 39.0 years (M=22.36, S.D.=4.81). Over four-fifths (82.2 percent) of respondents had never been married compared with 13.9 percent who were either married or in a de facto relationship. A further 3.9 percent were divorced or separated.

Respondents were asked to indicate their highest educational qualification. Approximately one third (36.5 percent) had no formal high school qualifications and another third (33.7 percent) had school certificate passes. A further 12.9. percent had a University Entrance, Higher School Certificate, or University Bursary qualification. Of the remainder, 11.3 percent had some sort of trade certificate and 5.6 percent had a university level qualification.

The ethnicity of respondents was determined by a self report measure using categories derived by the New Zealand Department of Statistics (1993). Of the respondents who answered this question 62.8 percent described their ethnic background as solely New Zealand European or pakeha, and 29.5 percent indicated that were either solely New Zealand Maori or a combination of New Zealand Maori and European. Of the remainder, 4.4 percent said they were of a Pacific Island ethnic group, and a further 3.3 percent were of other ethnic groups or ethnic combinations.

Respondents were asked to indicate their civilian job status, from which 60.1 percent said that they were employed either full-time (48.3 percent) or part-time (12.8 percent). A further thirty percent were unemployed and 7.9 percent were involved in education or training. The remainder (1.1 percent) said that their job status did not fall into any of the other categories.

5.2 Measures

Organizational Commitment: Organizational commitment was measured by 12 items from the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). The OCQ normally consists of 15 items designed to assess an employee's affective commitment to his or her employing organization. Three of these items were deleted because of their inappropriateness to the TF situation. Respondents were asked to respond to statements representing their possible feelings about their Territorial unit or the Territorials in general (e.g. 'I feel very little loyalty towards my Territorial unit', 'I am proud to tell others that I am part of the Territorials'). A seven point scale was used to determine the extent of their agreement or disagreement with the statement. Responses ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) with a mid-point of 4 indicating neither agreement nor disagreement. Item scores were then totalled and divided by the number of items that were answered. Thus rendered a score between one and seven with higher scores indicating higher commitment. A large amount of validity and reliability data has been presented by Mowday et al. (1979) for the OCQ. Measures of internal consistency have produced alpha co-efficients ranging from .82 to .93. For the current study alpha co-efficients for each of three separate administrations were .81, .80, and .83. A detailed validation strategy has also been carried out by Mowday et al. (1979) and this determined that the OCQ has adequate convergent and discriminant validity, and also has satisfactory predictive validity.

Training Fulfilment: Training fulfilment was measured in a similar way to that described by Tannenbaum et al. (1991), although some minor changes were made to better adapt the measure to the current study. The training fulfilment measure consisted of three elements: **training expectations, training desires,** and **perceptions of training**. Recruits' training desires and expectations were gathered at the beginning of basic recruit training, whereas their actual perceptions were determined at the conclusion of basic training. Twenty three items for use in the training fulfilment measure were taken from the Survey of Recruit Expectations (SRE; McCone, 1995), which is an instrument developed by the New Zealand Army for the purposes of identifying potential recruits who may have unrealistic expectations about basic training. An

additional three items, established after discussions with a number of non-military associates of the author and their perceptions of recruit training, were also incorporated into this measure. For the determination of recruit expectations and recruit desires each item was written in the future tense (e.g. 'Basic training will push me to my limits', 'some staff will abuse or swear at recruits'). Training expectations were determined by asking respondents to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed with the statement on a five point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A mid-point of three indicated neither agreement nor disagreement. Training desires were established by asking recruits how much they hoped basic training would or would not be like the statement. Responses were also presented on a five point scale, but these ranged from 1 (I strongly hope that it *is not* like this) to 5 (I strongly hope that it *is* like this). A mid-point of 3 was given the anchor statement of 'I don't mind if it is like this or not'. It should be noted that this method of establishing training desires differed slightly from Tannenbaum et al. (1991) who presented recruits with statements beginning with 'I hope...' and agree / disagree anchor statements on their response scale. As was the case with Tannenbaum et al. (1991), these scores were recoded to range from -2 to 2. For training perceptions, which were gathered at the conclusion of recruit training, each statement was modified so that it was written in the past tense (e.g. 'Basic training pushed me to my limits', 'some staff abused or swore at recruits'). Respondents were then asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement on a five point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree). Computation of an overall training fulfilment score was established by applying the scores from the three component items to the following formula:

$$\sum_{}^{n} (P_i - E_i)\ D_i$$

Where P is training perceptions, E is training expectations, D is training desires (salience), i is the item number, and n is the number of items (Tannenbaum et al., 1991, p.763). For each item triad a score ranging from -8 to 8 was established with negative scores indicating that the particular aspect described in the item was worse than expected and positive scores indicating that it was better than expected. A score of zero indicated that the aspect either (a) had no salience (i.e. neutral desire) to the recruit, or (b) was exactly as they expected. The alpha co-efficient for this scale was .68.

Recruits' Affective Reactions: Recruits' affective reactions were measured by the two items used by Tannenbaum et al. (1991). These were 'I liked basic training' and 'I have been happy during my time at Recruit Company'. Wording on the items was altered slightly to that used by Tannenbaum et al. (1991) in order to better reflect the military institution. Recruits responded to each statement by indicating their degree of agreement or disagreement on a seven point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). A mid-point of 4 indicated neither agreement nor disagreement. Higher scores on this scale reflected more positive affective reactions to basic recruit training. The alpha reliability for this scale quoted by Tannenbaum et al. (1991) was .84 and for this study was .79.

Training Adequacy: Recruits' perceptions of training adequacy were measured by modifying the three items from the training adequacy sub-scale of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979; cited in Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr, 1981). The three items from this sub-scale are 'I do not have enough training to do my job well', I have more than enough training skills to do my job well', and 'I have all the skills I need in order to do my job well'. For the purposes of this research each of these items was modified by replacing the words 'to do my job well' with a statement of performance from the list of performance objectives for the recruit course (e.g. 'I have more than enough training skills to be able to perform buddy aid', 'I have all the skills I need in order to construct a shell scrape', 'I do not have enough training to be able to relate the map to the ground'). In total 13 statements such as these were developed representing all of the training objectives for the course except those which had a level one training rating (i.e. they were only instructed to a minimum standard). Recruits were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statement by way of a seven point scale. Responses ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) with a mid-point of 4 indicating neither agreement nor disagreement. Higher scores (on a rating of 1 to 7) indicated greater perceived training adequacy. The alpha co-efficient for this study was .79.

Pre-Basic and Post-Basic Training Done With Home Units: At the beginning of basic training recruits were asked to indicate the number of days prior to commencing recruit training that they had spent doing various types of training with their Territorial unit. These types of training were (1) weekend training as a 'buddy' (i.e. a non-enlisted soldier), (2) weekend training as an enlisted soldier, (3) annual field exercises, (4) basic preparation courses (i.e. those courses specifically developed by units to prepare new enlistees for basic training), and (5) other training not included within the other four. Six weeks after basic training the recruits were asked to indicate the number of days that they had spent in various types of training after their basic recruit course had concluded. The types of training were (1) specialist / Corps training, (2) weekend training, (3) army courses, and (4) other training not included in the previous three categories. For the purposes of the analyses totals from the various categories were summed to give an overall total of pre-basic and post-basic training.

Marital Status: Recruits were asked to indicate their marital status from a choice of 'never married' , married / remarried (including defacto)', 'separated / divorced', and 'widowed'. For the purposes of the analysis subjects were classed as either married (including those who were married, remarried, and defacto) or unmarried (including those who were never married, separated, divorced, and widowed).

Highest Educational Qualification: Recruits indicated their highest educational qualification from a choice of 'No school qualification', 'school certificate passes', 'school qualifications, University Entrance and above', 'Trade certificate or professional certificate', and 'University degree, diploma, or certificate'.

Sex: Sex was coded '0' for males and '1' for females.

Age: Recruits were asked to give the month and year of their birth and this was subsequently used to calculate their chronological age in years.

5.3 Procedure

The research was longitudinal in design, and used three separate self-report questionnaires to collect the data. There were three questionnaire administrations carried over a period of about nine weeks. The first was conducted at the beginning of basic recruit training (phase one), the second at the conclusion of basic recruit training (phase two), and the third six weeks after the conclusion of basic training (phase three).

Phase one was conducted within 48 hours of arrival at the Army Depot within the confines of the recruit training environment. The researcher explained the study to the recruits (including all aspects of ethical considerations) and solicited their participation in the research. Those who agreed to participate were required to fill out a consent form which also gave the researcher the recruits' home addresses (for phase three). At this point names were also matched to unique identifying numbers thus ensuring confidentiality. The first questionnaire was administered in a single group session and included measures of recruits' initial commitment, training expectations and desires, previous training with home units, and questions regarding biographic data. As was previously mentioned, 184 recruits participated in this phase of the research. It should also be noted that although Tannenbaum et al. (1991) indicated that a 48 hour period was too lengthy for determining training expectations (owing to the possibility of expectations changing as a result on initial experiences), logistical constraints prevented an earlier administration of the first questionnaire.

The second phase was conducted at the conclusion of basic recruit training (approximately three weeks after phase one). Prior to administering the second questionnaire recruits were reminded of the details of the study and given the opportunity to withdraw from the research if they desired. The questionnaire contained measures of organizational commitment, affective reactions to basic training, actual perceptions of basic training, and the degree of training adequacy. As was the case with the first questionnaire, this one was also administered in a single group session. Because of the closeness of administration times, particularly between phases one and two, the problem of a consistency confound (i.e. subjects trying to maintain a

consistent response) with the organizational commitment measure was created. To control this, recruits were instructed to base their responses on how they felt about the Territorials at that exact moment in time. Of the 184 respondents who participated in phase one, 168 were available to participate in phase two. The remainder represented those recruits who either returned home during basic training, were in hospital, or did not wish to participate further in the research.

The third phase was conducted approximately six weeks after the conclusion of basic recruit training, and consisted of a questionnaire mailed out to the home addresses of recruits who had participated in both phases one and two. This questionnaire determined recruits' levels of organizational commitment at that point in time, and the amount of training that they had conducted with their home units during the period between phase two and phase three. Recruits were asked to fill out the questionnaire and return it to the researcher via a self return envelope. It should be pointed out that there was some divergence as to the time the questionnaires were returned to the researcher. Although the questionnaires were mailed to recruits at the six week mark, response times ranged from a few days to several weeks. The measures for organizational commitment for this stage, therefore, are probably more indicative of organizational commitment at seven or eight weeks after basic training. In total 104 completed questionnaires were returned representing an overall response rate of 62.65 percent.

CHAPTER SIX

Results

6.1 Mean Scores and Correlations Between Variables.

Table 1 displays the means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations between continuous variables.

Table 1. *Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability Coefficients, and Intercorrelations.*

Variable	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Age (1)	22.36	4.81	-.-	.32***.05		.17	.09	.01	-.01	.02	-.14	-.28**
Education[a] (2)	2.16	1.20		-.-	-.18*	.08	.07	.00	.05	.06	-.10	-.02
Pre-basic Trg. (3)	10.07	15.07			-.-	.08	.21**	.02	.05	.01	.11	.11
Post-basic Trg. (4)	8.41	10.62				-.-	.17	-.09	-.13	.11	.03	.09
Trg. Adequacy (5)	5.50	0.80					(.79)[b]	.31***.10		.36***.40***		.18
Affective React. (6)	5.53	1.24						(.79)	.13	.30***.46***		.12
Trg. Fulfilment (7)	-0.59	0.82							(.68)	-.09	.21**	-.07
OC - Time 1 (8)	5.74	0.85								(.81)	.59***	.46***
OC - Time 2 (9)	5.72	0.75									(.80)	.49***
OC - Time 3 (10)	5.93	0.75										(.83)

Notes:

[a] Education was rated on a 5 point scale ranging from 1 (no school qualifications) to 5 (university degree, diploma, or certificate).

[b] Alpha coefficients are shown on the diagonals in brackets.

* $p<.05$ **$p<.01$ ***$p<.001$

For scores on the organizational commitment (OC) scale, one represented the lowest possible commitment score and seven the highest. As can be seen in Table 1, mean commitment scores at all three points in time were reasonably high. A very minor drop in OC occurred from time one to time two, however a paired *t* test indicated that this decrease was non significant, *t* (166)

= 1.30, p>.05. Scores also showed an increase in OC from time two to time three and this was also non significant, t (104) = -1.68, p>.05.

Marital status and gender differences in organizational commitment scores were also investigated using t tests. Males were found to have slightly higher mean commitment scores at all three points in time, however these differences were non significant (p>.05). Comparisons of married and unmarried subjects showed that unmarried recruits had slightly higher mean commitment levels at the beginning of basic training and six weeks after the conclusion of basic training. These differences between the commitment scores of married and unmarried recruits were, however, non significant (p>.05).

An inspection of the correlation co-efficients in Table 1 reveals that all three measures of OC correlated strongly and positively with each other. Table 1 also shows that OC (time 2) was significantly and positively related to perceived training adequacy, affective reactions to training, and training fulfilment. A similar pattern emerged with OC (time 1), with the exception that training fulfilment displayed a negative correlation co-efficient which was non significant (p>.05). Neither perceived training adequacy, affective reactions to training, nor perceived training fulfilment were significantly related to OC (time 3). Age correlated negatively with OC (time 2) and OC (time 3), although only the latter co-efficient was significant (p<.01). Education displayed small, non significant correlations with OC at all time periods and neither the amount of pre basic nor post basic training with home units, correlated significantly with OC at any time period. There were also a number of significant correlations between the independent variables. Training adequacy was found to be positively and significantly related to the amount of pre-basic training and affective reactions to training. Training fulfilment was not found to be significantly related to any other independent variables.

Training adequacy and affective reactions to training were measured on a seven point scale, with lower scores representing lower perceived adequacy and more negative affective reactions. The mean scores for these variables showed that recruits perceived the training to be highly adequate (M=5.50, S.D. = 0.80), and also had quite positive affective reactions (M= 5.53,

S.D. = 1.24) to basic recruit training (i.e. they liked it). Training fulfilment was derived from three separate scores: training expectations (measured on a scale of 1 to 5), training perceptions (also measured on a scale of 1 to 5), and training desires (measured on a scale of -2 to 2). Training fulfilment was determined by multiplying the difference between perceptions and expectations by training desires. The result was a training fulfilment score that ranged from -8 to 8, with negative scores indicating that basic training was worse than expected and positive scores indicating that basic training was better than expected. The training fulfilment mean of -0.59 showed that while recruits viewed the overall basic training course as slightly worse than expected, the magnitude of this discrepancy was not great.

6.2 Predictors of Organizational Commitment

In order to identify the most significant predictors of organizational commitment, two hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. For both of these regression analyses OC was used as the dependant variable, with the first using OC (time 2) and the second using OC (time 3). This analysis is similar to that used by Tannenbaum et al. (1991) in their study.

Prior to conducting the regression analyses, an inspection of residual properties was carried out to check for violations of assumptions. The resulting analysis of residual properties indicated that there were no multivariate outliers greater than three standard deviations, nor any major violations of the normality assumption. An examination of the distributions of individual variables also showed that none had excessive skewness or kurtosis.

The first regression analysis used OC (time 2) as the dependant variable. Independent variables were entered at three different steps, with age, sex, and education entered on step one, total pre-basic unit training and OC (time 1) entered at step two, and perceived training adequacy, affective reactions to training, and training fulfilment entered at step three. The results of the model, showing beta values for each step, are given in Table 2.

Table 2. *Summary Of Hierarchical Regression Analysis For Variables Predicting Organizational Commitment At Time Two.*

Variable	Step 1 β	Step 2 β	Step 3 β
Age	-0.19	-0.14	-0.14
Sex	0.03	0.05	0.07
Education	-0.05	-0.07	-0.09
Marital Status	0.13	0.10	0.08
O.C. - Time One		0.62**	0.52**
Previous Training		0.07	0.05
Training Adequacy			0.10
Affective Reactions			0.25**
Training Fulfilment			0.16*
R^2	0.03	0.42	0.53
ΔR^2	0.03	0.39**	0.11**

** $p \le .0001$ * $p \le .01$

As can be seen from Table 2, none of the socio-demographic variables entered on step one were significantly predictive of OC (time 2) in the total equation. These four variables produced a multiple correlation of .17, and accounted for three percent of the variance, which was non-significant, $F(4, 146) = 1.09$, $p > .05$. With the addition OC (time 1) and total pre-basic unit training, the multiple correlation increased to .65, and these two new variables accounted for an additional 39.6 percent of the variance in OC (time 2). This change in R^2 was highly significant, $F(6, 144) = 49.66$, $p < .0001$. The addition of the variables of training fulfilment, training adequacy, and affective reactions to training increased the multiple correlation to .73 and contributed another 10.8 percent of explained variance. This change in R^2 was also highly significant, $F(9, 141) = 10.93$, $p < .0001$.

With all nine variables entered into the equation it was possible to determine the predictive power of the regression model. Overall, the nine variables produced an adjusted R^2 figure of .50, thus indicating that 50 percent of the variance in OC (time 2) could be explained by these nine variables. An examination of the beta values in Table 2 shows that increases in age and education were predictive of a corresponding decrease in OC (time 2). However, none of the three socio-demographic variables entered on step one of the equation were significant predictors ($p > .05$) of OC (time 2). By far the best predictor of OC (time 2) was OC (time 1). Not surprisingly, higher levels of OC (time 1) were predictive of higher levels of OC (time 2) and this was highly significant ($p < .0001$). The greater the amount of training done prior to basic training was also found to be predictive of OC (time 2), however this was non significant ($p > .05$). Of the three variables entered on step three, it was found that greater perceived training adequacy, greater levels of training fulfilment, and more positive affective reactions to basic training were all predictive of OC (time 2). However, only the latter two variables were found to be significant. These findings provide support for two out of the three hypotheses that were generated for this aspect of the study.

The second regression analysis used OC (time 3) as the dependant variable. As was the case with the first regression analysis, age, sex, and education were entered as independent variables on step one. The amount of training with home units done after basic training and OC (time 2) were entered at step two, and perceived training adequacy, affective reactions to training, and training fulfilment were entered into the equation at step three. The results of the complete model are shown in Table 3.

The socio-demographic variables entered on step one produced a multiple correlation of .33, which was significant, $F(4,87) = 2.61$, $p < .05$), and accounted for 10.7 percent of the variance. The variables entered into the equation at step two increased the multiple correlation to .57 and accounted for a further 21.5 percent of the variance. This change in R^2 was also significant, $F(6,85) = 13.47$, $p < .0001$. The three variables entered at step three increased the multiple correlation slightly to .58 and accounted for a further two percent of the variance. This change in R^2 was, however, non significant, $F(9,82) = 0.70$, $p > .05$.

Table 3. *Summary Of Hierarchical Regression Analysis For Variables Predicting Organizational Commitment At Time Three.*

Variable	Step 1 β	Step 2 β	Step 3 β
Age	-0.33·	-0.26·	-0.25·
Sex	0.15	0.16	0.18
Education	0.05	0.08	0.07
Marital Status	-0.01	-0.01	-0.03
O.C. - Time Two		0.45··	0.44··
Post-basic Training		0.11	0.08
Training Adequacy			0.11
Affective Reactions			-0.04
Training Fulfilment			-0.08
R^2	0.11	0.32	0.34
ΔR^2	0.11·	0.21··	0.02

** $p \leq .0001$ * $p \leq .05$

An examination of beta values in Table 3 shows that increases in age were significantly predictive of decreases in OC (time 3). None of the other socio-demographic variables were significant predictors (p>.05). Not surprisingly, increases in OC (time 2) were found to be strongly predictive of increased levels of OC (time 3). More post-basic training with home units, increased perceived training adequacy, negative affective reactions to basic training, and lower perceptions of training fulfilment were all predictive of greater levels of OC (time 3), although none of these were significant (p>.05). Despite the identification of two significant predictors of OC (time 3) the results of this second regression analysis failed to support any of the three hypotheses that were generated for this part of the study.

6.3 Expectations and Perceptions of Training

It was a predicted that recruits would find expectations of basic training associated with higher order needs to be less fulfilled than those associated with lower order needs. In order to test this hypothesis a principal components analysis was conducted on the items of the training fulfilment measure, and mean differences between the various components were tested for statistical significance.

Several checks were conducted to ensure that the 26 items in the training fulfilment scale were amenable to a factor analysis. Correlations between each of the items were examined and three items that failed to correlate significantly (p>.05) with at least one other item were deleted from the sample of items for this analysis. A principal components analysis was then conducted to identify those items that obtained a measure of sampling adequacy lower than, or equal to 0.50. Six items fell into this category and were also deleted from the sample of items for analysis. This left 17 items remaining for the factor analysis proper.

For these remaining items, factorability was assessed through the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test of Sampling Adequacy, which produced a figure of 0.72. Under Kaiser's (1974, cited in Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989) rating this result would be described as 'middling', but nonetheless quite factorable. In addition to this, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity produced a figure of 501.64 which was highly significant, thus showing that the correlation matrix was not an identity matrix. Overall, these preliminary findings indicated that the remaining 17 items in the training fulfilment scale were amenable to a factor solution.

Principal Components Analysis was used as the extraction technique. Using the scree plot as a guide and the interpretability of the solution in light of its theoretical background, it was decided that five factors was the most appropriate number to be extracted. In total, these five factors accounted for 52.4 percent of the variance of the 17 items, thus indicating that the solution was far from ideal. However, an investigation of residuals in the reproduced correlation matrix showed that only 24.3 percent of the residuals were greater than .09.

Orthogonal varimax rotation was employed because of its ease of interpretation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). The results of the rotated solution indicated that five items did not have a factor loading greater than .50 on any of the factors. Loadings that were greater than .50 of the remaining items on each of the factors are shown in Table 4.

For each principal component, a mean factor score of expectations, desirability, perceptions, and an overall fulfilment score were derived by summing the items loading onto each component and dividing these scores by the number of items in each component. Although this method of obtaining factor scores is relatively simplistic, Tabachnick and Fidell (1989), note that this method is usually adequate in many research circumstances. Differences between the perception and expectation scores in each factor were assessed through paired t tests, as were differences between the overall fulfilment scores between the factors.

The first principal component accounted for 19.4 percent of the variance, had four items that had loadings greater than .50. These were 'Basic training was exciting', 'Basic training was very challenging', 'Basic training pushed me to my limits' and 'There was a lot of hard work during basic training'. These items collectively relate to the **Physical Challenge** of basic training, and thus the factor was labelled accordingly. The mean expectation, desire, and perception scores of the items in this component were derived for further analysis. As has already been mentioned the expectation and perception scores ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), and the desire scores ranged from -2 (strongly hope that it *is not* like this) to 2 (strongly hope that it *is* like this). The mean expectation score for the first component was 4.50 (S.D. = 0.46), which indicated that subjects strongly believed that basic would be challenging and exciting, push them to their limits, and that there would be a lot of hard work. These expectations were also viewed as desirable (M = 1.13, S.D. = 0.80). The expectation score (M = 4.14, S.D. = 0.65) indicated that recruits still saw basic as being all of these things but not to the extent that they expected. This difference between expectations and perceptions was highly significant, $t(162) = 6.63$, p<.001. Overall, this component produced a mean training fulfilment score of -0.41 (S.D. = 1.10) and an alpha co-efficient of .64.

Table 4. *Loading Values, Communalities, Eigenvalues, and Percentage of Variance Following a Principal Components Extraction and Varimax Rotation of Training Fulfilment Items.*

Item (written in past tense)	Communalities	1	2	3	4	5
		Principal Component				
Basic training was very challenging.	0.57	0.75				
Basic training pushed me to my limits.	0.55	0.73				
Basic training was exciting.	0.53	0.61				
There was a lot of hard work during basic training.	0.53	0.54				
I am better at getting on with others at the end of basic training.	0.62		0.75			
I have changed a lot over basic training.	0.58		0.67			
I am more mature at the end of basic training.	0.45		0.62			
Army issue clothing was comfortable to wear.	0.56			0.71		
The equipment issued was in good condition.	0.55			0.62		
The lecture rooms were comfortable with plenty of space.	0.45			0.59		
Recruits trained outside in any weather conditions.	0.52				0.70	
The showers and toilets were clean and sanitary.	0.42				0.59	
The staff were friendly and approachable.	0.67					0.81
The staff were interested in the recruits.	0.50					0.65
Eigenvalues		3.3	1.8	1.4	1.3	1.2
Variance (%)		19.4	10.5	8.2	7.4	6.9

Note: Only factor loadings greater than .5 are shown.

Component 1 was subsequently labelled 'Physical Challenge'; Component 2 'Personal Development'; Component 3 'Equipment Adequacy'; Component 4 'Work / living Conditions'; Component 5 'Staff Approachability'.

The second principal component accounted for 10.5 percent of the variance and had three items load onto it with loadings greater than 0.50. These items were 'I am better at getting on with others at the end of basic training', 'I have changed a lot over basic training' and 'I am more mature at the end of basic training'. Together these items were seen as representing aspects of **Personal Development** while on basic training. An analysis of the mean expectation score

for this factor showed that subjects expected to see a change in themselves, be better at getting on with others, and be more mature by the end of basic training (M = 4.09, S.D. = 0.71). Recruits saw this expected personal development as being highly desirable (M = 1.25, S.D. = 0.67). The mean perceptions score showed that subjects agreed that some personal development had taken place, but not to the extent that they had expected (M=3.79, S.D. = 0.77). This difference between expectations and perceptions was highly significant, t (160) = 5.10, p<.001. The overall mean training fulfilment score produced by this component was -0.66 (S.D. = 1.16) and its alpha co-efficient was .59.

The third principal component accounted for a further 8.2 percent of the variance and had the three items of 'Army issue clothing was comfortable to wear', 'The equipment issued was in good condition', and 'The lecture rooms were comfortable with plenty of space' display loadings greater than 0.50. These three items were perceived as reflecting the degree of **Equipment Adequacy** while on basic training. The mean expectation score for the third component indicated that recruits expected that army clothing would be comfortable to wear, equipment would be in good condition, and the lecture rooms would be comfortable (M=3.48, S.D. = 0.77). These expectations were also seen as desirable (M = 1.10, S.D. = 0.89). The perceptions of theses items by the end of basic training showed that subjects thought that the equipment was slightly more adequate than expected, however this difference was non significant, t (165) = -1.19, p<.05. The mean overall training fulfilment score for this component was -0.17 (S.D. = 1.51) and the alpha co-efficient was .48.

The fourth principal component accounted for a further 7.4 percent of the variance, and had two items load onto it. These two items were 'Recruits trained outside in any weather conditions' and 'The showers and toilets were clean and sanitary'. While these items would appear to be unrelated it was decided that they possibly reflected a **Working / Living Conditions** dimension. The mean expectation and perception scores for this component were equal (M = 4.30) thus indicating that recruits saw their living and working conditions as being exactly as expected. The desirability score indicated that the items in this factor were slightly desirable (M

= 0.98. S.D. = 0.79). The mean overall training fulfilment score for this component was -0.36 (S.D. = 1.18) and the alpha co-efficient was .18.

The fifth component accounted for a further 6.9 percent of the variance. and also had two items load onto it. These items were 'The staff were friendly and approachable' and 'The staff were interested in the recruits'. and thus the factor was labelled **Staff Approachability**. Mean expectation scores showed that recruits slightly expected staff to be friendly. approachable. and interested in them (M = 3.57, S.D. = 0.86). Perceptions scores showed that recruits found staff to be less friendly, approachable, and interested in them than expected (M = 3.31, S.D. = 0.91). and this difference was significant, t (162) = 4.10, p<.001. The mean overall training fulfilment score for this factor was -0.56 (S.D. = 1.46) and the alpha co-efficient was .40.

Checks for differences between the mean fulfilment scores of each factor were carried out via paired t tests. The mean fulfilment score on the Personal Development factor showed that this factor was significantly less fulfilled than Physical Challenge (t (166) = 2.23, p<.05), Equipment Adequacy (t (166) = -3.88), p<.001), and Working / Living Conditions (t (166) = -2.58, p<.05). The mean scores on the Equipment Adequacy and Staff Relations dimensions were also significantly different, t (165) = 2.70, p<.01). No other mean scores were found to be significantly different at the .05 level. Overall, these differences provide limited support for the hypothesis. The trend of higher order needs (such as personal growth and physical challenge) being less fulfilled than lower order needs (such as equipment adequacy and living / working conditions) is apparent, although differences between these components is not as great as expected.

A further two regression analyses were conducted to see if the inclusion of the five fulfilment subscales (instead of the single 'global' fulfilment score) could improve the power of the previous two regression equations in predicting OC. No significant improvements in the amounts of explained variance were found in either of the regression analyses. The low internal consistency of the sub-scales (the alpha co-efficients of which fall well below the .80 'benchmark' suggested by Bryman & Cramer, 1994) also fails to vindicate using the sub-scales

in further analyses. Using this rationale it was decided to continue discussing training fulfilment as a single global construct when looking at the predictors of OC.

CHAPTER SEVEN
Discussion

Organizational commitment refers to "a bond or linking of the individual to the organization" (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p. 171). The closeness of the organizational commitment definition to the concept of morale, means that organizational commitment is especially important in military organizations. Organizational commitment has also been touted as a good predictor of organizational turnover (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Abelson, 1987; Somers, 1995) and concerns of personnel retention in military organizations (e.g. McKubre, 1976; Stephens, 1977, 1982) means that organizational commitment is a desirable attitude in soldiers.

A result of these positive outcomes has been an interest in the causes and predictors of commitment. Mowday et al. (1982) have suggested that organizational commitment can be influenced by factors as diverse as the personal characteristics of the employee, role factors, characteristics of the job, structure of the organization, and experiences while on the job. Despite evidence which supports, to varying degrees, the influence of these characteristics, the static cross-sectional nature of these findings is overly simplistic. Organizational commitment is seen as developing over a number of identifiable stages (e.g. Mowday et al., 1982; Buchanan, 1974), with the early period of organizational membership being identified as particularly important in commitment development (e.g. Morrow & McElroy, 1987).

This current research was a partial replication of one conducted by Tannenbaum et al. (1991) on a sample of United States naval recruits. The study had three aims: (1) to determine what influence the fulfilment of pre-basic training expectations had on the organizational commitment of TF recruits at the conclusion of basic training; (2) to investigate what influence the fulfilment of pre-basic training expectations had on the organizational commitment of TF recruits six weeks after the conclusion of basic training; and (3) to determine what aspects of basic training recruits perceived as being better or worse than expected. Several hypotheses were also derived, and the level of support for these will be discussed in due course. Prior to this, however, it is worthwhile to discuss some of the more general findings.

7.1 Attitude Levels of Recruits During And After Basic Training

Results from the study showed that mean scores on the OCQ ranged from 5.72 at the end of basic training to 5.93 six weeks after basic training. When comparing these means to those reported by Mowday et al. (1982)[1] , it would appear that TF recruits display a high level of commitment towards the TF. For example, out of nine diverse samples reported by Mowday et al. (1982), only one had a mean score on the OCQ greater than the sample used in this study. The mean levels of commitment found in this study are also similar in magnitude to those reported in Tannenbaum et al. (1991).

In addition to the size of the organizational commitment scores, it is also interesting to note the stability of them. Over the nine week period from which measures were taken there was a slight decrease followed by a slight increase in commitment scores. However, no significant change in organizational commitment occurred over the period of the study. On the face of it this would tend to indicate that mean organizational commitment levels are a somewhat stable entity during this period.

In addition to stability of overall commitment levels, stability of commitment at the individual level was also confirmed. The correlational analysis indicated that all three measures of organizational commitment were strongly and positively related to each other. This result concurs with previous research which has noted similar trends in longitudinal measures of commitment (e.g. Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Mowday & McDade, 1979).

Two other points concerning the stability of organizational commitment are worthy of further discussion. Firstly, organizational commitment appears to remain stable despite the changing nature of TF service that the recruits would have experienced over the period of the study. In order to clarify this statement it needs to be realised that the first two measures of organizational

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[1] Sample groups and means reported by Mowday *et al* (1982) are as follows: Public employees (M=4.5, S.D.=0.90), classifed university employees (M=4.6, S.D.=1.30), hospital employees (M=5.1; S.D.=1.18), bank employees (M=5.2, S.D.=1.07), telephone company employees (M=4.7, S.D.=1.20), scientists and engineers (M=4.4, S.D.=0.98), auto company managers (M=5.3, S.D.=1.05), and retail-management trainees (M=6.1, S.D.=0.64).

commitment were completed at the beginning and end of the recruit course when the recruits were involved in full-time military training. The third measure was taken approximately six weeks after the conclusion of basic training when TF service would have been done in a part-time 'moonlighting' capacity (Feldman, 1990). This movement from full to part-time work could quite reasonably be expected to influence the stability of commitment levels. Several research efforts have noted differences between full and part-time workers in their behavioral and affective responses to work (e.g. Miller & Terborg, 1979; Nkomo & Fields, 1994) including organizational commitment (e.g. Lee & Johnson, 1991). This finding would suggest that employees moving from full to part-time work in the same organization retain reasonably consistent levels of commitment (in the short term at least).

A second point worth raising in relation to the stability of commitment is the relatively short tenure of the recruits. Despite Mowday et al.'s proposal that organizational commitment is quite malleable during early tenure, this current finding would tend to indicate that it is reasonably resolute in TF recruits. It should, however, be noted that some recruits had spent considerable periods with their TF units (as evidenced by the amount of pre-basic training that was done) prior to commencing the recruit course. It could thus be argued that commitment to the TF could have stabilized somewhat before the beginning of basic training.

In addition to commitment levels, it is also worthwhile looking at how recruits perceived basic training. It was found that recruits believed that the training was highly adequate and that they generally enjoyed it. This last finding concurs with that reported by Faris (1976) whereby 72 percent of United States recruits indicated positive feelings for the army despite being in the throes of "a time when hardships of Army life are at their peak and privileges are fewest" (p.13). Tannenbaum et al. (1991), when using the same affective reactions measure with their sample of United States naval recruits, also reported that mean scores indicated a general liking for their basic training experience.

These findings are intuitively unusual. Basic training is, by its nature, a demanding period and it would be reasonable to expect that recruits would report less liking for basic training than

these studies would suggest. A possible explanation for these findings can be taken from cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957, cited in Myers, 1988) which has already been used to describe the process by which individuals become attitudinally committed to organizations through their actions. By applying this theory to a recruit's affective reactions to basic training it could reasonably be suggested that the difficult and uncomfortable experiences of basic training would have led to a period of dissonance among recruits. This would be especially likely when one considers that there is little physical reward (i.e. underjustification) and the decision to participate on basic training is entirely voluntary. These factors would have served to increase the dissonance of recruits that would have resulted in an attitudinal adjustment. In this case, recruits would have adjusted their affective reactions to the training in order to reconcile them to their continued participation.

Results from this study showed that, overall, recruits viewed basic training as slightly worse than expected. This result is consistent with that found by Tannenbaum et al. (1991), and further adds to other research which has noted discrepancies between the expectations and perceptions of basic recruits (e.g. Hoiberg & Berry, 1978; McCone, 1995). In accordance with the aims of the study, a more detailed examination of the expectations and perceptions of recruits was made, and these will be discussed in later sections.

7.2 Predictors of Organizational Commitment

This part of the research aimed to determine what influence the fulfilment of pre-training expectations had on recruits' organizational commitment at the conclusion of, and six weeks after, basic training. It was hypothesized that greater training fulfilment, more positive affective reactions to training, and greater perceived training adequacy would be predictive of greater organizational commitment immediately after, and six weeks following basic recruit training.

In order to investigate this, two hierarchical regression analyses were conducted with organizational commitment at the end of basic training, and organizational commitment six weeks later as the dependant variables. The method employed by this study to determine the predictive ability of training fulfilment is, as Tannenbaum et al. (1991) point out, a very

rigorous one. Not only were socio-demographic variables controlled for, but also prior organizational commitment levels and the amount of training that individuals had done with their home units. In addition to this, two intuitively similar variables to training fulfilment (training adequacy and affective reactions) were also incorporated into the regression equation.

The results of the first regression analysis (with organizational commitment at the conclusion of basic training as the dependant variable) supported two of these hypotheses. Specifically, it was found that greater levels of training fulfilment and more positive affective reactions were predictive of greater organizational commitment at the conclusion of basic recruit training. The third hypothesis failed to find support in that perceived training adequacy was not found to be a significant predictor of organizational commitment at that point. The results of the regression analysis also showed that none of the socio-demographic variables, nor the amount of previous training done with home units, were predictive of organizational commitment at that point. Organizational commitment at the beginning of basic training was found to be the best predictor out of all of the variables.

These results support the findings of Tannenbaum et al. (1991). In their study, trainee reactions and training fulfilment were both significant positive predictors of organizational commitment, although the magnitudes of the beta values for these variables were slightly greater than those of the current study[2]. Organizational commitment at the beginning of basic training was also found to be a positive predictor, although the beta value in Tannenbaum et al.'s (1991) study was less than that in the current research. It is also worthy to note that the current research was able to account for 50 percent of the variance in organizational commitment at that time, with nine independent variables. This compares favourably to Tannenbaum et al. (1991) who could only account for approximately 39 percent.

In the second regression analysis (with organizational commitment six weeks after the completion of basic recruit training as the dependant variable), it was found that only age and

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[2] In Tannenbaum et al's (1991) study the trainee reactions variable had a ß of 0.32, the training fulfillment variable had a ß of 0.20, and organizational commitment at the beginning of basic training had a ß of 0.34.

organizational commitment at the end of basic training were significant predictors of organizational commitment at this point. The hypotheses that greater training adequacy, more positive affective reactions, and greater perceived training fulfilment would be predictive of greater organizational commitment six weeks after basic training failed to find support. Additionally, considerably less variance in commitment at this point could be explained by the nine variables (34 percent) than was the case with commitment at the end of basic training.

The finding that training fulfilment was predictive of organizational commitment at the conclusion of basic training confirms a large number of previous research efforts which have linked the fulfilment of pre-entry expectations with higher organizational commitment (e.g. Meyer & Allen, 1987; Angle & Perry, 1983; Wanous et al., 1992). However, the failure of training fulfilment in predicting organizational commitment six weeks after the conclusion of basic training leads to a questioning of the pervasiveness of fulfilling expectations during recruit training on outcomes such as organizational commitment. This finding contradicts that of Bauer and Green (1994) who noted that more realistic pre-entry expectations of doctoral students were related to greater commitment to graduate school at nine months into the programme. Additionally, Meyer and Allen (1988) noted that confirmed expectations had an effect on organizational commitment 11 months after entry, and Buchanan (1974) found that they were predictive of organizational commitment in the fifth year of tenure.

The lack of pervasiveness of training fulfilment on organizational commitment evidenced in this part of the study may be a consequence of the part-time nature of TF service. Miller and Terborg (1979) provide a theoretical basis for attitudinal differences between full and part-time workers, which also sheds some light on this current finding. Miller and Terborg (1979) use partial inclusion theory (Katz & Kahn, 1978, cited in Miller & Terborg, 1979) to explain these differences and describe the essential features of the theory as follows:

> According to this concept, people are involved in the functioning of a social
>
> system on a segmented or partial basis. Although the social system of the
>
> organization makes demands on employees for specific behaviors and attitudes,
>
> the organization does not control all physical and psychological factors of each

employee. The amount of required inclusion may be expected to vary with individuals and positions in the organization (p.385).

They go on to note that part-time workers would probably be less included in the employing organization's social system than their full time counterparts, and their investment in other extra organizational systems would be greater than full-time employees.

When relating this concept back to the current study, it could be argued that when the recruits were on basic training they had a higher level of inclusion in the military social system. A result of this is that factors associated with military training (such as the extent of expectation fulfilment) would have far greater influence on recruits' attitudes towards the TF. In the period after basic training, recruits' inclusion in the military social system was reduced considerably and their attitudes towards the TF were likely to be influenced by other social systems to which the recruits belong. This current finding may also be seen to question the worth of socialization tactics such as basic training for establishing affective outcomes in part-time workers.

The findings associated with the socio-demographic variables are also worthy of discussion. Overall, age appeared to be the most consistent predictor among the socio-demographic variables. Both at the end of basic training and six weeks afterwards, increases in age were predictive of decreases of organizational commitment although only the latter finding was significant. It is noteworthy that this finding is in the opposite direction to that predicted by Mowday et al. (1982). Other research has also tended to suggest that age is positively related to commitment and organizational survival (Meyer & Allen, 1984; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Cohen, 1992). Added to this, Stolzenberg and Winkler (1983), after reviewing a number of studies into military attrition, noted that recruits who enlisted before they were aged 18 years were more likely to resign early than those who had enlisted when they were older. While it is difficult to provide a definitive explanation for this finding, it could be reasoned that younger recruits were more 'malleable' to the influences of basic training and thus developed greater organizational commitment. Some moderate support for this explanation can be taken from Clum, Hoiberg,

and Kole (1969) who noted that younger recruits' attitudes were more likely to change in a positive direction during recruit training.

The three remaining socio-demographic variables (gender, education, and marital status) proved to be non significant predictors of organizational commitment at all three points in time. Comparisons between the mean commitment scores of males and females, and the mean commitment scores of married and unmarried recruits, further confirmed that there were no differences between these groups. However, it should also be remembered that the sample used had relatively few women and was dominated by unmarried individuals. These features may therefore make it a less than optimal sample for testing relationships between gender, marital status, and organizational commitment.

Another finding worthy of discussion was the influence of the amount of pre and post basic training done with home units on commitment. Results showed that increases in the amount of pre and post-basic training were predictive of increases in organizational commitment at the end of basic and six weeks after basic respectively. Both of these findings were, however, non significant with pre-basic training displaying a very low beta value when predicting organizational commitment at the end of basic training. Post-basic training displayed a slightly higher beta value when predicting organizational commitment six weeks after basic training, but this was also non significant.

This latter finding is interesting when one considers it in light of Mowday et al.'s (1982) idea of felt responsibility and its influence on commitment. Mowday et al. (1982) notes that individuals who engage in behaviors that increase their felt responsibility to the organization will become more committed. In terms of part time military organizations it would be reasonable to assume that recruits who participate in greater numbers of home unit training periods would be increasing their felt responsibility to the organization. However, the correlational and regression analyses failed to support this contention. It may be possible that this non significant result may have occurred because of the limited amount of training that is available to soldiers after recruit training. The amount of training that could possibly be done by a TF soldier is quite often

restricted by budgetary constraints (Calder, 1994), and thus may not reflect a soldier's 'desire' to engage in home unit training.

7.3 Expectations and Perceptions of Basic Training

The extent to which employee's pre-entry expectations are met has been the focus of a number of research efforts, which have shown that more accurate expectations are associated with decreased early attrition and increased organizational commitment (e.g. Wanous, 1976, 1980; Premack & Wanous, 1985; Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992). Research into military organizations has also shown similar results (Tannenbaum et al., 1991; Hoiberg & Berry, 1978). In light of this, the current study aimed to identify aspects of basic training that were perceived by recruits as being better or worse than expected.

In order to do this, the method of determining training fulfilment used by Tannenbaum et al. (1991) was adopted. This method had an advantage over previous expectations research in that it incorporated a measure of the desirability of each expectation. Previous research, such as Hoiberg and Berry (1978) has looked only at the differences between expectations and perceptions. Intuition would suggest that even if an expectation was not met, its effect on such outcomes as attrition and organizational commitment would depend on how desirable or undesirable the recruit viewed it. This desirability aspect of the measure also addresses the suggestion by Wanous et al. (1992) that research needed to look at the direction of discrepancies. In addition to this, Tannenbaum et al. (1991) notes that this method eliminates the need of recruits to retrospectively assess what the pre-training expectations were. In this case expectations and desires were assessed at the beginning of recruit training, and perceptions at the conclusion.

In line with previous research it was hypothesized that recruits would find those aspects of basic training associated with higher order needs to be less fulfilled than those aspects associated with lower order needs. This hypothesis related to Wanous's (1980) view of the 'matching' of individual needs with the organization's ability to meet these needs. Wanous

(1980) used Alderfer's (1972, cited in Wanous, 1980) three category model of human needs. The three types of needs are described by Wanous (1980) as follows:

> ...Existence needs refer to one's desire for material things - a very tangible type of need. Related needs refer to one's posture with other people; the whole host of interpersonal relationships is included here. Finally, Growth needs refer to an inward orientation towards one's self (p.13).

The hypothesis for this part of the study predicted a greater mismatch between the growth needs of recruits and the organization's ability to meet them, than the lower order needs of recruits.

Results showed partial support for this hypothesis. The aspect of recruit training that was found to be least fulfilled was personal development. Although the magnitude of this negative fulfilment was not great, it was found that recruits expected greater personal development, saw the expectation of personal development as desirable, but perceived lower than expected levels of personal development. Another aspect of basic recruit training which was extracted through the principal components analysis, and could be interpreted as a higher order need, was the amount of challenge that basic training presented to recruits. This aspect was also found to be worse than expected, although the magnitude of this non-fulfilment was small and not significantly different from some of the aspects associated with lower order needs. It was found that the majority of recruits expected basic training to be challenging, were desirous of this, but found it not to be as challenging as expected.

This result confirms several previous findings. Hoiberg and Berry (1978) recommended that greater opportunities for personal growth be incorporated into United States naval work settings, since discrepancies between expectations and perceptions on this factor were predictive of poor performance. In a study of New Zealand RF recruits, McCone (1995) noted that although most recruits perceived some personal development to have occurred over basic training, the change for some was not as great as expected. McCone (1995) also found that all recruits expected basic training to be tough, yet by the end some saw the experience as easier than expected.

While not being specifically investigated in this part of the research, it is nonetheless worthwhile to discuss the implications of this finding on the commitment of soldiers. Not only does job challenge and personal development appear to be positively related to commitment (e.g. Martin & O'Laughlin, 1984; Dornstein & Matalon, 1989), but it also seems to be a factor commonly cited in attrition studies (e.g. Hodge, 1988). The importance of job challenge also appears to be a salient aspect among New Zealand TF personnel. In a report conducted by Whitworth, Frowen, & McEwan (1978) the following was noted:

> The desire of the TF soldier for challenge or something new is a common theme which repeats throughout this report. A challenge is essentially a demand to extend one's self and develop personally. This challenge is lost if little is expected from soldiers or if nothing new is provided in training. The demands made need to be realistic and achievable by part time volunteer soldiers, who then achieve the satisfaction of a challenge met and a job well done. Such successful effort not only increases commitment, but also contributes to the personal development motive and raises the soldier's self image (p.165).

This piece of research also indicated that perceived lack of challenge was a commonly referred to reason for non-attendance at TF parades, and that any perceived lack of challenge may be due to discrepancies between TF advertising and the realities of TF service.

In addition to the challenge and personal development aspects of basic training being found to be worse than expected, staff relations towards recruits also showed some discrepancy between expectations and perceptions. Specifically, it was found that recruits perceived instructors to be less friendly, approachable, and interested in recruits than they had expected at the beginning of basic training. Not surprisingly, it should also be noted that recruits indicated that staff who were friendly, approachable, and interested in recruits were highly desirable.

The importance of this finding becomes apparent when one looks at previous research. Faris (1976) noted, in a study of United States drill sergeants, that these drill sergeants often assume a paternalistic role towards the recruits. Additionally, Hoiberg and Berry (1978) noted that dis-

enrolees from naval schools often perceived less support from instructors than they had expected. They also suggest that individuals who fit poorly into these military environments needed greater support from peers and instructors. Overall, when one considers the important role that instructors play in modelling appropriate values, behaviors, and attitudes, and the responsibility that they have for recruit development (The Training Model, n.d.), this perceived lack of approachability becomes disturbing. Added to this, the socialization literature draws attention to the necessity of instructors to be helpful in order to enhance the commitment of recruits (Louis et al., 1983).

This part of the study also has implications for military recruitment. Advertisements for joining the military have often focused on the excitement, adventure, and challenge that the army offers, as well as the building of character and personal strengths (Keck & Mueller, 1994). Additionally, Whitworth et al. (1978) point out that many TF soldiers perceive a discrepancy between the amount of challenge that recruiters promise and the actual challenge of TF service (which is less challenging than expected). When one views the current findings in light of the literature pertaining to realistic recruitment (e.g. Wanous, 1980; Wanous et al., 1992), and its influence on employee retention and commitment, it could reasonably be argued that the military should refocus its 'sales pitch'. It should, however, be realised that the military is in a 'catch 22' situation. The ultimate role of the military is performance in combat thus necessitating having personnel who desire challenge and excitement. Unfortunately, it would appear that the peacetime role of the military often cannot meet these needs.

7.4 Limitations of the Study and Directions For Future Research

A number of limitations with the current study should be noted. Firstly, the generalizability of the findings may be limited when one considers the unique situation from which they were taken. Reserve military forces, because of their role and organizational culture, have few comparable civilian organizations whose workforce is predominantly part-time. This, combined with the uniqueness of the socialization strategy that was investigated here, probably precludes a generalization of findings to most other organizations and socialization tactics.

This non generalizability provides a number of suggestions for future research. Firstly, this author believes that it would be worthwhile conducting a comparative study of TF and RF recruits, particularly in terms of investigating the pervasiveness of basic training on post-basic attitudes. The current study indicated that TF basic training has very little influence on the post basic training attitudes of TF soldiers. This was explained through inclusion theory, and the part-time nature of TF service. This explanation could be tested further by using a sample of RF recruits. If the explanation for the current finding 'holds up'. it would be expected that RF basic training would have a more pervasive influence on post basic attitudes.

In addition to this, the non influence of basic training on post-basic training attitudes leads to a possible conclusion that other factors would be influencing organizational commitment at this point. Future research should aim to identify these factors. Possibilities might include research into satisfaction with aspects of TF service, and conflicts between TF service and family and primary occupation. It may also be worthwhile to investigate the role of expectations and perceptions of TF service (other than basic training) and its role on organizational commitment of TF service personnel after basic training.

Another suggestion for future research lies with the identification of underlying dimensions of training fulfilment and the influence that each of these dimensions has on organizational commitment. The current study provided evidence of the existence of these underlying dimensions, but the lack of internal consistency among the various components precluded a further analysis looking at each component's influence on organizational commitment. In light of this study's findings and the theoretical basis provided by Wanous (1980), future research may find it worthwhile to identify what aspects of training fulfilment are influential on organizational commitment.

Possible limitations concerning the measures used in this research should also be noted. Firstly, there has been concern expressed by some authors on the prevalence of self report measures especially in the area of organizational commitment research (e.g. Morrow, 1983). While there are concerns about socially desirable responding and deliberate distortion on the OCQ (Mowday

et al., 1982), the anonymity of the participants in this research would have hopefully increased the motivation to provide accurate responses. The use of self report formats has also been mentioned as a source of similar methods variance, and several authors have called for more behaviorally based measures of commitment to alleviate this artifact (e.g. Morrow, 1983; Martin & O'Laughlin, 1984). However, recent research by Spector (1987) has suggested that the problem of method variance may be 'mythical' and only applicable to poorly designed measures. Considering the large amount of evidence that has accumulated on the validity and reliability of the OCQ (Mowday et al., 1979) it would seem that the measure is sound in terms of its psychometric properties and thus probably free from this artifact.

Secondly, the expectations and desires measure of the training fulfilment scale were not obtained until the recruits had been at the Army Depot for 48 hours. Unfortunately, logistical constraints precluded measuring these variables earlier, thus resulting in the possibility that reported expectations had altered from actual expectations. This limitation of the study is particularly relevant when determining what aspects of basic training were better or worse than expected. Within the 48 hour period prior to being measured, recruits would have encountered several aspects of basic training such as barrack accommodation, food, and army clothing, and may have altered their expectations about these aspects accordingly. This limitation could therefore explain the finding that expectations associated with lower order needs were more congruent to the actual situation. Future research should therefore aim to alleviate this concern by replicating this aspect of the study with a measure of expectations taken prior to the socialization period.

A final limitation that should also be mentioned concerns the type of statistical analysis used in the current study. While the use of linear regression analysis was perfectly adequate to investigate the influence of a number of variables on organizational commitment, several more sophisticated statistical techniques could have been employed to model the longitudinal relationships more accurately. Future research should take the lead of a number of previous research efforts (e.g. Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Meyer & Allen, 1987) and make use of these more sophisticated statistical tools in longitudinal research.

7.5 Conclusions

The outcomes of this research have provided further limited evidence linking realistic expectations with increased levels of organizational commitment. It has also extended the large volume of previous literature that has looked at realistic expectations during organizational entry, by applying it to a socialization / training environment. Additionally, the research has applied these findings to a sample of part-time employees, and has allowed an insight into the worth of socialization efforts amongst these workers.

Several tentative conclusions can be made. Firstly, TF recruits have unrealistically high expectations of basic training, particularly about the extent to which they will develop personally throughout the course. It can be concluded that the New Zealand Army could address this expectation / perception disparity by either (a) providing recruits with more accurate pre-basic training information on what they can expect from it, or (b) incorporate more activities that will promote self development within the basic training programme.

These conclusions should be tempered, however, through consideration of the worth of such interventions from the point of view of the New Zealand Army. While realistic expectations were found to predict commitment at the conclusion of basic training, it was non-influential six weeks later, despite commitment levels remaining stable. From this finding it can be concluded that the influence of expectations concerning this socialization effort on the commitment of TF recruits is reasonably short lived. In light of this, efforts to reduce the expectation / perception gap in recruit training may not be worthwhile. Commitment enhancing interventions may be more effective after basic recruit training when the recruit has returned home and is able to see the 'realities' of TF service in the light of family, work, and other outside obligations.

Overall, this research has shed some light on the socialization of part-time workers and its influence on pro-organizational outcomes. While it is difficult to generalise these conclusions to other part-time workers, it does provide some support for those such as Rotchford and Roberts (1982), who advocate the development of a separate 'psychology of work' for part-time

other part-time workers, it does provide some support for those such as Rotchford and Roberts (1982). who advocate the development of a separate 'psychology of work' for part-time employees. In light of this, and the increase in part-time employment in New Zealand (Department of Statistics, 1994), research into part-time employees is likely to be a fruitful and worthwhile avenue for investigation in the future.

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APPENDIX ONE

Questionnaire Given To Recruits At The Beginning Of Basic Training

THE INFLUENCE OF BASIC RECRUIT TRAINING ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT DURING EARLY TERRITORIAL FORCE SERVICE

Questionnaire One

Please read the following points carefully:

- You should not write your name on this questionnaire. We have already entered your identifying number on the first page and this is all that we require.

- THIS IS NOT A TEST. There are no right or wrong answers. Try to be as honest as possible when answering questions.

- Try and answer all questions and be careful not to miss any pages.

- Make sure that all of the answers you give are your own. Do not discuss your answers with anyone else.

- If you do not understand anything in the questionnaire then ask the researcher to explain it.

- This questionnaire should take no more than 25 minutes to complete.

When you have finished wait for the researcher to collect the questionnaire off you.

□□□□

Firstly we would like some general background information about you. Circle the number for the answer that is best for you, or give details in the spaces provided.

What month and year were you born?

Write your answer here. _____/19_____

□□□□

Month   Year

What is your sex?

Tick one.   Male ◯   Female ◯   □

What is your **present** marital status? *Circle the **number** that best corresponds to you.*   □

Never married..................................... 1

Married/ Remarried (including defacto)...... 2

Separated / divorced........................... 3

Widowed.. 4

What is your highest educational qualification? *Circle the **number** that best corresponds to you.*   □

No school qualification......................... 1

School certificate passes....................... 2

School qualifications, University

Entrance and above........................... 3

Trade certificate or Professional

certificate....................................... 4

University degree, diploma, or

certificate....................................... 5

What ethnic group do you belong to?   □□

Tick the circle or circles which apply to you. You may choose more than one.

European / Pakeha........................... ◯

New Zealand Maori........................... ◯

Pacific Island groups......................... ◯

Other, specify _____......... ◯

What Corps do you belong to? *Write the answer in the space below*   □□

_____

Please indicate how many **DAYS** you have spent doing the following types of training with your Territorial unit.

Weekend training as a non-enlisted soldier. *(e.g. 'Buddy weekends')* _____ ☐☐

Weekend training as an enlisted soldier _____ ☐☐

Annual Field Exercises *(e.g. Annual camps)* _____ ☐☐

Basic preparation training *(e.g. FAT Courses)* _____ ☐☐

Other *(e.g. Army Courses, LSV intakes, other basic training courses)* _____ ☐☐

How would you describe your current civilian job status? *Circle the **number** that best corresponds to you.*

Full-time employed........... 1

Part-time employed........... 2

Unemployed................... 3

Engaged in training or

    education................... 4

Other, specify_____. 5   ☐

Listed below and on the next page are a number of statements about how you might feel about your Territorial unit. Read each statement carefully, then decide how much you agree or disagree with it <u>at this exact moment in time.</u> Circle the number that best describes your level of agreement or disagreement according to the scale below. Be as honest as possible. THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS. If you find that the statement is not applicable to you, or you have difficulty answering it, leave it and move onto the next statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

Example:

I am proud to be part of my Territorial unit..................................... 1 2 3 4 ⑤ 6 7

This response shows a person who only slightly agrees with this statement i.e. They are only slightly proud of being a part of their Territiorial unit.

I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally

expected in order to help my Territorial unit be successful..................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7   ☐

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

I describe the Territorials to my friends as a great organization

to work for.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I feel very little loyalty to the Territorials.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I would accept almost any position in my unit in order to

keep working for the Territorials.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I believe that my values and those of the Territorials are

very similar.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I am proud to tell others that I am part of the Territorials...................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

The Territorials really inspires the very best of me in the

way of job performance... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

It would take a big change in my present circumstances

to cause me to leave the Territorials.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

There is not too much to be gained by sticking with the Territorials.......... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I really care about the fate of my Territorial unit............................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

For me, the Territorials is the best of all possible

organizations for which to work... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

Deciding to join the Territorials was a definite

mistake on my part... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

Listed below and on the next few pages are a series of statements about things that you might expect during basic training. Read each statement carefully and then decide how much you agree or disagree with it by using the TOP scale. After you have done this decide how much you **hope** basic training will be like the statement by using the BOTTOM scale. Indicate your choice by circling the appropriate number. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers.

Use this scale to show how much you agree or disagree with the statement.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
Use this scale to show how much you hope basic will be like the statement.	1	2	3	4	5
	I strongly hope that it IS NOT like this		I don't mind if it is like this or not		I strongly hope that it IS like this

Example:

Basic training instructors will be kind and considerate.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... ① 2 3 4 5

How much do you hope that it is or is not like that?.......................... 1 2 3 4 ⑤

*These responses firstly shows a person who strongly disagrees with this statement (that is they **do not** think that basic training instructors will be kind and considerate at all) but strongly hopes that it is like that (that is they **hope** that basic training instructors **will** be kind and considerate).*

Researcher Use Only

Recruits will keep to themselves and I will make few friends.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?.......................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Army issue clothing will be comfortable to wear.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?.......................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Basic training will push me to my limits.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?.......................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Use this scale to show how much you agree or disagree with the statement.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree Nor Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
Use this scale to show how much you hope basic will be like the statement.	1 I strongly hope that it IS NOT like this	2	3 I don't mind if it is like this or not	4	5 I strongly hope that it IS like this

Basic training will be exciting.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

The food during basic training will be good quality.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Recruits will talk to each other about their personal problems.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

I will be more self disciplined after I have finished basic training.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

The staff will be interested in the recruits.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Basic training will be very challenging.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Basic training will be like an outdoors job, 8.00am to 5.00pm.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Use this scale to show how much you agree or disagree with the statement.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree Nor Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
Use this scale to show how much you hope basic will be like the statement.	1 I strongly hope that it IS NOT like this	2	3 I don't mind if it is like this or not	4	5 I strongly hope that it IS like this

Recruits will help each other by sharing possessions (e.g. clothes).

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

I will be fitter and more physically confident after basic training.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Recruits will work as a team on basic.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

The staff will be friendly and approachable.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

I will be more mature at the end of basic training.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

All the equipment issued will be in good condition.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Showers and toilets will be clean and sanitary.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Use this scale to show how much you agree or disagree with the statement.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree Nor Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
Use this scale to show how much you hope basic will be like the statement.	1 I strongly hope that it IS NOT like this	2	3 I don't mind if it is like this or not	4	5 I strongly hope that it IS like this

Recruits will train outside in any weather conditions.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

During basic training the team will be more important than the individual.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

I will change a lot over basic training.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

The lecture rooms will be comfortable with plenty of space.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Some staff will abuse or swear at recruits.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

There will be a lot of hard work during basic training.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

I will be better at getting on with others by the end of basic training.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?........................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Use this scale to show how much you agree or disagree with the statement.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree Nor Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
Use this scale to show how much you hope basic will be like the statement.	1 I strongly hope that it IS NOT like this	2	3 I don't mind if it is like this or not	4	5 I strongly hope that it IS like this

The barracks will be physically uncomfortable.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?............................ 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Staff will offer constructive criticism, and tell you when you do well.

How much do you agree or disagree with this statement?..................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

How much do you hope that it is or is not like this?............................ 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Listed below are some statements that might describe what sort of person you are. Read each statement carefully then, using the scale below, indicate how much you agree or disagree with it by circling the appropriate number. Your answers should reflect what you think AT THIS EXACT MOMENT IN TIME. Be as honest as possible and remember that there are no right or wrong answers.

Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True
1	**2**	**3**	**4**

Example:

I am confident in my own ability to get things done.................................... 1 2 ③ 4

This response shows an individual who thinks that this statement is a moderately true description of themselves i.e. they feel that, more often than not, they are confident in their own ability to get anything done.

Researcher Use Only

I always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough..................... 1 2 3 4 ☐

If someone opposes me, I can find means and ways to get what I want............. 1 2 3 4 ☐

It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals........................ 1 2 3 4 ☐

Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True
1	**2**	**3**	**4**

Researcher Use Only

I am confident that I could deal effectively with unexpected events.................... 1 2 3 4 ☐

Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations........ 1 2 3 4 ☐

I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort............................. 1 2 3 4 ☐

I remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my own coping

abilities.. 1 2 3 4 ☐

When I am confronted with a problem, I usually find several solutions.............. 1 2 3 4 ☐

If I am in a 'bind', I can usually think of something to do............................. 1 2 3 4 ☐

No matter what comes my way, I'm usually able to handle it......................... 1 2 3 4 ☐

APPENDIX TWO

Questionnaire Given To Recruits At The End Of Basic Training

Regt.Number_____Initials_____ Surname_____

THE INFLUENCE OF BASIC RECRUIT TRAINING ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT DURING EARLY TERRITORIAL FORCE SERVICE

Questionnaire Two

Please read the following points carefully:

- Write your name on the top right hand corner of this page. When the researcher collects the questionnaire he will write your unique identifying number on the next page and remove this one. In this way your confidentiality can be maintained.

- THIS IS NOT A TEST. There are no right or wrong answers. Try to be as honest as possible when answering questions.

- Try and answer all questions and be careful not to miss any pages.

- Make sure that all of the answers you give are your own . Do not discuss your answers with anyone else.

- If you do not understand anything in this questionnaire then ask the researcher to explain it.

- This questionnaire should take about 20 minutes to complete.

When you have finished wait for the researcher to collect this questionnaire from you.

Listed below are a number of statements about how you might feel about your Territorial unit. Read each statement carefully, then decide how much you agree or disagree with it <u>at this exact moment in time.</u> Circle the number that best describes your level of agreement or disagreement according to the scale below. Be as honest as possible. THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS.

If you find that the statement is not applicable to you, or you have difficulty answering it, leave it and move onto the next statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

Example:

I am proud to be part of my Territorial unit... 1 2 3 4 ⑤ 6 7

This response shows a person who only slightly agrees with this statement i.e. they are only slightly proud of being a part of their Territorial unit.

I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally   Researcher Use Only

expected in order to help my Territorial unit be successful..................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I describe the Territorials to my friends as a great organization

to   work   for... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I feel very little loyalty to the Territorials....................................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I would accept almost any position in my unit in order to

keep working for the Territorials.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I believe that my values and those of the Territorials are

very   similar... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

I am proud to tell others that I am part of the Territorials........................ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

There is not too much to be gained by sticking with the Territorials........... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I really care about the fate of my Territorial unit................................. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

For me. the Territorials is the best of all possible
organizations for which to work... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

Deciding to join the Territorials was a definite
mistake on my part.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

The Territorials really inspires the very best of me in the
way of job performance.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

It would take a big change in my present circumstances
to cause me to leave the Territorials... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I have been happy during my time at Recruit Company....................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I liked basic training.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

Listed below are a number of statements that describe how basic recruit training was. Read each statement carefully then indicate how much you agree or disagree with it by circling the appropriate number according to the scale below. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Example:

The physical training was very difficult... ①2 3 4 5

This response shows an individual who strongly disagreed with the statement i.e. they did not find the physical training very difficult at all.

Researcher Use Only

Recruits kept to themselves and I made few friends............................ 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Army issue clothing was comfortable to wear.................................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Basic training pushed me to my limits... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Basic training was exciting... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

The food during basic training was good quality............................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Recruits talked to each other about their personal problems................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

I am more self disciplined now that I have completed basic training.......... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

The staff were interested in the recruits.. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Basic training was very challenging.. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Basic training was like an outdoors job, 8.00am to 5.00pm................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Recruits helped each other by sharing possessions (e.g. clothes)............. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

I am more fitter and physically confident after basic training................. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Recruits worked as a team on basic.. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

The staff were friendly and approachable... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

I am more mature at the end of basic training................................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

The equipment issued was in good condition..................................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

The showers and toilets were clean and sanitary................................ 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Recruits trained outside in any weather conditions............................. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5

During basic training the team was more important than the individual...... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

I have changed a lot over basic training basic training......................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

The lecture rooms were comfortable with plenty of space.................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Some staff abused or swore at recruits... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

There was a lot of hard work during basic training............................ 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

I am better at getting on with others at the end of basic training.............. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

The barracks were physically uncomfortable.................................... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Staff offered constructive criticism, and told you when you did well........ 1 2 3 4 5 ☐

Listed below are some statements which describe whether you feel trained enough to do certain tasks. Read each statement carefully then show how true you think they are by circling the appropriate number according to the scale below. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers.

If you find that the statement is not applicable to you, or you have difficulty answering it, leave it and move onto the next statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

Example:

I **do not** have enough training to be able to pass an RFL.....................1 ②3 4 5 6 7

This response shows an individual who moderately disagrees with this statement i.e. they feel that they do have enough training to pass an RFL most of the time, although not always.

Researcher Use Only

I have all the skills I need in order to practice safety

when using firearms, pyrotechnics and blinds................................. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I do not have enough training to know the action to be

taken on discovering a fire.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

I have more than enough training skills to participate

in a company parade... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I do not have enough training to be able to live in the field.................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I have all the skills I need in order to stalk to an objective..................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I do not have enough training to be able to relate the map

to the ground.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I have more than enough training skills to be able to qualify

on the IW Steyr live firing TOET test.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I have all the skills I need in order to perform the duties

of a sentry... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I do not have enough training to be able to react to a fire

control order... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I have more than enough training skills to be able to perform

buddy aid.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I have all the skills I need in order to construct a shell scrape................. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I have more than enough training skills to be able to qualify on

the IW Steyr Qualification One Range Practice.................................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I do not have enough training to be able to indicate targets.................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

Listed below are some statements that might describe what sort of person you are. Read each statement carefully then, using the scale below, indicate how much you agree or disagree with it by circling the appropriate number. Your answers should reflect what you think AT THIS EXACT MOMENT IN TIME. When answering be as honest as possible.

Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True
1	**2**	**3**	**4**

Example:

I am confident in my own ability to get anything done......................... 1 2 ③ 4

This response shows an individual who thinks that this statement is a moderately true description of themselves i.e. they feel that more often than not they are confident in their own ability to get anything done.

Researcher Use Only

I always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough...................... 1 2 3 4 ☐

If someone opposes me, I can find means and ways to get what I want.............. 1 2 3 4 ☐

It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals...................... 1 2 3 4 ☐

I am confident that I could deal effectively with unexpected events.................... 1 2 3 4 ☐

Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations........ 1 2 3 4 ☐

I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.............................. 1 2 3 4 ☐

I remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my own coping

abilities.. 1 2 3 4 ☐

When I am confronted with a problem, I usually find several solutions.............. 1 2 3 4 ☐

If I am in a 'bind', I can usually think of something to do............................... 1 2 3 4 ☐

No matter what comes my way, I'm usually able to handle it........................... 1 2 3 4 ☐

APPENDIX THREE

Questionnaire Mailed To Recruits Six Weeks After Basic Training

THE INFLUENCE OF BASIC RECRUIT TRAINING ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT DURING EARLY TERRITORIAL FORCE SERVICE

Questionnaire Three

This is the last questionnaire for this study. Please complete it and return it as soon as possible.

Please read the following instructions carefully:

- You should not write your name on this questionnaire. We have already entered your identifying number on the first page and this is all that we require.

- THIS IS NOT A TEST. There are no right or wrong answers.

- All answers are confidential. Try to be as honest as possible when answering questions.

- Try and answer all questions and be careful not to miss any pages.

- Make sure that all of the answers you give are your own . Do not discuss your answers with anyone else.

- This questionnaire should take no more than 10 minutes to complete.

IMPORTANT: **Make sure that all the answers you give reflect how you feel**
AT THIS EXACT MOMENT IN TIME.

When you finish, put the completed questionnaire in the attached envelope and post it. No stamp is required.

☐☐☐☐

Listed below are a number of statements about how you might feel about your Territorial unit. Read each statement carefully, then decide how much you agree or disagree with it <u>at this exact moment in time.</u> Circle the number that best describes your level of agreement or disagreement according to the scale below. Be as honest as possible. THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS.

If you find that the statement is not applicable to you, or you have difficulty answering it, leave it and move onto the next question.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

Example:

I am proud to be part of my Territorial unit.. 1 2 3 4 ⑤ 6 7

This response shows a person who only slightly agrees with this statement i.e. they are only slightly proud of being part of their Territorial unit.

I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally

Researcher Use Only

expected in order to help my Territorial unit be successful...................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I describe the Territorials to my friends as a great organization

to   work   for.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I feel very little loyalty to the Territorials... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I would accept almost any position in my unit in order to

keep   working   for   the   Territorials... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I believe that my values and those of the Territorials are

very   similar... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I am proud to tell others that I am part of the Territorials...................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

The Territorials really inspires the very best of me in the

way of job performance... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

It would take a big change in my present circumstances

to cause me to leave the Territorials.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

There is not too much to be gained by sticking with the Territorials.......... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I really care about the fate of my Territorial unit................................. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

For me, the Territorials is the best of all possible

organizations for which to work... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

Deciding to join the Territorials was a definite mistake on my part........... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

Listed below are some statements that might describe what sort of person you are. Read each statement carefully then, using the scale below, indicate how much you agree or disagree with it by circling the appropriate response. Your answers should reflect what you think AT THIS EXACT MOMENT IN TIME. There are no right or wrong answers so when answering be as honest as possible.

Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True
1	2	3	4

Example:

I am confident in my own ability to get anything done.................................. 1 2 ③ 4

This response shows an individual who thinks that this statement is a moderately true description of themselves i.e. they feel that more often than not they are confident in their own ability to get things done.

Researcher Use Only

I always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough....................... 1 2 3 4 ☐

If someone opposes me, I can find means and ways to get what I want.............. 1 2 3 4 ☐

	Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**

It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals......................... 1 2 3 4 ☐

I am confident that I could deal effectively with unexpected events.................... 1 2 3 4 ☐

Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations........ 1 2 3 4 ☐

I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.............................. 1 2 3 4 ☐

I remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my own coping

abilities.. 1 2 3 4 ☐

When I am confronted with a problem, I usually find several solutions.............. 1 2 3 4 ☐

If I am in a 'bind', I can usually think of something to do............................ 1 2 3 4 ☐

No matter what comes my way, I'm usually able to handle it......................... 1 2 3 4 ☐

Listed below are some statements about whether you feel trained enough to do certain tasks. Read each statement carefully then show how much you agree or disagree with it by circling the appropriate number according to the scale below. Remember there are no right or wrong answers.

If you find that the statement is not applicable to you, or you have difficulty answering it, leave it and move onto the next statement.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

Example:

I **do not** have enough training to be able to pass an RFL..................... 1 ②3 4 5 6 7

This response shows an individual who moderately disagrees with this statement i.e. they feel that they do have enough training to pass an RFL most of the time, although not always.

Researcher Use Only

I have all the skills I need in order to practice safety

when using firearms, pyrotechnics and blinds.................................. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I do not have enough training to know the action to be

taken on discovering a fire.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

I have more than enough training skills to participate

in a company parade.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I do not have enough training to be able to live in the field.................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I have all the skills I need in order to stalk to an objective..................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I do not have enough training to be able to relate the map

to the ground.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I have more than enough training skills to be able to qualify

on the IW Steyr live firing TOET test.. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I have all the skills I need in order to perform the duties

of a sentry... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I do not have enough training to be able to react to a fire

control order... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I have more than enough training skills to be able to perform

buddy aid... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I have all the skills I need in order to construct a shell scrape.................. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I have more than enough training skills to be able to qualify on

the IW Steyr Qualification One Range Practice.................................. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

I do not have enough training to be able to indicate targets.................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐

Please indicate how many DAYS of each type of training you have done with the Territorials **since you finished basic recruit training.**

Specialist / Corps training   _____   □□

Weekend training   _____   □□

Army courses   _____   □□

Other   _____   □□

Do you want to receive a summary of the results of the research? (circle one)

YES   **NO**   □

Note: If you do want a summary of the results, and your address in early 1996 will be different to the one I have sent this questionnaire to, please write your new address in the space below (this address will be removed from the questionnaire prior to data entry in order to protect your confidentiality):

_____

_____

_____

_____

If you want to suggest any ways in which the questionnaires, or any aspect of the running of this study could have been improved, please write these in the space below.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY