ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY: EFFECTS ON WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE

SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN CONSTRUCTION MANAGEMENT IN THE FACULTY OF ENGINEERING, THE BUILT ENVIRONMENT AND INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY AT THE NELSON MANDELA METROPOLITAN UNIVERSITY

BY

GCEBEKILE TIKHOKHILE DLAMINI

PROMOTER: PROFESSOR WINSTON SHAKANTU

APRIL 2015
DECLARATION

This thesis is submitted under the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University regulations for the award of a PhD degree by research. I, Gcebekile Tikhokhile Dlamini with student number 210263393 hereby declare that this thesis is original and that no portion of it has been submitted in support of any application for another degree to any other university or institute of learning.

Signed: ..............................................

Date: .....................................................
ABSTRACT

The South African construction industry plays an important role in the economy and overall development of the country, with respect to its total fiscal contribution and the total number of people who are employed. In addition, it is a major contributor to infrastructure development. However, the human resource base within this industry is confronted with a plethora of challenges that are inherent to the construction industry. These manifest themselves in stressful working conditions and long working hours, labour intensive jobs, reduced job security due to job losses and short-term projects, and the feeble health and safety (H&S) standards. Together with a variety of socio-economic and political issues, these challenges form a perceived and broad organisational culture of this industry, which impacts on the industry’s productivity. As construction management efforts in the development of the human resources base increase, the industry recognises that work-life balance is an important and critical issue in the 21st century. Construction management is a discipline that embodies two interdependent dimensions; the management of the business of construction and the management of projects. Of the latter, the key principles thereof are, as part of a management strategy, planning, organizing, leading, controlling and coordinating projects. To achieve these strategic components, an effective human resource base is required. Work-life balance is therefore a management issue and organizational culture sets a backdrop from which it can be understood. This study focused on the status of the organisational culture of the production establishments that form part of the construction industry and the manner in which it manifests on the work-life balance of the workers. Furthermore, the correlation between work-life balance and individual work performance was examined. An exploratory research approach was adopted and the research technique followed an interview protocol. The main findings demonstrate that the South African construction industry is predominantly a clan culture with minor characteristics of the hierarchy, adhocracy and market cultures. Furthermore, work-life balance is difficult to attain and it influences individual work performance. The main conclusion is that organizational culture in construction firms is imbalanced. Thus, the main recommendation is that the industry adopts a balanced organizational culture and modern human resource practices.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

- To my Heavenly father, through Him all things are possible. Our dreams are safely tucked away in his bosom and they unfold day by day according to his grace and provision. Thank you Holy Trinity for the guidance throughout this journey which you shaped even before I was conceived.

- Professor Winston Shakantu. Where do I even begin? One thing I know is that I am seeing further because I stood on your shoulders. You are my giant. Thank you for believing in me. Thank you for the consistent encouragement. Thank you for being in my corner. Because of you, I will work hard to transfer your ethic to others. Thank you for all those spontaneous meetings. I always walked out of your office feeling like I could conquer the world.

- To the cidb and CBE for financial support

- To Dr Amanda Werner for your support, insight on the issues of life and generosity.

- To my parents who, upon reflecting on their own journeys with education chose to endeavour to provide us with opportunities to be educated beyond their own milestones. Special reference goes to my late father Austin SV Dlamini, who believed in my academic capabilities. Sibongile Dlamini, my mother for her support and encouragement. I am blessed to have known a woman of virtue that she is.

- My family, which includes my siblings and my aunts, uncles and cousins. Words to describe my gratitude for your love and support elude me.

- My true friends who have stuck by my side, through thick and thin. Special reference to Thandeka, Siphokazi, Nontokozo and Phumi for being my rocks.

- My colleagues at the Centre of Excellence, Bella, Anita and Kithi for the motivation.

- Special thanks to Professor Kahlilu Kajimo-Shakantu and Dr Fidelis Emuze for assisting me at the beginning of this journey.

- To the centre mentors, Dr Marle Van Eyk, Professor Gaye Le Roux, Professor Bruce Robertson. Thank you for nurturing me with your experience and wisdom.

- To the participants of this study for their enthusiasm and their high level of cooperation.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION........................................................................................................... i
ABSTRACT.................................................................................................................. ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS............................................................................................ iii
LIST OF TABLES ........................................................................................................ xiii
LIST OF FIGURES ...................................................................................................... xiv
LIST OF ACRONYMS ................................................................................................. xvi

CHAPTER ONE.......................................................................................................... 1
BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY.................................................................................. 1
1.1 Introduction ......................................................................................................... 1
1.2 Context of Culture in South Africa: National underpinnings ......................... 2
1.3 Organisational Culture in the South African Construction Industry .............. 6
1.4 Problem Formulation ......................................................................................... 8
   1.4.1 Problem Statement ...................................................................................... 10
   1.4.2 Main Research question ........................................................................... 10
   1.4.3 Research Sub-questions .......................................................................... 10
   1.4.4 Aim and Objectives of the Research ....................................................... 11
1.5 Justification for the Research ........................................................................... 12
1.6 Research Design and Methodology .................................................................. 13
   1.6.1 Research Paradigm and Method ............................................................... 13
2.6 The Characteristics of the Industry ............................................................ 27
  2.6.1 Projects and Contracting .................................................................. 27
  2.6.2 Informality of the Industry .............................................................. 33
  2.6.3 The National Contractor Development Programme ....................... 35
  2.6.4 The Human Resource Base in the Construction Industry .............. 37
  2.6.5 Globalization and Construction ...................................................... 40
2.7 Critical Issues in the Construction Industry ........................................... 43
  2.7.1 Sustainable Businesses and the Quality Outputs............................. 43
  2.7.2 Addressing Unethical Behaviour in Construction ......................... 44
  2.7.3 Sustainable Development and the Environment ......................... 45
2.8 Summary of this Chapter ..................................................................... 48

CHAPTER THREE ............................................................................................ 49
THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL PERSPECTIVES .................................... 49
3.1 Introduction ............................................................................................ 49
3.2 Organizational culture as a concept .................................................... 50
  3.2.1. The Themes of Organizational Culture ........................................ 55
  3.2.2 The Importance of Organizational Culture .................................... 62
3.3 Theories relating to Organizational Culture ......................................... 64
  3.3.1 Leadership ..................................................................................... 64
  3.3.2 Trait Theory Paradigm/ Qualities Approach .................................... 66
3.3.3 Behavioural Leadership Theory Paradigm/ Style Approach .................. 66
3.3.4 Contingency Leadership Paradigm .............................................. 68
3.3.5 Contemporary Approaches ....................................................... 69
3.4 Measuring the organisational culture of an organisation .................... 71
3.5 Critiques of Organizational Culture .............................................. 76
3.6 The general status of work-life balance ....................................... 77
3.7 Work-life Balance as a Concept in Literature .................................. 82
  3.7.1 Emotional - Behavioural Aspect .............................................. 90
3.8 Strategies for achieving Work-life balance: Work place programmes and policy ................................................................. 91
3.9 The debate on the significance of work-life balance ....................... 96
3.10 Overview of Individual Work Performance .................................. 99
  3.10.1 Individual Performance as a concept ...................................... 101
  3.10.2 Individual Determinants of performance ................................. 102
  3.10.3 External Determinants of performance ..................................... 107
3.11 Theories Relating to Work Life Balance and Work Performance ....... 108
  3.11.1 Motivation .............................................................................. 108
  3.11.2 Maslow Hierarchy of Needs .................................................... 109
  3.11.3 Herzberg’s Two Factor Theory ................................................ 111
  3.11.4 The Equity Theory .................................................................. 112

4.7 Population and Sampling

4.7.1 Sampling Designs in Qualitative Research

4.7.2 Population

4.7.3 Sample Size

4.8 Purposive Sampling

4.9 Sampling process for this study

4.9.1 Study Population

4.9.2 Study Sample

4.9.3 Study Sample Size

4.9.4 Participants of this study

4.10 Strategy of Analysis

4.11 Standards of qualitative research

4.12 Ethical Considerations

4.13 Summary of chapter

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION DATA

5.1 Introduction

5.1.1 Reflection

5.1.2 The data collection process

5.1.3 Limitations during the data collection process
5.1.4 Preparing the data for analysis .................................................. 160

5.2 Biographical data of participants .................................................. 160

5.2.1 Age Range .............................................................................. 162

5.2.2 Sex ......................................................................................... 162

5.2.3 Job Profiles ........................................................................... 163

5.3 Data Presentation and Analysis – Part One ..................................... 163

5.4 Dominant Characteristics ............................................................... 167

5.4.1 Concern for people ................................................................. 168

5.4.2 Profit ...................................................................................... 169

5.4.3 Regulation .............................................................................. 170

5.5.4 Client focus ............................................................................ 171

5.5 Organizational Leadership ............................................................. 172

5.6 Management of Employees ........................................................... 175

5.7 Organizational Glue ..................................................................... 176

5.8 Strategic Emphasis ...................................................................... 178

5.9 Criteria for success ...................................................................... 182

5.10 Additional criteria for analysing organizational culture in construction ...... 184

5.10.1 Race and Diversity ................................................................. 184

5.10.2 The distinction between permanent and wage employees ............ 185

5.10.3 Cross border projects ............................................................ 185
5.10.4 Mentoring ........................................................................................................ 186

5.10.5 The “culture” of not talking about or addressing soft issues .......... 186

5.11 Data Presentation and Analysis – Part Two ................................................... 190

5.11.1 Knowledge of the concept of Work-life balance ....................... 190

5.11.2 Critical issues arising from the data ......................................................... 193

5.11.2.1 Type of employment ............................................................................. 193

5.11.2.2 Time spent at work .............................................................................. 193

5.11.2.3 Work-load and Strain .......................................................................... 195

5.11.2.4 Behaviour ............................................................................................ 196

5.11.2.5 Breakdown of families and other social relationships ................. 197

5.11.2.6 Personal Development Plans ............................................................... 199

5.11.2.7 Personality and Work-life Balance ...................................................... 201

5.11.2.8 Age ...................................................................................................... 201

5.11.2.9 The experiences of women regarding work life balance .......... 203

5.11.2.10 Health and Safety ............................................................................... 205

5.11.3 Strategies for work-life balance in the construction industry ........ 206

5.12 Data presentation and Analysis – Part 3 ..................................................... 209

5.13 Data presentation and Analysis – Part 4 ..................................................... 212

5.13.1 Productivity .............................................................................................. 213

5.13.2 Job satisfaction ......................................................................................... 214
5.13.3 Motivation ................................................................. 215
5.13.4 Work Relationships ...................................................... 216
5.14 Synthesis of the findings and the results ............................... 217
CHAPTER SIX .............................................................................. 220
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS .................. 220
6.1 Introduction ......................................................................... 220
6.2 Problem formulation and objectives ....................................... 220
6.3 History and current status of the South African construction Industry .... 221
6.4 Theoretical and Conceptual perspectives of the study .................... 222
6.5 Research methodology and design ........................................... 225
6. Presentation and analysis of results .......................................... 227
6.6.1 Objective 1 – Nature of the organizational culture in the construction industry ................................................................. 227
6.6.2 Objective 2 – Status of work-life balance in the construction industry .... 229
6.6.3 Objective 3 – Impact of Organizational Culture on Work-life balance .... 230
6.6.4 Objective 4 – Relationship between Work-life balance and individual performance ................................................................. 230
6.7 General Findings .................................................................... 230
6.8 Critical Review of Methodology ............................................. 231
6.9 General Conclusion ................................................................ 231
6.10 Contribution to the body of knowledge .................................... 233
6.11 Recommendations........................................................................................................234

6.11.1 Recommendations for Construction workers......................................................234

6.11.2 Recommendations for Construction firms.........................................................234

6.11.3 Recommendations for Academia...........................................................................235

6.12 Caution/Disclaimer..................................................................................................235

REFERENCES ..................................................................................................................236

APPENDICES ..................................................................................................................278

LETTER TO INVITE PARTICIPANTS ........................................................................278

COPY OF THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE ......................................................................278

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 cidb Grading system.......................................................................................... 28

Table 3.1 Classifications of culture................................................................................. 55

Table 3.2 Schein’s Interpretation of levels of organizational culture...............................56

Table 3.3 Description of work-life balance programmes.................................................94

Table 4.1 Philosophical dimensions of research..............................................................132

Table 4.2 Strengths and weaknesses of interviews.........................................................139

Table 4.3 The four point approach to qualitative sampling.............................................147

Table 5.1 Biographical data of participants.....................................................................161

Table 5.2 Summary of the participants’ responses on dominant Characteristics,
organizational leadership and management of employees.........................165

Table 5.3 Summary of participants responses for organizational glue, strategic emphasis and criteria for success.................................................................166

Table 5.4 Personal accounts of work-life balance experiences.....................192

Table 5.5 Work-life balance strategies for the construction industry..............208

Table 5.6 Participants responses to the impact of organizational culture on work-life balance........................................................................................................210

Table 5.7 Summary of responses for the link between work-life balance and performance........................................................................................................212

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.4 Visual mind map of problem formulation and research question.......11

Figure 3.1 The Organizational Culture iceberg..............................................58

Figure 3.2 The Leader as the pioneer of culture............................................71

Figure 3.3 Competency values framework....................................................74

Figure 3.4 The relationship between work and family....................................89

Figure 3.5 Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs.....................................................111

Figure 3.6 Motivation according to the Equity Theory..................................113

Figure 3.7 Expectancy Theory.....................................................................113

Figure 3.8 Work-family Border Theory: A pictorial representation of central concepts and characteristics.................................................................121

Figure 3.9 Theoretical Framework................................................................124
Figure 3.10 Conceptual Framework……………………………………………………..125

Figure 3.11 The relationship between Conceptual Framework and Theoretical Framework……………………………………………………………..126

Figure 4.1 Process of study………………………………………………………………135

Figure 4.2 Competency Values Framework…………………………………………142

Figure 4.3 Sampling in Interview based Qualitative Research……………………148

Figure 5.1 Age distribution of participants…………………………………………162

Figure 5.2 Sex of participants…………………………………………………………162

Figure 5.3 Distribution of Job Profiles………………………………………………163

Figure 5.4 Dominant Characteristics…………………………………………………167

Figure 5.5 Organizational Leadership………………………………………………172

Figure 5.6 Management of Employees……………………………………………175

Figure 5.7 Organizational Glue………………………………………………………176

Figure 5.8 Strategic Emphasis…………………………………………………………178

Figure 5.9 Criteria for Success…………………………………………………………182

Figure 5.10 Competency Values Framework…………………………………………187
# List of Acronyms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANC</td>
<td>African National Congress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BBBEE</td>
<td>Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
<td>Business Monitor International</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBE</td>
<td>Council for the Built Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CETA</td>
<td>Construction Education and Training Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIDB</td>
<td>Construction Industry Development Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH₄</td>
<td>Methane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CII’s</td>
<td>Construction Industry Indicators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO₂</td>
<td>Carbon Dioxide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSIR</td>
<td>Council for Scientific and Industrial Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEAT</td>
<td>Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DHET</td>
<td>Department of Higher Education and Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DME</td>
<td>Department of Minerals and Energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECSA</td>
<td>Engineering Council of South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDI</td>
<td>Foreign Direct Investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEAR</td>
<td>Growth Employment Redistribution Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H&amp;S</td>
<td>Health and Safety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N₂O</td>
<td>NITROUS OXIDE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCPD</td>
<td>NATIONAL CONTRACTOR DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NHBRC</td>
<td>NATIONAL HOME BUILDERS REGISTRATION COUNCIL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NHI</td>
<td>NATIONAL HEALTH INSURANCE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NQF</td>
<td>NATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC</td>
<td>ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC</td>
<td>ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
<td>ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RDP</td>
<td>RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSA</td>
<td>REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SACAP</td>
<td>SOUTH AFRICAN COUNCIL FOR THE ARCHITECTURAL PROFESSION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SACLAP</td>
<td>SOUTH AFRICAN COUNCIL FOR THE LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURAL PROFESSION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SACPCMP</td>
<td>SOUTH AFRICAN COUNCIL FOR THE PROJECT AND CONSTRUCTION MANAGEMENT PROFESSIONS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SACPVP</td>
<td>SOUTH AFRICAN COUNCIL FOR THE PROPERTY VALUERS PROFESSION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SACQSP</td>
<td>SOUTH AFRICAN COUNCIL FOR THE QUANTITY SURVEYING PROFESSION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMME</td>
<td>SMALL MEDIUM MICRO-SIZED ENTERPRISES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The construction industry is an important player in the economy of South Africa. Despite the numerous constraints facing the industry, it continues to make a significant contribution to the country’s progress (James, Rust & Kingma, 2012: 1553). The industry has achieved significant growth in the past six years, employing about 1.8 to 2.25 million people in South Africa (van Wyk, Kolev, Osburn, de Villiers, & Kimmie, 2011:5). The key drivers of this growth were government’s commitment and financial disbursements towards improving the country’s infrastructure (van Wyk, et al., 2011:6).

Similar to other industries, construction has its unique organizational culture which is reflected in the way in which people in its organisations perform their tasks, set objectives, administer resources, make decisions, think, feel and act in response to opportunities and threats (Thompson & Frank, 2005:333; Pearce & Robinson, 2007: 372). Organizational culture affects every element of strategy and strategic management (Thompson & Frank, 2005: 333). The prevailing national culture, being the precursor of organisational culture is an important factor because it can have a significant impact on organisational performance (Daft, 2010:86).

The critical characteristic of culture in organizations is that work procedures, budget processes, decision – making, reward systems and day to day activities are aligned with the cultural values (Daft, 2010:86). Moreover, organisational culture is an indicator of change in organizations (van Wijk & Finchilescu, 2008:237). The functions of organisational culture can be summarized as follows; it gives members an organizational identity, facilitates collective commitment; promotes social system stability and shapes behaviour by helping employees make sense of their surroundings (Kinicki & Williams, 2011:236). In addition organisational cultures not only facilitate the performance of firms, they also strengthen the impact of their human resource systems (Chow & Liu, 2010:128).
The definition of organisational culture has evolved in many ways, from the dictates of Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov (2010:344) who insist that organizational culture is the software of the mind, since it is holistic, historically determined, related to rituals and symbols, socially constructed, a soft and difficult to change phenomenon; to current authors who define it, in simplest terms, as the personality of an organisation or the social glue that binds the members of the organization together (Kinicki & Williams, 2011:236).

1.2 Context of Culture in South Africa: National underpinnings

Within the process of understanding culture, the models are stratified according vertical and horizontal analyses. The vertical analyses represent the psychological instincts, values, beliefs, behaviour and language, whereas the horizontal analysis represents, a framework of national culture, organisational culture, organisational climate and again the behaviour of the people (Fellows, 2009:46). Organisational culture needs to be approached from both the vertical and horizontal perspective. Therefore, it would be a great omission to attempt to unpack organisational culture without making reference to the generic culture, which in most cases is the national culture in which a specific organisation exists.

National culture, a term that is extrapolated from culture to the manner it is perceived within specific national boundaries and generically experienced, can be condensed for the purposes of a customary definition to mean mental software of social beings that exist within those boundaries (Hofstede, et al., 2010:5). Every individual belongs to a number of different groups of people at the same time and people carry several layers of mental programming within themselves at different levels such as national levels, regional or ethnic levels or linguistic affiliations, gender levels, social class levels and for those who are employed, organizational or corporate levels (Hofstede, 1991:10). In this case, the construction industry is set within the backdrop of South Africa, a nation characterised by diversity at its best. Multilingualism, different races, multiple ethnicity and religion are some of the qualities that render South Africa diverse and it is for this reason the country is colloquially known as the “rainbow nation” (Butler, 2009:36).
To trace the history, the country moved from traditional and indigenous systems which were entrenched in the lives of South Africans to colonialization and apartheid which propagated diversity through segregation. The result was a multiplicity of cultures which arose due to the different racial and ethnic groupings (Zegeye & Kriger, 2001:1). In addition the influence of the western practices further cultivated new cultural patterns within the indigenous ethnic groups (Butler, 2009:37).

This can be illustrated by the fact that some scholars have since come up with two ways in which to differentiate culture. A high culture, which emanated from Europe, to describe artistic, expressive practices and performances such as poetry, literature, painting and sculpting; and a low culture refers to the ways in which people live their lives (Butler, 2009:171).

It is clear therefore that the cultural climate in South Africa has been shaped by the overarching intellectual systems associated with tradition and indigenous systems, white supremacy, segregation and apartheid and inevitably that these systems continue to manifest in contemporary South Africa (Butler, 2009:180). Even though apartheid collapsed and the African National Congress (ANC) took over as the ruling party, its legacy lives on and true to form, government policy and legislation in this country are still influenced by the past.

The progressive urbanization and suburbanisation has brought massive changes in the nature of everyday community life (Butler, 2009:174). Thus the nation persists as a pre-eminent constituent of identity, society, cultures and all other social processes are anchored on the national space (Edensor, 2002:1). Organisational culture will therefore be reflective, to a greater or lesser extent of the national culture. In other words an organization’s culture is grounded in the culture of its host, normally the country or society where the organisation is located (Tijhuis & Fellows, 2012:16). Subsequently, to determine the organisational culture of the construction industry in particular, it is imperative to appreciate the cultural configuration of South Africa.

South African intellectuals have been wrestling with limited success to reconcile their perceptions of culture particularly because there are many contexts of culture that come into play, multiculturalism, inter-culturalism or even trans-culturalism but the
area of compromise is that within the boundaries of the country, the everyday lives of most South Africans is marked by a plurality of cultures, whether by language, religion, morals, traditions or values thus making it a melting pot of cultures (Butler, 2009:176; Macleod, 2002:6). Of the millions of inhabitants, 6 major ethnic groups namely; blacks, whites, coloureds, Indians, people of Malay descent and the minority groups such as the Khoi and San, 11 official languages, a mixture of individualistic and communal cultures in coexistence are discernible (Macleod, 2002:6).

This is proof that cultures also exist so that people living collectively can adapt to their surroundings, function effectively in their social environments, provide limits of behaviour and actions and that in its evolution, culture is at the source of satisfying the basic needs (food, shelter and protection), derived needs (organization of work, distribution of services) and integrative needs (psychological security, social harmony and purpose in life) (Samovar, Porter, & McDaniel, 2007:18).

National culture can also be subject to measurement as it was articulated in Hofstede’s (1980) expanded works on culture and work related values. He established that culture could be measured based on;

- Power distance - the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1984:65)
- Individualism and Collectivism – Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose whereas collectivism pertains to societies in which people are integrated into strong cohesive groups from birth (Hofstede, 1984:149).
- Masculinity and Femininity – masculinity pertains to societies in which gender roles are clearly distinct as men are supposed to be assertive, tough and focused and women modest and tender. Whereas femininity pertains to those societies where both gender roles overlap and both men and women have similar gender roles (Hofstede, 1984:176).
• Uncertainty Avoidance – the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertainties or situations (Hofstede, 1984:110).

Hofstede (1984) concluded that the four dimensions speak to the basic problems of humanity with which society has to cope with and that along the scores of these dimensions, every society does cope with the problems in different ways. Later, Hofstede added Long/Short Termism as a fifth dimension. The metaphor of these dimensions is that it allows academia to identify connections between localities within a nation, activities in parochial settings with a larger stage plus cultural representations and discursive fragments of each (Edensor, 2002:35).

As much as these four dimensions provide a comprehensive interpretation of national culture they are not exhaustive as most analysts posit. Cultures also display major characteristics;

• Cultures are collective because they cannot be produced by individuals acting alone and dispersed through learning processes,
• Cultures are emotionally charged because their substance and forms are infused with emotion,
• Cultures are historically based and do not ascend overnight rather they are inherently symbolic to emphasise the expressive side of human behaviour,
• Cultures are inherently fuzzy because they incorporate contradictions, ambiguities, paradoxes and confusions and dynamic because they are not static, but constantly changing (Trice & Beyer, 1993:5, Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010:344).

Other anthropologists in much the same strain have deduced that culture is learned, shared, is based on symbols, is dynamic and is an integrated system of living (Samovar et al., 2007:30). That is to say, culture is learned through socialisation and each individual identifies with certain cultural symbols.
1.3 Organisational Culture in the South African Construction Industry

It has already been established that the construction industry constitutes a vital part of any economy, the most relevant matter however is the fact that the industry is also an essential component of society (Tijhuis & Fellows, 2012:4). It is also characterized by the various complexities that exist in all societies. Since the construction industry is dynamic and stratified into numerous components such as, private or public, the mix of work types, technological and environmental variations, organizational culture will develop through the necessity of maintaining effective and efficient working relationships amongst the different stakeholders (Fellows, 2009: 49). Therefore, the pervasiveness of an organizational culture compels management to recognize the underlying dimensions of the organization and its impact on employee related variables such as satisfaction, commitment, cohesion, strategy implementation and work performance (Lund, 2003:219).

The South African construction industry operates in a uniquely project-specific and complex environment, combining different investors, clients, contractual arrangements and consulting professions (Marx, 2012:2). The biggest challenge is that the industry is persistently overshadowed with performance improvement difficulties. Aside from the general confusion that the perceptions and standards of performance are highly variable, there are three generally accepted degrees of performance, namely; business, technical and relational performance, all of which are visible in construction (Tijhuis & Fellows, 2012:4).

Much of the research and development in South Africa, especially within the Construction Industry Development Board (cidb) and its affiliations have sought a variety of methods and resources, to improve business and technical performance in order to achieve a competitive industry. The cidb, as established by an Act of Parliament (Act 38 of 2000) is mandated to advance national, social, economic development objectives, industry performance, efficiency and competitiveness as well as improved value for clients in the industry (cidb, 2011:1). Notwithstanding that this institution has made significant inroads to achieve its mandate, the industry continues to experience major setbacks which include the current global economic crisis which has resulted in a loss of jobs, poor health and safety attitudes and from a
business perspective, poor performance with respect to contractors and the substandard quality of construction outputs. Since the construction industry is not the only industry experiencing the current challenges; mining and manufacturing suffer in the same way; it is befitting to incorporate some of the managerial principles which involve unpacking organisational culture and applying it to the construction industry in South Africa. At the turn of the century the burgeoning black unions in South Africa made efforts to build a collectivist and democratic organizational culture that sought to entrench notions and practices of union democracy and worker solidarity. In addition, the black trade union mobilization was part of a broader political and ideological counterculture of the broad liberation movement, which sought to demonstrate the movement’s moral and political superiority over racial discrimination and apartheid by operating in a democratic fashion (Buhlangu, 2009:91).

At that time, an ANC inspired dominant culture had already begun to shape the country’s national identity but a number of politicians, intellectuals, and members of the different ethnic and cultural minority groups were growing increasingly vocal in their opposition to the ANC’s nation building aspirations (Pieterse, 2002:8). The opposition contended that the danger lay in defining a clear distinction between a common culture, as the one the ANC proposed or a dominant culture, which would reflect the country’s diversity towards formulating a national culture (Pieterse, 2002:8).

Today the major sources of pressure on institutional norms or practices in South Africa are functional, political, and social norms. Several tenets of institutional theory are applicable to South African labour mechanisms. These include: (i) inappropriate behaviour on the part of management as a result of a lack of understanding of how to adapt to new processes; (ii) the influence of informal cultural, societal, and social rules on South Africans; (iii) misconceptions and ignorance of the norms governing behaviour in the new and uncertain environments especially since post-apartheid (Pillay, 2008:373).
These institutional aspects of governance have had adverse effects on the success of South African public and private sector reforms. This is because cognitive-cultural frames are at the deepest level of cognition and are deeply entrenched in the South African political and government systems (Pillay, 2008:373). As a result, employers have adapted by restructuring production, establishing new patterns of work and organization and they have further defined their own management systems and industrial relations based on these issues (Webster & Rahmat, 2003:195). So it is highly likely that these factors play a critical role in understanding organisational culture in local organizations.

Whilst organizational culture as a theory, has been researched extensively, especially in the West, with respect to the values stated above, very little attention has been directed to it and its impact on the work-life balance of employees in the South African construction industry. Work-life balance has its roots in the principle that balancing work, family and lifestyle is an important issue for workers and employers as it affects business outcomes (Lingard & Francis, 2009:2). As a result, the interaction between work and personal life is an important field of research in the 21st century and is of a pressing concern for individuals and organizations in South Africa (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010:1; Downes & Koekemoer, 2011:1). Furthermore, the dearth of literature that with regard to the relationship between work-life balance and work performance in the context of the South African construction industry, warrants this enquiry.

1.4 Problem Formulation

The construction industry in South Africa is lagging behind regarding modern human resource practices (de Klerk & Mostert, 2010:1; James et al., 2012:1553). The global trend of the transformation of organizations from production-oriented entities to proactive learning entities that continuously leverage the knowledge of the workforce is a primary objective of management researchers (Chinowsky, Molenaar & Realph, 2007:27). This focus has significant relevance to the construction industry where production-related research has predominantly overshadowed organizational development research (Chinowsky et al., 2007:27). This means that a lot of the research focuses on issues that improve production rather than addressing
organizational development. Therefore, organizational leaders have the great challenge of finding new ways to make cultural shifts on how their organizations think about work–life integration (Harrington & Ladge, 2009:148). Since the construction industry is closely linked to the economy of a country and is often a good indicator of the state of that economy, it makes sense to effectively manage the human resources currently active within the industry (James et al., 2012:1).

In addition, the performance of the construction industry translates to national development and prosperity. Thus, developing countries should commit resources to programmes that enhance the industry’s performance particularly in the area of developing the human resources needed for the growth and development of the industry (Osabutey, Nyuur & Yaw, 2012:232). In order to get insights into how organisations can change and align working practices, an in-depth knowledge of the organizations’ members is necessary (Voordijk, 2012:332).

Some aspects of the construction industry continue to change at a rapid pace and influences such as globalization, evolving delivery mechanisms and changing organisational structures require business decisions that challenge the traditional transactional focus of the industry (Songer & Chinowsky, 2011:7). As a result, organisations are increasingly becoming aware of the potential benefits of work-life balance integration (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011:1). Already, a number of studies within the industrial psychology field have explored work-life balance but the literature fails to provide substantial information specific to the construction industry in South Africa. Instead, it is in a generic form that covers other workplace environments such as police, teachers, academia and nurses with a particular focus on the participation of women in these sectors. It is in that vein therefore, that although the interaction between work and personal life has received extensive attention in the work-family fields of research, various theoretical, empirical and measurement issues still need to be addressed particularly in the construction industry in South Africa (Koekemoer, Mostert, & Rothman, 2010:2). Furthermore, there is an empirical basis for suggesting that work-life balance initiatives contribute to individual and organizational effectiveness in the construction industry (Lingard, Brown, Bradley, Bailey, & Townsend, 2007:808).
Research on organizational culture is complex because underlying assumptions are not discussed but they influence behaviour subconsciously (Werner, 2011:32). Understanding the cultural implications is not only interesting but serves as good purpose for employers, who through this process are able to define how organizational culture influences employees’ behaviour and performance and whether it hinders or enhances organizational excellence (Werner, 2011:33).

Based on this knowledge leaders can therefore decide whether the culture should be changed, reinforced or modified to fit the performance standards. Thus organizational culture creates a corporate identity that distinguishes one organization from the other; it guides employees towards acceptable behaviours and attitudes and the ability to make decisions and solve problems; it creates a social stability system which is linked to emotional security and serves as a yardstick for evaluating behaviour and practices in the workplace (Werner, 2011:33). It is from this premise that this study investigates the impact of the construction industry’s culture, in South Africa, on work-life balance and its implication on individual performance.

1.4.1 Problem Statement
The problem being investigated in this thesis can be summarised as follows;

“As a result of insufficient literature on the South African construction industry’s organizational culture, its impact on work-life balance and implications on individual work performance remain largely unknown.”

The next section introduces the research question and sub questions that this research attempts to answer.

1.4.2 Main Research question
How does the organizational culture of the South African construction industry impact on the work-life balance of employees and what is the relationship between work-life balance and individual performance?

1.4.3 Research Sub-questions
• What are the cultural characteristics of the South African construction industry?
• What is the current status of work-life balance in the South African construction industry?
• How does organizational culture in the South African construction industry affect work-life balance?
• What is the relationship between work-life balance and individual performance in the South African construction industry?

1.4.4 Aim and Objectives of the Research
The aim of this thesis is to deduce the organizational culture of the construction industry, provide a better understanding of how this culture affects work-life balance and determine the correlation between work-life balance and individual performance. In this sense, the research objectives are as follows:

• To examine the cultural characteristics of the construction industry;
• To establish the nature of work-life balance in the construction industry;
• To determine the extent to which the cultural characteristics impact on the work-life balance of workers; and,
• To explore the implications of work-life balance on work performance.

Figure 1.4 represents the process that this study adheres to.

Figure 1.4 Visual mind-map of problem formulation and research questions
Source: Researcher, 2014
1.5 Justification for the Research

The changing nature of the construction industry has sparked interest in a number of critical issues such as the need to address work-life balance, the increase of women employees, technological advancements, improvement of working conditions, mitigating intensive labour, growth of part time work and an increase in the hours of full time work (Lingard & Francis, 2009:2). All of these issues relate to the ability of an organization to make paid work in the construction industry more rewarding for both the employer and the employees. With the developments stated above, this indicates that the number of people who combine work and family responsibilities has escalated so much that balancing work, family and lifestyle is not only key for the workers, but equally crucial for the businesses that demand efficiency from the workforce.

To illustrate this further, there is sufficient evidence that work-life balance is linked to the attitudinal, physical, psychological and social outcomes which when combined together, have the potential to cause serious harm to organizations (Lingard & Francis, 2009:81). The intensity of these human resource-related issues pivots on the fact that the construction industry is a complex and dynamic industry by virtue of its unique but constantly changing nature (Raiden, Dainty & Neale, 2009:2). Therefore the introduction of new systems and concepts may have a large impact on the competencies, practices and attitudes within the industry (Voordijk, 2012:332). After all, organizational culture gives an identity to an organization and the actions thereof are collectively bound by the same culture (Cheung, Wong & Wu, 2010:1).

Organizational development literature and research conducted in other countries have provided guidelines on how all organizations, irrespective of the industry are bound to be stratified according to different cultural characteristics. However the majority of the local research findings, in an assortment of studies, have limited inferences on the relationship between culture, work-life balance and performance within South African construction, which is why this study is not only relevant but necessary because it will shed light and add knowledge as the industry progresses amidst the prevailing challenges.
At least, specific research and development have been identified as an overarching strategy worldwide for the construction industry to address its various challenges, so this research is fully aligned to the research gaps within the industry (Barret, 2007: 270). Consequently, understanding the current culture within the South African context, 18 years into democracy and the lasting impact of apartheid, is an appropriate point of departure to identifying the practical work-life balance issues as they appear in the construction industry.

The next section outlines the methodological direction of this study.

1.6 Research Design and Methodology

This section outlines the design and methodology of this study

1.6.1 Research Paradigm and Method

Much of the research done in construction management has been conducted through methods derived from natural sciences which utilize quantitative methods. In contrast this research thesis is embedded in social science and it investigated social phenomena through a qualitative process (Bless, Higson-Smith, & Kagee, 2006:5). The ontological position of the researcher is relativist because this research process focuses on specific cultural and social frames which are open to a range of interpretations. Relativist ontology is also relevant to this research since it is consistent to social practices and the interactive explanation of how people exist in particular settings (King & Horrocks, 2010:20).

The purpose of this research is to examine the organisational culture of the South African construction industry and determine how it affects the work-life balance of employees. Furthermore, the relationship between work-life balance and work performance is investigated. In addition, the research follows an Interpretivist paradigm because social aspects were examined to define the social settings, processes and relationships within the construction sector (King & Horrocks, 2010: 21). Due to the fact that little is known about organisational culture and work-life balance in the South African construction sector, an exploratory research method is employed for the purposes of this study.
Exploratory studies are used to make preliminary investigations into relatively unknown areas of research (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006:44). exploratory research conducted through the use of open, flexible and inductive approaches reveal speculative insights and new phenomena (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006:44). Ideally the best techniques for collecting data in this form of research, consistent with the interpretivist paradigm, include semi-structured interviews (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006:44). Thus an interview protocol was followed for this study.

1.6.2 Interview Format

Interviews remain a popular method of data gathering in built environment disciplines and this is due to the flexibility that interviews offer from highly structured face-to-face interviews to open ended interviews that are used to generate insights and concepts and expand knowledge (Haigh, 2008:116). Interviews allow a researcher and the participants to engage in a conversation focused on questions relating to a study (Merriam, 2009:87). Specifically, the cultural interview focuses on the norms, values, understandings and taken-for-granted rules of behaviour of a group (Haigh, 2008:116). Semi structured interviews are therefore very useful in exploratory research (Bless, Higson-Smith, & Ashraf, 2006:116). An interview schedule was designed to gather data and the participant’s demographic details were written on the interview templates. Each participant was allocated a separate interview template. The researcher was able to jot down notes in each section for each participant.

The interviews were recorded, transcribed for analysis and validation and for the purpose of clarifying key aspects of the data collected. The assumption was that construction workers at all levels are key informants to this study. The interview template was pre-tested on three individuals to ensure that it was suitable and legible to the sample.

1.6.3 Population and Sampling

Sampling is a technical accounting devise to rationalise the collection of information and to choose in an appropriate manner, the set of objects, persons or events from which the information will be drawn (Bless, Higson-Smith, & Ashraf, 2006:97). The
main concern with sampling is representativeness and size (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006:49).

The sample was purposefully drawn from both men and women in construction companies. The sample was drawn from companies in Grade (9) of the CIDB grading system, through the purposive sampling technique. Purposive or judgemental sampling is a type of non-probability sampling which relies on the judgement of the researcher and a sample is chosen on the basis of what the researcher considers to be typical units of analysis (Bless et al., 2006:106). Data was collected from permanent, skilled and professional employees with experience in supervision and management roles. Furthermore employees that had at least a diploma in any construction related trade and were at the requisite conversational level of the English language were selected.

1.6.4 Analysis of the Data
The data were analysed through the Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis.

1.6.5 Validity and Reliability
Validity is a primary concern in qualitative research. Unlike quantitative research, there are no specific standards of assuring validity (Maxwell, 2002:34). Qualitative research relies on the inferences that are made by the researcher based on their own understanding of the data collected. It is therefore crucial that the data gathered is credible and that the findings represent the truth and actual sentiments as they appear from the data collection process (Collins & Hussey, 2003:70). During the interviews, the researcher reviewed some questions for validation purposes. The selection of the respondents was purposeful to ensure that the relevant subjects participated in the study. Silverman (2010:290), identifies four key values that a researcher ought to think about critically to achieve validity:

- Refutable principle – a researcher seeks to refute initial assumptions about data in order to achieve objectivity;
- Constant comparative method – a qualitative researcher should always attempt to find another case to test the provisional result;
- Comprehensive data treatment – a researcher must evaluate all kinds of data for a comprehensiveness; and,
- Deviant Case Analysis – a researcher must actively seek out and address anomalies or deviant cases.

Reliability refers to the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or the same on different occasions. For reliability to be calculated it is incumbent on the scientific investigator to document his or her procedure and to demonstrate that the categories have been used consistently (Silverman, 2010:290). Further details of the methodological process are explained in the fourth chapter.

1.6.6 Delimitation of the Scope of the Study
The study was limited to active construction businesses, ranked at Grade 9 according to the CIDB rating process South Africa. Eventually, firms registered in Western Cape and Gauteng Province participated in the study. No firms are listed in this category in Kwa Zulu Natal and only two firms are listed in the Eastern Cape. The two firms in the Eastern Cape turned down the request to participate in the study. In total seven (7) firms participated in the study.

1.7 Ethics
There are a number of elements that inform the politics and the ethics of qualitative research. There can be no definitive statements regarding the roles and relationships of the research process for a variety of reasons; there is a blurring of boundaries, between public and private, the notion of informed consents, levels of influence to get data and the possibilities of harm in social studies are considerable (Welland & Pugsley, 2002:1). Ethical decisions are the result of weighing up of a myriad of factors in the specific complex social and political situations in which research is conducted and the sets of principles which are drawn up to protect the rights of participants in research as well as guide the researchers’ actions (Piper, 2011:25). Therefore this study is aligned to the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University’s code of ethics. The following ethical principles were applied in the research process.
1.7.1 Plagiarism
All sources were cited and referenced appropriately to avoid plagiarism.

1.7.2 Confidentiality
The information gathered by the researcher remains confidential. The researcher also treated any personal matters which arose during the course of the interviews with utmost confidentiality. Part of this research made an enquiry on work-life balance issues which includes personal content. Efforts were made to ensure that the data was treated with the necessary confidentiality. The results are analysed in aggregate. The identities of the participants are not recorded. Only the participant's biographical data was recorded. Names, surnames and the firms are not recorded.

1.7.3 Voluntary Participation
Social research is concerned with people and their life contexts, with philosophical questions relating to the nature of knowledge, truth, values and being which underpin human judgements and activities (Somekh, 2011:2). It is therefore necessary to allow people to participate voluntarily in the research process. No participant was forced to participate in this study under duress. More so, the researcher guarded against the use of unethical tactics and techniques to draw out information from the participants. Each company was responsible for selecting participants.

1.7.4 Protection from harm
It is common protocol that social research should not injure or harm participants whether they volunteer for the study or not. The participants in this study were not subjected to any psychological harm and offence or any action that instilled anxiety and disdain (Farrel, 2011:12). In fact all the participants, even though some were rushing for specific tasks were willing to participate in the interviews.

1.7.5 Integrity and honesty
Honesty and integrity were observed during the entire data collection process.
1.8 Outline of the Study

Chapter One – Introduction and Background of the Study

This chapter provides an introduction and a background of the study. It includes a snapshot of the nature of the construction industry and its contribution to the economy and society. The problem formulation, research problem and the research questions are also outlined in this chapter.

Chapter Two – Review of Related Literature: South African Construction Industry

This chapter provides a comprehensive detail of the historical background and current status of the South African Construction Industry in the post-apartheid period.

Chapter Three – Theoretical and Conceptual Perspectives

This section outlines a comprehensive discourse on the critical areas of current knowledge, substantive findings as well as theoretical and methodological contributions of organizational culture, work-life balance and work performance in the construction industry.

Chapter Four – Research Methodology and Techniques

This chapter outlines the research methods and techniques that were used to collect and analyse the data.

Chapter Five – Presentation of Data and Analysis and Discussion of the findings

In this chapter a detailed account of the actual research process and the findings is recorded.

Chapter Six – Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

This chapter marks the end of the thesis and it concludes the study with a summary of the research, conclusion based on the findings, the study’s contribution to the body of knowledge and recommendations.

The next chapter outlines the contextual analysis of the South African construction industry.
CHAPTER TWO

A CONTEXTUAL ANALYSIS OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of the previous chapter was to establish the background and the problem formulation of this study. A framework of research questions to interrogate the problem was also developed. The problem was stated and so were the issues relating to the reliability and scope of the research.

This chapter outlines a brief background of South Africa’s transition into a democracy, the development process of the construction industry, its position within the South African socio-economic and political landscape and the successes and challenges that shape the industry.

2.2 Relevance of this chapter

The salient features that are delineated in this chapter are indications of generic cultural systems that offer valuable contributions to the knowledge base of construction in South Africa. In order to make a valid case about the industry’s culture, work-life balance and performance of employees, a clear analysis and appreciation of the industry in which it operates in its entirety is vital. The culture as exposed by the practices of the industry is intrinsically connected to each and every aspect of the wellbeing and performance of employees in the industry. In essence the nature of the industry serves as a background for all human resources issues in the industry. As the literature suggests, the industry shows significant gaps in the application of contemporary human resources practices (de Klerk & Mostert, 2010:1; James et al., 2012:1553). Thus, a combination of issues regarding the way the industry is demarcated and the slow improvement in applying modern human resources should assist in depicting the state of organizational culture, work-life balance and individual work performance. In addition, research on the overall wellbeing of employees in the construction industry has not been conducted extensively in the context of South Africa.
2.3 South Africa – A country marked by political, economic and social change

South Africa has undergone significant socio-economic and political changes in the last century, from the forced unification by the British imperial powers completed in 1910, through the apartheid regime which instigated total segregation or apartness amongst the racial groups in South Africa, to a triumphant democracy and optimism in 1994 (Butler, 2009:110). This protracted process began when land and water, then minerals and capital for investment and finally human capital were accumulated over several centuries into white hands (Wilson, 2011:1). Contrary to popular belief, many events dating back to the 15th century exhibited the apartheid principles during which the English and the Dutch sought to get a piece of the vast resources that existed in the southernmost part of Africa (Allen, 2005:3; Worden, 2012:10).

The apartheid regime, its primary focus being separate development would have to wait until the late 1940’s to be solidified (Posel, 2009:331). During the apartheid regime, political and economic factors were defined by strategies of racial discrimination that tainted the mere existence of black people (Pillay, 2004:221). In 1994, after a long transformative agenda, pursued by the ANC and other groups, South Africa experienced a peaceful transition from apartheid to democracy (Habib & Padayachee, 2000:245). This process, dubbed as one of the most important political events of this era, was marked with the first black president, democratic elections, a constitution, and a state-led programme directed towards alleviating the legacies of apartheid (Habib & Padayachee, 2000:245). Today, South Africa is a stable, multi-racial democracy with a vibrant civil society (World Bank, 2013).

Even though it is a stable and vibrant society, the convergences between economic, ethnic, national and other socio-cultural determinants and the state initiated agenda of redressing the past, have generated new socio-economic complexities (Narunsky - Laden, 2010:2). Post-transitional South Africa comprises of a contradictory network of socio-cultural and economic forms of segregation, broadly attesting to an accommodation of neo-liberal corporate capitalism, which is marked by pervasive uneven development (Narunsky-Laden, 2010:2, Wilson, 2011:1). In as much as the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) indicators set the country as an upper level middle-
income country in the world, inequality is still widespread (Nayaran & Mahajan, 2013:1). The economic transformation agenda is far from completion because some parts of the population are still disillusioned by the poor living standards, poor education and healthcare facilities and unemployment (World Bank, 2013:1). As a result, South Africa remains as one of the most unequal countries in the world (Nayaran & Mahajan, 2013:2). The overarching principle remains that the prevailing political intricacies and socio-economic realities cannot be divorced from the persistent legacy of apartheid.

2.4 Development Policies and Programmes

The end of apartheid created great expectations for the majority of South Africans. Significant progress was catapulted by a progressive Constitution and legislation that protected civil, economic and social rights of the population (Pon-Vignon & Anseeuw, 2009:883). In addition, the government introduced a series of policies, aimed at creating an environment conducive for economic growth and social change. The result was an adoption of economic reform packages, consisting of fiscal prudence and trade reform of various sectors in the economy (Bhorat & Cassim, 2004:7). These policies had specific implications for the construction industry. Accordingly, recognising the key role that the construction industry in particular, would play in the forthcoming years, numerous policy frameworks were established to ensure that the construction industry was aligned to the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) (Rwelamila, 2002:436). The RDP was a policy framework for integrated and coherent socio-economic progress aimed at eradicating the effects of apartheid. In addition to participatory governance, the RDP’s core policy directions were that of meeting the basic needs of all South Africans and improving the country’s infrastructure (Republic of South Africa, 1994:8).

The RDP as an infrastructural programme targeted processes that would provide access to modern and effective services such as housing and land reform, electricity, water, telecommunications, transport, healthcare, education and training for all South African people (Republic of South Africa, 1994:8). As per the plan, the situations of previously suppressed economic and human potential in urban and rural areas would be reversed (Republic of South Africa, 1994:8). In turn, the implementation of
this programme would lead to an increased output in all sectors of the economy. Additionally, by upgrading the infrastructure and human resources, the export capacity would be enhanced (Republic of South Africa, 1994:8). A community based public works programme would stimulate the economy by providing employment to the marginalised population (Republic of South Africa, 1994:8). Success in linking reconstruction, development and growth was ultimately essential to achieving peace and security for all South Africans (Republic of South Africa, 1994:8). Prior to the RDP, the Growth, Employment, Redistribution Plan (GEAR) aimed at creating a competitive and fast growing economy, indicated the need for infrastructure development to be a vehicle for growth in South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 1996).

The value in these policies and commitments was that the construction industry, as aligned to the growth path of South Africa, would play a critical role in growing the economy and redressing the inequalities of the past (Rwelamila, 2002:436). By the tenth year into the democracy, the activity of the construction industry was reaching a significant percentage of the South African community, facilitating the provision of potable water, sewerage disposal, electrification, health, education, housing and productive employment (Rwelamila, 2002:435). The rationale being the fact that investing in infrastructure is critical to economic growth (cidb, 2004:8). In fact, it is a viable path to the reduction of the infrastructure backlog emanating from apartheid (cidb, 2004:8)

Contemporary research and literature confirms that the construction industry in developing countries, not only makes a primary contribution to national socio-economic development but it also contributes significantly through infrastructure development, employment, entrepreneurship and the transfer of new technologies (Ofori, 2007:2; Tijhuis & Fellows, 2012:1; Myers, 2013:1). Furthermore, the performance of the industry, through government support and policy is also pivotal to transport and communications, import and export, industrial development and all the logistics of a growing economy that support an integrated and economically active population (cidb, 2004:6).
2.5 Progress in the Construction Industry

The South African government’s commitment to the construction industry is also reflected in series of policies that have been promulgated to ensure that all stakeholders such as government departments and the private sector, are accountable to the process of improving the industry. The legislative framework, flowing from the Rural Development Programme, has been overhauled to ensure that present and future laws are in alignment to the constitution and the country’s development ethos (cidb, 2004:8). In addition, subsequent amendments to the legislation align laws to the changes in the South African socio-economic and political landscape. Regarding the construction industry, which carries the burden of infrastructure development, the following pieces of legislation have specific implications to its operations:

- The Labour Relations Act, No. 66 of 1995 establishes a single industrial relations system for all employees, promotes collective bargaining through workplace forums, fosters new procedures and institutions for resolution of disputes in the workplace (Republic of South Africa, 1995).

- The Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998 aims to achieve equity in the workplace through equal opportunity, fair treatment and the elimination of discrimination. It also provides for the redress of employment disadvantages of designated groups through affirmative action (Republic of South Africa, 1998).

- The Housing Consumers Protection Measures Act, No. 95 of 1998 establishes the National Home Builders Registration Council, which provides for consumer protection (Republic of South Africa, 1998).

- The Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act, No 5 of 2000 provides for the creation of categories of preference in the awarding of contracts to promote development objectives and the advancement of enterprises owned, managed and controlled by historically disadvantaged South Africans (Republic of South Africa, 2000). For contracting companies, this policy sets the rules for public procurement processes, price considerations and specific criteria required for
awarding contracts and a preference point system through which points are awarded to contractors who meet the criteria (Martin & Root, 2012:210).

- The Occupational Health and Safety Act, No. 85 of 1993 and the 2003 Regulations place responsibility and liability of health and safety on both the client and the contractor, from design process throughout implementation (Republic of South Africa, 2003).

- The Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment Act, No. 53 of 2004 establishes a legislative framework for black economic empowerment. It also promotes the achievement of equality, the increase of broad-based and effective participation of black people in the economy as well as increased employment and more equitable income distribution. It further empowers the minister to issue codes of good practice and to publish transformation charters relating to the procurement criteria (Republic of South Africa, 2004).


In addition to the legislation, as a measure to accelerate the industry’s performance, a partnership between the Department of Public Works, cidb and CSIR developed Construction Industry Indicators (CII’s) (cidb & UFS, 2013:2). International benchmarking allowed this tripartite to adopt the United Kingdom’s programme on CII’s which was informed by the influential Rethinking Construction Report (1998) by Egan which sought to drive efficiency improvements in the construction industry (cidb & UFS, 2013:2). According to the cidb and UFS (2013:2), the cidb’s CII’s are project specific and they measure performance based on a framework of the following grouping of indicators:
Employer satisfaction as measured by the time frames at which projects are completed, contractors performance, agents (consultants) performance and the quality of the materials utilised for the projects;

Contractor satisfaction as appraised against the profitability of the business, the performance of employers and their agents, the quality of the contracts, the administration of variation orders and claims, payment delays and the overall performance of the suppliers of materials;

Procurement indicators, are obtained from the participating agents and they include contractor performance issues as evaluated in the tender adjudication processes, the type of procurement processes and the contracting strategy employed; and,

Agent (Consultants) satisfaction, is measured according to the time that employers allow for planning, the delays in the payment of professional fees as well as the employers deviations from their approved procurement procedures.

Undoubtedly, the construction industry has, in less than 20 years recorded great success (Rwelamila, 2010:121). Intricate road networks, a booming property sector including RDP housing that has upgraded the living conditions of the black middle class and previously disadvantaged groups, and the upgraded railway infrastructure is a blaring indicator of how the construction industry has shaped the country. The built environment is the reflection of a nation’s developmental progress, as well as the physical foundation for economic and social advance into the future (cidb, 2004:7). It is the construction industry that creates and maintains this foundation in a process that must deliver value to clients and society (cidb, 2004:7). According to the World Economic Forum, infrastructure is one of the pillars required to calculate the overall competitiveness of countries (World Economic Forum, 2012: 324). Under this indicator, the quality of roads, railways, ports, air transport, electricity, and telecommunications are utilised to determine the competitiveness of countries (World Economic Forum, 2012:325). South Africa has an overall ranking of 66 out of 144 countries and overall score of 4.1 out of 7 in infrastructure on the global competitiveness index (World Economic Forum, 2012:324).
Statistics SA measures economic growth in 10 sectors, one of which is construction (Butler, 2009:56). By the end of 2011, approximately 80 per cent of formal housing in South Africa had access to clean water and electricity including an increase in the number of houses built (Statistics SA, 2011:3-5). A comparative increase of employment was recorded, despite the persisting unemployment rates. Also, the continuous support and maintenance of existing institutions and pending national projects including an overall profit margin of 2.8% points towards an operational construction industry (Statistics SA, 2011:3-5). Overall, the construction industry creates and maintains the built environment, which underpins all modern human endeavour, economic growth and social development (cidb, 2004:6). As envisaged in the planning processes, the World Cup 2010 cushioned the industry from the 2008 recession. A windfall of construction projects, such as the construction of stadiums in the major cities, boosted the industry and increased employment opportunities (Anderson, 2013:1). This success stalled after the world cup. Construction is not performing optimally (Cottle & Rombaldi, 2013:1).

Currently, the South African government is rolling out a state-led social infrastructure drive that focuses on infrastructure development in energy and transport (Industry Insight, 2012:46). The social and economic infrastructure projects will be rolled out across all nine provinces, and particularly in underdeveloped areas (Industry Insight, 2012:46). Energy projects will focus on ‘greening’ the nation and supporting sustainable energy initiatives through a diverse range of clean energy options. In addition, several new hospitals are to be built, and existing ones refurbished in preparation for the National Health Insurance Scheme (Industry Insight, 2012:46; National Planning commission, 2012:24).

Nursing colleges will be revamped, and new schools will be built, in addition to three new universities for a more robust education system (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2012; National Planning Commission, 2012:24). Investment in rail, water pipelines and energy generation and transmission has been identified as critical for exports (Industry Insight, 2012:46). Plans are also underway to strengthen the transport corridor between South Africa’s main industrial hubs, while improving access to export and import facilities (Industry Insight, 2013:46).
Furthermore, building renovations and increasing tourism accommodation also forms part of this massive infrastructure plan (Industry Insight, 2012:46).

In summary, in addition to the many successes that have been achieved in the construction industry and its contribution to government’s service delivery and infrastructure commitments, the industry will continue to play a significant role in repairing the political and socio-economic challenges of the past.

2.6 The Characteristics of the Industry

The following section outlines the various characteristics that make up the South African Construction Industry. The industry is project based, depends on available contracts and is largely an informal economy (Marx, 2012:2). The industry also operates in global forums where issues such as sustainable construction and innovation are emphasised to ensure that the industry adapts to better operational practices that balance economic growth with human development as well as securing the environment for future generations.

2.6.1 Projects and Contracting

The construction industry in South Africa delivers its products in a uniquely project-specific environment that continuously involves different combinations of investors, clients, contractual arrangements and consulting professions; site conditions, design, materials and technologies; contractors, specialist subcontractors, skills and the workforce assembled for each project (cidb, 2004:9). The continuous movement from one project to another characterizes construction operations in most developing countries (Dainty, Green, & Bagilhole, 2007:7). In addition, the projects depict a combination of firms and individuals who bring with them a variety of cultures and practices (Dainty, Green, & Bagilhole, 2007:7).

The industry also relies entirely on the supply and demand of projects. That is to say, during a housing development boom, more projects are likely to be available (Dainty, Green, & Bagilhole, 2007:7). Project participants co-evolve to achieve self-organizing governance as projects progress within an often-fixed formal time framework (Fellows & Liu, 2012:653).
In South Africa, most of the construction work is a result of government-initiated projects referred to as public projects. To tender for public projects, contracting companies must be registered with the Construction Industry Development Board (CIDB), which assists with the transformation of the South African construction industry in general, and fosters the growth of small businesses in particular (Ludwig & Root, 2012:211). The CIDB register is divided into work categories (civil engineering, general building, electrical etc.) and it groups contractors in these categories into nine grades according to their capabilities in terms of value, staff complement and the location of their operations, whether local, regional, provincial, national or international (Ludwig & Root, 2012:211; cidb, 2012:2) (See Table 2.1). The criteria set for available capital is 5 per cent of the tender value limit for the lower grades and 10 per cent of the tender value for the rest of the grades (cidb. 2012:33). The largest contract in a 5-year period is also taken into consideration. For Grade 2, 15 per cent is weighed on the tender value limit and 22.5 percent for the rest of the grades (see cidb grading below) (cidb, 2012:33).

**Table 2.1 CIDB Grading System**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Tender Value</th>
<th>Other Characteristics</th>
<th>Number of Contractors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>R130 million and above</td>
<td>Operates nationally and internationally, public listing</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>R 130 million</td>
<td>Operates nationally</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>R 40 million</td>
<td>Operates provincially and regionally</td>
<td>523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>R 13 million</td>
<td>Operates locally and regionally</td>
<td>1348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>R 6.5 million</td>
<td>Operates locally and regionally</td>
<td>1673</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>R 4 million</td>
<td>Operate locally</td>
<td>2148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>R 2 million</td>
<td>Operate locally</td>
<td>1369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>R 650 000</td>
<td>Operate locally</td>
<td>4509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>R 200 000</td>
<td></td>
<td>61379</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Construction Industry Development Board 2012/2013
Typically for a developing industry, of approximately 74000 firms, most of the active contracting companies fall between grades 2-4 at a ratio of 60-70% whereas, the highest grade, Grade 9 constitutes about 8 per cent of contracting firms registered with the cidb (cidb, 2012:2). In addition, about 27 per cent of the companies are black owned and are registered in Grade 1, which indicates the difficulty of advancement to higher grades. As a result, the companies registered in Grade 1, are considered registered but inactive (cidb, 2012:2). The terms “emerging contractor” and “small medium, micro sized enterprises” (SMME’s) are synonymous with construction firms between Grades 2-4 (cidb, 2012:2). This categorization is aligned to various transformation strategies directed to overcoming business impediments arising from the legacy of apartheid, during which black people and other minority groups could not own construction businesses (cidb, 2004:10).

Still, the industry is largely fragmented because it is characterized by the presence of a few, very large and publicly listed firms such as Murray & Roberts Holdings Limited, Stefanutti Stocks Holdings Limited and Raubex (Marketline, 2012:15) These firms are competing with the rest of non-listed and relatively smaller contracting firms (Marketline, 2012:15).

Although the cidb grading process is useful for regulating public sector construction activities, it has no guarantees. Manana, van Waveren, and Chan, (2012:2123) establish that registration cannot be an indicator of success. The one compelling finding that backs the grading system, is that unregistered contractors tend to exceed budgets whereas registered contractors’ projects are completed within budget (Manana et al., 2012:2123). The level of regulation is also highly complex and to some extent serves as a significant entry barrier for contractors due to the registration requirements such as the availability of Capital (Marketline, 2012:13). Contracts for public works are typically awarded to companies which are registered and have a good reputation (Marketline, 2012:13). This is a further barrier for entry for new players which have to compete with well-established and financially stable companies.
However in some instances, these smaller contractors do not necessarily require large capital to participate; instead they are able to operate as sub-contractors often for their specific expertise (Marketline, 2012:13). These small firms or new players in the construction industry hold the term of emerging enterprises. The CIDB Act defines an “emerging enterprise” as an enterprise which is owned (at least 50%), managed and controlled by previously disadvantaged persons (Republic Of South Africa, 2000). The Act alludes that the criteria of classifying a contractor as an emerging enterprise, is consistent with a variety of considerations such as equity, value and investment. The number of employees is also taken into account (Republic Of South Africa, 2000). Thus contractors can be distinguished from each other by variables such as the size of annual turnover, capacity or capability but the criterion for registration is nonetheless not cast on stone. (Thwala & Phaladi, 2009:198).

Thwala and Phaladi (2009:199) add that, the most important factor regarding the growth of emerging contractors is profitability and sustainability as determined by the availability of capital. Despite the positive intentions of registration process towards improving contracting in the construction industry there has been widespread dissatisfaction particularly from the emerging contractors (CIDB, 2012:2). For instance, during the provincial CIDB stakeholders consultation process in 2012, aimed at gathering information about the challenges impeding the construction industry’s development, a series of concerns were raised regarding issues that prevented emerging contractors from participating effectively in the industry (CIDB, 2012:2). The stakeholders included, contractors, clients, development agencies and lending institutions that alluded to apparent bottlenecks in construction regulations, the business and economic environment, industry practices and norms and standards (CIDB, 2012:4). The registration process in particular came under fire for being too stringent for emerging contractors (CIDB, 2012:4).

In addition to the problems associated with the registration and grading process, emerging contractors continue to experience major day-to-day setbacks brought about by unfavourable conditions in the construction environment (Ncwadi & Dangalazana, 2005:4).
Ncwadi and Dangalazana (2005:4) highlighted some of these setbacks during a study conducted in Port Elizabeth about the problems that emerging contractors encountered in the management of their businesses. The issues raised include:

- **Difficulty in developing long-term strategies**

  Due to the fact that the industry relies on short to medium term projects, contractors indicated the difficulty in developing long-term strategies for their businesses. As a result the absence of projects stagnated the growth of their businesses.

- **Competition with more established firms**

  The emerging contractors asserted that they were not financially able to compete with big construction firms and as a result, their involvement was limited to subcontracting.

- **Unsafe working environment**

  Many contractors concurred that due to insufficient capital, inadequate safety measures and Personal Protective Equipment (PPE) was not a priority.

- **Lack of funding**

  Emerging contractors further specified that accessing finance from financial institutions was difficult because, such institutions required capital and a healthy credit history in order to award loans.

- **High start-up Costs**

  Additionally, costs associated with starting construction businesses are relatively high. Eventually, some businesses collapse.

- **Lack of access to projects bonded by commercial institutions**

  Emerging contractors stressed that they struggled to participate in projects bonded by financial institutions due to the lack of confidence regarding the ability of small
businesses to service loans. Consequently, most projects bonded by financial institutions use the services of more established construction firms.

- **High interest rates**

Emerging contractors found it difficult to service loans due to the increasingly high interest rates. As a result, their businesses were affected negatively.

- **Lack of capital equipment**

Without sufficient funding emerging contractors were unable to purchase capital equipment for their business. This issue was aggravated by the lack of loan facilities from financial institutions.

- **Crime and vandalism**

Contractors were also affected by the theft of material as well as the vandalism of infrastructure and equipment.

- **Poor co-operation with suppliers**

Emerging contractors indicated that some suppliers did not co-operate. As a result of the delayed delivery of materials, contractors suffered major cash flow and project timeline setbacks.

- **Delayed payments**

Lastly, delayed payments from clients destabilized the operations of small businesses.

Van Wyk, Kolev, Osburn, de Villiers, and Kimmie (2011:16) confirm that the high rate of failure of small and medium enterprises is a result of the poor productivity, management of businesses and lack of capital.

Many of the challenges within the industry arise from the size of projects, complexity, financing, duration and execution of projects by many organizations (Fellows & Liu,
Thwala and Phaladi (2009:199), confirm that inadequate finance, lack of credit, poor pricing, flawed tendering practices, the lack of competent workers and skills, poor entrepreneurship skills, lack of mentoring and insufficient management skills and processes mar the construction industry. However, larger enterprises have not been spared of some of these challenges due to the 2008 economic downturn. As a result, some established firms are opting to explore international projects to balance their businesses (Marketline, 2012:14)

2.6.2 Informality of the Industry

In construction, informality has been in existence for a long time but up to now, there is dissention regarding its definition because every researcher appears to have different interpretations (Levy, 2008:35). Notably in its application, it varies according to the complexities of the construction industry as a whole (Wells, 2007:89).

Studies dating from the mid-1990s describe a rapid expansion of ‘informal’ construction activity in many parts of the developing world and this has been accompanied by increasing diversity in the interpretation of the concept, leading to considerable confusion (Wells, 2007:88). In the past, the concept referred to people in urban economies, who earned a living without being gainfully employed. The activities of such groups of people were termed informal because they were primarily unregulated and not protected by the law in any way but governed by custom and personal ties (Godfrey, 2011:231).

In 1972, a mission of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) to Kenya adopted a different approach, which distinguished between the formal and informal sectors on the basis of the characteristics of enterprises, rather than employment situations (Wells, 2007:88). At that time, informal sector enterprises referred to those registered according to the regulations of national or local governments. The category also included very small enterprises operating with little capital, simple technology and the use of local resources including buying and selling in unregulated and competitive markets (Wells, 2007:88). Formal enterprises, on the other hand, were larger and more heavily capitalised and regulated (Wells, 2007:88).
The importance of informal and emergent practices, activities and discourses has become increasingly prominent in construction management research (Chan & Raisanen, 2009:907). In many developing countries informality is a description that often falls outside the statistical measurements thus making it difficult to grasp (Chan & Raisanen, 2009:90). Even if formally captured by statistics, the records do not explain what occurs in the informal economy (Briscoe, 2006:221).

Research has identified the informal aspects that exist in a variety of business processes in construction organizations and they include informal recruitment processes, informal management practices and informal relationships in construction (Chan & Raisanen, 2009:909). Most notably, Wells (2007:89) propounds that informality in construction organizations is categorized into four critical and interrelated aspects; the informal sector of enterprises, informal labour, the informal construction system and informal building/settlements. Wells (2007:89) confirms that the underlying criterion for these dimensions is the absence of regulation.

In most countries, all enterprises have a licence to engage in economic activity and the lack of licensing amounts to informal enterprises (Wells, 2007:92). The aspect of regulation also considers the terms and conditions of employment for the construction workers, as set out in labour legislation and health and safety rules (Wells, 2007:92). These regulations are sometimes breached, when formal enterprises resort to the employment of casual labour or outsource their labour supply to curtail costs (Wells, 2007:92). For instance, the South African government through partnerships such as the cidb, has sought to ensure that contracting firms are regulated through registration with the Department of Labour. The reality is that some enterprises are not registered therefore are difficult to regulate (Peterson, 2011:13)

In essence, this means that some fully recognised businesses often engage in informal employment practices (Wells, 2007:92). Intermediaries, such as subcontractors and labour agents who supply labour find it easier to avoid registering their workers, in order to evade wage costs (Wells, 2007:92). As a consequence, there has been a great expansion in the number of informal employees who may be found working in both formal and informal enterprises (Dainty, Green, & Bagilhole, 2011:13).
Together with the self-employed and family labour sector, they make up the informal construction sector (Wells, 2007:92). In South Africa as well, the human resources base is characterized by contractual or casual workers (Peterson, 2011:13).

The complete products, such as the buildings and other infrastructure are also subject to regulation. As such linkages with other infrastructure such as water and electricity, building plans, permits and inspection after completion are subject to regulation (Wells, 2007:92). Again, in many parts of the developing world, some of these regulations are flouted resulting in informal buildings or settlements (Wells, 2007:93). Informal settlements, one of the legacies of apartheid, are on the increase in urban cities (Marais & Ntema, 2013:86). In fact, nearly a fifth of urban households are located in informal settlements (Lemanski, 2009:472). It comes as no surprise therefore that in developing countries, including South Africa, the construction industry is part formal and part informal (Mlinga & Wells, 2002:269; ILO, 2010:10). As a result the South African construction industry is in a fragmented state (Rwelamila, 2010:121).

It is safe to posit that the aggregate of these factors that exhibit informality in the South African construction context, postulate an informal construction system (Goldman, 2003:1). Even though Stats SA (2008) concludes that the distinction of formal and informal industries is difficult terrain, Devey, Skinner and Laboria (2006:314) argue that the distinction between formal and informal is not necessary because both categories are actually mutually inclusive. Ultimately, the informality of the construction industry remains a poignant issue because it describes the character of the industry (Yu, 2012: 170).

2.6.3 The National Contractor Development Programme
The National Contractor Development Programme (NCPD) is a government programme comprising of a partnership between the cidb and national and provincial public works with the purpose of empowering contractors who fall in the previously disadvantaged category (Department of Public Works, 2011:3). According to the NCDP, the cidb and the Department of Public Works are required to commit resources to this program and ensure that their individual contractor development
initiatives are also aligned to the principles of the NCDP (cidb, 2009:6; Department of Public Works, 2011:3). Department of Public Works (2011:5) outlines the following objectives of the NCDP:

- To increase the number of black, women, disabled, and youth-owned companies in targeted categories and grades;
- To improve the grading status of previously disadvantaged contractors including those owned by black women, in targeted categories and grades;
- To improve the performance of previously disadvantaged contractors in terms of quality, employment practices, skills development, safety, health and the environment; and,
- To improve the business management and technical skills of these contractors.

The cornerstone of the contractor development program in this sense is a deliberate and managed process directed towards improving the contractors, grading status, performance and production of quality, equity and ownership as well as a contractor base that represents the demographics of South Africa (cidb, 2009:6).

The cidb plays a strategic and dual role in contractor development. It serves to implementing the tenets of the NCDP and acts as a facilitator to the processes by creating a favourable environment for emerging contractors to become sustainable businesses (Department of Public Works, 2011:6). The cidb also manages the Construction Contact Centres (CCC) which are provincial hubs located in all nine provinces (cidb, 2013). Apart from being resource centres for construction businesses, these centres enable the cidb to collect statistics on analysing the industry, regarding the registration and grading process, development policy guidelines and best practice strategies (cidb, 2013:1). Promotion of skills development, enterprise development and client capacity building also forms part of the cidb’s mandate towards contractor development (cidb, 2013:1).

Further support is provided to emerging contractors through the Construction Incubator programme. As the term suggests, emerging contractors across the different grades, but within the previously disadvantaged category are targeted (Department of Public Works, 2013:1). Such contracting businesses are provided
with a steady access to project or work opportunities as well as supply side strategies to ensure that their businesses grow (Department of Public Works, 2013:1). It is envisaged that the end result of this programme will be a pool of capable, sustainable, self-sufficient and highly skilled contractors who are able to compete with the best in the infrastructure development sector (Department of Public Works, 2011:5).

2.6.4 The Human Resource Base in the Construction Industry

Human resource management in the construction industry is emergent instead of being a strategic and deliberate process of enhancing the workforce (Brandenburg, Haas, & Byrom, 2006:89). In fact, most industries in the world do not have human resource management strategies for the workforce resulting in the myriad of workforce challenges that the industry is experiencing (Srour, Haas, & Morton, 2006:1158). Alternatively, industries that have existing plans for the workforce have not been successful in implementing those plans effectively. The overarching importance on the focus on human resource management in the workplace is that people and people processes are at the heart of the competitiveness of an organization (Brandenburg, Haas, & Byrom, 2006:89).

The South African construction industry does not offer a different scenario because contemporary methods of managing the workforce are not applied (de Klerk & Mostert, 2010:1; James et al., 2012:1553). As construction is a physically intensive vocation, Lingard and Francis (2009:27) maintain, numerous workers employed in the industry sell their manual labour in an informal manner (cidb, 2004:30). As a result, less than half of the active workforce in South Africa is formally employed. This picture highlights the dependence on labour-only subcontracting, casual employment and a growing informal sector (cidb, 2004:30). Informal employment is often characterized by poor employment conditions, increasing poverty, compulsory overtime and extra shift work, non-payment of wages, lay-offs without notice or compensation, absence of social benefits such as pension, sick leave, medical insurance and poor working conditions (International Labour Organization, 2013). It is also a common phenomenon with informal employment that labour laws are not upheld. For instance, the remuneration of casual employees, semi-skilled or
unskilled labour is largely unregulated (cidb, 2004:30). Even though labour laws provide basic minimum conditions for remuneration, compliance is breached through the use of labour brokers who continue to provide cheap labour in some instances (cidb, 2004:31).

In addition, less than a third of the wage earners are represented by collective bargaining councils; the rest find themselves operating in an unregulated environment (International Labour Organization, 2011:29). Efforts of the labour tripartite, which includes government, business and unions, have not been able to achieve amicable solutions to some of these labour related inconsistencies. Thus poor employment relations result in endless strikes, poor functioning and a tarnished reputation of the industry (Wilkinson, Johnstone, & Townsend, 2012:510).

Historically the construction industry in South Africa has relied on the services of a few skilled employees tasked with supervising the majority of the semi-skilled and unskilled workforce (cidb, 2004:31). The reality is that South Africa continues to face skills shortages across all sectors of the economy. The lack of skills is compounded by the structural problems such as poorly developed sectors of the economy comparable to the construction industry, which continues to utilise workers with elementary skills (Goldman, 2003:1; International Labour Organization, 2011:29).

From management perspectives, the construction industry has a relative shortage of skills (Lewis, 2007:10; cidb, 2007:2). The critical shortage of skills in engineering and construction in South Africa has an effect on the levels of productivity (Lewis, 2007:10). To avert this crisis critical skills are now being sourced from foreign countries which often results in increased project costs and poor transfer of skills to local workers (Chihuri & Pretorius, 2010:65).

The lack of skills also signifies a much bigger problem. In line with human resources interventions, many construction organizations are not contributing much to training and development of their workforce. For many organizations, uncertainty in the availability of projects and low profits determines the long term or short commitments that can be made towards uplifting the skills of employees (cidb, 2004:31).
However, the construction industry, in collaboration with the Construction Education and Training Authority (CETA) is making slow but significant progress in up scaling education initiatives for the construction workforce (cidb, 2004:31). CETA was established subsequently to the National Skills Development Plan of 1998, with the mandate of transforming the skills development processes of the construction industry (CETA, 2013). Through CETA learnerships and skills development projects, construction industry workforce skills requirements are aligned to the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) to accelerate the accreditation of the trades (CETA, 2013). In addition to the CETA framework, the Council for the Built Environment (CBE) further represents the various skilled professionals in the industry. CBE has the primary role of bringing together the professions that are active in the built environment (CBE, 2013). CBE purposes to consolidate the interests of the professions, government and the public with emphasis on the following principles:

- Good governance within professions through adherence to standards of health, safety, environmental protection, training and human resource development;
- Interaction between the various professions;
- Facilitating the participation of professions in integrated development regarding national goals; and,
- Enforcing the application of uniform standards for all professions in the built environment.

Currently, the CBE coordinates the activities of the following councils of professions (CBE, 2013):

- Engineering Council of South Africa (ECSA),
- South African Council for the Architectural Profession (SACAP),
- South African Council for the Quantity Surveying Profession (SACQSP),
- South African Council for the Property Valuers Profession (SACPVP),
- South African Council for the Landscape Architectural Profession (SACLAP) and
- South African Council for the Project and Construction Management Professions (SACPCMP)
Ultimately, to reverse the skills problems, concerted efforts from government and the relevant stakeholders, need to focus on both ends of the skills continuum, which includes, unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled labour to achieve proper development and reformation in the construction industry. Poor health and safety standards form part of characteristics of the construction industry in South Africa (Otham, 2012: 180). The construction industry operates in a dangerous and risky environment accounts for a high incidence of work related accidents (Atkinson & Wetsall, 2010: 1007). Consequently, South Africa has one of the highest incidences of construction related deaths (cidb, 2009). Accidents and injuries have been attributed to a variety of factors such as poor promotion, poor implementation of health and safety standards and non-compliance by both employers and employees (Otham, 2012: 180-189).

In the wake of non-compliance as a factor, it is difficult to promote a culture of health and safety (H&S) because most construction organizations contend that it is a costly exercise (Agumba & Haupt, 2009:463). To a certain extent, some accidents are attributed to physiological factors such fatigue, carelessness, stress and lack of discipline and other emotional stressors (Otham, 2012:189). It is evident, nonetheless that the framework of legislation and regulation for health and safety exist, however, enforcement is the greatest challenge (Engineering News, 2009). Modern human resources practices call for increased efficiency in the management of the workforce, through equality, health and safety promotion and improved education and training (Greed, 2013:197).

2.6.5 Globalization and Construction

Globalization has become ubiquitous in recent years, although theoretically its set of complex processes, is not fully understood (Coe, Johns, & Ward, 2007:503). Globalization is built on the concept of free trade and competition beyond geographical boundaries (Lewis, 2007:7; Makhlouf, 2012:31; Arokiasamy, 2012: 149). It encompasses the worldwide integration of economic, political, technological, cultural and social aspects across different countries (Hamilton, 2009:10).
A couple of decades after its inception as a concept, globalization has created an interconnected and interdependent world complete with a complex and multifaceted dynamic environment (Flanagan, Weighsheng, Shen, & Jewell, 2007:990).

Competitiveness and entrepreneurship, resulting from a globalized system, have become relevant instruments for determining the productivity of any country (Adamkiewicz-Drwillo, 2012:1554; World Economic Forum, 2012:4). Consequently, competition in a globalized world is inevitable (Flanagan, et. al., 2007:990). Many countries strive to achieve competitiveness via processes of attracting foreign direct investment (FDI) and skills from other countries. In addition political stability, sustained economic growth, appropriate infrastructure, exports, natural resources, good governance and an educational system that produces sufficient skills are prerequisites for competitiveness (Stevans, Neelankavil, Mendoza, & Shankar, 2012:76). In construction, the sourcing of services, materials, components and labour is vital for maintaining a competitive advantage over other firms in this globalised and competitive market (Jewell, Flanagan, & Anac, 2010:232).

Like many industries, globalization affects the characteristics and structure of international construction activity (Lewis, 2007:18). Currently, the construction industry constitutes an important component of global economic activity. In addition it is experiencing transformation to the extent that it is no longer restricted to participating in local and regional markets, but it is part of the interconnected global industry (Wilkinson, Johnstone, & Townsend, 2012:507). The demand for construction firms to be more client and marketing oriented is an example of the new global approach which emphasizes on best value and client satisfaction (Wilkinson, et al., 2012:507). In order to serve clients better and generate repeated business, engineering and construction firms are now compelled to elevate their agendas to the international level (Cheah, Chen & Ting, 2005:105). To some extent, this global exchange also fosters innovation, knowledge and technology diffusion between countries (Gundes, 20:11:613). Foreign ownership of businesses is a regular phenomenon, particularly in developing countries (Jewell & Flanagan, 2012:337).
Furthermore, due to globalization the demand for world standards and the revamp of existing facilities is increasing the demand for construction activity (Cheah, et al., 2005:105). This unprecedented integration and economic growth of most countries is testament to the massive opportunities for growth that globalization offers (Jewell, Flanagan & Anac, 2010:232).

South Africa is also regarded as a highly significant global participant with respect to its leadership, cooperation and influence in the transformation of global governance (Carmody, 2012:223). However, the degree to which it is becoming globalised is slow compared to other countries (Urban & Shree, 2012:292). For instance, most countries are experiencing an economic boom through entrepreneurship. South Africa on the other hand has not fully caught on with this trend due to financial, human capital and social challenges (Urban & Shree, 2012:292). Only a few well established South African firms expanded to other African and Middle Eastern markets to explore opportunities (Business Monitor International, 2011:11). On the contrary, for the most part, construction firms from the west are tapping into alternative markets to mitigate the highly saturated domestic markets (Jewell, Flanagan, & Anac, 2010:232). In addition, compared to its Western counterparts, the construction industry in South Africa is not yet reaping the rewards that are stimulated by the internationalization of markets (Business Monitor International, 2013).

From another perspective, globalization is perceived to be a double-edged sword (Makhlouf, 2012:31). Despite the many opportunities, there are areas of concern. To a large extent globalization is enabling multinational corporations from developed nations to exploit materials and human resources from the developing world (Lewis, 2007:25). In the same vein, qualified professionals are enticed by better opportunities in other countries which ultimately subjects the native countries to massive brain drain and insufficient skills (Lewis, 2007:13). Within industries, globalization is an advanced, one-sided battle won by the larger firms with competitive advantages over the smaller firms (Nayak, 2011:18). The promises of entrepreneurship in developing societies are dampened by the lack of financial capital which detracts businesses from these societies to compete globally (Nayak,
Ultimately, globalization is irreversible and it has the unintended consequence of marginalising and debilitating emerging contractors in the construction industry (Dlungwana & Rwelamila, 2004:2). Despite the technological innovations and advanced communication brought about by globalization, construction firms in the developing world have marginal access to the global economic activity. On the contrary the West has consolidated its dominance over global activity (Nayak, 2011:18).

Eventually, whatever the evolutions that globalization brings, the construction industry will be forced to adapt and make the best of this integration via benchmarking and incorporation of best practice principles, technology, communication and innovation which are all key for the successful growth of the industry in South Africa.

2.7 Critical Issues in the Construction Industry

This section outlines several critical issues that require attention in order to improve the development of the South African construction industry.

2.7.1 Sustainable Businesses and the Quality Outputs

The construction industry contributes to economic growth and the provision of employment (Butler, 2009:58). Therefore in order to develop this industry to its full potential, emerging contractors need to be sustainable and be able to compete alongside the larger and established firms (Du Plessis, 2007:67). Secondly, mobility regarding the grading status is necessary to show that the businesses are becoming more profitable and they are re-investing gains for future contracting opportunities (cidb, 2011:13). The success of the industry hinges on improved profit margins and performance (Greed, 2013:197). Quality in construction is linked to the overall performance of the industry. The general perception is that the industry produces unsatisfactory quality of outputs in the private and public sectors (cidb, 2011:7). Whilst some clients are satisfied with the quality of the buildings, clients in the residential building sector, such as low-income housing projects are far from being satisfied (cidb, 2011:7). Even though the standard for poor quality is debatable,
globally poor quality in construction is characterised by poor workmanship, unsafe structures, delays and increased costs (Jha & Iyer, 2006:1157)

According to Mbachu and Nkado (2007:50), various acts of omission and commission lead to poor quality in the construction industry. The quality of service, attitudes, speed and comprehensive service eventually taints optimal production in the industry. Furthermore, consultants and contractors influences, client organisational influences and the characteristics of projects account for the majority of the perceived divergences between expected and actual project outputs (Mbachu & Nkado, 2007:50). Other socio-cultural issues such fraud and corruption, government controls and the dynamics forged by globalisation and unforeseen economic circumstances inhibit the production and quality assurance of the industry (Mbachu & Nkado, 2007:50; cidb, 2011:40). In addition, trends of obscured procurement and delivery systems are some of the barriers that impede quality in construction. These factors signify the degree to which quality assurance is necessary for the development of the industry. Ultimately, the onus to ensure quality in the construction industry lies on both the clients and the contracting businesses (cidb, 2011:40).

2.7.2 Addressing Unethical Behaviour in Construction

The South African construction industry has a reputation of being unethical (Bowen, Akintoye, Pearl, & Edwards, 2007:631). Unethical behaviour in the construction industry comes in different forms such as corruption, unfair conduct, negligence, conflict of interest, collusion, fraud and bribery (Bowen, Pearl, & Edwards, 2007: 633-634). In most cases, ethics are flawed in all segments of the construction process, from tendering, procurement all the way to evaluations and delivery to clients (Bowen, Edwards, & Cattell, 2012:899). The industry is complex and involves a network of relationships between clients, providers and government, it is therefore not surprising that construction is dubbed as one of the most unethical industries in the world (Kenny, 2009:21). The causes for unethical behaviour are vast, but the foundation for unethical behaviour lies within the leadership and the culture of organizations (Bowen, Akintoye, Pearl, & Edwards, 2007:632).
Unfortunately, unethical behaviour erodes ability of the industry to produce quality and the long-term economic returns and investment of the industry are lost (Kenny, 2009:21). Corruption for example, is not only a construction related problem, rather it is a widespread phenomenon in South Africa (Bowen, Edwards, & Cattell, 2012:886). It is increasingly pervasive and widespread in the construction industry (Bowen, Edwards, & Cattell, 2012:885). Shakantu (2006) claims that corruption in the construction industry in South Africa occurs at all levels and in all phases of construction projects and that the impact extends beyond the industry itself.

Much recently, many reports have circulated about how large firms rigged contracts during the construction of infrastructure projects such as the sports stadiums, industrial development zones and the Gautrain (Van Rooyen, 2013). Reports indicate that firms have been found to participate in collusive tendering practices (Mail and Guardian, 2013; Gedye, 2013:2). Tender corruption especially in local government circles, has resulted in poor infrastructure and service delivery (Barron, 2013). Consequently, the processes of addressing unethical behaviour in the construction industry commenced in 2011, under the watchful eye of the Competition Commission. The Fast Track Settlement Process encouraged firms to make full and truthful disclosure regarding bid rigging and collusion in return for reduced penalties (Competition Commission, 2013). Firms that absconded from this process would face prosecution and harsher sentences (Competition commission, 2013). At the end of the process a total number of 15 major firms were found to have contravened the Competition Act 89 of 1998 and were subsequently slapped with fines amounting to approximately, one and a half billion Rand (R1.5 Billion) in total (Competition Commission, 2013). Clearly, the fines will send a message to other firms that unethical behaviour is not acceptable. It appears that, the industry is prepared to participate in a clean-up campaign, which will eventually rid it of unethical practices (SA Commercial Property News, 2013).

2.7.3 Sustainable Development and the Environment

Climate change resulting from the emission of greenhouse gases and the changes in the natural interactions of the atmosphere, land and water cannot be ignored (Hope, 2009:643; O’ Brien, 2012:540). Across the globe, drastic events such has flooding,
drought, increasing sea levels, erosion, fires, deforestation, depletion of potable water sources, increased poverty and displacement are constant reminders of the impact of climate change (Carker & Parker, 2009:677). Excess carbon emissions in the form of carbon dioxide (CO$_2$), methane (CH$_4$) and nitrous oxide (N$_2$O) have continuously eroded the atmospheric layer that protects the planet from the heat of the sun (Sengul, Pillay, Francis, Elkadi, & M, 2007:544). As a result, the earth’s surface is warming up at an alarming rate (Bye, Fraedrich, Schubert, & Zhu, 2013:309).

Major economies such as the United States and China bear the brunt of the criticism for being the largest producers of greenhouse gases but other smaller economies such as South Africa contribute to this excess. In fact, South Africa is recognised as one of the biggest consumers of energy in Africa (DME, 2003). As a result, it produces one of the highest levels of CO$_2$ in Africa due its dependence on energy produced from fossil fuels such as coal, oil and gas (DME, 2003; Winkler & Marquand, 2011:45). Inevitably, the various industries participating in the economy are part of the insatiable demand for energy from unsustainable and hazardous sources. The construction industry and the built environment make a substantial contribution to these statistics through the consumption of energy, the consumption of fresh water, in addition to the manufacture and use of harmful materials (Gibberd, 2010:35). As a response, businesses and industries are now being stirred to embrace initiatives towards mitigating the impact (Vogel, 2011:82).

The Sustainable development initiative calls for an integrated approach to social and economic development and the reduction of environmental degradation (Gibberd, 2010:34). The rationale for this approach is that, for development to occur successfully, a balance must be struck between the livelihoods of people, economic growth and the protection of the environment for future generations (Department of Tourism and Water Affairs, 2008:19).

Sustainable development initiatives specific to the construction industry have been subsequently developed. Sustainable construction aims at incorporating the general sustainable development concepts into normal construction practice (Matar, Georgy, & Elsaid, 2008:261). Its precepts indicate that a broad interpretation of construction
processes which involve a variety of role players is critical. Furthermore, environmental protection, the improved quality of life of people and technological responses to social and economic growth must form the value system of the construction industry (Du Plessis, 2007:69-70). Myers (2004:238) concludes that sustainable construction is represented by the following:

- buildings and infrastructure projects that are cost effective to produce and operate;
- construction projects that utilise materials that are easily replenished to ensure that the environment is protected; and
- higher standards of respect for people and communities involved in projects, from workers to the end users of the developments.

Ideally, sustainable construction must form part of the overall organizational strategy of existing or new projects (Shi, Zou, & Zillante, 2012:427). As the pressures on the natural environment increase, construction industry practices will increasingly come under scrutiny in terms of their contribution to environmental degradation (van Wyk, Kolev, Osburn, de Villiers, & Kimmie, 2011:17).

Therefore, in summary, the threat of climate change cannot be understated. Essential elements to the construction processes such as energy sources, materials and products used during project cycles up to maintenance and renovation must be aligned to sustainability (Kibert, 2013:4). It cannot be business as usual because the industry, apart from contributing to economic development, also has a role of enhancing the development and wellbeing of people and communities (Halliday, 2008:8). Furthermore, the industry needs to develop strategies for protecting the environment, which include, promoting biodiversity, preventing pollution and the use of proper waste disposal processes (Halliday, 2008:2).
2.8 Summary of this Chapter

The South African construction industry depicts great progress since 1994. Despite the numerous challenges brought about by the legacy of apartheid and newer developmental issues, it has contributed to the growth of the country. The industry has boosted the economy, uplifted the lives of people in the country through service delivery and infrastructure development. Coupled with government’s political will, through the string of policies and legislation, and the partnerships within the construction network, improvement has been marked by a significant increase of emerging small and medium enterprises. Despite the many successes, the industry is still at a developmental stage. The varieties of challenges are woven into the socio-economic and political environment and they depict the numerous cultural identities that inform the operations of the industry.

The general sentiment from the literature, government and media shows that the industry needs to make great leaps and embrace better approaches that will advance the industry as a whole. Contemporary approaches such as sustainability and technological innovations are critical to the development of the industry. However, perhaps the most important oversight in the construction arena relates to human resources management. The industry still needs to internalise and practice people-centred approaches. Health and safety, skills development and the general well-being of workers will define the success of the industry in the future. Thus, investment in these areas is critical.

The next chapter outlines the conceptual and theoretical frameworks of this study.
CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL PERSPECTIVES

3.1 Introduction

Chapter two provided an overview of the South African construction industry, detailing the background of the industry, the developmental processes that have taken place since the democratic dispensation and the manner in which the industry is located in the South African socio-economic and political landscape. Furthermore, the successes and challenges of the industry were highlighted in the same chapter.

This chapter presents a review of literature that forms the foundation of this study. An overview of concepts and the theories associated with each concept are examined. The approach of the study is enunciated through two aspects of enquiry. The first, which is to determine the nature of organizational culture and work-life balance in the construction industry and the second, which determines the linkages between organizational culture and work – life balance, including the relationship between work – life balance and individual performance. These concepts have a direct link to the problem statement and research questions as set out in the first chapter as Rocco and Plakhotnik (2009:126) established.

After the description of each of the concepts a theoretical positioning of the concepts is presented. A theoretical context provides orientation and positions research in the relevant discipline or disciplines of which it is based (Henning, Van Rensburg, & Smit, 2004:25). In addition it exposes the interconnectedness of things and anchors the research in the literature to facilitate a dialogue between the literature and the study (Henning, Van Rensburg, & Smit, 2004:25). The theoretical analysis therefore, encompasses various theories that are relevant to a particular study. In principle, this includes theories of cultural, social and psychological processes at different levels that can be applied to the understanding of phenomena (Anfara & Mertz, 2006:xxvii). Theory functions in three ways in research; it helps researchers to avoid flukes, it helps researchers to make sense of observed patterns and it allows the researcher to shape and direct research processes (Babbie, 2009:59).
Within the confines of qualitative research, a well-balanced research will explore works in various disciplines such as economics, sociology, psychology and anthropology and it is this diversity and richness that allows researchers to see new and variable meanings to what is considered normal or abnormal (Anfara & Mertz, 2006:xxvii). Although the debate on the importance and interpretation of theory, especially in qualitative research, rages on, researchers are confident that the role of theory in research is inescapable and persuasive in today’s dynamic environment (Anfara & Metz, 2006:xxvii). Organizational culture, work-life balance and work performance have their foundations on vast, multidisciplinary literature ranging from sociology and anthropology to industrial psychology. Thus, this section entails a combination of elements to produce interpretations on the critical theory, the extension of value and any lacuna that exists. Overall, reviewing the literature creates a smooth transition from the analysis of the literature to the research methodology phase. The literature provides a basis for the methodology and research design. Depending on the type of research, the literature review gives the researcher an opportunity to utilise research methodology that has been tried and tested.

3.2 Organizational culture as a concept

Organizational culture has its roots in the combinations of cultural manifestations that are different from one person to another or one group to another (Tijhuis & Fellows, 2012:52). Organizational culture came to prominence in the 1980’s when major works from different scholars such as Hofstede (Culture’s consequences: International differences in work related values, published in 1980) and Schein (Organizational Culture and Leadership, published in 1985), promoted the idea of a strong organizational culture as a way of guiding the behaviour of workers and the infinite possibilities that managers possessed, in altering culture for organizational benefits (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004:642; Walker, 2011:177). Prior to that, many scholars had begun discussing culture and contextualising it in fields such as management (O'Donovan, 2006:36). Currently, culture provides many opportunities for the development of new conceptions since it has not been studied extensively in group or occupational domains, to spawn new theory in research (Schein, 2010:3).
That is to say this field of research is not exhaustive. Despite the lack of new theory, it is still an evolving field (Schein, 2010:3).

Kroeber and Kluckhon (1952) found as many as 164 definitions of culture. Kroeber and Kluckhon (1952) summarised that culture referred to explicit and implicit patterns of human behaviours, acquired and transmitted by symbols (O’Donovan, 2006:3). Furthermore, they held that culture was entrenched in human beings’ responses to artefacts, traditional ideas, their attached values and culture systems as products of actions or habits for future actions (Tijhuis & Fellows, 2012:45). In management research, the rich and extensive scope of meanings and definitions of organizational culture expands knowledge, helps diagnose and transform existing cultures because ultimately, culture has a major impact on companies’ abilities to carry out objectives and plans for any strategic direction (Chan, Shaffer, & Snape, 2007:20). Although the debate on the specificities of culture rages on, each researcher has contributed to the comprehensive understanding of this subject matter and the significance regarding the overall analysis is that culture is manifested in the typical characteristics of the organization (Kondra & Hurt, 2009:39). It is the demonstration of deeply rooted values and beliefs that are shared by personnel in an organization (Sun, 2008:137).

Perhaps the starting point in the attempt to grasp the literature that exists on organizational culture lies in the definition of the term itself. Globally, organizational culture has raised or suffered contentious debates as scholars from wide ranging spectrums dissent about the various definitions or guidelines, which are intended to provide easier ways to embrace this concept. As a result, organizational culture seems to be understood better than it is defined in contemporary human relations circles (Walker, 2011:178; Tijhuis & Fellows, 2012:52). Organizational culture has earned the title of being the most elusive concept simply because it does not have a widely accepted definition. Rather it has a wide variety of definitions that have been proposed for the purposes of progress (Walker, 2011:178, Kondra & Hurst, 2009:41). This lack of congruence in its definition points to imprecision in understanding organizational culture and it prevents the development of meaningful empirical research (Walker, 2011:179). Huckzynski and Buchanan (2004:642) fervently posit
that organizational culture remains a controversial concept by drawing attention to the contrasting perspectives between writers of self-improvement books or management textbooks which satisfy managerial functions and academic social scientists who are continuously fuelling the academic debates (Walker, 2011:179). Critics believe that the managerial approach does not explain what organizational culture is, it merely prescribes what it should be to achieve greater efficiency and how it should be changed. On the opposite end social scientists believe that organizational culture is under-defined and requires better definitions (Walker, 2011:180). It is plausible because management fields are constantly looking for ways to promote effective organizations whereas academics are caught in intellectual debates about the merits and demerits of knowledge.

In his expansive works, Hofstede has made indelible interpretation of organizational culture, indicating that it is the collective programming of the mind of a group within organizations, which distinguishes the members of one organization from another (Hofstede, 1984:13). Later he noted that although there was no consensus on the definition of organizational culture, it was in fact holistic, historically determined, related to anthropological concepts, socially constructed, soft, and difficult to change. This revealed the characteristics of organizations which had been recognized separately in the literature in the previous decades (Hofstede, 1984:13). Hofstede further argued that cultures in general are consolidated over long periods of time and are difficult to attain (Hostede, 1991:4). Meaning that within organizations, cultures mature over extended periods of time. Accordingly, as per Hofstede’s interpretation, organizational culture integrates all of these characteristics into one construct (Hofstede, Neuijen, & Ohayv, 1990:286). To quell the differences in opinion Schein (2010) in an effort to revisit his original position in the 1980’s, points out that the most useful way to arrive at a definition of something as abstract as organizational culture is to embrace revolutionary thinking on the subject. Schein adds that until humans fully grasp what culture is, where it comes from, its evolution, people can only understand that it exists in a group, unconsciously and it has a powerful influence on the group’s behaviour (Schein, 2010:17).
As if to exacerbate the confusion, attempts to provide comprehensive definition often result in lengthy and bloated but necessary information. The culture of a group can now be defined as a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group to solve problems, external adaptation and internal integration, which have functioned effectively to be considered valid enough to be taught to new members as the correct way of perceiving, thinking, feeling and acting (Schein, 2010:18). In the same vein, many scholars have questioned whether culture is a manifestation of rationalized organizational action, routine and a myth resulting from organizational carriers or if it creates or reproduces itself through the cognitive, structural processes and routines (Kondra & Hurst, 2009:44). According to Scott (1995) the reproduction, transmission and maintenance of culture is believed to occur through counteracting forces which produce gradual change to values, meanings and ideas (Kondra & Hurst, 2009:44).

Deal and Kennedy (1982:4) describe organizational culture in a simplistic manner; “the way we do things around here”, adding that every business or organization has a culture and it is distinguished according to a variety of characteristics. It is fragmented, difficult to read from the outside, possesses loyalty issues, it can be weak or strong, cohesive or fragmented, all of which have a powerful influence throughout the organization from promotions to dress code and other daily activities (Deal & Kennedy, 1982:4). In Ouchi’s (1981:41) view, organizational culture is a set of symbols, ceremonies and myths that communicate the underlying values and beliefs of that organization to its employees. That is to say culture is a manifestation of deep values that are set in the subconscious. Peters and Wells (1981:103) interpret culture as a dominant and coherent set of shared values conveyed by symbolism, such as stories, myths legends slogans, anecdotes and fairy tales. Surprisingly this definition seems to veer in the direction of traditional cultures as defined in anthropology. It offers a simplistic layman’s view on culture in general, although its components can also be transposed in modern organizations. Bro Uttal (1983) also suggests that organizational culture is a system of shared values (what is important) and beliefs (how things work) that interact with people, organizational structures and control systems to produce behavioural norms (the way things are done) (Sun, 2008:137).
Markovic (2008:4) proposes a contemporary preface of organizational culture. Markovic concludes that organizational culture includes values, leadership style, language and symbols, procedures and routines, definitions of success that form the characteristics of the organization. In addition, organizational culture is a specific collection of norms and values that are shared by individuals and groups within organizations, which control internal and external interactions (Markovic, 2008:4).

It appears that very little has changed in defining organizational culture because modern literature still carries the same themes that were consolidated in the past. In addition, a significant proportion of the literature refers to many of the works produced in the 1980’s thus corroborating Schein’s (2010) position that no new meaningful dispensation of organizational culture has been produced. In summary, the process of attempting to reduce organizational culture into a well-rounded definition has produced a selection of attributes which form the cornerstone of the subject (O’Donovan, 2006:34-44). The attributes that form the cornerstone of organizational culture, that also pre-empt the various cultural themes that are experienced in organizations are:

- The way things are done in organizations;
- Leadership;
- Rites, rituals and ceremonies;
- Values, beliefs and behaviours; and
- Patterns of basic assumptions.

Defining organizational culture is not as important as understanding that it exists. Therefore research in this area will always be relevant for as long as the manifestations of organizational culture are visible in organizations.
3.2.1. The Themes of Organizational Culture

In addition to the vast spectrum of definitions, the analysis of organizational culture has further produced general themes to allow for an actual and clearer interpretation of culture in work environments. Hofstede (1984:16) submits that culture as the collective programming of the mind, manifests in three levels; individual, collective and universal. Hofstede adds that the universal level in the form of macro cultures is entirely inherited whereas the individual level is difficult to explain but it is also programmed through socialization. The collective level is experienced when the mental encryption is learned and shared by the members of a particular group, such as work environments (Hofstede, 1984:16). Table 3.1 presents an interpretation of the classifications of culture in organizations.

### Table 3.1 Classifications of Culture in organizations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Drivers</th>
<th>Central Paradigm</th>
<th>Needs</th>
<th>What is required by a group to be happy, productive workers, needs generate emotions, motives and energy which can be positive or negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>The network of shared beliefs principles and values, and assumptions from which people derive the meaning and understanding in their world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Behaviour</td>
<td>Patterns of shared attitudes in relation to people, things and situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Artefacts</td>
<td>Patterns of shared conduct in different situations, including daily routines and the means deemed acceptable for achieving ends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Results</td>
<td>Artefacts include symbols of the past and present and those which represent what the company aspires to be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Results reinforce or distribute the beliefs and assumptions of major stakeholders in the organization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: O’Donovan, 2006
According to O’ Donovan (2006:68) these cultural manifestations have a cause and effect relationship in organizations stretching from the drivers, which are experienced as individual needs, to expressions that can be observed from behaviour or attitudes and reflections which become models and reminders for future behaviours.

Schein (2010:23) offers another convincing structure for this discourse. He indicates that culture can be broken down into several different levels, which pronounce the degree to which the cultural phenomenon is visible to the observer. He explains that there are three key levels to understanding organizational culture and they are summarized in the Table 3.2.

### Table 3.2 Schein’s Interpretation of levels of organizational culture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Artefacts</strong></td>
<td>• Surface Manifestations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Visible and feel-able structures and processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Observed Behaviour which is often difficult to decipher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Espoused Beliefs and Values</strong></td>
<td>• Ideals, goals, values and aspirations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Ideologies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rationalizations which may or not be congruent with behaviour and other artefacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Basic Assumptions</strong></td>
<td>• Unconscious, taken for granted beliefs and values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Determine behaviour, perception, thought and feeling</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Schein, 2010
Schein (2010:23) motivates that at the surface, artefacts which include all the phenomena that are visible to the naked eye, heard, felt and encountered, symbolize a certain culture. Within organizations, these artefacts include the physical environment, language, technology, manners, clothing, myths or stories about the organization (Schein, 2010:23). Schein further asserts, possibly from the pressure of some analysts, that artefacts are difficult to decipher because in most cases, the symbols that reflect such artefacts are ambiguous and individuals’ interpretations may simply be personal projections.

According to O’Donovan (2006:77) artefacts reflect aspirations or results, but they are nonetheless difficult to analyse and interpret correctly. Espoused beliefs and values form the second level of culture in organizations and they normally reflect individuals’ original beliefs or ideas (Schein, 2010:27). The individual with the novel ideas will influence the group to adopt the ideas and in many cases the ideas are rejected if the group does not embrace them. If it is accepted, of course after being tested whether it works or not, the idea moves from being just a shared value or belief to being a shared assumption (Schein, 2010:27). This results in social validation, which allows certain beliefs and values to be reinforced by the shared experiences of a group (Schein, 2010:27, Fox, 2006:34).

The downside, however is that espoused beliefs and values often leave large areas of behaviour unexplained, therefore to get a deeper level of understanding of organizational culture in order to predict behaviour properly, it is crucial to scrutinize the basic underlying assumptions (Schein, 2010:27). Basic underlying assumptions form the third level of culture. These are basically theories in use or the assumptions that are employed to actually guide behaviour (Schein, 2010:28). The difficulty with this level is that, assumptions tend be rigid and difficult to change, they cannot be confronted or be subjected to debate even when it seems necessary (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004:650). In addition, assumptions are easily taken for granted yet they form part of the unconscious value systems of most individuals (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004:650). Figure 3.1 depicts organizational culture as a submerged part of an iceberg, which manifests in the behaviour, processes, forms and symbols in an organization (Werner, 2007:33)
Figure 3.1 The Organizational Culture Iceberg

Source: Pekkanen, 2010 (adapted from Schein, 1984 and Sackman, 1991)

The manifestations represent the things that can be seen, heard and touched such as food, dress codes, language and stories. In organizations, these manifestations are accepted sometimes without even appreciating their source or reasons for existence. Furthermore, people within the organizations may perpetuate these unconsciously by merely repeating them until they become a way of life in that organization.
A common thread flows through these models of organizational culture. The literature reveals that whilst there is no precise explanation of organizational culture, it exists and all organizations retain underlying beliefs and assumptions. In addition the deeper levels of culture which are difficult to measure provide the foundation from which behaviour and actions spring (Tijhuis & Fellows, 2012:13). In summary culture in organizations has the following key characteristics (Sun, 2008:138); mental conditioning which confirms the cognitive underpinnings of cultural ideas, beliefs and value systems; learned and shared identities and strategy required to shape and predict future actions.

Evidently, the themes expand on the different facets that culture exhibits in organizations. Another important aspect to the cultural debate is the manner and degree to which culture is developed, changed or maintained in organizations (Armenakis, Brown & Mehta, 2011:306). In the past, organizations did not set out to develop specific cultures. Instead, cultures developed over time under the guise of norms, practices and procedures. With the advent of organizational theory, many organizations nowadays set out to develop or change existing cultures. Leadership and decision makers can now change or transform that culture if it is necessary for the success of the organization (Armenakis, Brown, & Mehta, 2011:306).

Culture is a deep concept and its historical roots make it more tricky to change (O’Donovan, 2006:185). Therefore changing a culture is not a simple process. Most organizations end up with massive problems especially when culture proves to be an obstacle to progress (Katzenbach, Steffen, & Kronley, 2012:5). In such cases, the best way to manoeuvre around the challenges is for leadership to focus on the strengths of an existing culture rather than changing it (Katzenbach, Steffen, & Kronley, 2012:5). The process of maintaining culture in organizations is highlighted by the fact that organizational environments are characterized by elaborate rules and requirements. In order for these rules and requirements to receive legitimacy, individuals within the organization must conform to them first (Meyer & Scott, 1983:149). That is to say, organizational environments are key to shaping organizational forms, processes and beliefs (Kondra & Hurt, 2009:40).
New companies are at an advantage because they can identify a specific culture for their organization from the onset because there are specific points of reference. Once a particular culture has been defined, more effort is required to maintain it. DiMaggio and Powell (1983:147) indicate that the structures and processes that are formed in institutions may be particular to the organization but coercive, mimetic and normative forces facilitate maintenance through conformity or legitimacy to ensure the survival and efficiency of the organization. DiMaggio and Powel (1983:150) contend that coercive processes result from both formal and informal pressures exerted on organizations by other organizations upon which they are dependent on and by the cultural expectations of the society within which the organization operates. In some circumstances, organizational change is a direct response to government directives or mere persuasion and force from external factors (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983:150)

Institutional isomorphism, which refers to structural similarities, can also be derived from mimetic processes through which uncertainty encourages imitation. When organizations experience difficulty due to ambiguous or unmet goals, they are forced by uncertainty to model themselves against other organizations (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983:151). Thus, modelling is a response to uncertainty (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983:151). Often, organizations are likely to model similar organizations in their field or those that are perceived to be more legitimate or successful (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983:152). The last source of isomorphic reactions in organizations are normative pressures which are normally created through professionalization as professionals attempt to legitimize themselves through education and professional networks (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983:152). Eventually, attempts to standardize are imposed through socialization and the end result is a set of professional behaviours which provide a focal point for external legitimization (Kondra & Hurt, 2009:41).

In many organizations, filtering of personnel through the recruitment and retention process is an example of how normative forces come into play to shape the organizational behaviour of employees. During induction, the employee is given a bird's eye view of the entire operation of a particular company. Induction is not limited to the job description.
DiMaggio and Powell (1983:157) further argue that although these isomorphic processes are not exhaustive, they are consonant with the ethnographic debate of organizations and can provide the much-needed perspectives on the struggle for organizational power and survival.

The leader also plays an important role in the processes of developing, changing and maintaining specific cultures within an organization. Accordingly, the cultural leader orchestrates the artefacts that describe the culture and in order to be considered as a credible leader by the organizational members, the leader must exhibit honesty, competence, inspiration and vision (Armenakis, Brown, & Mehta, 2011:322). Sometimes, leaders possess negative values and they are likely to be reflected throughout the entire organization. A corrupt leader will not shy away from corruption especially if it is for his/her benefit. Then, other employees at different levels begin to master the art of small-scale corruption. Eventually the scourge of corruption is entrenched in the culture of the organization.

Cultural carriers are the formal and informal leaders throughout the organization who are required to reinforce the thoughts and actions of the cultural leader and send messages regarding the correct way to behave (Armenakis, Brown, & Mehta, 2011:322). Relying on Schein’s disposition about underlying assumptions, long and short strategies often contain ethical reflections of the organization’s culture (Armenakis, Brown, & Mehta, 2011:323).

For modern organizations, the most important practices in developing and maintaining organizational culture are leadership, attraction, recruitment, socialization, reward systems, decision making and organizational learning (Verbos, Gerard, Forshey, Harding, & Miller, 2007:3). Credible leadership is believed to foster stronger organizational internalization whereas the other factors act as motivation strategies for employees (Armenakis, Brown, & Mehta, 2011:323). Cultural internalization occurs when employees internalize the culture of an organization to give them identity, collective thinking and feeling and most importantly the modification of behaviour (Armenakis, Brown, & Mehta, 2011:323).
Even though organizational culture is not straightforward, many scholars agree that it is a critical subject because work characteristics in organizations are entrenched in organizational culture (Santos, Hayward, & Ramos, 2012:25). Every organization has its own culture or shared systems of meanings that differentiate its members from members of other organizations (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005:20). Thus, its importance in the management of modern and globalized organizations cannot be overemphasised. Apart from leadership and management philosophy, it is undisputable that culture in organizations is also influenced by the nature of the industry, which includes amongst other factors the specific design of the physical work environment. The South African construction industry, which is the subject of this study, lacks extensive research in this area. Instead, what is known about the industry is perpetuated by the media and people’s experiences.

### 3.2.2 The Importance of Organizational Culture

Culture forms an integral part of the general functioning of an organization and provides shared values that ensure that everyone in an organization is aligned. To show the importance of organizational culture, Martin & Terblanche (2003:65) propose two dimensions that emphasise the importance of organizational culture; its function and its influence on the different processes in the organization. In many instances, the functions of culture are relatively aimed at creating an identity of the organization and a competitive advantage over other organizations (Fox, 2006:33; O'Donovan, 2006:5).

The shared systems of meanings form the basis of communication and understanding (Sun, 2008:140). Schein (1992) suggests that culture in organizations further supports the management of external adaptation, which allows each company to create a vision, mission, goals and strategy and how these will be implemented towards the success of the company. Schein adds that on another level, culture in organizations allows internal integration in which members form common communication values such as language, distribute power and status and define the bureaucracies, boundaries for inclusion and exclusion, developing interpersonal norms as well as defining and allocating remedies, punishments or awards.
Other scholars have even proposed that organizational culture is important because it determines how power is exercised and experienced (Kondra & Hurst, 2009:42). It is an important social coheive that assists in holding an organization together (Fox, 2006:33). Martins (1987, 1997), and in Martins and Terblanche (2003:66), concludes that based on thorough research, the functions of culture in organizations are embedded in the following processes:

- Mission and vision which determines the workforce’s understanding of the vision, mission and values of the organization, and how these will be transformed into measurable individual and team goals and objectives;
- External environment which determines the degree of focus on external and internal customers;
- Means to achieve objectives which determines the way in which the organizational structure and support mechanisms contribute to the effectiveness of the organization;
- Image of the organization to the outside world and whether it is a sought after employer;
- Management process which focuses on the manner in which management processes take place, such as decision making, innovation, control processes and communication;
- Employee needs and objectives which focus on the integration of employees needs and objectives with those of the organization;
- Interpersonal relationships which focus on the relationship between managers and personnel and the management of conflict; and
- Leadership which focuses on specific areas that strengthen governance.

The other dimension is that culture is a system of rules that spells out how people are to behave in organizations (Deal & Kennedy, 1982:15). Culture will also have an influence on employee motivation, employee morale and ultimately an increase in the quality of work, innovation, creativity and overall productivity (Campbell, Stonehouse, & Houston, 2002:55). Culture also influences personnel selection and performance appraisals because most companies look for people who can fit into the organizations culture (Armenakis, Brown, & Mehta, 2011:318).
The same applies to other employee needs such as training and employee safety (Armenakis, Brown, & Mehta, 2011:319). Ultimately organizational culture has direct bearing on performance, whether to sustain it or to engender success and the desired performance, individually or for the organization as a whole (Chan, Shaffer, & Snape, 2007:28). In summary, Werner (2011:33) also posits that organizational culture creates a corporate identity to give members a form of identity, creates commitment to organizational plans and objectives, promotes the formation of acceptable behaviours, attitudes and problem-solving, promotes a stable social system which is linked to emotional stability and it serves as a benchmark for managing deviant or desired behaviours.

3.3 Theories relating to Organizational Culture
The theories relevant to this study are examined in this section.

3.3.1 Leadership
Over the past century, numerous studies regarding leadership have been conducted and many theories have been developed in order to provide definitive explanations of the attributes of a good leader (Erasmus, Schenk, & van Wyk, 2008:340; Lord, Jefferson, Klass, Nowak, & Thomas, 2013:180). Whilst it has gained the attention of researchers worldwide, it is not wanting of paradoxes, rather it is still over loaded with vague and emotive ideas making it a difficult concept to nail down (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004:717; Grint, 2005:1). It is a complex process with multiple dimensions (Northouse, 2010:1). Allio (2013:4) concludes that leadership changes from time to time, it appears and disappears rendering it an elusive concept. Central to this study is the link between organizational culture and leadership.

Allio adds that the invisible forces of organizational culture are intrinsically connected to leadership. In most instances, the manner in which cultures are established, changed and reinforced lie in the leaders. The initial culture flows from the founder’s thinking and business philosophy. If the founder’s focus is on success, a success culture permeates throughout the organization (Werner, 2011:40). In line with the different cultures, each formation of culture needs a hero and in most cases, the leader or leadership assumes this position. This is particularly important for the
construction industry, which is largely a consortium of entrepreneurs who are ordinary businessmen. The assumption is that the cultures in the businesses are likely to be created and reinforced by the owners of such businesses. Leadership is also associated with management. Whether the two are similar or not, researchers argue that leadership and management processes overlap and that the difference lies in the manner in which they influence a group towards goal attainment (Northouse, 2010:2). To the ordinary person, every manager needs leadership skills and every leader needs management skills. Nevertheless, leadership continues to be a highly captivating idea both in academia and practice (Schyns, Kiefer, Kerschreiter, & Tymon, 2011:397).

According to Stogdill (1974:7) leadership can be defined in as many ways as the number of people who have attempted to define it. Many of the definitions also mirror the work of the influential researcher, Stogdill (1950:3) who defined leadership as an influencing process aimed at goal achievement. Recent scholarly research has identified the following components that are central to defining leadership; leadership is a process, leadership involves influence, leadership occurs in groups, leadership involves common goals (Northouse, 2010:3).

Thus, leadership is a process that involves an individual influencing a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2010:3). Waddell, Devine, Jones and George (2007:193) define leadership as “the process by which an individual exerts influence over other people and inspires, motivates and directs their activities to help achieve group or organizational goals”. Furthermore, authority, power, responsibility, accountability and delegation are core pretexts of leadership (Du Toit, Erasmus, & Strydom, 2010:212). Contemporary literature on leadership has further classified leadership paradigms or approaches which represent a shared mind-set about the way in which we think, perceive, study, research and understand leadership (Lussier & Achua, 2004:15). They include the trait theory paradigm, the behavioural leadership theory paradigm and the integrative leadership paradigm (Erasmus, Schenk, & van Wyk, 2008:341). Some scholars are of the opinion that leadership can be examined through the qualities approach, situational approach, functional approach and the contemporary approaches (Adair, 2006:9).
3.3.2 Trait Theory Paradigm/ Qualities Approach

Classical literature and research indicates that leaders possess a unique set of qualities. These characteristics distinguish effective leaders from non-effective leaders (Erasmus, Schenk, & van Wyk, 2008:341). This gave birth to trait theories of leadership and statements such as “He is a born leader or she is a natural leader” were commonly used (Northouse, 2010:4). This viewpoint would be later refuted by academics who contended that no single trait or collection of traits could clearly and concisely differentiate good leaders from not so good leaders (Erasmus, Schenk, & van Wyk, 2008:342). The trait theories lacked flair because they overlooked the needs of the followers; they failed to clarify the relative importance of various traits; and could not separate cause from effect and failed to specify traits without considering situational factors (Robbins, 1996:45; Northouse, 2010:26).

Lately the trait approach has gained new interest, particularly with the rise of charismatic leadership which confirms in part the notion that certain leaders actually do possess certain traits required for leadership (Northouse, 2010:18). Intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity and sociability are some of those qualities that have been identified with a good leader (Northouse, 2010:19). Consequently, the trait approach provides valuable information about leadership and it can be applied across the board in different organizations. Furthermore it also allows individuals to identify personal strengths or weaknesses in the workplace (Northouse, 2010:27).

3.3.3 Behavioural Leadership Theory Paradigm/ Style Approach

The behavioural approach emerged post World War II. Emphasis was placed on the behaviour of the leader (Erasmus, Schenk, & van Wyk, 2008:342). Numerous studies make reference to this approach, but the research of the Ohio State, Michigan as well as Blake and Mouton (1964, 1978, 1985) revolutionized this approach years after Lewin’s Three Classical Styles of leadership (Erasmus, Schenk, & van Wyk, 2008:342). Lewin (1939) classified the following leadership styles; Authoritarian, Democratic, Laissaez faire (Erasmus, Schenk, & van Wyk, 2008: 342). In definition these leadership styles entail;
- Authoritarian leaders provide clear expectations of what must be done and why. However, the leader retains all authority and responsibility and subordinate initiative is stifled.
- Democratic (Participative) leaders participate and offer input and guidance to subordinates although it can be a very slow and time consuming process with reduced productivity.
- Lassaiize- faire (Delagative) leaders leave decision making to groups with little or no advice, allowing the absence of direction (Executive Leadership, 2010:1).

According to Northouse (2010:72), the Ohio State researchers concluded that there were two types of leader behaviours;

- Initiating structure - behaviours which are essentially task behaviours including acts such as organizing work, giving structure to the work context, defining roles and responsibilities and scheduling;
- Consideration behaviours which are relationship behaviours and include respect, trust, and cordial behaviours between leaders and followers.

The University of Michigan Studies also identified two types of leadership; employee orientation and production orientation;

- Employee orientation refers to the behaviours of leaders who approach workers with a strong human relations emphasis and they have great interest in workers as human beings.
- Production orientation consists of leadership behaviours that place emphasis on technical and production aspects of work (Northouse, 2010:72).

Blake and Mouton (1964) developed a widely used model of managerial behaviour by identifying seven distinct styles against the backdrop of two factors; concern for the people and concern for production (Northouse, 2010:78; Werner, 2011:358). The classes are as follows;
• Authority compliance – a style of leadership which prioritizes task and job requirements, rather than people e.g.; controlling, demanding and overpowering traits.

• Country-Club Management – a style that shows low concern for task accomplishment but a high interest in interpersonal relationships e.g. positive, helpful.

• Impoverished Management – this style represents a leader who is not concerned with both the task and production e.g. non-committal, apathetic and indifferent.

• Middle of the Road Management – this style represents leaders who are compromisers and have intermediate concern for both the tasks and the people.

• Team Management – this style places a high degree of care on tasks and the interpersonal relationships e.g. open minded, strong work ethic.

• Paternalism/Maternalism – this style is represents leaders that isolate or separate work from people e.g. dictators.

• Opportunism – describes leaders who use a combination of the basic five styles for the purpose of personal advancement.

3.3.4 Contingency Leadership Paradigm
This paradigm focuses on the situational factors that determine the patterns of leadership. It suggests that effective leadership depends on the situation, the fit in personality, task, power, attitude and perception (Erasmus, Schenk, & van Wyk, 2008:344). The variant theories encompassed in this theory include McGregor’s Theories X and Y, Fielder’s contingency model, Hersey and Blanchards’s Situational Theory and Vrooms Approach (Walker, 2011:259).

The Fielder’s Model is the earliest of the contingency paradigms and it indicates that leadership effectiveness is largely influenced by the match between the leader’s distinct style, the followers and the situation. Whereas the Situational Theory, drawing from Stodgill and Fielders model confirms that leaders actually have the ability to modify their leadership style whenever necessary to suit the requirement of a certain time (Walker, 2011:262; Fiore, 2004:30).
Vroom’s Theory which stems from Greek hedonism, assumes that behaviour is more likely to be directed towards pleasure rather than pain. Therefore people are also likely to select behaviours that will maximize their pleasure. Vroom’s approach is no different from the last two approaches because it also places emphasis on the impression that leaders are capable of adopting different leadership styles notwithstanding, however that the leadership is effective only to the extent to which subordinates can be allowed to participate in decision making (Walker, 2011:266). McGregor’s Theories X and Y, attribute leadership style on leaders assumptions about the subordinates and the assumptions are classified as Theory X and Theory Y Assumptions. Theory X assumptions elucidate the negative side of people who are inherently lazy, incapable of self-discipline, self-control and have limited creativity when solving problems within organizations. On the other hand, Theory Y indicates the opposite, that people are generally capable of hard work, are motivated, creative and have the capacity to self-regulate (Walker, 2011:266).

3.3.5 Contemporary Approaches

(i) Integrative/Inspirational Paradigm

A variety of scholars have proposed that in order to understand the concept of leadership, the leadership theories must evolve and adapt to the nature and content of leadership as it is experienced in current times (Lussier & Achua, 2004:16). Indeed the contemporary models indicate a paradigm shift. Leadership needs to incorporate different models or styles depending on the situation at which leadership is exercised. The rationale behind this shift is that no leadership style or theory is conclusive (Walker, 2011:269). Ironically, Transformational and Charismatic leadership have brought confusion to the leadership debate. Charismatic leaders possess charisma which allows followers to believe, trust and respect their leadership. Inadvertently, transformational leaders utilise certain behaviours, including charisma to lead a change process within organizations (Werner, 2011:365).

The difference between transformational leaders and charismatic leaders is very blurred. This may well be a situation of transformational and charismatic leaders being two sides of the coin. An example of a person that falls into this category is the
current United States President Obama. Both of his presidential campaigns were inspirational. He inspired people around the world that things were possible. Similarly, he managed to pull off his strategy with charisma.

Apart from the fact that the various leadership models, capture in part some of the models utilised in understanding organizational culture, leaders have the innate yet challenging responsibility of changing and aligning organizational cultures to strategy (Lussier & Achua, 2007:346). Furthermore, in order to create strong high performance cultures, leaders need to initiate a variety of organizational processes such as strategy formulation, motivation processes, management control, conflict management (Lussier & Achua, 2007:347). Thus leadership and organizational culture are in a sense mutually or intrinsically interlinked because culture also manifests itself on leadership from and organizational or national context (Walker, 2011:26). Huczynski and Buchanan (2007) comment that modern literature on organizational culture does little to emphasise the link between organizational culture and leadership although both concepts are equally important in organizations. For the purposes of this study, the assumption is that organizational culture is intrinsically linked to leadership.

Culture does not only have an effect on leadership but it permeates throughout company structures, norms and processes, communities and clients including the very government that most contractors conduct business with. In addition culture is established and reinforced by leaders within organizations. That means that for culture to thrive it requires leaders. Inadvertently, the leadership style will also determine the processes that reinforce the culture. Another aspect of this organizational culture/leadership phenomenon is that for a culture to be reinforced it requires people or groups. In simple terms, the organizational leader leads people who are often stratified according to groups. Thus, groups or the followers also play an important part in reinforcing the culture. This deliberation on leadership is fundamental to the enquiry. Classifying the organizational culture is embodied in leadership and leadership processes. This is illustrated in Figure 3.2.
Figure 3.2 The leader as the pioneer of culture

Source: Researchers interpretation, 2014

3.4 Measuring the organisational culture of an organisation

In order to gain an appreciation of culture and to understand similarities and differences between cultures, it is logical to determine the dimensions on which cultures may be measured. The dimensions of culture and the relevant constructs constitute a baseline for determining the different profiles in order to facilitate the appreciation of individual organizational cultures (Fellows, 2009:47).

The 1980’s witnessed a surge in an interest to examine the concept of organisational culture as managers became increasingly aware of the ways that an organizational culture could affect employees and the organization (Lund, 2003:219, Fortado & Fadil, 2012:283). By the 1920’s to the 1960’s the organizational culture was a source of debates in the human relations field. It was at this time, that the Hawthorne researchers launched the human relations field by proving that a formal organization actually had a shadow counterpart called the informal organization and that individuals could not be isolated in the workplace, but they had to be construed as being part of a specific informal group (Fortado & Fadil, 2012:284, Trice & Beyer, 1993:23). Ironically, the analogy came after a short research process at a workplace in which working conditions were progressively improved. Employees were given rest pauses, snacks, reduced length of working hours or weeks, improved lighting and the result was increased production (Fortado & Fadil, 2012:284). Thus, the theoretical origins of determining organizational culture draw from such research and
variety of other contemporary research that has been conducted since the early 1920’s.

The turning point, however regarding human relations was during the 1960’s when more scholars transformed this area into a subject of culture. Scholars such as Geert Hofstede began an intensive exploration of culture, right from socialization processes at the birth of an individual up to various national levels and thus the common appreciation of culture “software of the mind” was born (Fortado & Fadil, 2012:287). Much later, in the 1980’s organisational culture came into prominence when a number of works promoted the idea of strong organisational cultures as a way of guiding the behaviour of workers to the advantage of their organizations together with the possibility of changing the organizational culture to organizational benefit (Walker, 2011:177). Currently, classifying organisational culture into defined typologies makes the analysis simpler and it makes establishing relationships with other organizational variables, such as work – life balance in the case of this study, possible as well as highlighting the experiences of those working in each type (Walker, 2011:183). Many scholars have designed different models of measuring organizational culture and each offers an in depth understanding of the patterns of meanings that link these manifestations together. Furthermore the models analyse the harmony or the conflicts between groups and individuals in an organization (Martin, 2002:3).

Hofstede (1994) developed six dimensions for analysing organizational cultures

- **Process – Results** (technical and bureaucratic processes). Process cultures tend to be routine based and risk avoiding whereas strong cultures tend to be more results oriented.
- **Job – Employee Orientation** (derives from societal culture as well as influence from founders and managers). Job cultures emphasize on getting the job done, only the output of the employees matters whilst employee cultures focus on the concern for the welfare, including personal matters of the people involved.
- **Professional – Parochial** (one category or people identifying with professions). People in Parochial cultures consider that the norms of the organization apply
outside the workplace whereas professional people separate private life and work life aspects as they are hired for occupational competence.

- Open – Closed System (Ease of admitting new people, styles, internal and external communications). In open cultures, new people are fully and rapidly incorporated whilst in closed systems inclusion is likely to take a long time and such systems remain highly secretive both inside and outside the organization.

- Tight – Loose Control (degrees of formality, punctuality depending on technology and the rate of change). Tight control cultures demand extensive and rigid structuring with high levels of cost consciousness and time keeping and loose control is the opposite.

- Pragmatic – Normative (how to relate with the environment- e.g. customers). Pragmatic organisations are driven by markets, usually emphasizing on customer orientation. Normative organisations emphasize on following rules and procedures and are perceived to have high standards of honesty and ethics.

Cameron and Quinn (1999) discuss a contemporary “Competing Values Framework” which yields four quadrants each denoting a type of organisational culture which organisations are likely to adhere to (Fellows, 2005:51). The quadrants are;

- Clan – The basic assumption in the clan culture is that the environment can be best managed through team work, employee development, and customers are seen as partners. The organization is in the business of developing a humane work environment and the task is to empower employees and facilitate their participation, commitment and loyalty.

- Adhocracy – The major goal of adhocracy is to foster adaptability, flexibility and creativity where uncertainty or ambiguity or information overload are typical. Emphasis is on new knowledge, readiness for change and new challenges

- Market – The focus of market cultures is to conduct transactions with other constituencies to create a competitive advantage. Bottom line results, profitability, strength in market niches and securing customer bases are critical.
- Hierarchy – Organisations that subscribe to this quadrant are formal and structured. Procedures govern what people do and effective leaders are good coordinators and organizers. The long-term concerns of the organization are stability, predictability and efficiency.

**Figure 3.3 Competency Values Framework**

Source: Cameron & Quinn (1999)

The horizontal axis depicts the degree to which an organization is focused and integrated. In a sense, some organizations have an internal locus of control whereas others have an external locus of control. Secondly the horizontal axis determines integration or differentiation. The vertical axis represents flexibility and discretion and stability and control (Pekkanen, 2010:6). The framework highlights that there is a need for companies to be adaptive and flexible but at the same time they are required to be stable and controlled. This illustrates the competing values in the cultures of organizations.
Most companies are highly polarised to one aspect of the quadrants and this is usually the cause of organizational dysfunctionality (Goodman, Zammuto, & Gifford, 2001:63). That is to say, an ideal organization will be positioned at the centre of the quadrants. It will have the characteristics of each quadrant and it will be stable, flexible, controlled and possess a certain level of discretion (Goodman, Zammuto, & Gifford, 2001:63).

Cameron and Quinn (1999) further established a framework, the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), for evaluating organizational culture based on core values, assumptions, interpretations, and approaches that characterize organizations. Six items were suggested:

- Dominant Characteristics – which relates to the important characteristics of the organization;
- Organizational Leadership – to determine the leadership style;
- Management of employees – describing the treatment of employees;
- Organizational glue – the elements that hold the organization together;
- Strategic emphasis – the values and goals of the organization; and,
- Criteria for success – which describes how the organization measures success.

Handy (1993:183-190) described organizational culture as being founded and built over the years by dominant groups which are the central power source within an organisation. Handy came up with four main types of culture to which organizations would likely subscribe to:

- Power Culture – Frequently found in small entrepreneurial organizations, where the leader is influential and has a high level of control in the organization such as family owned businesses where often, too much faith rests on one individual;

- Role Culture – Role cultures are highly bureaucratic, the role of which rests on the strength of its functions and specialties. The organisation is controlled by procedures for roles, communications and settling disputes. In this culture the role or job description is often more than the person who fills it. Therefore position power, rather than personal power is the major power source;
• Task Culture – The task culture is job or project oriented since the structure is in the form of a matrix organization. Focus is on getting the job done by bringing the appropriate resources and the right people at the right time. Influence is more widely dispersed than in other cultures and each individual possesses power and it is based on expertness rather than on position or personal power and control in these organizations is difficult; and,

• Person Culture – In this culture the individual is the central point. The structures are minimal and exist only to serve and assist the individuals within it such as small consultancy firms.

In construction, Liu (1999) identified nine artefacts that describe the culture of real estate professionals in Hong Kong. They include power orientations, rule and procedure orientations, people orientation, external versus internal focus, team orientation, customer orientation and communications.

Although these models represent a fraction of the literature available on organizational culture, the general idea is that these few can be utilised to understand cultures in organizations and they are comprehensive enough and carry similar interpretations that can be linked to the organizational culture existing in the construction industry.

3.5 Critiques of Organizational Culture

As with all theories and concepts, organizational culture has and continues to be exposed to a variety of debates; from the definition of the concept to its application in modern society. The wide range of definitions of organizational cultures is somewhat a precursor for the wide – ranging criticisms that have been directed to the concept and as a result there remains a high degree of scepticism amongst some academics who question its usefulness in the analysis of organizations (Walker, 2011:179). Furthermore the lack of congruence of definition points to imprecision in understanding what organizational culture really means and this inhibits meaningful empirical research (Walker, 2011:179). Organizational culture is rather a complex and dynamic concept (Ogbonna & Harris, 2002:67; Fincham & Rhodes, 2005:5)
Culture is a construct of society and human beings are inhabitants of society, so culture plays a vital role in the understanding of the relationships between people. It is thus vital for any research process to take these theoretical formulations of culture, national culture, organizational culture, complete with their pros and cons, into account before embarking on establishing the nature of the organizational culture of any industry particularly construction which is the subject of this research. The types of cultures themselves are influenced by a variety of factors which influence a cultural choice and structure for an organization. History and ownership, size, technology, goals and objectives, the environment and the people will determine the depth of the culture of an organization (Handy, 1993:192).

This concludes the discussion on organizational culture. The following section addresses work-life balance in general and its value as a concept for this research.

3.6 The general status of work-life balance

A considerable amount of research has attempted to measure the conflict between work and other aspects of non-work life (Lingard & Francis, 2009:77). Ever since the publication of Kanter's (1977) work, Men and Women of the Corporation, there has been a growing understanding of the interconnected nature of employees' work and non-work life. Previously, early studies only examined the effects of men employment on family life and the results indicated that men themselves did not see any connections between their work and family lives but research has expanded in different directions ever since (Voydanoff, 1989:2). Even then the relationship between the structural characteristics of jobs and families' requirements was visible. Timing and the spatial locations of work and working long hours was associated with work-family conflict. Moreover, job demands created job induced stress which influenced family relationships and health (Voydanoff, 1989:5). Prior to all these dispositions, Kahn et al., (1964) wrote that the work-life conflict is a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible to some respect (Kahn et al.,1964: 20).
Research shows that job demands borne by construction professionals are damaging on their personal relationships (Lingard & Sublet, 2002:507). Conversely, family life can also have a negative impact on the work role which is why the notion of work-life conflict flows from the premise that workers are expected to perform multiple life roles, on one hand as a worker on the other, a parent, carer, student or community participant (Lingard & Francis, 2009:78). Family provides an important resource and a dysfunctional family is likely to impact on employees’ ability to cope with the demands and pressures of work (Lingard & Lin: 2004:410).

The construction industry is a demanding work environment where employees are expected to work for long, irregular work hours in addition to the fact that it is project based and job insecurity is high (Lingard & Sublet, 2002:508). Recognising the complexity of the work-family conflict especially in the construction industry which has somewhat accepted with firm adherence to the long working hours it is clear that participation in work and family roles needs to be mutually beneficial than in opposition (Lingard & Francis, 2009:116). That is why employers are now obligated to adapt to and accommodate the needs and demands of a workforce that has changed radically over the past several decades (Tan, 2008:5).

Work and family conflicts have been examined through two distinct lenses. The first, common in industrial or organizational psychology and management literature which approaches issues from a work perspective and emphasizes individual level employee perceptions of work and the link to work attitudes, work performance, turnover intentions including stress and health (Cleveland, 2008:107). The second approach to understanding the work-family interface is through the family perspective where information about general work characteristics is examined against the employee, spouse, children’s perception of family satisfaction, conflict, parenting, health and wellbeing (Cleveland, 2008:107). In simple terms, the work – family interface can be understood by what happens at work and what happens at home and the influence that each domain has on the other.
This is an indication that workers do not exist in a vacuum, but are part of a system where paid work and personal life pressures have an influence on other sectors of society thus perpetuating social inequities (Gambles, Lewis, & Rapoport, 2006:3). Work-life balance derives from this interface that there is a need to honour the full diversity of personal life within the workplace at the same time to recognise that paid work is a part of life and is necessary, meaningful and rewarding (Rapoport et al., 2002:16). Several factors such as age, gender, marital status, dependent children, elderly dependants, working place, company size, working hours, and working type also play an important role in forming the relationship between work and family life (Liu & Low, 2011:121).

Gambles et al., (2006:4) highlight these critical and interrelated factors that are central to discussions on work – family conflict, work-life balance and the process of harmonising paid work with other parts of life. Paid work has become increasingly demanding and invasive to people’s lives, such as new forms of work and work patterns which have increased pressure on people, the invasiveness of which has resulted in paid work diverting time and energy from other equally important parts of life (Gambles et al., 2006:4). Time and energy to connect with others, give and receive care are crucial for individual and societal wellbeing. Furthermore the manner in which both men and women negotiate their roles, identities and relationships with each other are necessary for the way in which paid work and other parts of life are harmonised (Gambles et al., 2006:4).

Nevertheless the debate on work-life balance has not been immune to criticisms with respect to terminology and its implications as some contend that it undermines the value of work and it ignores the distinction between paid and unpaid work as well as implying that unpaid care work for instance, is part of the non-paid work domain (Moen & Sweet, 2004:217). Furthermore, there has not been a decisive stance on the definition of work-life balance apart from the idea behind the concept that work and life have an undeniable bearing on each other (Jyotsna & Shankar, 2010:75). A number of studies have also steered work-life balance as a women’s issue; but lately it is evident that both men and women are equally burdened by work and family responsibilities (Jyotsna & Shankar, 2010:75).
Within the context of South Africa, the work–family interface is affected by a number of factors; race, occupation, age, parental status, education, gender, language, all of which are predictors of this relationship. Thus work-life balance initiatives should therefore be carefully tailored to address the needs of each socio demographic grouping (de Klerk & Mostert, 2010:7).

Gambles et al., (2006:16) indicate that the potential of this global trend to thrive in the workplaces in South Africa has been marred by several critical matters; the struggles against the injustices of apartheid, racial inequalities, a high informal employment rate without the necessary backing of government policy, the economic policies where much of the focus has been to overcome widespread poverty, income inequality and other social problems such as communicable diseases, unemployment and crime and the lack of a national debate about the harmonisation of paid work with other parts of life.

However, Gambles et al., (2006:16) confirm that there are pockets of national legislation which require workplaces to have employment equity forums to discuss equity issues among the tripartite such as employees, employers, and trade unions and government programmes that support productivity drives through funding of worker participation projects to enhance performance. Work-life balance is therefore a policy and transformation matter for organizations to explore a broader, dynamic and contextual perspective on the match or mismatch that characterizes the social environments of workers (Moen, 2011:82).

Consequently, work-life balance has practical relevance to managers and organizations that want to consider friendly programmes for the recruitment and retention of employees (Coffey et al., 2009:198). Generally, within the construction industry, the six day working week and long working hours have become an industry standard and this has resulted in the inability of employees to acquire longer stretches of recreational time (Lingard and Francis, 2007:90).
Presumably the employees in the construction industry have the latitude to improve work–life balance by altering their working time commitments (Bradley, Brown, Ling, Lingard, & Townsend, 2010:194). Project managers in the construction industry for example play an important role in achieving project objectives and in ensuring successful outcomes of projects. Understanding their experiences of the relationship between work and family interface can provide some insight (Liu & Low, 2011:117). The paradox of this matter, however, points to the gravity or the extent to which each aspect affects the other even though most research shows that work appears to affect family more than the opposite (Liu & Low, 2011:117).

All in all as a ploy to reduce this conflict, work-life balance has many personal benefits; it can benefit physical and mental health, it is a buffer of life stress and protects workers from the vicissitudes of daily life. In addition it attenuates the negative health effects of exposure to stressors as far as the individual worker is concerned (Grzywacz, Butler, & Almeida, 2008:199). To corroborate the importance of work-life balance particularly in the construction industry, Greenhaus & Beutell (1985), upon modifying the same principles laid by Khan in 1964, identified three forms of work-family conflict, namely; time based conflict, strain based conflict and behaviour based conflict. These forms are manifest in the time devoted to the requirements of one role which makes it difficult to fulfil requirements of the other. The strain from participation in one role makes it difficult to fulfil requirements of the other and specific behaviours required by one role make it difficult to fulfil the requirements of another. Thus, time, strain and behaviours are critical in the analysis of work-life balance. There are also number of forces or events that are impacting on the current context for integrating paid work and the rest of life, such as the on-going changes in the gender liberalization of workplaces as more women infiltrate the labour environment. The changes in the macroeconomic climate and the global market forces which are changing consistently, the developments of work and the changing demographic structures of technology and globalisation all affect work (Lewis & Rapoport, 2005: 299). Therefore the argument that the integration of work and family is of societal concern and underpins the values attached to life and ways of living is largely valid (Lewis & Rapoport, 2005:309).
3.7 Work-life Balance as a Concept in Literature

The manner in which individuals balance their work and non-work lives is an area of academic enquiry that has received increasing scrutiny over the past two decades with strong indicators showing a steady increase of research outputs (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005:125; Chang, McDonald, & Burton, 2010:283). In addition, the theoretical orientations and the operationalization of their related constructs in empirical research have evolved and developed in response to, or at least in parallel with, the progressively higher profile of work-life balance issues and concerns in the media, the rhetoric of political and business leaders, and organizational policy and human resource priorities (Chang, McDonald, & Burton, 2010:2381).

These factors in turn have arisen from significant demographic and technological shifts in industrialized societies. The roles and expectations of men and women have changed significantly in the last 60 years due to an altered workforce profile in which more men and women are in active employment (Lingard & Francis, 2005:1046). The changing workforce has forced work practices to accommodate individuals who have family responsibilities (Lingard & Francis, 2005:1046). Today men and women continue to manage both work and family responsibilities and combine increasing paid work hours with unpaid work such as care for children, disabled or ill relatives and friends. The “struggle to juggle” phenomenon is all too familiar especially in the developing world (Duncan & Pettigrew, 2012:404). However, in addition to the increasing demands of the work environment, remuneration has remained relatively stagnant in some industries, forcing employees to increase their paid hours in order to make ends meet (Duncan & Pettigrew, 2012:404). As a result, the increased pressures associated with managing multiple roles, employees are at a higher risk of experiencing role over-load or work-family conflict (Lingard & Francis, 2005:1046). With an effort to negate this conflict, achieving the balance between work and family life continues to be an elusive goal because the consequences of trying to meet the competing demands can be severe for both families and employers (Duncan & Pettigrew, 2012:404).
Accordingly, as a consequence of the changing workforce profile, the number of dual-income couples has increased (Lingard & Francis, 2005:1045). Typically, more women are no longer restricted to staying at home, raising children and conducting household work, they too, like their male counterparts, are employed and are primary breadwinners for their families. Women are no longer restricted to traditional roles which include housekeeping and caregiving. These arrangements often include longer and inflexible working hours, relocation, frequent travel, which are prerequisites for advancement in the workplace (Lingard & Francis, 2005:1046). On the flipside, these changes in the working environments are transported to the families who have also had to change or adapt to new work arrangements (Lingard & Francis, 2005:1046).

Evidently, work and family are interrelated domains. As a result scholars and practitioners are continuously trying to develop approaches to increase the understanding or the linkages between the two domains and how each can complement the other (Voydanoff, 2005:822). From the ecological systems theory’s perspective, work and family are microsystems consisting of patterns of activities, roles and interpersonal relationships experienced in networks of face-to-face relationship (Voydanoff, 2005:822). That is to say, everything that occurs to an individual, at work or at home or in the community is part of the individuals’ survival.

Work-life balance if interpreted though satisfaction and proper functioning of work and home, is largely a “management” issue on the part of the working individual so that they are able to combine work and other parts of their lives in an acceptable way (Campbell Clark, 2000:751; (Demerouti, Shimazu, Bakker, Shimada, & Kawakami, 2013:224). The concept of work life balance has been explored in a variety of disciplines across the management spectra and has, in many respects been used interchangeably with work-family balance (Duncan & Pettigrew, 2012:404). Work-life balance can be measured on a continuum, from highly balanced to highly imbalanced, depending on the amount of resources being allocated to each domain whether at an equilibrium or the opposite (Duncan & Pettigrew, 2012:404). Chang et al., (2010:2382), using the work-family concept, define this balance subjectively as the equilibrium or harmony between work and family domains.
Some scholars contend that work-family balance refers to equal time, equal psychological involvement and equal satisfaction with one’s family and work (Greenhaus, Collins, Shaw, 2003:511). At the same time, balance can be construed to be the lack of conflict (Duncan & Pettigrew, 2012:404). Work-life balance is commonly understood to be process that provides solutions for work-life conflict. Voydanoff (2005:822) further defines the balance as a global assessment that work and family resources are sufficient to satisfy both work and family demands such that participation is effective in both domains. These interpretations seem to highlight the elusiveness of work-life balance.

Numerous questions have arisen regarding the nature of balance in a worker's life. For one there is little agreement on what balance means (Chang et al., 2010). Secondly, it raises the critical question whether it is at all possible to allocate sufficient resources to either work or family without causing conflict. Greenhaus and Allen's (2006) definition of work–family balance is compelling. Greenhaus and Allen (2006) further render the idea that work-life balance is a peaceful arrangement of work and family, to the extent that effectiveness and satisfaction in these roles are aligned to the values of life. As compelling as it is, it overemphasizes individual satisfaction in work and family (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007:458).

Satisfaction within and across life domains is important, but defining balance in terms of satisfaction is conceptually problematic. The primary problem is that defining balance in terms of satisfaction isolates individuals in their work and family-related activities from the organizations and families in which these activities are performed (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007:458). Perhaps the fundamental issue that should be interrogated is whether work–family balance is a psychological or social construct (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007:458). If it has psychological foundations, it conjures up a variety of elements such as self-efficacy and emotional intelligence which expose the capacity that people generally possess to balance their work and their life responsibilities (Koubova & Buchko, 2013: 702). If work-family balance is determined by social phenomena, again it brings up a myriad of determinants that operate outside the family and work, such as culture, church, political responsibilities.
The current workplace trends as reinforced by the capitalistic economic system demand that most workers, who are currently spending their awake time in the workplace, utilize most of their resources, physical and mental in return for the remuneration. Balance and conflict are crucial to understanding work-life balance (Chang et al., 2010:2381). Although work-life conflict has been an integral part of the work-life balance literature, the extent to which balance versus conflict is utilized as a key construct, and how these terms are operationalized as outcome or dependent variables or input or independent variables is more important (Chang et al., 2005:2383). It is therefore not surprising that individuals, families and employers are constantly searching for new ways to minimize the experience of conflict between the work and family or life domain (Duncan & Pettigrew, 2012:404). Work-family conflict arises when work demands and family demands are incompatible, thus preventing employees from effectively fulfilling their family roles resulting in poor family performance (Jansen, Kant, Nijhuis, Swaen, & Kristensen, 2004:139; Ilies, De Pater, Lim, & Binnewies, 2012:296).

The opposite also holds true in the sense that family life also prevents employees from performing the work tasks optimally despite the strong indication that work life affects family life at a higher degree, particularly in today's intensive and time consuming work environment. Greenhaus & Powell (2006:73) assent that the work family conflict consists of two separate formations, work interfering with family and family interfering with work. They further outline that this scenario represents participation of multiple roles by individuals. Work experiences and family experiences have additive effects on wellbeing and research suggests that individuals who participate in, and are satisfied with work and family roles experience greater well-being than those who participate in only one of the roles or who are dissatisfied with one or more of their roles (Werbel & Walter, 2002:294). In simple terms, a happy person at home is a happy person at work. The opposite is also true. This highlights that work and family are actually interdependent and complimentary (Campbell Clark, 2000: 749; Werbel & Walter, 2002:294).
The other dimension to this issue is that participation in either of the roles can protect individuals from being stressed by the other. Meaning, family problems or stresses are likely not to affect a person who is satisfied at work. One role can produce positive outcomes in the other role resulting in a transfer of positive experiences from one role to another and this process refers to work-life enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006:73). Work-life enrichment relates to the extent to which work experiences improve the quality of life of the family and the other way around (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006:73). Another tangent of the transfer of positive influences between work and family refers to work – family facilitation. Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar (2007:64) define work-family facilitation as the extent to which an individual participates in one domain and provides benefits (development, affective, financial, efficiency) which result in the proper functioning of the other domain. The definition emphasises three vital processes in work-family facilitation namely; engagement, benefit and enhanced functioning. They further add that, work-family facilitation occurs in two directions resulting in work to family facilitation or family to work facilitation (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007:64). It is apparent that work–family enrichment and work-family facilitation possesses similar interpretations. The key issue nonetheless is that without this facilitation and enrichment, the incidence of imbalance between the two domains increases.

As it has been established in this section, the work-life imbalance is resultant of a conflict between the work and family domains. The predictors to the work-family conflict include factors such as time demands, workload and the level of involvement in either interface (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005:126). The availability of resources also plays a crucial role in work-family interface. Workers work hard for money and that money in many respects is utilised in the family domain. Unfortunately, the needs of the family domain exceed the resources that are gained from working. As a result, workers are forced to work around the clock, doing shift work or multiple jobs to satisfy the demands of the family domain. Some literature identifies the characteristics of the predictors as time based or strain based. Paid working hours, nonstandard scheduled time for caring for ill relatives and children and household work are examples of time-based demands (Voydanoff, 2004:282).
Strain-based demands render themselves through a process of psychological spill-over resulting in role overload such as time pressure and role conflict (Voydanoff, 2005:828). The reality is that in such instances the psychological spill-over triggers psychological responses which are expressed in the attitudes and behaviours at work and at home (Voydanoff, 2005:828).

Role overload as defined by Reilly (1982:407) is a type of role conflict that results from excessive demands on the time and energy supply of an individual. That is to say, excessive demands at work will interfere with family and the other way around. Ultimately, there is consensus that the excessive demands may originate either at home or work. In addition, the extent to which employees experience work-family conflict can also be attributed to the success of adaptive strategies which refer to a framework that employees employ to be effective both at home and at work (Pitt-Catsoupes, Matz-Costa, & MacDermid, 2007:533). The argument though is that individual dispositions also come into play based on the nature of the work. The locus of making decisions for engaging in adaptive strategies for external and internal work-family conflict all lie on the employees internal locus of control and personality (Ilies, De Pater, Lim, & Binnewies, 2012:305). Different personalities will have different strategies of minimising the work-life conflict. Further indicating that work-life balance is not universal but is dependent upon different character types. Edwards and Rothbard (2005) identify a cross-domain approach in which work demands are compared with family resources and family demands are compared with work resources. Accordingly, this approach yields two types of work-family fit, noting that work-family fit occurs when work resources meet the family demands or family resources meet the work demands (Voydanoff, 2005:828).

In principle, this means that there are two sets of demands and resources that are associated with the work-family fit model. The point that work and family life have a specific range of characteristics further illustrates the potency of the work-family fit model. Voydanoff (2005:828) indicates that the social organization of work incorporates the demands and the content of jobs whereas family social organization, consists of a division of labour among family members. In addition, the norms and expectations for work include job descriptions, policies and work culture.
On the other hand, families operate within the context of role expectations and gender ideology (Voydanoff, 2005:828). Voydanoff (2005) further notes that participating in family oriented community activities tends to increase the workload at work. To some extent however, with the presence of community commitments, employees are able to spend more time with family with the added benefit of family cohesion and emotional bonding (MacDermid & Wittenborn, 2007:560). That is to say, activities aimed at relieving workload from one domain may trigger dissatisfaction on the other. For instance, teambuilding exercises are created to strengthen organizational cohesion. On the other hand such activities remove workers from their families. This often results in spouses and children dissatisfied with the extended amounts of time that the working spouse spends away from the family thus exacerbating the conflict.

Morris and Madsen (2007:441) offer a succinct summary to the discourse and alluding to the relationship between the work and life domains, posit that the following theoretical approaches apply;

- **Spill over** – referring to the same or shared effects, whether negative or positive
- **Compensation** – represents efforts to offset negative experiences in one domain
- **Resource Drain** – refers to the transfer or shift of limited or available resources (time, energy and attention) from one domain to the other, thereby reducing the availability of those resources in the domain of origin
- **Enrichment** – defined as the degree that experiences, resulting from instrumental pathways (i.e., skills, abilities, values) or affective pathways (i.e., moods), in one domain or positively enhance the quality of life in the other domain
- **Congruence** – Involves the similarity between work and family by attributing the similarity to a third variable, like genetic factors or personality, which affects both domains
- **Inter-role conflict** – refers to the mutual incompatibility between work and family roles. Conflict originates from time-based, behaviour based and strain based sources.
- **Segmentation** – refers to the separation of work and family systems. Segmentation includes dividing work and family into two entities.
Facilitation – the extent to which participation in one domain fosters enhanced engagement or processes in another domain. Facilitation includes skills, experiences, resources, and knowledge interacting with individual and contextual circumstances that are portable and contribute to increased levels of organization and development. Figure 3.4 represents the theoretical approaches that indicate the interaction between work and family.

Figure 3.4 Relationship between work and family

Source: Researcher, 2013
3.7.1 Emotional - Behavioural Aspect

The work-family conflict may give rise to different personal and emotional reactions depending on the causes. It is strongly believed by many that these reactions, mostly emotional in nature, induce specific behavioural results (Ilies, De Pater, Lim, & Binnewies, 2012:293). Furthermore, studies indicate that work-family conflict negatively affects employee wellbeing. It also comes as no surprise that the result of reduced wellbeing often leads to poor job satisfaction, or even reduced family satisfaction. As a result employees generally find themselves being unhappy with life (Ilies, De Pater, Lim, & Binnewies, 2012:294).

The same conflict has a direct bearing on increased emotional strain as reflected by incidence of high stress, burnout and sometimes depression (Demerouti, Shimazu, Bakker, Shimada, & Kawakami, 2013:240). The knowledge regarding the emotional and behavioural reactions to work-family conflict may shed light on how individuals cope, and how this can lead to a development of interventions that can escalate adaptive rather than maladaptive responses both at home and at work (Poposki, 2011: 500). There is a strong indication that the work-life conflict influences behaviour and the outcomes are experienced both in the family and in the workplace (Kelly, et al., 2008:321). On both fronts, experiencing conflict is associated with low levels of marital satisfaction, poor health, fatigue, depression, substance abuse, job burnout and family related distress (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010: 834). All of these characteristics certainly affect how an individual behaves at home and at work.

From a work place perspective, work withdrawal is a common problem. It includes behaviours such as missing meetings, being late, leaving work early and absenteeism until the amount of time required by an organization is restricted (Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, & Kessler, 2006:450; Ilies, De Pater, Lim, & Binnewies, 2012:303) Presenteeism is also a common work place phenomenon. Workers report to work at the right time but spend most of their working time doing little or nothing. Generally, the conflict becomes a contra indication to organizational retention or motivation strategies. It is difficult to retain or motivate employees who experience high levels of conflict and the result is a spike in human resource turnover (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007: 456).
Human resource development, in most organizations is concerned with ensuring that workers are effective and perform their duties within the prescribed parameters. Unfortunately, learning and productivity will not accrue when workers are exhausted, depressed, overloaded or absent (MacDermid & Wittenborn, 2007:567). Instead behavioural energies need to be channelled in the right direction to ensure that employees have the capacity to keep their behaviours aligned to their work or family responsibilities. For instance work-family balance crafting allows employees to manage their responsibilities through the exploration of a diverse range of physical, cognitive and relational behaviours (Sturgess, 2012:1542). Work–life balance crafting requires a negotiation, by the worker to adjust work arrangements to suit private needs (Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2008:656). In addition workers use formal or individually negotiated strategies to influence behaviours that improve their work-life balance (Golden & Geisler, 2007:521).

3.8 Strategies for achieving Work-life balance: Work place programmes and policy

The implementation of work life balance depends on various factors such as gender, family characteristics, the type of occupation and the industry as well as geographic regions that each industry is situated in (Chang, McDonald, & Burton, 2010:2392). Since work has evolved dramatically, resulting in the increase of dual earner, families, single parents and much recent same sex parenting, there is a strong need for facilities that are better positioned to create an amenable balance between work and life (Jansen, Kant, Nijhuis, Swaen, & Kristensen, 2004:140). According to Guest (2002:257) there is a general concern in most communities that the quality of home life and community life is deteriorating exponentially due to the pressures and demands of work. As a result, social problems such as juvenile crime and substance abuse are associated with the increased participation in work activities rather than social and community activities (Guest, 2002:257). That is why, work environments need to pay attention to work-life balance and other psychosocial issues because, it not only affects the business but other areas of the society which are crucial to the employees’ wellbeing (Guest, 2002:257). A starting point for work-life balance strategies lies in work time arrangements, which need to be revisited because the amount of time allocated to work and the demand for optimal involvement constitutes
an obvious interference with family life (Derouti, Shimazu, Bakker, Shimada, & Kawakami, 2013:240). However, a distinction should be made between the work schedules that exist in the workplace, such as shift work or day work, fulltime or part-time and overtime situations (Jansen, Kant, Nijhuis, Swaen, & Kristensen, 2004:140). The different classes of work time arrangements have different implications on the work-family interface. Management literature, provides significant evidence that unresolved work family conflict can lead to undesirable outcomes in the work place and have an effect on the overall success of organizations (Pitt-Catsoupes, Matz-Costa, & MacDermid, 2007:527). Subsequently, the essence of the renowned “business case” reiterates the need for employers to anticipate this conflict and thereafter respond to the employees work-family issues with work-life initiatives to reduce negative outcomes to employees and to the business (Pitt-Catsoupes, Matz-Costa, & MacDermid, 2007:528). Rapoport, Bailyn, Fletcher, & Pruitt (2002) establish that work life initiatives accomplish two types of goals; promoting business effectiveness and supporting employees well-being at work and at home. To achieve this, many employers anchor their work-life initiatives in the development of policies and programs that provide resources to employees (Pitt-Catsoupes, Matz-Costa, & MacDermid, 2007:528). Kossek and Friede (2006:612) suggest that work-life policies and programs can be organized into four categories where possible; flexibility of working time, flexibility of workplace, support for care, information and social supports. Research indicates that work-time arrangements are closely related to work-home interference. However, vast differences emerge between men and women, between day and shift-workers, and between full-time and part-time workers (Jansen et al., 2004:145). Moreover, work time arrangements may have both beneficial and adverse effects on work-home interference under certain specific conditions. Demanding aspects of work-time arrangements, such as overtime work and shift work, were associated with higher work-home interference, whereas characteristics of work time arrangements reflecting control and predictability are protective against work-home interference (Jansen et al., 2004: 147).

Since work time arrangements are, in essence, dynamic and modifiable factors that can be subject to change when necessary or requested, they constitute important tools for reducing work-home interference (Jansen et al., 2004:147). Furthermore,
high work-home interference is an important predictor for changing work hours over time in organizations. This finding further points to the importance of work time arrangements for an adequate work-family balance, not only on an individual level, but also on a societal level with respect to consequences of work-home interference (Jansen et al., 2004:148). Many organizations are greatly concerned by prospects of changing work time arrangements, but that concern does not indemnify such industries from tailor making work-life strategies that are compatible with the nature of the industry (Voydanoff, 2005:835). To further illustrate how employers embark on assisting employees to balance their work with their life, Kossek and Friede (2006:612) offer a compelling description on how the employer is expected to respond to the quest for employees work-life balance such as formal human resources policies and practices, employment conditions including organizational and professional cultures and norms.

Formal human resource policies and practices influence the extent to which a workplace has available support structures that are designed to reduce conflicts and stresses related to the delivery of work and non-work roles (Kossek & Friede, 2006:612). The polices include but are not limited to flexibility in working time or place, direct work-life services for child, elder care or self-care, and information and social supports (Kossek, 2005:99). As these policies illustrate, employers often initially define work-family integration as a parenting and dependent care issue. Within many firms, there is a broadening of policies and practices to support participation in additional life roles such as community, elder care, teen supervision, personal health care, those related to personal values (e.g., political, religious), military service, domestic chores, or exercise (Kossek, 2005:99). Typically there is varying rhetoric relative to the implementation of work-life strategies in organizations because different organizations have different interpretations of the work life interface. Thus, practitioners and researchers can add value to this management area by employing a multifaceted approach which is beyond the formulation and implementation of policy (Kossek & Friede, 2005:624). Table 3.3 shows examples of how work-life balance programs and policies are approached by organizations.
### Table 3.3 Description of Work-life Balance Programmes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy/ Programme Category</th>
<th>Flexibility of Working time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definitions</td>
<td>Policies/practices designed to allow employees to have more control over the amount of hours that they work or when those hours are worked.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reduced-Hours or Part-time work</strong></td>
<td>Working less than full-time with a commensurate decrease in salary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Flextime</strong></td>
<td>Employees vary their beginning and ending times (within a given flex range and established core hours), but generally work full-time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Compressed workweek</strong></td>
<td>Employees work extra hours on some days of the week in order to have part of the day or a whole day off at another time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job-sharing</strong></td>
<td>Two employees share one full-time job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Compensatory time</strong></td>
<td>Employees working long hours get subsequent time off in order to recoup.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leaves of absence</strong></td>
<td>Employees get time off for maternity, paternity, military service, education, elder and childcare, and other life pursuits and can return to their jobs or a similar job.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy/ Programme Category</th>
<th>Flexibility of Working Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definitions</td>
<td>Policies/practices that allow employees to choose to work outside of the office or worksite (all or some of the time).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Telework</strong></td>
<td>Employees work part or all of the time at an off-site location and use technology (e.g., e-mail, fax, mobile phone) in order to communicate with others.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Kossek & Friede, 2006
Table 3.3 Continued.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy/ Programme Category</th>
<th>Support with Care Responsibilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definitions</td>
<td>Policies/practices that assist employees in providing care for others (child and elder) or for self and household.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td><strong>Child/elder care</strong>: Employees have access to employer-provided care for children or elders either at their worksite or in communities. <strong>Child/elder care provider referral service</strong>: Employees can call/e-mail a service which will assist them in finding regular child/elder care providers. <strong>Financial support for dependent care</strong>: Employees receive financial help in the form of flexible spending accounts that use pre-tax to help pay for care, direct subsidies, or discounts. <strong>Emergency/sick child/elder care</strong>: Employee has access to child/elder care for unexpected situations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy/ Programme Category</th>
<th>Informational and Social Supports</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definitions</td>
<td>Policies/practices that provide emotional support to employees facing non-work or balance challenges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td><strong>Support hotlines</strong>: Employees can call a number to receive emotional support for dealing with work-life issues. <strong>Support groups</strong>: Employees can join a support or networking group for informational and psychological support.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Kossek & Friede, 2006
3.9 The debate on the significance of work-life balance

A general query in this area reflects on whether work-life balance is a necessary discussion in the world of work if not an issue that can be dealt with in practical terms. Essentially, this field is open to considerable subjective interpretation because work has and continues to evolve. There is an on-going debate about the future of work-life balance. Any value that constitutes work-life balance is subject to considerable cultural variation as defined by each individual or collectively by couples or groups or people particularly around work (Khallash & Kruse, 2012:682; Guest, 2002:256). Furthermore, the narrow focus, relating to the problems that often arise due the work-life conflict, such as burnout, stress, family problems, poor performance, work-life balance should be addressed from the premise that work in this era is a critical element of life and the only way to create optimal conditions for oneself, one must have work (Khallash & Kruse, 2012:678). Historically, work-life balance was not a pertinent issue but it has emerged as a distinctive area in today’s excessively demanding working environment (Khallash & Kruse, 2012:268).

Jack Welsh, the former General Electric CEO, whose work is documented extensively in management literature, has an interesting take on work-life balance. Welsh contends that there is no such thing as work-life balance, instead there are life choices and when you make them, they have consequences (Lussier & Achua Christopher, 2010:87). Wheeler (2009) offers another approach to this debate that, for the past five centuries, work-life balance has never really existed because work and life have never been separate. Wheeler adds that work and life are not separate entities but they are integrated into one life. He further makes the example that most businesses, prior to industrialization, were in fact family business, where every member had a role and the business was actually a part of the now separated life aspect. This view supports the argument that work and family should not, essentially be separated and of course each of these institutions, such as work and play are an integral part to this life. Companies such as Google and Facebook, have tapped into this interdependence by integrating work and life (Khallash & Kruse, 2012:682). Employees are able to work at the workplace, outdoors, at home, or different parts of the world (Khallash & Kruse, 2012:682).
Workers are able to bring those life aspects to the work as per the benefits structure, such as personal care, gym facilities, gaming, childcare facilities, onsite healthcare as a retention strategy and to keep the staff highly motivated to perform optimally.

The paradox to these analogies is that they represent a scenario in affluent or modern societies, in developed countries. Developing nations, such as South Africa might have a different viewpoint. The reality is that most companies, let alone those in the construction industry do not possess the financial power to spend on anything else, except remuneration, for the benefit of employee wellbeing. Shrewd business people may align their values to Jack Welsh, whilst some may gauge the importance of work-life balance based on a sum of local developments. Thus, the presumption of this debate about the future of work-life balance, as to whether it is a relevant component of work or not, presumes that in the future, work-life balance might not even be an issue because the nature of the work place has changed drastically.

An internet-based company such as Google is less physically demanding whereas the construction industry requires physical or manual labour. Although Google is one of the few companies that appreciate the importance, the rest of the companies are driven by profit and competition. To illustrate this more effectively, China boasts a thriving economy and part of the success is attributed to its industrialization (Zhu, Zhang & Shen, 2012:3966). It is characterised by long, arduous working hours and dedication, with little regard for work-life balance because the core principle of a market economy is competition (Zhu, Zhang & Shen, 2012:3966). Working around the clock is entrenched in the culture of the Chinese people. Presumably, that is the reason behind its attractiveness as the global production base for multinational corporations. At the same time, welfare systems in Europe particularly Scandinavian countries have boasted exceptional economic growth, balancing it with an effective welfare system and high work-life balance (Khallash & Kruse, 2012:679). Europeans seem to have mastered the art of working hard and playing hard. However, due to the changing economic forces, this approach is no longer viable post the 2008 recession. It appears that the global labour market is gruelling and work-life balance has a little chance.
As a result, if Europe is to survive it needs to align itself to the competitive nature of countries such as the USA and China. South Africa with its unique dual economy that seeks to balance capitalism and a welfare system is better positioned to exploit the benefits of work-life balance as most of the research suggests that work-life imbalances have a negative consequence on the wellbeing and functionality of workers (Guest, 2002:277). The regulatory frameworks can be adapted to ensure that the workforce is viable and effective. One way to do that in the construction industry, for example, is to promulgate strategies that foster productivity.

Another area crucial to this debate is the feminization of the workforce. Women participation in the labour market is increasing substantially (Lingard & Francis, 2009:2). There are a number of factors perpetuating this change. For instance, as more women become educated, this increases workforce participation and the availability therein (Lingard & Francis, 2009:2). Women now aspire to perform alongside their male counterparts, for personal fulfilment and as a result of economic needs. In addition, there is a global decline in women choosing to have children and becoming fulltime mothers. This increases women’s chances to participate in paid work and advance their careers. That said, women still have the principle role of child bearing and motherhood and this significantly limits their involvement in labour, at least to their desired level (Lingard & Francis, 2009:3).

This would suggest that, women are likely to be thrown in a situation where they are required to work twice as hard to prove themselves or be overworked as they try to balance the responsibilities of work and family life (Khallash & Kruse, 2012:681,Gatrell, 2004:43). Depending on the circumstances, choice is the deal breaker. Women either have to choose their careers and sacrifice their maternal instincts or choose their families and settle for mediocrity in less fulfilling employment. This shows that the discussions on work-life balance will continue into the future. In order to have a healthy debate on whether it is pertinent or not, it is necessary to examine the changing labour force demographics and the evolutions of workers in the future (Khallash and Kruse, 2013:681).
3.10 Overview of Individual Work Performance

Performance encompasses a set of behavioural actions and outcomes that are aligned to the goals of an organization (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993: 40). Behavioural outcomes refer to what individuals do at work. Particularly those actions that are aligned to the organizational goals. Outcomes refer to the results or consequences of workers individual behaviours (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993:40). Many scholars agree that employees’ performance is one of the ingredients necessary for organizational productivity (Aarabi, Subramaniam, & Akeel, 2013:302). Subsequently, the performance of workers gives organizations a competitive edge over other companies. Thus individual performance as part of the broader human resources function of an organization is a key ingredient for improving the construction industry in South Africa (Smallwood, 2006:64).

Historically performance in construction is often equated to project success which is measured through construction delivery processes and systems (Phua, 2013:168). Until now, the success of the industry has been gauged through project success where time, quality and cost controls are significant criteria in determining performance (Mbachu, 2008:471). Recent construction management research indicates a shift which reveals that in fact project success is not necessarily determined by processes and systems but by the human factor (Mbachu, 2008: 471). In a sense, without the individual contribution of workers, it would be difficult to achieve project success.

Across the spectrum of organizations, there is an increasing need for individuals who perform optimally to achieve organizational goals. Studies also show that in addition to the advantages that individual performance provides to an organization, it is also important to the individual (Sonnentag & Frese, 2002:4). Accomplishing work assignments and optimal performance is a source of satisfaction, pride contentment and mastery of the skills required to do particular tasks. In addition, good performance is rewarded with benefit (Sonnentag & Frese, 2002:4). In the current labour systems, performance is one of the prerequisites for career development and mobility (Sonnentag & Frese, 2002:4). Alternatively, poor performance often leads to dissatisfaction and feelings of failure.
Behavioural scientists have in the last century, endeavoured to understand the different ways in which workers act and function in workplace environments (Ferris, Lian, Brown, Pang, & Keeping, 2010:562). Although complex in nature, work performance incorporates individual features such as personality and capability, situational factors as seen in the work environment and other social aspects (Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013:132). Regarding the personality traits, self-esteem, confidence and a general positivity on oneself or the opposite relates to job performance. In addition high self-efficacy levels translates to success (Bandura, 1977:193) This evokes the rationale that people with a high self-esteem of themselves are on one hand highly motivated to perform tasks and on the other, able to deal with workplace stressors that affect job performance (Ferris et al., 2010:562).

In addition proactive personalities are most likely to perform optimally. Furthermore they are usually more satisfied with life and the work they do and they practice organizational citizenship behaviours (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2010:539). Organizational research suggests that the precursor of personality in workplaces not only stems from individual traits but also from declarative knowledge, skills or procedural knowledge and motivation (Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013:132).

In the context of the South African construction industry, such issues regarding individual performance are overshadowed by financial and project success. Their importance on the overall functioning of the industry cannot be ignored. Ultimately, the human resources base is the backbone of the industry and individual performance translates directly to organizational success. Therefore, to complete this research process, after examining culture and work-life balance it was critical to equate the findings to the individual level as to how work-life balance affects the individual performance.
3.10.1 Individual Performance as a concept

Performance is a multifaceted construct which indicates the level at which employees perform their tasks as well as their gumption towards being resourceful towards problem solving (Rothmann & Coetzker, 2003:68). In addition, performance magnifies the capacity that workers possess to complete specific tasks and the manner in which they utilise available resources such as time and energy for those tasks. Werner et al., (2011) offer a less complicated description of job performance and posit that it is what people do and say in work environments. According to Barrick, Mount & Li (2013:132) understanding performance has been the main focus for many behavioural scientists for over a hundred years and to this day, it remains a complex area. However, most of the research regarding what people do at work, ultimately veer towards discussions of individual and situational factors such as personality and the work environment (Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013:132).

Generally, employees retain the primary control of how hard and effective they perform their responsibilities. Aside from monitoring and supervision, workers values, attitudes and beliefs affect the levels of performance in the workplace (Weakliem & Frenkel, 2003:335). Many scholars agree that individual performance is embedded in behavioural processes that each worker is experiencing or has experienced. One of the key figures in research in this area John P Campbell, configured that performance is an individual level variable, that is to say it is something that a single person does within an organization. Furthermore, the general mental ability of an individual is a precursor of performance.

The mental processes and the decisions made by a worker within the context of work, amounts to work performance. This further confirms Campbell’s thesis that, performance is an individual level variable. Accordingly, Wrzeniewski (2003:300) proposes that work performance hinges on two critical aspects; Internal factors such as personality, individual needs, demographic factors and socio-economic background, the employees perspective on work and how the employees synthesize their thoughts, feelings, morale and behavioural attitudes towards work; and external factors such as the job itself and the organizational environment.
Furthermore, a matter that is critical to work environments such as the construction industry, work arrangements play a critical role in level of performance.

Standard or non-standard work arrangements, part time, temporary work and seasonal employment determine the levels of performance in work environments (Broschak, Davis-Blake, & Block, 2008:3). By working, workers leave an indelible mark on the social and material world and workers are exposed to and they change under the influence of work's socio-cultural conditions because work is central to life (Kira & Balkin, 2014:132).

3.10.2 Individual Determinants of performance

Regarding the internal factors such as personality, attitudes and feelings the literature suggests that the information is inconclusive, due to the dynamism and inconsistency of these psychological determinants (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003:68). For example using personality tests to determine job-person fit often yield truncated results. The same applies to feelings and morale; it is not easy to put a finger to it (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003:68). This however does not dissipate the fact that these are plausible factors that affect performance (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003:68). Without becoming too philosophical or academic, any worker is likely to agree that personality, feelings and attitudes play a huge role in how they approach work on a day to day basis. The workers effort and enthusiasm are critical to performance (Hodson, 2002:64). In fact there is substantial evidence that employees with positive feelings and attitudes about their work are most likely to perform better in their jobs (Judge, Thoreson, & Patton, 2001:376).

Aspects of personality have a bearing on productivity and morale which determines the attitudes associated with performance (Judge, Thoreson, & Patton, 2001:376). The relationship between personality and performance is normally synthesized from a trait perspective. According to Costa and McCrae, personality is conceptualised through the five-factor model, which enumerates the structure of traits that each individual develops over a long period of time (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002:530). McCrae and Costa’s research validated the five-factor model includes the following classifications; (McCrae & Costa Jnr, 1987:87-89);
• **Neuroticism** – normal personality with a tendency to experience negative effects such as fear, sadness, embarrassment, anger, guilt. Individuals with high scores in this dimension have a high risk of psychiatric problems, irrational ideas, lack of self-control and inability to cope with stress. Workers with low scores present emotional stability, calmness, relaxedness and the ability to control stress. Thus neuroticism is a predictor of performance.

• **Extraversion** – includes traits such as sociability, assertiveness, and talkativeness. Extraverts are energetic and optimistic whereas introverts are reserved. Extraversion is characterised by positive feelings, therefore workers with this trait are likely to be positive about their jobs. Consequently, studies conclude that extraversion is a valid predictor of performance for workers in positions such as sales and management due to the high levels of interaction with other people.

• **Openness to experience** – includes people who have active imagination, sensitivity, attentiveness to feelings, preference to variety, intellectual curiosity and an independence of judgement. People with low scores often have a conventional and conservative outlook whilst open people are unconventional and they question authority.

• **Agreeableness** – includes people who are altruistic and sympathetic to others. The opposite includes egocentric, sceptical and competitive individuals. Agreeableness often translates to success in training and in professions where teamwork and customer service are relevant.

• **Conscientiousness** – refers to self-control and processes such as planning, organizing and carrying out tasks. People in this dimension are normally purposeful, hardworking, strong-willed, dependable and organized. However, conscientiousness often leads fussy-ness, obsessive behaviours such as being overly neat and workaholic behaviours. Goal setting and autonomy determines the degree to which conscientiousness affects performance.

Rothmann & Coetzer (2003:70) confirm, upon perusing several studies that different personalities relate to different dimensions of job performance. The discussion on personality as a predictor of performance is interconnected to job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour (Fu, 2013:196).
Job satisfaction continues to be the focal point for organizational and industrial psychologists and many of the debates often refer to Locke's (1969) disposition. In his expansive work on job satisfaction, Locke describes job satisfaction as "the pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job" (Locke, 1969:316).

Modern literature on the subject is conflicting on many levels, but for most practitioners’ job satisfaction is important because it is closely aligned to organizational outcomes such as productivity (Rainey, 2009:298). Based on Hertzberg’s two factor theory, job satisfaction is determined by motivators such as the drive to achieve and recognition, and hygiene factors such as the salary and job security. To explain this construct further many approaches have been documented. The first position suggests that job satisfaction is a function of job related characteristics. That is to say, issues such as autonomy and the variety of tasks will determine how people feel about their jobs (Yang & Wang, 2013:567). Another approach focuses on the interpersonal relationships that each worker has. The interpretation is that good relationships with fellow workers can result in a better working environment thus increasing a sense of belonging among workers (Yang & Wang, 2013:567).

Lastly, personal characteristics such as gender, age and education levels influence the levels of job satisfaction. There is increasing evidence that women and older workers are more satisfied with their jobs (Yang & Wang, 2013:569). If employees are satisfied with their jobs, the potential to be committed to the organization is likely to increase. There is no precise definition of organizational commitment but three key elements are crucial in its discussion; a strong desire to remain a member of an organization, a strong desire to strive for organizational tasks and the beliefs and acceptance of the value that the organization has (Hellriegel & Slocum, 2009:57). According to Meyer and Allen (1991:62) three components justify organizational commitment:
• Affective commitment due to psychological factors, which means employees will stay within the organization because they “want” to;
• Continuance commitment, which means that employees remain with the company because they “need” to; and,
• Normative commitment, employees desire to stay with a company because they “ought” to.

Further research shows that organizational commitment integrates the workers psychological outlook about the job and the level of support from the organization itself (Hellriegel & Slocum, 2009:57). Employees that have high levels of organizational commitment are likely to build their identity within an organization and have the desire to stay for longer periods (Hellriegel & Slocum, 2009: 57). As it is common with research in these soft issues, measuring organizational commitment is inconclusive. Organizational commitment is relevant to the construction industry. A study conducted in Hong Kong, by Leung and Chan (2007:125) revealed that the antecedents of organizational commitment in construction projects are categorized in three capacities:

• External influences such as the job characteristics, authority, senior supportiveness and peer influences;
• Internal influences such as internalization, role related characteristics, justice, goal acceptance and resistance to change; and,
• Interactive influences such as effort and social interaction.

In terms of the external influences, the type of job, the time frames and the working environment are key determinants of organizational commitment. Furthermore, if employees agree to the teams’ values and tasks and fair performance evaluations, the internal influences required for organizational commitment are satisfied. Interactive influences relate to the amount of time and involvement and strong team work to accomplish tasks (Leung & Chan, 2007:116-117).

Based on Organ and Ryan’s (1995) disposition, job satisfaction and organizational commitment are significantly associated with organizational citizenship behaviour
(Fu, 2013:1196). A recent study by Sani (2013:57) suggests that organizational commitment promotes organizational citizenship behaviour. In addition organizational citizenship behaviour promoted job performance although the link between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviour was not established (Sani, 2013:57). Katz and Khan (1966) were the first to present the idea of autonomous work behaviours in organizations. However, Organ (1988) rearranged the idea and coined it “organizational citizenship behaviour” (OCB) (Tanaka, 2013:6). The common definition of OCB is presented as the discretionary individual behaviour exercised for the greater good of organizational functioning outside formal reward systems (Organ, 1988:7). Such behaviours include, going the extra mile to help others, adding more than the required time to complete tasks and voluntary work. Organ (1988:7-9) identified 5 categories of OCB and they include:

- **Altruism** – Discretionary behaviours to assist colleagues with organizational problems;
- **Conscientiousness** – Discretionary behaviour to go beyond the minimum role requirements;
- **Sportsmanship** – Willingness to tolerate non ideal situations without complaining;
- **Courtey** – Discretionary behaviour aimed at preventing work related problems;
- and,
- **Civic virtue** – Behaviours that show that the person is responsible and involved in the life and future of the organization.

Recent research indicates a paradigm shift of OCB’s in relation to contemporary work situations. Other categories such as employee sustainability, social participation, voice and knowledge sharing are key aspects of OCB in modern organizations (Dekas, Bauer, Welle, Kurkoski, & Sullivan, 2013:228). Overall, employees engage in countless acts of citizenship at work out of their formal responsibilities and those acts contribute to the success of the organizations (Dekas, Bauer, Welle, Kurkoski, & Sullivan, 2013:234). This section highlights that employees that are not satisfied with their jobs are more disposed to being less
committed to an organization. Eventually, organizational citizenship behaviours that are displayed will not contribute to the effective functioning of the organization.

In simple terms, employees that do not like their jobs are not committed to their job or even the organization. Coming to work becomes a matter of habit or because there is a pay check at the end of the month.

Their participation in organizational events is reduced. If not they become the biggest critics or dissidents within the organization. Ultimately, the performance levels drop. Alternatively employees that are relatively satisfied with their jobs will be more committed to the company and will display relevant organizational citizenship behaviours.

3.10.3 External Determinants of performance

To achieve organizational productivity and effectiveness, workers’ internal drivers for optimal performance need to be reinforced or supplemented with efficient working environments (Weakliem & Frenkel, 2003:336). For instance the working arrangements have a strong influence on the workers’ attitudes and behaviour (Broschak, Davis-Blake, & Block, 2008:5). Employment arrangements define the rewards structures, duration, location and administrative control of the work itself. Organizations are thus responsible for creating environments that help and guide employees with behaviours that stimulate loyalty, satisfaction and quality (Paulin, Ferguson, & Bergeron, 2006:907).

Human resource (HR) practices are deemed as the organizations’ personalized commitment to employees (Fu, 2013:1198). In addition, through the same HR practices employers provide a framework for employees to refer to regarding expected attitudes and behaviours (Fu, 2013:11982). Leadership and autonomy, irrespective of the degree and style in work settings have an effect on the degrees of performance (Weakliem & Frenkel, 2003:340). Engagement and employee participation also determine the degree to which employees will perform. Concisely, reciprocity in relation to both internal and external factors is critical to job performance. Furthermore, different cultures, industries and sectors have different determinants of job performance (Yang & Wang, 2013:583).
3.11 Theories Relating to Work Life Balance and Work Performance

The various theories applicable to work performance have been addressed in the previous section on work-life balance. Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs, motivation theory and self-efficacy all play an integral part in understanding performance.

3.11.1 Motivation

Leadership and motivation go hand in hand. (Daft, 2008:226). Motivation is one of the most important factors that affect behaviour because it affects cognitive capacities such as learning and perception in organizations (Jain, 2005:114). Motivation is typically defined as the forces that account for the arousal, selection, direction and sustaining behaviour (Bagraim, 2011:82). Similarly, Levy (2006:252) defines motivation as a force that drives people to behave in a way that energises, directs and sustains work behaviour or as an internal state that persuades a person to engage in certain behaviour. Three key elements in the definition are important in the analysis of motivation and they are;

- arousal which embodies the energy that is required to drive behaviour;
- the direction of your behaviours; and
- sustaining your behaviour which depicts the persistence that individuals possess to exert specific behaviours towards specific goals (Bagraim, 2011:83).

Similarly, Walker (2001:108) indicates that the three basics of motivation are;

- the preference for a particular outcome;
- the amount of energy required to achieve it; and
- the strength of the urge to persist in the face of obstacles.

Buchanan and Huckzynski (2004:243) posit that the elements required for motivation are goals, decisions and influence. This illustrates that if the goals are explicit, and the leaders of that organization are good decision makers and have the ability to influence employees, the employees are highly likely to be motivated. The hypotheses being, highly motivated employees strive to produce at higher levels and they exert greater effort compared to employees that are not motivated (Bagraim,
So on one hand motivation is an individual matter and on the other it is an organizational matter.

In workplace situations, managers need to know how to motivate employees in order to influence employees behaviour towards job satisfaction and increased performance (Walker, 2011:108). Individuals too, ought to understand that the major determinants of behaviour are necessary to influence subsequent behaviours (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004:241). Whilst there has been no conclusive and complete formula for motivating employees, researchers and practitioners alike rely on the theoretical dispositions to add value to motivation research and strategy.

Generally, motivation theories are classified according to; content theories, process theories and the reinforcement theory (Lussier & Achua, 2007:96; Erasmus, Schenk, & van Wyk, 2008:324). Content theories represent the needs or wants that human beings require in order to survive, whereas process theories are concerned with the process of how these needs, including the individuals environment, are translated into behaviour (Walker, 2011:109). Reinforcement theory or conditioning is a behavioural approach that posits that positive or negative consequences shape subsequent behaviour. Two content theories, Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs and Hertzberg’s Two Factor and four process theories (Equity, Expectancy, Goal Setting and Self Efficacy) are examined for the purposes of this study.

3.11.2 Maslow Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs (1943) is the earliest, perhaps the most revered work on motivation (Walker, 2011:109). According to Abraham Maslow human beings have five levels of needs, needs with the propensity to motivate them to act. Based on the interpretation of various scholars, the needs are grouped in lower and higher levels, according to Buchanan and Huczynski (2004:244), Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert, and Hatfield (2006:217) and Walker (2009:110):

- **Biological/Physical/Physiological Needs**

  Needs such as food, water, sleep, sex, sunlight, oxygen.
• **Emotional and Physical Safety Needs**

Needs such as security, protection from danger, freedom from fear and threat.

• **Social/Affiliation Needs**

Needs such as belonging to a family, participating in social activities, love, friendships and affection.

• **Esteem/Ego Needs**

Needs such as self-respect, status, recognition, confidence, self-esteem, reputation and respect.

**Self-Realization/ Self Actualization**

Needs such as growth, personal development, accomplishment.

Figure 3.5 presents a visual interpretation of Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs.

![Figure 3.5 Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs](image)

Source: Researchers Interpretation, 2014
To justify this theory, Maslow argues that the hierarchy of needs is only relevant to needs not wants. In addition it operates from a lower to higher scale because the needs on the lower level have to be fulfilled before the next needs wherein a fulfilled need becomes a motivator for the next need (Daft, 2008:229). Maslow adds that human beings can move up and down the hierarchy which is an indication that it is possible to revert to a lower level once a person reaches a higher level (Daft, 2008:229). The most important feature of theory is that, when needs are not met, they manifest in behaviour and it becomes a challenge for managers in workplace situations to decipher the level to which employees are operating within in order to effect motivation strategies (Walker, 2011:111).

Work satisfies the economic needs. Therefore, organizations tend to focus on financial gain and the motivation strategies are only aligned to that aspect. To some extent organizations do not even appreciate that the employees are at different levels of the hierarchy. Even if a motivation strategy was put into place, it would have an impact on some employees but not all. Needs, however they represent themselves are the primary drivers for workers to display any form of behaviour in the workplace.

3.11.3 Herzberg’s Two Factor Theory

Herzberg’s Two Factor Theory was born from an investigation that examined the value that employees expected to gain from their jobs and the conditions that motivated employees to perform (Mukherjee, 2009:512). The theory proposes that factors that make employees are divided into motivators and hygiene factors (Nelson & Quick, 2013: 171). Motivators, such as achievement, recognition, work and growth are intrinsic to the individual and to a large extent, related to job satisfaction and psychological growth (Nelson & Quick, 2013:171). In contrast, hygiene factors, such as status, security, company culture, policies, procedures and working conditions are closely related to dissatisfaction (Miner, 2007:48). Along this train of thought, Herzberg therefore concludes that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction (Miner, 2013:171). Furthermore the theory also points out that in order for employees to be satisfied, both factors must be present although motivators are more superior
because they affect the individuals personal capacity to be motivated (Nelson & Quick, 2013:171).

The greatest contribution yet, is that the theory has modernized the job enrichment movement to ensure that organizations design jobs that improve intrinsic satisfaction from work for a better quality of working life (Armstrong, 2012:167). Herzberg’s two factor theory has been applied in work-life balance research, because it addresses individual influences that prompt behaviours such as job satisfaction and motivation. Process motivation theories seek to understand why employees have needs, why the needs change and the mental processes they go through to make sense of their needs versus their satisfaction and how they choose behaviours to satisfy needs (Lussier & Achua, 2007:82). Some scholars refer to this group of theories as self-regulation theories because they revolve around goal directed behaviour (Levy, 2010:242).

### 3.11.4 The Equity Theory

The Equity Theory, coined by J. Stacy Adams (1965) proposes a formula that people weigh the balance between effort, expected outcomes and the outcomes of others. In simple terms employees are likely to gauge the amount of effort that they put into tasks and the outcomes, then compare with everyone else’s yield. In simple terms the achievement of equity will result in motivation (Wlodarczyk, 2011:21). The problem arises when employees feel their yield, despite putting in great effort, is lower than those employees being compared with. As a result employees who perceive this imbalance are likely to lack motivation for future tasks. People need to feel that there is a balance between their efforts and their outputs. Thus the motivational hypothesis indicates that unequal ratios lead to negative motivation (Wlodarczyk, 2011:21).

However the equity theory, relies on the employees perception or feelings that rewards are different. Therefore it runs the risk of subjectivity in the measurement of motivation (Erasmus, Schenk, & van Wyk, 2008). See Figure 3.6 for a pictorial representation of the equity theory.
Employees compare themselves with others and the results of that comparison determine the level of motivation in organizations. For instance if a hardworking employee discovers that a lazier colleague with the same responsibilities is being recognised, the former’s level of motivation will drop significantly. This is particularly important in competitive working environments.

### 3.11.5 Expectancy Theory
Similarly, the Expectancy theory also falls under the process theories and it is based on Victor Vroom’s (1964) formula that people are motivated, when they know they can complete a task, when they are certain of a reward and when the reward is worth the effort. The formula is depicted in Figure 3.7.

**Figure 3.7 Expectancy Theory**
Source: Lussier and Achua, 2007
Expectancy refers to the belief that a particular action and effort will result in a particular outcome (Chance, 2006:136). Instrumentality depicts an assessment by individuals, that performing certain acts will be rewarded as promised (Wlodarczyk, 2011:18). Valance identifies the degree to which individuals value or appreciate the reward (Chance, 2006:136).

According to Lunenburg (2011:1), Vroom’s theory is further broken down into four key assumptions. Firstly, when employees join an organization they bring with them expectations about their needs, motivations and experiences. Secondly, Vroom insists that an individual’s behaviour is a conscious choice. Thirdly, individuals are generally at liberty to select and perform those behaviours based on their expectancy calculations. Lastly, individuals are likely to choose from an array of alternatives to optimize personal outcomes. Whilst this theory provides a process of cognitive variables to explain motivation in the organizational settings, the theory does not offer specific ingredients that motivate employees. However, it brings forth the process of how individuals alter their expectancy towards performance and the rewards associated with performance (Lunenburg, 2011:5).

3.11.6 Goal Setting Theory
The Goal setting Theory is yet another cognitive process theory that is instrumental in understanding motivation. Research conducted by E.A. Locke revealed that setting objectives and goals for oneself has a positive bearing on motivation and on work performance (Miner, 2011:10). It is based on the understanding that an individual’s intention to work towards a specific goal is sufficient motivation (Latham, 2007:60). That means, once a goal is set it is easier for employees to set out a plan and calculate the effort required to achieve the goal. According to Locke and Latham (2002:715), goals affect performance in four ways:

- Goals serve as a directive function because they channel energy and attention towards activities relevant to the goals and away from those activities not relevant to the goals;
- Goals energize behaviour. Higher goals require greater effort;
- Goals affect persistence; and,
• Goals affect strategy.

According to Gitman and McDaniel (2008:244) goal setting achieves the following:

• Specified goals often lead to higher levels of performance compared to general goals;
• Difficult goals enhance performance provided the employees agree to the goal; and,
• Consistent feedback also improves performance.

For the context of this study, the Goal Setting Theory is regarded as the most empirically supported model of motivation (Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004:382; Latham & Pinder, 2005:496). The Goal Setting Theory allows researchers to delineate human propensities to interpret the past, present and the future, and incorporate these time factors with relationships among them as integral parts of the cognitive processes of making decisions in the workplace (Fried & Slowik, 2004: 404). Although the Goal Setting Theory boasts sufficient empirical research and wide use, it is not without some pitfalls. Latham and Locke (2006:335) concede that the lack of knowledge and skill to attain certain goals often leads to poor performance.

Furthermore, goal setting can have negative effects when individuals, within a group in organizations, pursue different goals. Competition and conflict are likely to ensue. To some extent if employees get used to operating according to set goals, it may reduce their ability to innovate or take risks (Latham and Locke, 2006:335). Goal setting is also connected to leadership. Leaders in general are responsible for the strategic aspects of organizations. A leader sets the vision and goals for an organization. Furthermore the leader inspires and motivates behaviour.

3.11.7 Self-Efficacy

Subsequent to the goal setting perspective, self-efficacy as propounded by Bandura in the social learning theory is critical for management purposes (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2012:360). Peterson and Arnn (2005:2) define self-efficacy as the belief that an individual possesses to organize and perform certain tasks as required. The values enshrined in this theory hold that individuals’ perceptions of their ability to
successfully complete a task or goal enhances motivation (Levy, 2010:244). Therefore strengthening one’s self-efficacy is vital to achieving goals (Levy, 2010:244). Bandura and Locke (2003:89) further argue that a strong belief in one’s ability to perform, that is efficacy, is essential to generating and sustaining the energy required to succeed. Belief of personal efficacy affects whether individuals think in self-enhancing or self-debilitating ways (Bandura & Locke, 2003:89). It also factors in the degree to which healthy individuals can motivate themselves and persevere in the face of difficulties in addition to the quality of their emotional well-being and their vulnerability to stress and depression (Bandura & Locke, 2003:89).

A high level of self-efficacy translates into a higher level of confidence in one’s ability to achieve certain tasks or goals (Mensah & Lebbaeus, 2013:195). In most cases, people with very low self-efficacy, often find it difficult to handle difficult situations (Mensah & Lebbaeus, 2013:195). Self-efficacy also manifests itself in four ways; social persuasion, vicarious, physiological and mastery (Bandura, 1977:195). Social persuasion is experienced as feedback from other people in the organization. Additionally, constructive feedback, acts as encouragement for workers to believe that they are competent to complete tasks whilst vicarious learning occurs when employees learn from others.

Physiological efficacy is a result of biological reactions such as resilience with respect to stress (Bandura, 1977:195). Mastery indicates a person’s ability to learn from perfecting skills through practice (Bandura, 1977:195). Self-efficacy belief influences individuals ‘perseverance when encountering challenges. Strong self-efficacy beliefs foster mastery in various situations because individuals rely on self-confidence in their abilities to persist through challenges (Wang & Haggerty, 2011:304). Currently many vacancy advertisements indicate “ability to work under pressure and under limited supervision” as one of the many self-efficacy requirements

3.11.8 Work/Family Border Theory
The Work/Family Border Theory culminates from the reflective research of Sue Campbell Clark. After years of reviewing work-life balance, Clark realized that the work force was changing dramatically and that the few theories that sought to
provide insight to the subject were limited (Clark, 2000:749). Research focused primarily on emotions and behaviour as key points that are transferred between the domains of work and family (Clark, 2000:749).

For example, Clark points out that, the spill over theory and compensation theory formed a large part of research in the 70’s, but quickly became irrelevant to the 80’s and 90’s during which the number of men and women in the workforce was growing exponentially. Clark further notes that both these theoretical notions focused on emotional linkages such as satisfaction and expressions of frustration without adequately explaining, predicting and solving the problems that workers face when balancing work and family responsibilities (Clark, 2000:749). More so, the traditional theories were more reactive, rather than possessing a capacity to influence the environment and they paid little attention to space, temporal work, social and behavioural linkages between the two domains (Clark, 2000:750). The work-family border theory was borne out of those limitations. According to Clark (2000:749) the revised theory required the following elements in order to address work life balance comprehensively:

- The theory must be descriptive of why the imbalance or conflict occurs between the two domains;
- Situations that can be predicted and individual tenets that cause the imbalance must be examined; and,
- The theory must also provide a framework that both workers and organizations can utilise to minimize the conflict between the work and life domains.

Accordingly, the work/family border theory holds that work and family, each have different spheres that constantly overlap. For example, work and family are like two countries with separate languages, cultures, boundaries, behaviours and different methods of doing tasks (Clark, 2000:753). Workers or people are actually cross borders between these two domains and they tend to adapt to each domain according to the rules that exist within it. As part of a daily transition, workers tailor their goals and behaviour to the demands of each domain (Clark, 2000:753). The work/family border theory also draws from the research of Kurt Lewin. In his work he
concluded that everything that can influence our behaviour lies between these two domains and that each person’s life has different patterns (Rychlak, 1981:20).

Lewin further added that in each person’s life there are different regions which are separated by permeable borders. Some regions are accessible and some regions are isolated. Lewin made the example of people who are actively religious in the life domain, whilst engaging in corrupt practices at work. According to Rychlak (1981), this confirms the gravity of psychological interpretation in each domain and the degree to which each domain interacts with the other (Clark, 2000:752). Thus the value that is brought by this theory is that work and home are specific domains in people’s lives, there are borders between work and home, people are border crossers and each domain has border keepers and other people that are crucial to that domain (Clark, 2000:753). The theory is represented by four key principles:

- Domains;
- Borders;
- Border crossers; and,
- Border keepers.

The borders represent the demarcation between the two domains and they define the start and end of the behaviours that are associated with each domain. Clark (2000:756) states that the borders are manifested according to three forms. Physical borders include the walls or the setting of each domain where the actual behaviour is exercised. Temporal borders determine when, in terms of time, can work be done between the two domains. An example of temporal borders is working hours. Psychological borders are rules devised by individuals to dictate thinking patterns, behaviour patterns and emotions for each of the domains.

Clark (2000:756) insists that each domain requires different psychological patterns. The borders are further characterised by their permeability, flexibility, blending and border strength. Permeability refers to the degree to which aspects of one domain move to another. This flow of issues from one domain to the other can also be psychological when a spill over of negative emotions and attitudes are transferred from the work domain to the home domain (Clark, 2000:757). The degree to which a
border can be changed refers to it flexibility. If individuals are allowed to work anywhere except the workplace, the border is considered flexible. Innovation and great ideas occur easily when the psychological border is flexible. Blending of domains occurs when there is a thin line between work and home. Family run businesses are examples of the blending because work interacts directly with family. Psychological blending is problematic because individuals can fall into schizophrenic mentalities if they are required to be different people in different domains. All in all, the permeability, flexibility and blending determine the strength of a border (Clark, 2000:758).

Regarding the border crossers, two aspects are critical to the discourse on work-life balance. Border crossers require a certain level of influence to make decisions in a particular domain and its borders. Workers that have high levels of autonomy are more inclined to experience satisfaction (Clack, 2000:759). Secondly, when workers identify with and internalise domain values, their enthusiasm to manage borders becomes optimal. In essence, people identify with their values. When a person introduces themselves to another, one will say “I am a married mother of 3 children” and the other will say “I am a professor in psychology at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University”. When people base their identity on one domain they will exert all their energies to shaping it. Thus balance which is a result of domain management is not possible unless individuals identify with the roles and activities that are associated with each domain (Clark, 2000:762).

Border keepers and other domain members are vital in managing the domain and the borders. Border keepers include supervisors in the work domain and spouses, children, extended family, friends and other social groups in the family domain. This is where the biggest conflict between the domains lies because each border keeper has set values and demands on the individual. Ultimately, one border crosser needs to concede to the requirements of the other.

Commitment to the border crosser is another importance aspect to the work-family relationship. Ideally, domain members are supposed to care for the border crosser’s total welfare. That is to say, within the confines of the work domain, supervisors or managers need to be concerned about workers’ situations outside the work domain.
The opposite also holds true. In addition, if the communication processes between the border keepers and border crossers are open, work-life balance is easily achieved.

The work-family border theory provides a theoretical basis for the study of work-life balance. It highlights the importance of the characteristics of each domain and the degree to which each domain influences the other. Thus, issues surrounding both work-life conflict and work-life balance are accentuated through the work-family border theory. The theory also highlights that in order to achieve balance, both domains must be in cooperation (Clark, 2000:765). The status of work indicates the opposite. The work domain as research has established is in conflict with the family domain. Accordingly, Clark (2000:765) maintains that organizations need to rethink their entire cultural frameworks in order to accommodate the family domain.

Lastly, Clark (2000:766) posits that individuals are also responsible for managing the balance between the two domains through communication, sharing of successes and challenges and informing the workplace members about family events. Figure 3.8 offers a pictorial interpretation of the Work-Family border theory.
Figure 3.8 Work-family border theory: A pictorial representation and list of central concepts and their characteristics.

Source: Clark, 2000
3.12 Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

The three major components of this study, organizational culture and work-life balance and work performance have been dealt with extensively in the last part of this section and the recurring impression is that this study is embedded in behavioural science. Behavioural sciences in management or workplace environments emphasise on the importance of understanding the factors that affect human behaviour within organizations resulting in what is generally known to be organizational behaviour (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004:2). Furthermore, it is vital to indicate from the onset of this section that the interpretations let alone the definitions of behaviour as it is applied in organizations are wrought with controversy (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004:2).

The controversy lies in the fact that different commentators have different opinions on the scope of this field. The vast literature identified in organizational theory, industrial sociology, organizational psychology or even organizational analysis increases the uncertainty. However, the point is that, even amidst the controversy, this discipline is defined inclusively as the interdisciplinary body of knowledge and field of research concerned with formal organizations and the behaviour of people within organizations. In addition it takes into consideration the salient features of their context and environment, and how they evolve and take shape and the reasons that all these things happen the way they do and the nature of the purposes they serve (Sorge & Warner, 1997:xii). Thus, the enquiry of organizational behaviour is multidisciplinary and it draws from psychology sociology, economics and political science (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004:26).

In addition, organizational behaviour involves a multi-level study of the external environment, internal structures, functioning and performance of organizations and the behaviour of groups and individuals (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004:26). It also comes as no surprise that organizational effectiveness, relating to performance and the quality of working life can only be explained by a combination of contextual, individual, group, structural, process and managerial factors (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004:26). The enquiry is further thrown into a furore because human beings possess complexities, so rather than generalizing it is key to explore the
variables of organizational behaviour to be able to draw out useful inferences, if not to provide answers or explanations to the enquiry (Schein, 1972:69). Ultimately the beauty of well-developed theories provide framework to which scientists conduct research (Latham & Locke, 2006:332). Again, the theoretical framework ought to reflect the uniqueness of the South African Construction industry as it evolves within the diverse and varied context of South Africa.

There are identifiable relationships between organizational culture, work-life balance and work performance. Organizational culture is a broad concept but it determines all minor and major processes in an organization. The leaders, at inception of the organization “create” a specific culture. If the company has been in existence, the leader is once again required to change or modify the culture. Similarly, a leader can also be shaped by the organizational culture. Leaders that have been in the organization for long periods of time internalise the existing culture. If such an individual is promoted to the CEO position, they will corporate the same culture. The manner in which goals are set will reflect the culture. The presence or the absence of a work-life balance culture is embedded in the organizational culture. Ultimately, these issues affect the performance of individuals. Performance is not only driven by good work-life balance but other internal and external factors as indicated in the theory. Figures 3.9 and 3.10 represent the theoretical and conceptual framework of this study.

The theoretical framework enumerates the study’s contribution to the body of knowledge. This contribution is addressed extensively in Chapter 6 of this research. In this sense the issues that emerge from the data, as a response to the research questions are a culmination of the importance of the study. See Figure 3.9
The conceptual framework which incorporates the competency values framework, personal traits and the work-family border theory provides the basis for the major enquiry of this research which is:

- the status of organizational culture in the construction industry;
- the nature of work-life balance in the construction industry; and,
- the links between the two concepts.

Ultimately, this framework scaffolds the research methodology and predefines the questions that will be incorporated in the research instrument. Thus the competency values framework and the work-family border theory form the conceptual basis of the interview process.
Figure 3.10 Conceptual Framework

Source: Researcher, 2014

Figure 3.11 depicts the process of the study and the relationships between the concepts and theories that are reviewed in the literature. Leadership is a core component of organizational culture and is measured with the CVF. The variables in pink represent the theories that are relevant to work-life balance and individual work performance whereas the variables in orange depict the factors that are key in addressing individual performance.
Figure 3.11 The relationship between concepts and theories of this study

Source: Researcher, 2014
3.13 Summary of chapter

Theoretically, both organizational culture and work-life balance have a bearing on individual performance on one level and organizational performance on the other. The type of organizational culture does determine the gravity of the work – family interface. For instance organizational cultures that glorify employees who work as if they had no personal life, needs or responsibilities, silences personal concerns but only to the detriment of the organization in many ways such as absenteeism, poor performance and accidents (Rapoport et al., 2002:31).

In terms of this research, it is critical that the organizational culture of the construction industry is examined and understood as an initial step, prior to linking organizational culture and work-life balance and the link to individual performance. As it has been noted throughout the overview, work life balance is a key challenge facing organizations in the 21st century, but most work-life balance research has been conducted in sedentary type work environments (Lingard, Francis, & Turner, 2012:282). Consequently little is known about the work-life experiences of workers in dynamic project based industries, such as construction despite the general knowledge that project work has unique characteristics and demands (Lingard, Francis, & Turner, 2012:282). Research conducted in China, Australia and UK has shown that national culture, industry culture and enterprise culture play a significant role in shaping the relationship between the work and family life of employees in the construction sector (Liu & Low, 2011:117).

This chapter therefore, provided the theoretical framework and conceptual frameworks for organizational culture, work-life balance and individual performance. Organizational culture sets the tone for all proceedings in organizations. Through leadership and acculturation, employees embrace different cultures that are critical to the overall functioning of the organizations. Furthermore, leadership in most organizations plays a critical role in shaping the culture of organization in the same way as the broader national culture and other socio-economic and political factors. In addition the degree to which culture is expressed or experienced differs from one organization to another. The result is the existence of strong or weak cultures.
In as much as there is an on-going and necessary debate to further refine this research area, understanding and measuring organizational culture is important because it forms the basis from which solutions for organizational deficiencies can be rectified. Similarly, understanding organisational culture, in industries such as the construction industry will generate more knowledge about the industry. All the theories and concepts that were examined in this chapter indicate the complex nature of organizational studies.

Although there is still dissention about the technicalities of work-life balance, it is still a pertinent issue in the construction industry because it translates to the general wellbeing of employees both at home and at work. Most importantly, for the construction industry in South Africa, work-life balance research and practice is lacking. Therefore, this research will make major steps towards closing this gap. It forms part of the bigger discussion on human resources development for the construction industry, which is continuously endeavouring to find new and better approaches to improve individual performance. The mixture of the theoretical foundations of organizational culture, work-life balance and performance indicates the degree of importance in the overall performance of organizations such as the construction industry.

The next chapter outlines the research methodology and design and includes the techniques that were utilised to gather data for this study.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

4.1 Introduction

In the last chapter, literature on organizational culture, work-life balance and work performance was reviewed. Furthermore, the methodological bias of this study was established. Consequently, this chapter will address the philosophy behind the research process, the methodology and techniques that were used for collecting and analysing data for this study.

4.2 Philosophical position of this study

As is the norm with the practice of research, locating ones research in the established research paradigms is critical. The underlying deduction is that research paradigms, whether in social or natural sciences, offer researchers the ability to reflect critically about the research and to deduce the manner in which the research process is conducted, including foresight on outcomes of the research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011:34). Babbie (2013:57) notes that paradigms provide a context through which researchers perceive and understand research. In addition, in the context of research methodology, research paradigms offer a collection of philosophical assumptions regarding the phenomena that is to be studied (Hammersly, 2012:2).

However, in recent times the fascination with paradigms has been met with a lot of negative attention. To be precise, paradigm wars resulting from the confusion brought about by the different research paradigms are incessant (Bryman, 2008:13). For one the use of language, the ideas and the ever-evolving principles of these paradigms particularly in the different academic disciplines is one of the causes of this confusion (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006:2). Furthermore, the debates between qualitative and quantitative approaches have heightened the paradigm wars (Glogowska, 2011:252; Bryman, 2008:13). Quantitative research is commonly associated with the positivist or objectivist position whereas qualitative research leans on to the interpretivist and constructionist positions (Bryman, 2008:13). Some scholars contend that the paradigm wars have been exacerbated by social and behavioural scientists, who are inclined to choose sides between the positivists’
camp and the Interpretivists camp (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005:375). Consequently, the use of mixed methods research, across qualitative and quantitative domains has subdued hostility between the paradigms (Bryman, 2008:13). Mixed research combines qualitative and quantitative form of research with the overall purpose of strengthening research (Cresswell & Plano Clark, 2007:5). Unfortunately, the debate also promotes purists who restrict themselves to specific research methods without appreciating the value in incorporating a mixed approach (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005:376). Although these paradigms are still referenced in research, they have become less salient or less exhaustive in light of the current complexities of social phenomena. Still, for every researcher, research paradigms provide logical interpretations, systematic patterns to anticipate other possibilities and directions for research practice (Babbie, 2013:57). Furthermore, it appears that paradigms are central to determining methodology and techniques for research projects (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006:5). Thus, the different paradigms are incommensurable, and that, depending on which one is selected, each has a fundamental effect on data collection, analysis and the knowledge produced (Dainty, 2008:3).

In the first chapter, this study is located in the interpretivist paradigm. This approach embodies the principle that there is a fundamental difference between research conducted in natural sciences versus social or historical sciences (Hammersly, 2012:22). That is to say, people are central to issues of meaning, value and the broader environment. The significance of the interpretivist paradigm to this research is its appreciation that human beings are shaped by their cultures within the environments that they exist in and subsequently spawn specific actions resulting in social organization, life, beliefs and attitudes (Hammersly, 2012:22). Interpretivists also argue that it is impossible to understand people’s actions and social institutions without taking into account the nature of their perceptions, beliefs and attitudes (Neuman, 2003:76). This study within this philosophical orientation seeks to determine how people conduct their day-to-day activities and tasks as well as interactions with each other in organizations (Neuman, 2003:76). Over and above these philosophical parameters, researchers cannot be confined to philosophy, instead researchers should handle research in a manner that is best suited to their
specific enquiry. (Glogowska, 2011:251). This is particularly important in the construction management field. Construction management is a practical subject, therefore, the choice of approach should generate practical solutions (Wing, Raftery, & Walker, 1998:99). Since it is located within the built environment field, research processes are embedded in other disciplines such as arts, economics, law and social sciences (Knight & Ruddock, 2008:xiii). Accordingly, research in the built environment draws from both natural and social science, which confirms that there is no single way of skinning a cat. (Dainty, 2008:1). Contemporary commentators of the paradigm wars conclude that organizational research in particular should weigh when paradigm persistence or paradigm revolution is applicable for the benefit of research (Qiu, Donaldson, & Luo, 2012:102). This, in a sense means that, sometimes sticking to specific paradigms will be overridden by paradigm revolutions (Qiu, Donaldson, & Luo, 2012:102).

Within the research paradigms exist ontological, epistemological, axiological and methodological assumptions relevant to the research process (Nairn, Berthon, & Money, 2007:260). These assumptions also relate to the nature of knowledge and how the knowledge is established in research practice (Wahyuni, 2012:69). Ontology refers to the manner in which researchers perceive their reality (Wahyuni, 2012:69). Epistemology explores the views on what constitutes knowledge. Axiology focuses on the importance of values in research and the researcher’s perspectives of these values such as ethics. Lastly, methodology refers to the rationale and philosophical assumptions that apply to a study, regarding the data collection process and the design (Glogowska, 2011:251; Wahyuni, 2012:70; Wisker, 2008:66-67). The ontological reflection of this researcher holds that understanding the organizational culture in the South African construction industry can provide solutions to many of the challenges within the industry. This view is also consistent with the epistemological viewpoint as established by the vast literature in the subject, which confirms that the success and failure of any organization lies in the deep abysses of attitudes, values and beliefs experienced by the members and perpetuated by members themselves and the leadership. Table 4.1 summarizes the relationship between the various paradigms, fundamental principles of each and the relevant methodologies associated with each paradigm.
Table 4.1 Philosophical Dimensions of Research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fundamental Beliefs</th>
<th>Interpretivism</th>
<th>Pragmatism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ontology:</strong> the position on the nature of reality</td>
<td>● Socially constructed, may change and has multiple meaning</td>
<td>● External, multiple, view chosen to best achieve an answer to the research question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Epistemology:</strong> the view on what constitutes acceptable knowledge</td>
<td>● Meanings derived from social phenomena,</td>
<td>● Either or both observable phenomena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>● Focus upon the details of situation and the reality behind these details,</td>
<td>● Subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge dependent upon the research question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>● Subjective meanings and motivating actions</td>
<td>● Focus on practical applied research, integrating different perspectives to help interpret the data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Axiology:</strong> the role of values in research and the researcher’s stance</td>
<td>● Value-bond and open to multiple interpretations</td>
<td>● Value-bond and etic-emic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>● Research is value bound</td>
<td>● Values play a large role in interpreting the results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>● Sometimes the researcher is part of what is being researched, cannot be</td>
<td>● The researcher adopts both objective and subjective points of view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>separated and so will be subjective</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research Methodology:</strong> the model behind the research process</td>
<td>● Qualitative</td>
<td>Quantitative and Qualitative (mixed or multi method design)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3 Objectivism vs. Subjectivism in research methodology

No researcher can conduct research without being confronted by the incessant hostility between social and natural scientists. Both sides seem to see things from different angles regarding the creation of knowledge. Natural scientists, following a long standing, strong positivism position, uphold value in measuring or quantifying objects as the best method of producing knowledge. The tenet of positivism is objectivity. This implies that “proper knowledge” can only be created within the parameters of positivism. Social science on the other end, has counter attacked with a softer approach that seeks to derive meaning and understanding of human beings. Incidentally, it is an approach that offers more explanations about the existence of things rather than measuring and quantifying phenomena. In reality, creating knowledge can neither be objective or subjective. Knowledge is knowledge. Nor can knowledge exist in an objective form such as a container (Noy, 2008:332). Noy (2008:332) concludes, “knowledge is basically information stored in the minds of informants like pebbles in an informants pocket awaiting a skilled researcher to extract it from subjects and transfer it to the research”.

4.4 Research Method

Consistent to the exploratory nature of this research, the interpretivist approach embraces qualitative methods such as interviews, observation, ethnography and document analysis (Neuman, 2003:77). The overriding assumption being that the interpretative approach rejects the idea of objective reality. Instead, this approach embodies the principle that social reality, such as organizational culture, is formed through the social interactions of the individuals within that organizational setting (Hesse-Biber, 2010:104). Thus, irrespective of the levels of subjectivity, this study will employ a qualitative research process. Mixed methods are gaining popularity in social and behavioural sciences as seen through the testimonials and increase in publications (Bergman, 2008:1). The flexibility and the multiple forms of data widens the possibilities of procuring data (Creswell, 2009:19). However, in some cases mixed methods can be monotonous or repetitious for academic research which is normally time bound.
The next section recapitulates the foundations of the research to emphasize the qualitative nature of this study. The conceptual framework, research questions and objectives provide the blueprint from which this research process will be conducted.

4.4.1 Main Research question
How does the organizational culture in the construction industry impact on the work-life balance of employees and their individual performance?

4.4.2 Research Sub-questions
- What are the cultural characteristics of the South African construction industry?
- What is the current status of work-life balance in the South African construction industry?
- How does organizational culture in the South African construction industry affect work-life balance?
- What is the relationship between work-life balance and individual performance in the South African construction industry?

4.4.3 Aim and Objectives of the Research
The aim of the research project was to provide a better understanding of how organizational culture in the construction industry affects work-life balance in the sector and in turn how it impacts to individual performance. In this sense, the research objectives include:

- To examine the cultural characteristics of the construction industry;
- To establish the nature of work-life balance in the construction industry;
- To determine the extent to which the cultural characteristics impact on the work-life balance of workers; and,
- To explore the effects of work-life balance on individual performance in the construction industry.
4.5 Research Design

The process of this study is aligned to an inductive approach relevant to delineating the problem through research questions. The study adopts an exploratory research design. Firstly, the study aims at exploring the nature of organizational culture and work-life balance in the construction industry. Secondly, the study then determines the relationship between organizational culture and work-life balance, then work-life balance and work performance. Exploratory studies are used to make preliminary investigations into relatively unknown or under-researched areas (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006:44). Exploratory research conducted through the use of open, flexible and inductive approaches reveals speculative insights and new phenomena (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006:44). The most common techniques for the exploratory approach include, observation, interviews, content analysis and focus groups (Kumar, 2011:11). Qualitative researchers are continuously searching for research methods that engage the participants in the data collection process. These methods have the ability to capture the multi-dimensionality of the human experience (Deacon, 2006:95).
The majority of the data is based on primary data as informed by the expanded literature review. An interview protocol is then followed as the means of collecting data. An interview schedule was specifically designed to collect data. The rationale behind this technique, is that interviews allow the research to glean more information from the participant as opposed to questionnaires. In addition, the construction industry in South Africa is notorious for not completing and returning questionnaires, never mind the authenticity of those that are even returned (Shakantu, 2014).

4.6 Data Collection Techniques

This section outlines the research techniques that were used to collect data.

4.6.1 Interviews

Qualitative research relies extensively on interviewing techniques for data collection. Scientists gain access to the experience through the questions and answers they source from other people (Conner & Bliss-Moreau, 2006:109). Interviews allow researchers to understand events and provide explanations of these events. Most importantly, it is much simpler to collect data about participants’ thoughts and beliefs through interviews (Richey & Klein, 2007:113). In principle, interviews involve many forms of talk during which the interviewer and the interviewee interact through the asking and answering of questions. That is to say, the basic unit of this interaction relies on a question and answer sequence through face-to-face, telephonic or video mediums (Roulston, 2010:10).

In most cases interviews are carefully constructed whether through structured or unstructured protocols. Structured interviews involve a structured and predetermined list of questions, which are followed in sequence during the interviews. In addition, structured interviews can be replicated with other research participants, which makes standardisation easy. Standardisation improves the reliability of the results (Haigh, 2008:113). Unstructured interviews are flexible, although some form of schedule is sometimes required to guide the interview process. The tenet that separates structured interviews from unstructured ones is that structured interviews are planned, whereas unstructured interviews are exploratory and further questions arise
as the interviews proceed (Haigh, 2008:113). According to Haigh (2008:113) each of these interview processes are also open to variation such as the forms listed below:

- Informal conversational interviews with no predetermined questions;
- General interview guides to ensure that general areas of data are captured from the participants;
- Standardized open ended interviews; and,
- Closed, fixed-response interviews in which all interviewees are asked similar questions.

Interviews also come in a variety of specialized forms such as qualitative interviews often scripted as in-depth interviews, focus group, ethnographic, phenomenological, life histories, narrative and digital story telling (Marshall & Rossman, 2010:146). A key characteristic of in-depth interviews focuses on the participant in order to unravel the participants’ personal perspectives on the subject matter in a detailed manner (Lewis, 2009:58). Focus groups illuminate the research subject based on the interactions between individuals in a group (Lewis, 2009:58). Ethnographic interviews are centred in anthropology and are largely appropriate for collecting cultural data (Marshall & Rossman, 2010:146). Phenomenological interviews reprise in-depth interviews for phenomenological research. Again, like in-depth interviews, life histories, narrative and digital storytelling techniques do not only focus on the participant but allows participants to account their experiences and memories accurately (Silverman, 2010:47; Shopes, 2011:451).

Prior to the 1970’s interviews were commonly used for professional purposes such as recruitment, journalism and counselling, Roulston (2010:10) until the feminist movement catapulted the inclusion of interviews into social research. Feminists at that time, held that quantitative methods, as aligned to positivism could not adequately capture the women’s lives and experiences (Doucet & Mauthner, 2008:328). In short, the methods that were used to understand and study women were inconsistent to the extent of mechanical exclusion theoretically and methodologically in research (Doucet & Mauthner, 2008:329). In the last 40 years interviews have been become one of the methods of choice even though many
debates continue to rage on regarding the process of conducting interviews and their theoretical underpinnings (Doucet & Mauthner, 2008:332).

Today interviews have numerous benefits. Interviews yield a lot of data in a short space of time. In addition, during interviews researchers have the flexibility of collecting a wider variety of data from a few participants. Furthermore it is easier to clarify and make follow ups during interviews unlike other research techniques (Marshall & Rossman, 2010:145). Obviously, the value in this process lies on the capacity and skill of the researcher. Combining interviews with other techniques allows the researcher to grasp the underlying meanings and experiences in people’s lives (Marshall & Rossman, 2010:145). Kvale (1996:124) outlines twelve key values that accentuate the importance of interviews in research; life world, qualitative, meaning, specificity, deliberate naivety, focus, ambiguity, change, sensitivity, interpersonal situation and positive experience.

Alongside the many benefits that interviews bring to research processes, they are not without limitations. In general, irrespective of the interview approach, interviews are frequently fraught with time constraints since a lot of time is required for the interview process (Yegidis & Weinbach, 2009:149). Subsequently, the quality of data may suffer due to errors, untruthful accounts including inadequate interviewing skills on the part of the interviewer (Yegidis & Weinbach, 2009:149). Ultimately transcription and analysis is impeded if the interview data is not collected properly especially in qualitative research. Table 4.2 summarizes advantages and disadvantages posed by structured and unstructured interviews.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of Interview</th>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Structured Interview**| - Replicated easily because same questions are asked.  
- Easy to gain quantifiable data  
- Data is more reliable  
- Allows for the generalization of results  
- Powerful tool for formative assessment before using second method  
- Researcher is able to obtain, code and interpret data quickly, easily and efficiently  
- A formal relation is formed between researcher and participant | - Restrictive questioning leads to restrictive answers.  
- Quality of data is determined by quality of questions  
- Closed questions prevent participants from expressing themselves  
- Uncertainty if questions are inappropriate  
- Time consuming if sample is large  
- Pre planning is required  
- Structured format makes it difficult for researcher to examine complex issues  
- Limited opportunity for respondents to answer questions in-depth |
| Closed/Standardized     |                                                                                                                                                                                                          |                                                                                                                                            |
| **Unstructured Interviews**| - Flexible and responsive to participants  
- Relaxed and natural  
- Highly detailed and yield ecologically valid data  
- Allows the exploration of subjects  
- Can unearth unexpected findings | - Difficult to replicate  
- Impossible to generalize  
- Interviewer bias can be an issue  
- Time consuming  
- Difficult to transcribe and analyzing large quantities of data |
4.6.2 The Interview Process

Although interviews are just conversations between two individuals, a lot of meticulous preparation is required prior to the interview (Marshall & Rossman, 2010:145). When planning for interviews it is important to take into account that interviews combine structure with flexibility, interviews are highly interactive, and a range of probes and other techniques are utilised to explore and attain valuable data from the participant (Legard, Keegan, & Ward, 2009:142). Invariably the skills and experience of the interviewer plays a critical role in the planning and execution of interviews (Legard, Keegan, & Ward, 2009:142). The tenets of a highly skilled interviewer include the following according to Ward et al., (2009:142):

- Good listening skills;
- Good communication;
- Clear logical mind-set;
- Curiosity;
- The ability to forge good relationships with people from all walks of life;
- Creating a good rapport by demonstrating interest and respect;
- Composure and adaptability;
- Humour;
- Credibility; and,
- Efficiency and preparedness.

These competencies are further buttressed by the ethical principles as embodied in the entire research process. For instance, the interviewer needs to secure the consent of the participant and scheduling the interview should be convenient to both parties (Roulston, 2010:98). It is also appropriate and in the interest of the researcher to give the participant a synopsis of the study prior to the actual interview. Research proposals also need to adhere to rigorous guidelines for research conduct to ensure that participants are not deceived to participate. In addition, research ethics abhor the manipulation, mistreatment and any form of harm, emotional or physical, on the participants (Marshall & Rossman, 2010:160). In some instances, interviews can veer off into discussions of a personal nature, which sometimes provoke discomfort or uneasiness for the participants (Yegidis & Weinbach, 2009:
Delaying such questions to the end of the research, presumably at the time when the rapport has been established between the researcher and the participant is more appropriate (Yegidis & Weinbach, 2009:152). Yet again, the skill of the researcher plays an important role in striking a balance between extracting qualitative data and provoking discomfort by discussing personal aspects. At the beginning and the duration of the interview, it is useful for the researchers to provide complete identification, promote pleasant interaction and be specific about the stages of the interview (Legard, Keegan, & Ward, 2009:145).

### 4.6.3 Interview process for this research

As indicated in the previous section, the interviews were conducted solely to generate the themes that are unique to the South African construction industry. Interviews have over the years gained recognition as a data collecting method of choice in the built environment disciplines (Haigh, 2008:111). Furthermore, because organizational culture and work-life balance are complex phenomena, interviews as a strategy of collecting data are mostly useful. For this specific research, face-to-face, semi structured interviews would allow the researcher to glean as much data as possible. As it was established in the previous chapter, the Competency Values Framework and the Work-Family Border Theory form the theoretical basis of the interview process. An interview schedule was developed according to the Organizational Cultural Assessment tool (OCAI) which stems from the Competency Values Framework (CVF). The tool is frequently used with questionnaire surveys but for the purposes of this research, it was adapted to an interview schedule.

The purpose of the tool, according to Cameron and Quinn (2006:31-61) is to assist organizations in identifying existing and ideal cultural configurations. The OCAI is represented in six key dimensions that explain how people think, their values and assumptions and how they assimilate information in organizations (refer to Chapter three- Literature Review (Cameron & Quinn, 2006:31-61). They are replicated as follows;

- Dominant Cultural characteristics;
- Organizational Leadership;
- Management of employees;
- Organizational cohesion/glue;
- Strategic emphasis; and,
- Criteria for success.

Questions were developed for each category. Upon analysis each category is transposed to the CVF Matrix (Clan, Adhocracy, Hierarchy and Market) with focus on the levels of flexibility and discretion, internal focus and integration, stability and control and external focus and differentiation (See Figure 4.2). The data were recorded in the interview schedule according to the themes described above. Furthermore the interviews were recorded to simplify the analysis. The data analysis process is outlined clearly in the Data Analysis section in this chapter (See section 4.9)

![Figure 4.2 Competency Values Framework](image)

Source: Cameron & Quinn, 1999
Each quadrant is categorised in the following manner;

- **Clan** – The basic assumption in the clan culture is that the environment can be best managed through teamwork, employee development, and customers are seen as partners. The organization is in the business of developing a humane work environment and the task is to empower employees and facilitate their participation, commitment and loyalty;

- **Adhocracy** – The major goal of adhocracy is to foster adaptability, flexibility and creativity where uncertainty or ambiguity or information overload are typical. Emphasis is on new knowledge, readiness for change and new challenges;

- **Market** – The focus of market cultures is to conduct transactions with other constituencies to create a competitive advantage. Bottom line results, profitability, strength in market niches and securing customer bases are critical; and,

- **Hierarchy** – Organisations that subscribe to this quadrant are formal and structured. Procedures govern what people do and effective leaders are good coordinators and organizers. The long-term concerns of the organization are stability, predictability and efficiency;

Furthermore, based on the content of the Work-Family Border theory, the interviewing tool includes questions that enabled the researcher to determine or measure the status of work-life balance in the South African construction industry. Primarily, the framework of questions drew from the extensive literature as enunciated in the Literature review chapter and particularly the conceptual framework. Factors such as time, resources, the degree of strain and the behaviour that employees display in organizations were entrenched in the line of questioning. Additionally, questioning along the lines of organizational strategy and policy shed more light on the status of work-life balance in the construction industry. Unlike organizational culture which has more established methods or measurement, work-life balance involves a cacophony of issues which differ from organization to organization, depending of the nature of the work that is done in that organization. The last leg of the interview process covered the links between organizational culture and work-life balance, as well as between work-life balance and job performance.
4.7 Population and Sampling

Sampling has transformed research immensely from its humble beginnings in political polling to a rigorous subject selection process in both natural and social sciences (Babbie, 2013:128). The premise of sampling is that researchers are required to specify the characteristics of the population and how the units will be selected from the population (Creswell, 2009:147). Furthermore, the essence of a sampling process is to identify a plausible strategy for defining objects of analysis for specific reasons (Urichard, 2013:5). Ragin (1992:219) refers to this activity as “casing the casing” for it includes the processes and mechanisms involved in demarcating the case to be studied. Historically, sampling processes have its foundations in probability theory. However it has received very little critical attention as a subject, outside the normal parameters of methodology (Urichard, 2013:1).

The general standard is that all subjects within a specific population have an equal and known opportunity to be selected in a sample (Hesse-Biber, 2010:49). Since quantitative data is analysed statistically, larger and representative samples are vital (Babbie, 2013:127). Thus, random selection is considered the best strategy to choose samples. Social researchers on the other hand, base their sampling exercises on non-probability frameworks. The list includes purposive or judgemental sampling, snowball and quota sampling. In all these strategies, the researcher selects and justifies the selection process. Sampling is thus an integral stage in the qualitative research process and this underscores the fact that the sampling process is guided by the philosophical positioning of the study (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007:241). Accordingly, interpretivists study phenomena in natural surroundings and strive to make sense and interpret phenomena pertaining to the meanings brought by people (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005:5). Non-probability sampling offers researchers the opportunity to select units within a population deliberately because they display specific features of a population (Ritchie, Lewis, Elam, & G, 2009:79). In addition, in non-probability sampling processes, samples are picked based on the perceived richness of their knowledge of the subject matter (Urichard, 2013:3). However positivists employ quantitative research methods to achieve the possibility of extrapolating the findings to the rest of the population.
For both probability or non-probability sampling processes, the epistemological assumption is that researchers require some knowledge of the sample and population, and that the final objective is to gather knowledge about the sample and/or the population (Uprichard, 2013:4)

**4.7.1 Sampling Designs in Qualitative Research**

Sampling designs describe the framework within which sampling processes occur such as types of sampling and the size of samples. Typical frameworks include (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007:242-249):

- Parallel designs which represent sampling strategies that foster credible comparisons between two or more subgroups extracted from the same level of study (e.g. boys/girls);
- Nested sampling which facilitate comparisons of two or more members of the same sub group, wherein one or more members represent a sub sample (e.g. key informants); and,
- Multi-level sampling designs which represent strategies that facilitate the comparison of two or more sub groups that are extracted from different levels of study (e.g. students and teachers).

Consequently, choosing the units of analysis for research purposes is critical and three objectives apply to the process of choosing the units (Gerring, 2012:86). Representativeness, size and level of analysis determine the units of analysis, which should add value to the study (Gerring, 2012:86). Representativeness strengthens the validity of a study. In a sense the, sample selection should be representative of a larger population and that each unit within the population should have an equal opportunity for being selected (Gerring, 2012:86). In addition representativeness focuses on the degree to which the unit is similar to the overall population (Yegidis & Weinbach, 2009:198). The size of the population matters as it represents the degree to which the evidence is compelling. Contrary to common knowledge, the size does not only refer to the percentage of the population, but also to the number of cases within that population (Yegidis & Weinbach, 2009:198).
With the availability of more evidence, stronger inferences are made from the study. Presumably, every population is stratified according to levels of analysis. Therefore, the research sample should include the level that is most important to the research enquiry (Gerring, 2012:90). Not all three objectives are void of criticism, neither are they conclusive in actual research processes. In social research and qualitative research in particular, sampling does not make or break the study. The key issue is whether the sample is sufficient to enable the researcher, in their conclusion to answer the research question and be able to make inferences to the population. In fact, Denzin and Lincoln (2005:19) dub the issues surrounding this matter, the crisis of representation. They conclude “Such experience, it is argued is created in the social text written by the researcher. This is the representational crisis. It confronts the inescapable problem of representation, but does so within a framework that makes the direct link between experience and text problematic.” In the end most researchers conclude that it is neither feasible nor necessary to study entire populations in most cases. Although selecting a large sample promotes efficiency, it is possible to gather sufficient knowledge from a portion of the population (Yegidis & Weinbach, 2009:197). This is a valid analogy, especially in exploratory research, in which the researcher applies any probable strategy and sets out to acquire better knowledge of a phenomenon (Yegidis & Weinbach, 2009:195). That is to say, the guidelines on selecting a sample are not cast in stone, rather they are unique to the types of studies and the rationales of those studies. It is much easier to apply these rules to descriptive or explanatory studies, which are quantitative and usually originate from hypotheses and variables. Then the objectives of representativeness, size and level of analysis are of paramount importance. The following steps are critical to selecting a sample from a population (Creswell, 2009:148):

- Identify the population of the study;
- Identify whether the sampling design is single stage or multistage;
- Identify selection process for individuals;
- Identify if the study will involve stratification of the population;
- Identify available lists, and,
- Indicate the number of people in the sample.
Table 4.3 below offers a similar interpretation of the procedure for selecting a sample. Robinson (2013:26) offers a 4 step process for delineating a sample form its population.

**Table 4.3 The Four point approach to qualitative sampling**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Key decisional Issues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Point 1</td>
<td>Define a sample universe</td>
<td>Homogeneity vs. heterogeneity, inclusion and exclusion criteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Establish a sample universe by way of a set of inclusion and exclusion criteria</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point 2</td>
<td>Decide on a sample size</td>
<td>Idiographic (small) vs. nomothetic (large)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Choose sample size or sample size range by taking into account what is ideal and what is practical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point 3</td>
<td>Devise a sample strategy</td>
<td>Stratified, cell, quota theoretical strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Select a purposive sampling strategy to specify categories of person to be included in the sample</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point 4</td>
<td>Source the sample</td>
<td>Incentives vs. no incentives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recruit the participants</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Robinson, 2013
Robinson (2013:26) reiterates that defining the sample universe, which is the totality of the persons from which a sample can be drawn, is critical (See Figure 4.3.). Furthermore, the inclusion criteria should be specific about qualities that the sample should possess for the study, whereas the exclusion criteria should stipulate the opposite. These criteria affect the degree of homogeneity or heterogeneity of the sample. If a researcher employs significant inclusion or exclusion criteria, the sample tends to be more homogenous (Robinson, 2013:26).

Figure 4.3 Sampling in Interview Based Qualitative Research

Source: Robinson, 2013
4.7.2 Population

The sample universe or population as illustrated in Figure 4.3 is not only a practical boundary that supports the sampling process but it also provides a theoretical role in the analysis and interpretation process by specifying the origins of the sample (Robinson, 2013:28). That is to say if a study does not specify a sample universe, or makes reference beyond its scope, the credibility or coherence of the study is undermined (Robinson, 2013:28).

4.7.3 Sample Size

Practically, most research projects require a provisional plan on sampling in the initial stages of the project. In many cases, sampling affects resource allocation, which needs to be settled even before the actual study is conducted. The sampling process has to be incorporated in the proposal of the study. Thus, the size of the sample is an important consideration (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007:242; Robinson, 2013:29). If the research involves participants, researchers need to start conceptualising about whom the participants will be, the numbers of participants and all the logistics involved. Sampling for qualitative research is also fraught with many debates regarding the size of the sample. As such “how many interviews are sufficient for a qualitative study” is a common concern for both experienced and budding researchers (Back, 2012:12). Regrettably, this question has not been answered conclusively save for the statement that, the sample size for qualitative interviews depends on a variety of factors such as research approach, the resources of the researcher, the subject being investigated and the knowledge of the participants (Baker & Edwards, 2012: 3-6).

Thus, the size is informed by theoretical considerations (case study, ethnography, phenomenology, grounded theory, exploratory) which provide guidelines on the size of the sample. In addition, sample size affects the validity and relevance of the findings in research (Burmeister & Aitken, 2012:271). The principles that guide qualitative research differ from those that guide quantitative research (Burmeister & Aitken, 2012:271). Generally, qualitative studies involve relatively small samples (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005:282).
However, the sample should not be so small that it becomes difficult to achieve data saturation, theoretical saturation, and informational saturation (Trotter, 2012:398; Schensul & LeCompte, 2010:26). The ideal sample is achieved when the researcher can interview up to the point of redundancy (Trotter, 2012:398).

Redundancy is a process whereby a researcher conducts interviews until all the issues are repeated without new issues emerging (Bernard, 2011:130-143). In essence this means that a researcher conducting interviews requires a guideline of a feasible sample, but the overall sample is determined by the data that will be collected from the participants. At times by recruiting expert groups who are knowledgeable in the subject area, saturation of the data occurs sooner with a relatively compact sample. Furthermore, in general, experts are inclined to agree on many issues in the subject matter, the product thereof includes detailed, in depth and useful data (Trotter, 2012:399). Sampling in qualitative research is therefore not uniform which has resulted in serious methodological debates in literature about the legitimacy of sampling in qualitative research (Trotter, 2012:398). It depends largely on the type of study, philosophy and methodological issues. Uprichard (2013:2) concludes that the process of sampling is guided by three key pillars:

- What is sampled, such as the nature of the case?
- Where the cases are sampled, such as the nature of the population?
- How the cases are selected from the population?

Issues concerning ‘why’ the specific cases are selected from a population are important for qualitative validity. Unlike quantitative methods, where validity is measured through statistics, qualitative validity is approached from a different angle. Factors affected by sampling such as reliability and generalizability are discussed later in this chapter.

4.8 Purposive Sampling

Purposive sampling forms the sample selection process for this study. Purposive sampling is described as a random selection of units within the segment of the population, which potentially has the most information on the issue of interest (Guarte & Barrios, 2006:277). Units are selected because they have specific features
which enable a comprehensive exploration and understanding of the common themes that the study seeks to uncover such as socio-demographic characteristics, behaviours and roles (Ritchie, Lewis & Elam, 2009:78; Robinson, 2014:32). In addition, purposive sampling is employed where the researcher understands that the selected individuals can provide unique or important perspective about the subject matter (Robinson, 2014:32). A purposive sample is therefore not entirely representative but focused on specific issues. Rather, it is a subset of a larger population selected to serve a specific need or purpose. Purposive sampling is also split into categories such as, cell, stratified, quota, and theoretical purposive sampling. These strategies are used in multiple cases whereas significant case, intensity, deviant case, extreme case, typical case are examples of purposive sampling strategies used in single cases in a study (Robinson, 2013:32). Purposive sampling has two important aims. The first is to ensure that all the key areas that are relevant to the study are included and secondly, to ensure that the sample is diverse (Ritchie, Lewis & Elam, 2009:79). It is no surprise that this technique of sampling has gained popularity amidst the concerns that from scientists who consider it subjective (Guarte & Barrios, 2006:277).

4.9 Sampling process for this study

This section outlines the sampling process applied in this study. The unit of study of this research is the construction firms in South Africa. The unit of observation was the construction workers. Lastly, the unit of analysis is organizational culture in the construction industry, its effect on work-life balance and the relationship between work-life balance in the South African context.

4.9.1 Study Population

The population of this study was located in the broad South African construction industry. As it has been reported in the second chapter, the construction industry consists of a variety of construction organizations or firms that operate in the construction workspace. Since the focus of this research is on organizational culture and work-life balance, the sample included a selection of organizations within the industry.
4.9.2 Study Sample
The sample included organizations in Grade 9, in the general building category as specified in the cidb registry. The rationale behind this selection, was that in order to investigate organizational culture and work life balance, the organizations being studied should display full organizational operations, such as permanent staff or human resource structures unlike the lower grades, which are considered as “emerging” organizations. In addition, based on the literature, Grade 9 firms are in a better position to invest in organizational development compared to the lower grades. In addition, choosing the “general building” criteria was based on the fact that firms in that category have a good mix of the construction trades such as civil engineering, electrical, mechanical and specialist works.

4.9.3 Study Sample Size
According to the cidb registry, there are 34 active firms in Grade 9, general building category. Initially the sample was to be selected from 4 provinces namely; Eastern Cape, Gauteng, Western Cape and KwaZulu Natal. Unfortunately, companies in this category are not listed in KwaZulu Natal, which leaves the three provinces. The companies in the EC declined to participate in the study. Preference was given to locally owned businesses because they were more likely to represent the local context of culture unlike the multinational companies such as Group Five, Stefanutti, Basil Read, Murray & Roberts, Aveng, WHBO who might have international influences of culture. A selection of candidates was drawn from the companies that were willing to participate.

4.9.4 Participants of this study
To facilitate an effective interview process, employees with the following criteria were interviewed; a degree in any construction discipline, male or female if possible, employment tenure exceeding 2 years and conversant in the English Language. In addition the participants were supposed to be knowledgeable of the organizational operations.
4.10 Strategy of Analysis

The interviews were transcribed verbatim to enable an efficient process of analysing the data. The researcher transcribed the interviews personally without involving a third party. Listening through the interviews and typing out the content allowed the researcher to familiarise herself with the data, thus making it easier to analyse it. Secondly, involving a transcriber increases the risk of different understanding and interpretation of the data during transcription. The researcher therefore remains with the task of referring back to the actual recording which is time consuming. Language is also an important factor with regard to transcription. The researcher, as the data collector, makes more sense of the language used, than a transcriber who is also not knowledgeable in the subject. The transcription process was an eye-opener.

Thereafter, the data were analysed through Interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA). IPA is a method used to analyse data through the interpretation of subjects’ rendition of personal experiences. This method draws from phenomenology, which focuses on individual and first hand experiences of the phenomena of the world, hermeneutics which refers to the theory of interpretation and idiography which focuses on the detailed examination of cases (Smith, 2011:9). This approach has been used largely in psychological research, however it is fast gaining ground in other disciplines such as humanities and management, that operate within the qualitative research sphere (Fade, 2004:647; Shinebourne, 2011:46-47). It offers researcher the opportunity to engage participants about their lived experiences.

Critically, in relation to this study IPA is best suited as a data analysis strategy because its theoretical design suggests that knowledge and understanding are generated from cultural and sociological contexts (Shinebourne, 2011:44). Furthermore, IPA is an inductive process, with a sensitive and contemplative focus because the researcher is required to assess the participants account of phenomena in order to highlight the important issues (Griffin & May, 2012:448). IPA complements exploratory studies, which in most cases utilise purposive sampling techniques and interviews (Shinebourne, 2011:49). Obviously, the on-going debate on biasness of qualitative methods forces IPA practitioners to accept that they too bring their own perceptions which ideally, should not interfere with the process (Griffin & May,
2012:449). From the standpoint of IPA practitioners, the only way to understand participant’s experiences is through paying attention to participants’ accounts. Finlay, (2008, 2013) proposes that:

“The immediate challenge for researchers embarking on phenomenological analysis is to push beyond what we already know from experience or through established knowledge. We need to break away from our own natural attitude and find a way to remain open to new understandings. This phenomenological attitude is a radical and disciplined way of seeing with fresh curious eyes and it is the core element distinguishing phenomenology from other approaches focusing on exploring experience and subjectivity”

Smith (2008:43) further points out that the IPA approach allows flexibility to ensure that unanticipated themes or research areas emerge during analysis.

Thus, this process of engaging with participants’ stories, allows the researcher to interpret and reconstruct information. Once the data is collected, the researcher asks critical questions in order to understand the viewpoint of the participant (Smith & Osborn, 2007:53). Creswell (2003:191) denotes a 6 step general procedure for analysing interviews. The steps are as follows:

- Step 1 – Organize and Prepare data for analysis. This step involves transcription, optical scanning, typing out field notes, sorting and arranging data depending the sources;
- Step 2 – Read through the data to get a sense of the information and decipher the general ideas, tones and impressions that seep through the data;
- Step 3 – Code data if necessary to organize the data through labelling and categorizing;
- Step 4 – Generate descriptions of the categories or themes for that research;
- Step 5 – Describe how the themes will be represented in a qualitative narrative to convey the findings of the analysis; and,
- Step 6 – Interpret or generate meaning of the data.
A similar stance is adopted within the IPA approach. After transcribing the data, the initial stage involves reading the data, repeatedly for the researcher to be familiar with the content. A textual analysis follows with the researcher making notes on the transcript. At this point the researcher focuses on the content and provides interpretative comments and reflections. Then, the notes are translated into the emergent themes. In most cases this task requires the researcher to formulate concise phrases that offer a conceptual understanding. The emerging themes are grouped according to conceptual similarities. At this stage, it is critical for the researcher to decipher patterns in the themes in order to produce a framework of the ideas (Shinebourne, 2011:57-63). Regarding this study in particular, interview questions from the first research question “nature of the organizational culture” are based on the OCAI which has predetermined the “themes” for that section. The final stage of interpretative phenomenological analysis includes a table of themes and subthemes if necessary. Ideally, this process is repeated for each participant because IPA places importance on each case or participant. The analysis is completed with a detailed narrative and persuasive account of the research exercise. The table of themes provides a basis for the narrative (Shinebourne, 2011:57-63). The process of delineating a sample size and analysing the data once it is gathered, has huge bearing on the quality or the standard of the research.

4.11 Standards of qualitative research

The standard or the quality of qualitative research has been widely discussed. Unlike quantitative studies which has clearly defined protocols of determining the quality of research, qualitative processes have not isolated specific criteria (Moret, Reuzel, Jan van der wilt, & Grin, 2007:24). Credibility, rigor, integrity truthfulness, trustworthiness are some of the values that are considered to be part of the supposed criteria of ensuring good qualitative research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003:35). Invariably validity and reliability are terms that are often associated with quantitative research but they are applicable to qualitative studies in a different context. From a broad positivist perspective validity and reliability are concerned with two key questions; does the instrument measure the phenomenon that it is required to measure? If the same instrument would be used on the same population on another day, would the similar results be obtained? (Hesse-Biber, 2010:85). For the most part qualitative
approaches posit that social reality is socially contracted thus measuring the validity and reliability with a set criteria is not realistic (Hesse-Biber, 2010:86). Nevertheless these criteria remain meaningful to qualitative research (Moret, Reuzel, Jan van der wilt, & Grin, 2007:25).

Validity in qualitative research places a strong emphasis on the validation of findings through a detailed step-by-step process flow. That is to say, researchers need to specify the process that will be undertaken to achieve accuracy and credibility of findings (Creswell, 2003:195). Kvale (2002:309) intimates that good skills in research include continually checking, questioning and theoretically interpreting the results of the research. Therefore validity requires three vital actions:

- **Check** – for bias, neglect, or lack of precision;
- **Question** – all procedures and decisions, critically; and,
- **Theorise** – to look for and address theoretical questions that arise throughout the process (Henning, Van Rensburg, & Smit, 2004:148).

Reliability is a measure of precision and consistency during repeated tests (Gerring, 2012:82). Proponents claim that the more precise a result is the more useful it will be in providing information about the putative phenomenon (Gerring, 2012:60). As with most qualitative frameworks, precision varies invariably with the accuracy of the argument (Gerring, 2012:61). Overall the practice of measuring validity and reliability cannot be codified or simplified after all social research is more concerned with generating meaning rather than experiments (Lee, 2013:28). Thus, any researcher will endeavour to ensure that for that specific phenomena, they will embrace the values that are relevant to that research approach and analyses.

### 4.12 Ethical Considerations

The first chapter outlines the ethical considerations that are critical to this study. For this section, which focuses on the data collection process, confidentiality, voluntary participation, honesty and integrity are relevant. Although employees form part of an organization, their individual consent is important. Secondly, eliminating personal details such as names of participants ensures confidentiality of the content. Thus the names of the organizations and the names of the individuals were omitted in the
recordings to ensure a high level of confidentiality. During the interviews, the interviewees indicated their approval for this omission because most of the data collected included sensitive organizational information. In summary, the study adhered to the ethical code by adopting these key aspects:

- Maintaining the confidentiality of all personal details of the participants;
- Ensuring the voluntary participation of all participants; and,
- Upholding honesty and integrity throughout the study.

4.13 Summary of chapter

Locating a study within the philosophical position, grounds the methodological processes of any study. As such this study, due to its exploratory nature is interpretivist and therefore warrants a qualitative enquiry. This chapter has alluded to the various issues that are key in interpretivist and qualitative studies. Consequently, the units of study, units of analysis and units of observations are also outlined.

The next chapter entails the presentation and interpretation of the data.
CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter outlined the methodology and techniques that were used to collect data for this study. This chapter details results of the data collection exercise and an in-depth analysis of the data.

5.1.1 Reflection

This study draws from the “problem” of limited literature accessible in the South African space in the area of organizational culture and work-life balance. In contrast, a plethora of literature in western countries exists and is commonly referenced heavily despite the fact that it tends not to be applicable in the context of developing countries such as South Africa. This stance is presented in the first chapter, in which the problem for this research was identified and research questions and objectives were delineated. This research project set out to:

- To examine the cultural characteristics of the construction industry;
- To determine the extent to which the cultural characteristics impact on the work-life balance of workers;
- To establish the nature of work-life balance in the construction industry;
- To explore the implications of the work-life balance on work performance.

5.1.2 The data collection process

A total number of 30 interviews were collected from seven (7) different firms, out of thirty-four (34) within the grade 9 GB category of the CIDB grading system. Furthermore, the researcher gave preference to the locally bred and owned firms. The assumption was that these firms provided a clear understanding of the context of culture within construction firms in South Africa unlike the other firms that have their headquarters and shareholders outside the borders of South Africa. Consequently, most of the firms that participated in the study are privately owned and are not listed on the JSE stock exchange. Most of these firms are concentrated in the Western Cape and Gauteng. Some firms declined to participate citing busy schedules for most of their employees. Since this research is exploratory in nature,
the researcher made a request to the specific firms rather than asking specific individuals to participate. In that sense, the selection of the employees to participate in the study was based on availability at that particular time. Furthermore with respect to the total number of interviews, the researcher was guided by the principle of redundancy that is unique to interviews as research technique (Bernard, 2011: 130-143). By the twenty-seventh (27) interview, no new information was obtainable. The research had reached a plateau and the point of saturation. The researcher made the decision to find another 3 interviewees to make it a total of 30 participants. Marshall, Cardon, Poddar and Fontenot (2013:22), in their review of qualitative studies in leading journals conclude that grounded theory qualitative research should generally include 20-30 interviews and single case studies should include 15-30 interviews. In view of this conclusion, the number of interviews that were collected for this study were sufficient to generate suitable data. Unlike the grounded theory approach which seeks to generate theories from phenomena, the exploratory nature of this study focused on baseline issues, therefore the sample of 30 interviews in justifiable.

5.1.3 Limitations during the data collection process
The researcher made it a point to confirm appointments with the participants. However, some participants rescheduled appointments due to work related emergencies. The researcher was compelled to extend her stay is those firms to ensure that the data was collected. Presenting the focus of the research to the participants at the start of the interview was instrumental in clearing the air about the research for the interview. Normally people associate culture with traditional events so the researcher had to provide clarity or use probing questions to channel the interviewees in the appropriate direction. Furthermore, the researcher had to guide the interviewees to share information based on the current situations rather than the ideal situations. For most of the participants, Afrikaans was a first language. Other than that, most of the participants responded with enthusiasm and great interest in the subject matter. The interviews lasted for about 50 minutes on average.
5.1.4 Preparing the data for analysis
After completing the data collection exercise, the interviews were transcribed verbatim by the researcher. Then the data was coded according to letters of the alphabet and numbers. The letters of the alphabet represent the firms and the numbers represent the numerical order in each firm that was followed during interviews (See Table 5.1). The transcripts of the interview were verified against the media files to ensure that the data had been transcribed accurately and the data contained no inconsistencies. In addition, during the actual interviews, the researcher took notes, which were also linked to the transcripts to support the analysis. In total about a 120 pages of transcripts were generated. Each interview lasted for about 40 minutes on average. Seemingly the participant had a lot to say about the subject matter.

5.2 Biographical data of participants
The biographical data of the participants includes age, sex, race, job title and tenure.
### Table 5.1 Biographical data of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Job Profile</th>
<th>Tenure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Quantity Surveyor</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Business Development</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Quantity Surveyor</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Quantity Surveyor</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Quantity Surveyor</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Financial Manager</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Site Manager</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A8</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Quantity Surveyor</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A9</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Quantity Surveyor</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A10</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Quantity Surveyor/Estimator</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Human Resources Manager</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Civil Engineer</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Construction Manager</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Procurement Admin</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Site Manager</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Project Manager</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Site Agent</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D2</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Contracts Manager</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D3</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Senior Quantity Surveyor</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Human Resources Officer</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Organizational Development Director</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Training Executive</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Quality Manager</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Site Manager</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Organizational Performance Manager</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G1</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Human Resources Officer</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G2</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Technical Manager</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G3</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Project Manager</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G4</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>HR Director</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Environment Officer</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*M denotes Male, F denotes Female, W denotes White, C coloured and B denotes Black.*
5.2.1 Age Range
The ages of the participants ranged from 23 to 55. There were 8 participants in the first three (3) age bands and 6 in the last one age band of fifty to fifty nine (50-59).

![Age Distribution](image)

**Figure 5.1 Age distribution of participants**

5.2.2 Sex
A total of 73.4% male employees and 26.6 % female employees participated in the study. The researcher purposefully requested companies to select employees in both genders.

![Sex of Participants](image)

**Figure 5.2 Sex of participants**
5.2.3 Job Profiles

The distribution of the job profiles is represented in the table below. An even distribution of people which included QS’s, Site Based, Finance and HR was interviewed.

![Job Profile Distribution](image)

**Figure 5.3 Job profiles**

5.3 Presentation and Analysis of Data – Part One

The data is presented according to the research questions and research objectives.

**RESEARCH QUESTION:** What are the cultural characteristics of the South African construction industry?

**RESEARCH OBJECTIVE:** To determine the cultural characteristics of the South African construction industry
The cultural characteristics of the industry were measured through an adapted form of Cameron and Quinn’s organizational culture assessment tool which is enumerated according to six key categories namely; dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphasis and criteria for success. The transcript of each participant was analysed according to the OCAI’s categories (See Table 5.2 and Table 5.3). The interview schedule that was used to collect the data had four questions for each category. From the onset, the responses to the questions overlapped with similar questions for different categories. Thus, the responses also display similarities in the different categories. The participants’ responses were further isolated according to the characteristics that represent one of the four quadrants of the Competency Values Framework, namely:

- Dominant Characteristics;
- Leadership;
- Management of employees;
- Organizational Glue;
- Strategic Emphasis; and
- Criteria for Success.

That is to the say, the aggregate of the values in each category are matched with those values that are represented in the Clan, Market, Adhocracy and Hierarchical cultures, with the aim of determining the organizational culture of the construction industry in South Africa. The responses based on each category of the OCAI are tabulated in Table 5.2.
Table 5.2 Summary of the participants’ responses on Dominant Characteristics, Organizational Leadership and Management of Employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P</th>
<th>Dominant Characteristics</th>
<th>Organizational Leadership</th>
<th>Management of employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>People centred, family, close relations</td>
<td>Open door policy, flexible,</td>
<td>Responsibility, mentoring, independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>Concern for people</td>
<td>Firm and kind</td>
<td>Independence, participation, ownership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>Concern for people</td>
<td>Firm and kind, participatory</td>
<td>Independence, mentorship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>Good relationships</td>
<td>Oversight, participatory</td>
<td>Mentorships, flexibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>Client focus, structure, profit</td>
<td>Open, participatory</td>
<td>Open, independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>High Pressure</td>
<td>Open, firm and kind</td>
<td>Flexible, independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>profit, business focus</td>
<td>Autocratic</td>
<td>Firm and kind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A8</td>
<td>Concern for people, empowerment</td>
<td>Firm and kind participatory</td>
<td>Team work, supportive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A9</td>
<td>Concern for people and client, environment, H&amp;S</td>
<td>Firm and kind</td>
<td>Supportive, democratic, team work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A10</td>
<td>Concern for people, client focus</td>
<td>Firm, kind</td>
<td>Autocratic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>Entrepreneurial, concern for people, profit</td>
<td>Paternalistic, centralised</td>
<td>Paternalistic, oversight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Competitive, cyclical, profit, people centred</td>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>Oversight and supervision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>People centred, profit</td>
<td>Participatory</td>
<td>Performance Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>Concern for people, close relations, reputation</td>
<td>Open, engagement</td>
<td>Mentorship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>people centred, H&amp;S, Environment</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Varies, firm and kind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>Project focus, profit, survival</td>
<td>Conservative, autocratic</td>
<td>Task based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1</td>
<td>Concern for people, extended family, quality</td>
<td>Open</td>
<td>Oversight and supervision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D2</td>
<td>Concern for people</td>
<td>Parent to parent</td>
<td>Training, performance management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D3</td>
<td>Concern for employees</td>
<td>Firm and kind</td>
<td>Independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E1</td>
<td>Ethics, concern for people, OD</td>
<td>Visionary, open</td>
<td>Varies to personality, firm &amp; kind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2</td>
<td>Ethics, concern for people, OD</td>
<td>Open</td>
<td>Firm and kind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>Ethics, concern for people, engagement</td>
<td>Participatory</td>
<td>Engagement, mentorships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2</td>
<td>H&amp;S, systems based, concern for people</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
<td>Varies with personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3</td>
<td>Concern for people</td>
<td>Open, fair</td>
<td>Varies with personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4</td>
<td>Focus on people and clients</td>
<td>Open, participatory</td>
<td>Participatory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G1</td>
<td>Business focus, profit</td>
<td>Autocratic</td>
<td>Autocratic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G2</td>
<td>Concern for people, H&amp;S</td>
<td>Autocratic</td>
<td>Varies with to personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G3</td>
<td>Production</td>
<td>Autocratic</td>
<td>Mentorships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G4</td>
<td>Concern for people</td>
<td>Instructive</td>
<td>Varies with personality,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G5</td>
<td>Concern for people, profit</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Varies with personality</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P denotes participants
Table 5.3 Summary of the participants’ responses for Organizational Glue, Strategic Emphasis, Criteria for success.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P</th>
<th>Organizational Glue</th>
<th>Strategic Emphasis</th>
<th>Criteria for success</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>Close relations</td>
<td>Growth stability, focus on clients</td>
<td>Profit, Client focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>Close relations</td>
<td>Growth, stability and focus on clients</td>
<td>Reputatión, client focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>Unity, common goals, problem solving</td>
<td>Competitiveness</td>
<td>Client focus, profit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>People, relationships</td>
<td>Competitiveness</td>
<td>Client focus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>Commitment to similar goals</td>
<td>Growth, personalizing work, competitiveness</td>
<td>Sustainability, profit, growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>Commitment, job satisfaction</td>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>Reputatión, client focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>Job security, people relationships</td>
<td>Structure, organizational development</td>
<td>Reputatión, client focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A8</td>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>Profits, client focus, skills development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A9</td>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>Innovation, skills development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A10</td>
<td>Close relations</td>
<td>Stability and survival</td>
<td>Client focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>Job security, job orientation</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>profit, stability/survival, client focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>Structure and sustainability</td>
<td>Survival, stability, profit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Organizational Development</td>
<td>Sustainability, profits, client focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>Structure, growth, research</td>
<td>Client focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>Trust, relationships</td>
<td>Growth, structure</td>
<td>Client focus, skills development, project management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>None, high turnover,</td>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>Growth, profit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1</td>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Profit, Client focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D2</td>
<td>Job satisfaction, common goal</td>
<td>Structure, growth, research</td>
<td>Quality, client focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D3</td>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>Skills, relationships, motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E1</td>
<td>Relationships and skills development</td>
<td>Systems based</td>
<td>Client focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2</td>
<td>Skills development, teamwork</td>
<td>Systems based</td>
<td>Client and employee focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>Relationships, focus on common goal</td>
<td>Alignment, communication</td>
<td>Client focus, quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2</td>
<td>Teamwork</td>
<td>Survival, resilience, flexibility</td>
<td>Skills development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3</td>
<td>Sense of community, relationships</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>People and client focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4</td>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>Systems based, communication</td>
<td>Ambition, innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G1</td>
<td>Job security,</td>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>Hard work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G2</td>
<td>Job security, remuneration, teamwork</td>
<td>Compliance to legislation</td>
<td>Optimising production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G3</td>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>Conservative, growth</td>
<td>Optimising production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G4</td>
<td>History and long serving members</td>
<td>Increasing profit</td>
<td>Quality, diversifying products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G5</td>
<td>Strong leadership</td>
<td>Structure, profit</td>
<td>Competitiveness, client focus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P denotes participants
## 5.4 Dominant Characteristics

The Dominant Characteristics are addressed in this section.

![Dominant Characteristics](image-url)

### Figure 5.4 Dominant Characteristics

One of the cornerstones of the concept of organizational culture is that the people in organizations, similar to culture in general, are their shared values, beliefs and underlying assumptions. The participants were asked to describe the values that are entrenched in their organization. Each participant listed the different values as they are represented in the Figure 5.2. Most of the participants began their response by indicating that their organization was a “family oriented business”. The family orientation includes cordial relationships between staff, especially the permanent staff that have been in the organization for longer periods. The participants indicate that:

“This organization is like a family, everybody knows everyone….even the MD will pop into your office to and ask you how you are and how your family is doing” – A1

“We are a close knit family, your problems are felt by everybody and they try to help you where they can” – A3
The participants further recognised that the business owners and management had a general concern for the workforce whether permanent or not. Most of the participants also acknowledged the importance of clients, profits and regulation.

5.4.1 Concern for people

The industry has been criticised for not being people centred. From the data, it is evident that the firms in this industry place a certain degree of value on their people. After all, the industry relies to a large extent, on the physical labour of people. Without this focus on people it would be difficult to set up effective teams for projects because no amount of technology can replace physical work of people. Thus the data highlights that construction firms recognise the importance of people. The focus on people was explained by one manager who said:

“Project management is about the people. Every task on site has a person linked to it. If you don’t deal with that person properly, no task will be accomplished.” – C1

“Any construction project is as good as the quality of people. It’s all about people.” – C1

The question however remains as to the extent or the level that that care is operationalised into policy and legislation. It is one thing to have a cordial relationship with a supervisor and it is another if that care is clearly defined and all employees are aware of the different levels of care that are applicable to them. The other critical element to the “close knit family” concept is that all the firms that participated in this study, were family businesses. In most of the firms the founding members were involved and some had family members of the founding members still involved in the running of the businesses. In that sense, perhaps that explains why most of the participants described their firms as family businesses. Juxtaposing these responses to the OCAI, there is a strong indication that these construction firms lean on the clan culture which is characterised by friendly working environments with cordial relationships where people share issues about themselves. Judging from the low staff compliment of these construction firms, it is possible to maintain such a working environment as compared to larger firms that have high staff compliments and multiple layers in the organizational structures.
Thus teamwork, consensus and loyalty can only be defined according to the relationships that employees share with each other. In addition, although not conclusive, from the data gathered, communication processes are not clearly defined. As with family setups, there is a degree to which people talk about issues but that does not always translate to implementation.

5.4.2 Profit
Profit making is an important aspect of the business of construction. These construction firms would not be inexistence if they were not driven by profit. Most of these companies were started by entrepreneurs whose focus was to create financial legacies for families. The ability to provide a service comes secondary to that of generating a profit. These construction firms are therefore, family owned or family pioneered businesses and not charities. Most of the respondents cited that generating a profit was equally important in sustaining the businesses alongside the focus on the relationships. Responding to a question about “what drives the organization” the participants listed a variety of aspects such as pride in the projects that are completed, personal development and good working relationships but the overarching aspect was related to the bottom line. This accentuates the fact that generating profits or high turnover is central to the operations of these firms. And in order for these businesses to be stable, one interviewee indicated that:

“To have stability, you need to make money.” – B1

To achieve this, each firm has a long and short term strategic plan on how profits will be generated. As the data reflects, profit margins are an important characteristic in construction firms. However, according to the responses, the drive to achieve profit was divided in two clusters. The first cluster, in which a few participants subscribed to, is the one goal focus which is to generate profits. In the second cluster, which accounts for most of the participants, focus is much more comprehensive. The respondents posited that generating profits can only be achieved if firms combined business planning with a holistic approach to human resource issues such as, organizational development, skills development and performance management.
“Profit is not everything, it is just part of a cycle that includes skills, management, people, quality and client.” – C2

5.4.3 Regulation

Some of the participants highlighted the importance of regulation as a valuable characteristic of the construction industry citing, adherence to Ethics, Health and Safety and Sustainable Development. Again, in the last five years, the construction industry has been criticised for flouting ethical principles and as a result, many construction firms are moving towards a direction to change this.

According to the participants, due to the heaviness of the fines, smaller firms are treading carefully on ethical issues. In that sense, adhering to ethics is an important value for the construction companies that participated. It seems that this value plays into the firm’s ability to keep and attract current and future clients. Even with the recently promulgated Construction Regulations 2014, under the Health and Safety regulations Act of 1993, there is a sense that construction firms are aware of its importance and the need for compliance. To highlight the importance of health and safety, an interviewee stated that:

“We want a guy to come to work, and leave in the same way he came in, without any injuries or loss.” – A10.

On issues of transformation, which is enforced through the South Africa’s Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment Act 53 of 2003, the construction firms are working around the clock to comply. Unfortunately, it is not an organic process for the construction firms but it is a requirement for companies to tender and win public projects. Thus, earning a high rating on a BEE certificate has become an essential aspect for construction firms. However, BEE conjures the discussion on race because at face value most of these companies are predominantly owned by white people.

As a result the number of other white people in strategic positions in the organizational structures is also high. Furthermore, based on the observation, there were more white people in the offices, presumably in permanent positions. Whereas
on site, there were more black people, such as the labourers who are likely to be wage earners rather than permanent staff. In one specific firm, the interviewee indicated that the firm had made great strides in incorporating diversity in the top management of the firm i.e. the recruitment of black and female executives.

Again, a close observation confirmed that the construction industry is male dominated. During the visits to the specific companies, the researcher observed the presence of larger numbers of male employees as opposed to women. In addition, the women’s positions were largely administrative and housekeeping functions.

With the regard to the Environment, as incorporated in the Sustainable Development agenda, at least two companies are actively implementing environmental strategies in their day to day activities. This could be an indication that construction companies need to put more effort in protecting the environment. In the second chapter, the specific areas of concern regarding the environment were addressed. Protection of the environment needs to be incorporated into the business culture of each construction firm, such that buildings and infrastructure are cost effective to produce and operate, construction projects utilise materials that are easily replenished and local communities are engaged.

5.5.4 Client focus
The data indicates that the construction firms are adept in creating relationships with clients. The assumption is that the firms endeavour to deliver projects that are at the standard required by the clients. This aspect is explored further under Strategic Emphasis.
5.5 Organizational Leadership

Organizational Leadership is addressed in this section.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership</th>
<th>Frequency of participants responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Open Flexible</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autocratic</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firm and kind</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.5 Organizational Leadership

Leadership is a crucial element to the analysis of organizational culture. In Chapter Three an array of leadership styles were examined to locate the subject of leadership in the context of this study. Accordingly, the results indicate that first, the participants were able to make a distinction of the type of leader or leaders they had and further make a classification of the leadership style. The graph above denotes that the leadership styles range from open and flexible, firm and kind and autocratic. That is to say some employees expressed that their leaders are open, flexible and engaged with all organizational processes. They further highlighted that such leaders were more concerned with individual responsibility and independence rather than control and micro management. Obviously, some of the leaders of the firms have production responsibilities and that necessitates a switch into management roles. In this scenario, the respondents also highlighted that, the younger leaders were more open to ideas than the older generation. Perhaps this is an indication that the younger leaders are aware of the paradigm shifts in organizational leadership.
In principle firm and kind and autocratic are at the same level of the leadership spectrum. The distinction can be drawn from the fact that, the employees that described their leaders as firm and kind, the leaders were largely autocratic but were in the process of developing engagement processes for the firm. Some firms have “unity forums” and “jika huts” in which employees in the entire firm participate in strategy. In a sense the firm and kind really means autocratic with a smile as these interviewees specified:

“We have a jika hut onsite in addition to the toolbox talks. That’s where the guys have tea and lunch. But that’s also where the CEO presents strategy to all employees.” – C1.

“The leadership of this company established a unity forum, which is an alternative of a labour union. Our wage earners do not belong to a labour union.” – C1

Some respondents indicated that their leaders were involved in the entire production process from the planning to delivery and especially when there are challenges as one interviewee posited:

“Our leaders, lead from the front. They are in constant contact with us, in a roundtable setup where we discuss everything.” – A3

Some of the respondents unambiguously indicated that their leaders were autocratic. Considering that the firms that are family style type of business the roles are classified according to a family with a “father” figure who “controls” all processes. To illustrate this position an interviewee contended that:

“At this stage, I think the leadership is authoritative, an authoritative leadership style with strong family values. It is almost paternalistic, I tell you.” – B1

In a setting like this the autocracy is justified by the fact that a controlling leader eliminates potential problems. One of the interviewees pointed out that:

“There is a controlling leadership style in how we do our business and it’s done mainly to eliminate potential problem areas. The old hands often know how to do it.
The young guys do it, but we follow up and make sure that they have done everything accordingly.”- B2

The issue of leadership in these construction firms is not only pronounced by the styles that the leaders utilise but the values and beliefs that the leaders have. Thus there is a clear link between the values of a firm and the leadership. In most cases these firms were started by one, two or three individuals who articulated the basic mission, vision, and the parameters that the firms would operate. Furthermore, over the years they recruited people that would fit in the specific firm ethos. The literature review chapter dealt in detail with the role that leaders subsequently have in starting an organizational culture. The formulation of a culture in organizations is not a fluke; it is developed first by the founding members and then spread by a smaller group of core people that share the same goals with the founding members. The culture evolves into every aspect of the business. In light of this analysis, organizational culture cannot be measured effectively without considering leadership. In fact, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphasis and criteria for success are entrenched in vision, mission and goals of an organization as prescribed by the leadership. The same applies to the organization’s ability to address problems.

Since the construction firms in question have paternalistic values, power, authority and decision making are highly centralised to a select few as the following interviewees highlighted:

“Decision making is very centralised at the moment. The two brothers that own the company are very involved.” – B2

“It’s a dictatorship. I am honest about that. It might change in the next few months because the MD is on his way out. Autocracy is aligned to conservativeness” Things must change. We have become a dinosaur! ” – G3

This means that even simple aspects such as communication processes and addressing challenges will be approached according to the leaders. Due to the fact that the world is changing constantly, changing a culture in organizations is an
insurmountable task especially in firms that have a number of long serving employees or leaders. The respondents indicated that there was at least a founding member or long serving employee in the leadership structure of the firm. All five respondents in Firm G indicated that the leadership style in the firm was autocratic. Ironically, this firm is the only one in this study that has a public listing. The rest of the companies are smaller and still privately owned.

5.6 Management of Employees

![Management of Employees](image)

**Figure 5.6 Management of Employees**

In construction, leaders, the very people charged with the strategy and overall functioning of the organizations often dabble in management roles. They find themselves playing both roles at a strategic level and a supervisory role to employees administratively or during the actual project cycles.

According to the participants, the management style of most of the managers is similar to the leaders. Managers use a mixture of paternalistic and mentoring approach in managing the day-to-day responsibilities of employees. Judging from the responses, it is a “do as I say type of relationship” but there were pockets in the different organizations where managers allowed participation. The unity forums and
the jika huts are examples of the possibilities for employees to be part of the decisions that affect their work. The underlying fact is that managers tend to be slave drivers. On the other hand some of the respondents indicated that management depends on the personality of the manager. Therefore each manager has their own trait and management style.

5.7 Organizational Glue

Organizational glue depicts the aspects of cohesion amongst people in an organization. Figure 5.7 represents the interviewees’ responses.

![Organizational Glue Graph]

**Figure 5.7 Organizational Glue**

It appears that relationships play a primary role in maintaining cohesion amongst workers. It is expected especially from permanent workers or wage earners who work with each other for long periods of time in multiple projects would foster stable relationships. This is particularly true because the average worker spends most of the “awake time” at work. The vocational relationships that people share expand beyond acquaintance. It may even be a sense of solidarity for employees, especially if they are aggrieved as a group. The relationships hold them together.
Trust was also cited as an important factor in promoting cohesion amongst the employees; especially those that work in remote sites. An interviewee stated that:

“We are working as teams, so we need to look out for each other.” – G3

Some of the respondents indicated that the only thing that keeps them cohesive is the shared responsibility towards the jobs. More so the fact that each one has a job to do is reason enough to keep the team or teams bound. There was an indication, from the respondents, that unity is also achieved if people are satisfied with their jobs. The more people are happy with their jobs, the more cohesive that organization will be. One of the employees indicated that:

“Yes, obviously, we have a job to do. And that’s what holds us together. We are here for a certain purpose. There is no magic about that.” – B1

Another stated that:

“We are held together by money. We are all here looking for money and maybe job satisfaction. In my case, when a job is done, you stand back and see what you have created, you get a sense of accomplishment. You know you have done something right and you feel proud about it”. D1

Perhaps, the focus on the job is also accompanied by the collective need for the firm to generate profit and to deliver a product to the client. Only two interviewees concluded that the strong leadership was responsible for keeping things together in their firm. Inevitably, the leaders in this firm had a long service history in the firm and had led the firm through the worst of times. The consistency and utilisation of traditional systems contributed to cohesion. To some extent the strategic decision to diversify production by creating bi-products or raw materials from their main product, helped the business stay afloat. That diversification ensured that the firm was not only cohesive by virtue of relationships but in terms of a variety of sources of income to keep things together. One of the interviews noted that:

“Diversification has held us together. Some divisions sustain the others that are not making money.” – B3
5.8 Strategic Emphasis

The strategic direction of the construction firms is addressed in this section.

Figure 5.8 Strategic Emphasis

This aspect of the OCAI highlights the variables that are critical in defining the strategic direction of an organization. The interviewees were asked a few questions relating to the vision and goals of the organization, alignment of these goals and communication processes that existed. From each of the respondents’ ideas, there is a strong indication that the vision and goals of the firms were good on paper. In fact some of the employees could “cite” these issues as seen in posters or frames put up in the firms’ entrance halls but when probed with further questions, many of them were not really aware of the direction of the firm. In a sense, their main focus was limited to each project, without any projections into the future. That said, the interviewees were able to make a few assumptions about the strategic emphasis of each firm. First and foremost, as it has been highlighted in this section that these firms are businesses, there was a strong indication from the responses that financial viability was at the core of the strategy of each firm. Businesses require profits to survive. In the same vein, businesses need profits for sustainability.
Therefore without profits the businesses would not survive. Most of the responses regarding this issue alluded to growth being characterised by increasing the targeted net profit in a specific time period; the increase in the number of staff being employed in the organization, as well as the ability to handle or manage large projects i.e. from building schools and RDP houses to building bigger projects such as malls and airports. The CIDB grading system classifies Grade 9 companies as those capable of handling projects with a tender value of 130 million and above. The interviewees also indicated that financial viability was intrinsic to training and skills development of the employees in the industry.

Consequently every activity within each organization is aligned to the strategic direction of the organization. For instance, the companies that focused on the structure and organizational development had established mechanisms for ensuring that organizational issues are addressed. One firm in particular; after experiencing massive resignation from key employees, discovered that other firms were poaching their employees. The recruiting companies indicated that their employees are well trained. This firm actually offers bursaries and learnerships for employees and has a talent management programme that is implemented by managers at each level. Currently, they are assisting other organizations to develop their own training, development and performance management systems. In addition to skills development the firm has incorporated numerous systems into the organization. The HR director in this organization stated that:

“We are a systems based organization. We believe in accreditation. You cannot grow a company without structure and systems in place. We believe in our people and we know that investing in them will bring rewards in the future.” – E2

In the same vein, a junior employee in the same organization highlighted that:

“This company is owned 70% by the founding member, 10% by senior management, and 20% by rest of the employees, from the tea lady all the way up to middle management.” – E1.
Another firm, Firm F, at the time of the interviews the firm was undergoing a restructuring process. While at the brink of liquidation, the management made a decision to change the strategic direction of the firm, from a profit centred firm to one that recognises the “people” factor in business. Thus, engagement and communication processes were clarified to ensure that the employees were part of the restructuring process. One of the interviewees expressed that:

“I think the difficulties have brought us together as a company. The communication processes are more open across all levels and the employees now have input on decisions. Management listens. Right now only the employees with the vision of this company to succeed remain in the company. We have a strong will to survive.” – F2

From the interviews, client focus and competition were prominent features in the strategies of the firms. The interviewees informed the researcher that client focus was characterised by the following factors:

- Delivering projects within the required time;
- Delivering quality projects, that is according to specifications;
- Guarantee on quality of projects;
- No comebacks or repeat work;
- Advising clients on innovation and technology;
- Being a contractor of choice/preferred supplier;
- Maintaining a good reputation;
- Competitive pricing; and,
- Creating legacies.

The respondents confirmed that the construction industry as established in chapter two, is very competitive. They further indicated that all construction firms are competing for the same projects. In order to win tenders, all the issues outlined above need to be brought to bear.
Some of their statements are summarised below;

“*You need to know your competition, you have to know how they operate in the industry. Then you have to be leaner, meaner and faster*”. B2

“I keep myself up to date with what other companies are doing” – A10

“When you tender for a job, you know that there is a long list of other companies that have tendered. You need to have a niche in what you are tendering for. It’s not always about low prices” – D2

At least three interviewees highlighted research as an important strategic factor for construction. They indicated that in order to be innovative, research was an important step in acquiring advanced plant and machinery, IT and systems for accreditation and in house surveys for human resource development.

Another key component within strategic emphasis is communication. Communication processes provide feedback on whether the strategic focus is operationalized; from the structure of the organization, the goals and the vision to matters of production. One of the many complaints about the industry at the moment is poor communication between stakeholders. There is massive fragmentation. It gets worse at project level, where communication is embedded in project management. There is a disconnect among all the players in the industry i.e. the client, the end user, the architect, quantity surveyor and the site based workers.

Most of the interviewees confirmed that construction firms generally have poor communication processes. The left hand does not have a clue about what the right hand is doing and sometimes this is realised in the last stages of a project. For instance, the site based workers indicate that, in most cases they feel isolated by management and the administrative staff. Their responsibility is reduced just to manual work, even though what they ought to do depends largely on the administrative functions. Delayed material or wrong specifications with material are some of the common problems that result from poor communication processes. It is even a bigger challenge when some projects are located outside the vicinity of head
offices. Some firms have systems in place to foster better communication, but systems need to be activated by personnel.

5.9 Criteria for success

The issues that reflect the criteria for success for the construction firms are addressed in this section.

![Criteria for Success](image)

**Figure 5.9 Criteria for Success**

In this section the participants were asked to articulate the factors that amount to success for their organizations. Again, many of the respondents highlighted the importance of clients as a factor with a strong emphasis on being the contractor of choice. Obviously winning tenders in such a competitive industry is closely linked to satisfying clients’ needs and requirements. Maintaining a good reputation and a specific niche in the construction industry would attract more tenders and outsmart competitors. Therefore, for most of the firms that participated in this research, the perceptions from external stakeholders were important. It is peculiar however that, some of the firms that were involved in the recent collusion case with the Competition Commission were still being awarded public and private projects. This negates the value that the firms place on reputation.
Improved productivity came forth as a criterion for success and it relates to winning tenders, delivering projects within specifications and making profits. To achieve this, a firm requires a good team structure. That is why some interviewees further stressed the importance of skills as a prerequisite for success. Without well trained and experienced personnel, projects would not be completed and would result in financial losses for firms.

From the interviewee’s opinions, it is plausible that skills are at the heart of the success of construction businesses and job satisfaction. One employee stated categorically that:

“I try not to think that I am not employed. Instead, I am selling my product, my brand which is my skill.” – F3

Some of the firms have robust plans for assisting employees with improving their skills e.g. through mentorships and the provision of bursaries. A few participants emphasised the need for innovation in construction. Innovation seems to be slow in construction. The majority of participants indicated that the construction industry is very traditional. It is not as mechanised as many other industries and that the new technologies still need human resources to operate. There is only one common way of building structures and it involves bricks and mortar, which are laid by hand. New technologies such as contour printing, which is a mechanised printing of buildings is not common place. An interviewee noted:

“Buildings are handmade. A team of people come together and build with their hands. Yes there are elements that are prefabricated, e.g. steel works, but they are still put together by hand. Plastering is done by hand. Construction has not changed much.” – C1

Another participant indicated that:

“It is difficult to translate technological advances to actual buildings. You need manpower to put up a building. So, whatever the technology is, it is not really part of your direct input costs or your outcomes. This makes it difficult to sell the products of technology” – A5
However, some participants acknowledged that IT systems such as Building Information Modelling (BIM) will have a great impact on project management and quantity surveying.

This section marks the end of the analyses for the first part of the study, which entails measuring the organizational culture of the construction industry using the OCAI’s 6 factors namely; Dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphasis and criteria for success. The next section briefly discusses additional criteria for analysing culture in organizations.

5.10 Additional criteria for analysing organizational culture in construction

In as much as the OCAI has been used widely as a model for measuring and predicting culture in organizations, there are many vital areas that are not addressed adequately in the 6 categorizations. Context becomes an important factor wherein certain issues that are unique to a particular country or organization will form part of the intricate process of measuring culture.

5.10.1 Race and Diversity

Omitting race and diversity in a study that focuses on culture in organizations within the South African context would be a great injustice. The history of the country and legacy of constructs that were solidified during apartheid are still pervasive, years after it was abolished. Consequently, there has been a great uproar in the country about the degree to which corporate South Africa is still in the hands of white people. All of the firms that participated in this study are owned by white South Africans. In addition most of the participants were white. One can assume therefore that the entire organizational structures have more white people at higher levels than the other groups in the organizations. This indicates that despite the many changes in the political system of the country, the workplace in construction is still polarised. If it is so polarised, who’s agenda prevails in the day to day processes that involve, strategy, organizational development, employee relations and employee value preposition? Of the participants, who were mainly white, were their experiences similar across the board, with the other racial groups. Are different groups managed
differently? Do all employees have the same opportunities? Some of the participants indicated that the BEE rating was crucial to the success of the firm. Conducting business and employing people from previously disadvantaged groups, such as black people and women is a criterion for accessing public projects.

The question is, would this occur without the legislation? Would these strategies be organic to the construction firms or is it merely compliance? These are some of the questions that the researcher reflected on and would actually form part of another study. Language is yet another tenet of culture within organizations. It seems that, Afrikaans is the most common language of communication in construction. In the last section, the interviews revealed that the failures in the industry were a result of poor communication. Language is a facet of communication. One of the interviewees indicated that:

“I have had to learn a bit of Sotho, because most of my labourers speak Sotho. When I work with communities, I always involve an interpreter. Getting the message across is not easy.” – F3

5.10.2 The distinction between permanent and wage employees
Due to the project based nature of the industry, there are fewer permanent employees than wage earners in the workforce. The permanent staff includes leadership, management and the administrative functions such as human resources, finance, buying for example. The rest of the workers are involved in projects in various sites. Thus the experiences of those that work in the head offices will differ from those that work in the project sites. Similarly the nature of the work at the head offices is sedentary whereas work at the sites is physical. The working conditions in both set ups are also different. The responses from interviewees reflected this difference.

5.10.3 Cross border projects
All the firms that participated in the study either had projects in another country in the SADC region or were in the process of acquiring projects in another country such as Namibia. This brings up the cross cultural dynamic, which can have a negative or positive impact in the overall organization. This cross border movement allows the
transference of values, beliefs and assumptions in both directions. In the long run, this alters the culture of the organization.

5.10.4 Mentoring
Construction firms have been recruiting experienced and retired construction professionals to mentor younger professionals. This is particularly important in the management aspect and increasing the proficiency of skills. Some younger construction professionals indicated that it is rewarding to be mentored by these retirees even though they tend to be traditional and closed to new ideas in the construction space. This is just one of those initiatives that have been going on for a long time in the industry and for which the industry is not being credited for.

5.10.5 The “culture” of not talking about or addressing soft issues
Since the industry is male dominated, the masculinity is entrenched in attitudes towards soft issues. This draws from the wider context that includes socio-cultural and gender issues that compel men not be inclined to talk about or address soft issues. In a sense it is difficult for men to even speak about personal problems because it is presumably a sign of weakness. The industry is about power and control, yet when one looks deeper, there are many psycho-social issues that are simmering. Unfortunately, they present themselves in other forms relating to productivity and health and safety. It is no surprise that such firms do not even have in-house strategies to assist employees with challenges. Most firms that have such strategies refer employees with such challenges to NGO’s or Industrial Psychologists. Unfortunately, the prevailing scorn of soft issues has become a norm and is entrenched in the culture of the construction firms. Instead, each construction worker keeps their issues to themselves. One participant concluded that:

“The culture of the industry is defined by men who don’t talk about soft issues. One of the employees has worked for 3 months without a break and he is going through a divorce, so he works harder to escape his problems.” – G1
SUMMARY: RESEARCH QUESTION 1 AND CLASSIFICATION OF THE NATURE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY

Based on the literature that supports the study, the results and the issues that have been enunciated in the previous chapters, the South African construction industry is predominantly a clan culture. It further exhibits characteristics of a market culture and an adhocracy culture. The market bias is explicable from the industry’s focus on stability, sustainability and the degree to which it relies on external forces that determine the success of a business. For instance, reputation, niche marketing and being a contractor of choice are key values in the construction firms that participated in this study. In addition to being a “family focused” industry, the industry is hard
driving and competitive. All the firms that participated in this study are privately owned and were founded by entrepreneurs. This confirms the adhocracy bias of the industry. The implication of this is that the industry is one dimensional. Ideally a functional organization is supposed to exhibit characteristics of each of the quadrants. Secondly, ideal organizations need to be flexible, stable and have an internal and external focus. For instance, the data indicates that the industry is characterised by “family type” working environments. However, there is no concerted effort from the firms to create internal stability through specific strategies that actually strengthen and promote the family type values.

The family type values are not really entrenched in the business strategy of the organization. There seems to be a lot of trouble shooting and crisis management more than planning and operationalizing strategy. In addition, these firms are still very traditional and are not as dynamic and innovative as they ought to be. The function of the OCAI and CVF is not restricted to analysing organizational culture. It also allows organizations to identify desired culture and actively maintain that desired culture. This means that, the construction industry has an opportunity to identify the areas that need to be changed in its culture and then adopt different or modified culture that will effectively promote overall performance. The starting point is changing the day to day activities and eventually the culture will change.

This is a strong indicator that the industry’s culture is skewed or imbalanced. According to the OCAI, an effective business is supposed to be positioned at the centre of the Adhocracy, Clan, Market and Hierarchy territory. In addition, the industry is more concerned with flexibility and discretion, which often results in the lack of effective organizational structures. Consequently, one of the predictors of the culture in any construction firm lies in the leader. The leadership lacks in the area of setting goals and vision for the organization. Most of the firms that formed part of the study persist on financial targets, which is just an aspect of organizational planning. Rather than focusing on a comprehensive strategy, the only thing that keeps the leadership preoccupied is accessing projects to increase the profits. In a sense, their survival hinges on the amount of profit that is made. The industry is clearly surviving on the basis of hand to mouth. This confirms the industry’s inability to focus on
human resources related matters. Even if the industry is able to maintain cordial working relationships, they are insignificant if they are not incorporated into the business culture. Generally, the leadership in the industry is still very autocratic. Positions, power and age play into the dynamics of leadership. The older, and the more experienced a person is, the less open to fresh ideas and innovation especially if it is proposed by the younger workers. This mentality trickles down to managers. The relationship is not of business partner to another business partner but it is “boss to employee”. The leaders are also less likely to inspire workers with the entrepreneurial spirit. They are not inspirational or charismatic leaders.

There are a couple of issues that arise from applying the OCAI and the CVF in the context of South Africa and the context of the construction industry and they are;

- The OCAI/CVF model is ideal for a baseline or exploratory organizational culture framework but it is not comprehensive. Depending on the nature of the industry, the national cultural context and other socio-economic and demographic factors, other characteristics can be incorporated.
- In addition to the history of the country, the complex nature of the South African industry brings in a different dynamic in the way construction firms conduct business. It is different from the UK for example, which emphasises project management than contracting. Post-apartheid, the focus of the South African government has focused on the regulation and repairing the effects of the previous system of government. Thus race and diversity are also entrenched in business. As a result, these issues reinforce the underlying issues, which may not even be known but form the foundation of culture in organizations.
- As it is depicted in this study, each organization can exhibit values from all four quadrants of the CVF depending on the nature of the organization and national cultural context. For instance, a homogenous society, with traditional values and a traditional system of government, may differ from a heterogeneous, democratic system of government.
- The OCAI/ CVF are Eurocentric or western concepts. Culture in the west has different descriptions from culture in an African or South African context. Thus, the tool can be adapted to fit into African societies.
5.11 Presentation and Analysis of Data – Part Two

WHAT IS THE CURRENT STATUS OF WORK-LIFE BALANCE IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY IN SOUTH AFRICA?

Work-life balance provides solutions for work-life conflict that is experienced by working individuals. The ability to maintain a balance also depends on the nature of the industry that the individual is working in. The construction industry brings in various dimensions of work that are different from most working environments. Since the industry is characterised by time bound projects, long, unusual working hours, working away from home or in other countries, physical intensity, high risk and danger employees find it harder and harder to maintain a balance. To determine the nature of this phenomenon in the South, the interview participants were questioned about their knowledge of the concept, personal accounts of experiences, whether it was a critical issue in construction, and strategies necessary to improve work-life balance in the construction industry. Accordingly, the responses of each employee demonstrated the key aspects of understanding work-life balance i.e. time, strain and behaviour.

The same process of analysing each of the interviewee’s responses according to IPA was engaged and a summary of response was tabulated. Common themes were extracted from the interviewees’ responses.

5.11.1 Knowledge of the concept of Work-life balance

All the interviewees identified the key constructs of the concept of work-life balance. The participants understood the significance of balancing their responsibilities in the two domains of life and work, to ensure that each domain receives optimal and effective involvement. The phrase “balance is about being able to switch” between the two domains was used repeatedly by most participants. However, the questions prompted the participants to indicate unequivocally that work-life balance was poor in the construction industry. Most workers indicated that work responsibilities took precedence over the life domain. The interviewees confirmed that the involvement (physical resources applied in each domain), time spent and the amount of work
(workload) that an individual does or has in a day was spent mostly at work (See Figure 3.3).

This shows how work demands more out their lives than the other responsibilities presented in the life domain. In the past work-life balance was very popular in feminist research. This study endorses that notion that work-life balance is just as important to males as it is with females. Both men and women are in dual income families or are single parents, and employees are compelled to balance family responsibilities with work. However, most of the participants in this study were of the opinion that, work-life balance in the construction industry is suboptimal. The summary of the responses is presented in Table 5.4.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Personal Accounts of Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Tight schedules, high workload, overlapping projects, long working hours, less family time, understaffing, pressure, PDP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>High workload, working away, cross border work, spouses left alone, family conflict, taking work home, bad moods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Taking work home, less time with family, less sleep, stress, family conflict, anger issues, PDP, understaffed, pressure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Work, studies, working away, too much responsibility, stress, overwork</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>Choose work all the time, make sacrifices, pressure to prove ability especially females, social life suffers, a lot of work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>Ability to switch allows work-life balance, hard work, harder for females, prioritize responsibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Poor balance, understaffed, too many projects, long work hours, tight deadlines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A8</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Balanced life is important for all workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A9</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Overtime, taking work home, not being able to balance, strain on family, insufficient leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A10</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>Construction is not balanced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>Working away, away for long periods, long hours, high workload, no choice, uncomfortable conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>Interference with family, conflict, burn out, bad weather, difficult to take leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>Time management, job performance, balancing life, working during normal hours, switching off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Family comes first, work come second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>Stress environment, a lot of money, mistakes are costly, pressure to perform, work on weekends, no rest, tight deadlines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>Low energy levels, fatigue, overwork, latent health problems, ambition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>Hard, negative environment, stress, intensive, fatigue, anger, tempers flare, family conflict, taking work home, restlessness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D2</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>Tough industry, bad weather, high risk, not seeing family, anger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D3</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Working on weekends, short time frames, tight deadlines, poor delegation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Studying, family responsibilities plus work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>Long working hours, weekends, no time for personal errands, family community, anger, no rest, fatigue, no h&amp;S, poor morale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Long working hours, high pressure, stress, family conflicts, difficult to maintain social relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Too much pressure, job insecurity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>Working away, weekends, physically intensive, long working hours, sleep deprivation, harsh conditions, strain on families</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Long working hours, PDP, working on weekends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G1</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Absent fathers, divorce rates high, personal challenges, hard conditions, stress, anger, long working hours, cross border work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G2</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>Family comes first, work is not everything, poor leave structure, deadlines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G3</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Cross border work, no time for family, lose important milestones, harsh working conditions, instability in families, withdrawal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G4</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>Working on weekends, working away from home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Long working hours, strain on family, aggression, fights, too ambition (PDP)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.11.2 Critical issues arising from the data

Upon analysing the data the critical issues are delineated in this section. These issues corroborate that work-life balance is difficult to attain in the South African construction industry.

5.11.2.1 Type of employment

From the onset, there is a clear distinction between permanent employees and wage earners. The experiences are likely to differ. A number of the site based workers, raised pertinent issues in this regard to support that latter statement and inferences were drawn from that. Firstly, permanent workers have the advantage of secure jobs. Wage earners on the other hand find themselves moving from one job to another. The interval between the start and finish of one project determine the amount of time that a wage earner can rest. In most cases wage earners have to work continuously in order to meet their financial obligations. Unfortunately, due to the exploratory nature of this study, no wage earners formed part of the study. The criterion for interviewees was established in the chapter preceding this one, that is the methodology chapter. In the same breadth, the participant’s responses vary according to that nature of their work i.e. whether it is site based or head office based.

5.11.2.2 Time spent at work

The literature regarding the hours spent at work specifies that working hours are long in the construction industry. Workers spend more than 8 hours a day at work according to the data gathered from the respondents. Site workers in addition to the physical strain of being manual workers are also required to work on weekends. The difference with administrative workers is that they work more hours in the comfort of their offices without the physical strain. It is inconclusive, however whether working on weekends is beneficial or not. One firm, E decided to scrap off working on weekends because it was costing the firm to have people idle around the sites on weekends. For other companies, working on weekends was a matter of habit as this worker noted:

“We keep our workers busy on weekends for consistency. People will slack or look for opportunities not to work. The human mind works in a strange way. People like
routine. It’s better to carry on and work on weekends. There is usually a drop in morale after holidays.” - B1

Working schedules on weekends also varies from firm to firm. In some firms, work is done throughout the weekend, especially when deadlines are tight. Some work every Saturday whereas others work on alternative Saturdays e.g. fortnightly.

Overall the respondents opined that due to working long hours, achieving a balance between work and life, is elusive as is limited. Again, in most instances the respondents indicated that workers do not have enough time to do things in the life domain. Even the limited amount of time spent at home, the minds of the workers are transported back to the work situation, hence the failure to “switch off”. Sometimes, especially among desk workers such as quantity surveyors, is that they take unfinished work home. One of the interviewees highlighted that:

“I try to take less work home, I try not to read emails at home and it makes a massive difference. All it takes is going through a problem email, then you are transported back to work.” – A2

The other dimension to the long working hours and working on weekends is the cross border work which is becoming popular in the industry. In the past, only the bigger firms procured projects outside the country but that has changed significantly of late as other players are now venturing into other SADC countries such as Namibia. This means that some workers are separated from their families for longer periods of time such as this worker who stated;

“Being away in Namibia for 15 months, I basically adopted the attitude that I was working 18 hour days.” – A3.

Furthermore, the industry has peak and off peak seasons. According to some of the participants, contracts are mostly executed during the summer months and less so during the winter months depending on the climate of the province. In the Western Cape for example, work is slowed down in the winter months due to rain and snow. In essence, a year’s worth of work effort is crammed into the summer months which could explain the long working hours and working on weekends. Unfortunately,
taking leave during the peak season is a challenge. The reason why “leave” policies exist in the first place, is for workers to take some time off, however the demands of the industry render this elusive.

In most cases workers find themselves having to wait for holidays to take some time off. That means workers will not have the luxury of going to the doctor, seeing a dentist, optometrist or basic banking especially the wage earners who might not have access to online banking. Ironically these activities of the life domain are mainly accessible during weekdays and rarely on Saturdays.

5.11.2.3 Work-load and Strain

The competition in the industry for both private and public projects and the desire for construction firms to survive financially means that organizations will have multiple or concurrent projects at a time. Consequently, the work-load for all the workers is increased. One of the workers highlighted that projects take up a lot of time at the start and the end, thus most projects overlap. The participant quipped:

“You are at your busiest as a QS when your projects start and when they end. Some start and end at the same time. So there is added pressure.” – A3.

The workload is further increased by staff shortages in the industry. The industry’s employment bias is tipped on more casual and fewer permanent employees. Possibly that reduces the costs of retaining staff during off peak seasons. Alternatively, as one of the participants suggested, it is purely a financial and production matter. He specified that:

“Staffing relies on the amount of production. The more production we have the more money we make to hire more people. At the moment, production is not optimal. Resources are scarce.” – A3

The pressure often leads to sloppiness in production and this increases the time and costs associated with repeat work. Workers have to work twice as hard to correct mistakes. In fact one of the participants indicated that they work on weekends to generate extra time for the project to allow room for touch ups and repeat work. For
example, for a six month project, workers will work on weekends, so that they complete the project within 5 months. The remaining month is used for final touches.

5.11.2.4 Behaviour
The impact of overwork is felt by workers at an individual level. It is almost disturbing that most of the workers, save for a few such the administrative workers and managers each had story to share about the impact that work has on their lives. Being mindful of the ill-fated fact that paid work is central to our existence, work is also at the centre of poor wellbeing. Most of the workers confirmed that they had experienced some or most of these psychological and emotional challenges as well as the associated behaviours:

- Fatigue;
- Stress;
- Burn out;
- Anger;
- Aggression;
- Health issues;
- Sleep deprivation;
- Restlessness;
- Moodiness;
- Withdrawal;
- Poor Morale;
- Whining and complaining;
- Negative Attitudes;
- Absenteeism;
- Sexual tension;
- Excessive smoking / drug use;
- Excessive drinking; and,
- Non communication.

The data indicates that anger is typically prevalent on project sites. Workers get angry at each for a variety of reasons. In some cases people vent out their
frustrations whether caused by families or work issues. In most instances it is evoked by other workers’ mistakes or faults in the construction process and this explains in part the high level of altercations that occur in construction. Anger could well be a result of other emotional and physical challenges such as fatigue, stress and sleep deprivation. At some point the body resorts to its own mechanisms of healing and usually the people around such individuals bear the brunt. One of the participants highlighted that in some cases, workers become withdrawn or moody especially when they have personal or family related challenges. Others crack under the pressure whilst others take up more responsibilities, spend more time at work in order to avoid the personal struggles. For some workers being away from home means being away from partners for long periods. This means that workers will forfeit their conjugal rights and the result is summed up by this participant:

“Have you seen how men react when a lady passes by a construction site? Men make sexual innuendos to women on sites because of sexual tension. What do you expect? They have been away from wives and girlfriends for a long time. They make dirty jokes and remarks.” – F4.

Eventually the mixture of these emotional and psychological factors, which determine workers behaviour also affect an individual’s overall outlook to life. Issues of self-efficacy and self-worth are founded on such issues.

5.11.2.5 Breakdown of families and other social relationships
Most of the participants of this study are married and have families. They all pointed out how construction work impacts their families. In an ideal work-life balance situation, the family setup acts as a buffer from the problems associated with work. One participant indicated that:

“Family is a your support structure. If you don’t have their support, it makes it tough at work.” – D2
However, the nature of construction negates that process. Primarily, the time factor is important because building relationships with family requires time. Most construction workers spend most their time at work and by the time they get home they are too exhausted to spend time for with their families. In a sense, negative experiences from work are transferred to families. One participant stated that:

“By the time I get home, I am so tired. All I want to do is just rest. I have a four year old son and he always wants to play. He doesn’t want to hear that you want to go to bed.” – D1

Some of the participants noted that their wives understand their work situations whilst others indicated that their partners or wives are complaining about the absence. Apart from the partners, other social relationships are jeopardised by the nature of construction work. One of the ladies stated that:

“There are a lot of things I don’t do anymore. My social life has suffered over the years. Just this weekend, my friends met for drinks. I chose to go out for a movie with my daughter because I have been away for a couple of weekends.” – A5.

One of the employees added an interesting take to the issue of spending time with family. He insisted that spending time with family was a matter of quality not quantity. He stated that:

“Yes work takes up most of your time, because you spend about 12 hours at work in a day. By the time you get home, you have a few hours to watch TV, play with kids and see the wife. However, you can be at home for ten hours and it can mean nothing or be at home for 1 hour and make the most of it”. – D2.

According to some of the participants, the impact of the effects of poor work-life balance often manifest at a later stage, such as children with “daddy issues” as a result of an absentee father. A high divorce rate has also been cited as a result of this poor balance in the construction industry. It is worse for the construction workers that work out of town or in other countries, as the levels of insecurity are high. For instance, some wives suspect their husbands or boyfriends of infidelity. The same
applies to construction workers who fear that their homes will be taken over by other men in their absence such as the sentiments of this participant who stated that:

“As an expat (expatriate), if you have problems at home, it will affect your work situation…suspicion of wives sleeping around and the other way around. Being away brings a lot of instability to families.” – G3

This section on strain brings to light some of the repercussions of an imbalance between the life and the work domains. Evidently, each domain has an impact on the other resulting in a work-life conflict.

5.11.2.6 Personal Development Plans
An overwhelming phenomenon that exists in the industry regarding work-life balance points to personal development plans. Many of the younger employees justified overwork as a necessary evil for upward mobility. Therefore, workers will overwork themselves in the hope for recognition and better positions. In a sense the rookies especially those that are fresh out of university work hard to prove themselves by spending more time at work and taking up more responsibilities. In some cases the competition between workers is high. According to the Equity Theory, being happy at a job is determined by the degree that an individual compares themselves with other employees at the same level in an organization. Possibly this explains why such employees will overstretch themselves in the hope of becoming better than a colleague. Other participants stated that, your credibility in the industry is determined by the number of projects that one has done. For some working long hours is an ego trip. Employees tend to boast about the number of hours they spend at work. One of the participants exclaimed that:

“They call me the owl!” – B2.

Another employee cited that:

“There are people who think that their output is measured according to the time they spend at work. They thrive on saying…Yo! I haven’t been off for the last two months. I have been working 7 days a week.” – C1
This illustrates the degree to which some employees spend time at work even when it is not necessary. The hours spent at work are prescribed in employment contracts but what matters is the amount of work that gets done. Therefore a construction worker can achieve more in less, time especially those that dabble between offices and project sites. Perhaps if those employees figured that out, they would have more time to spend with families. Office workers are known for spending time in the office, staring at computers, playing games or surfing the internet. Some site workers, especially those that have construction vehicles, travel from site to site and insist that they are playing oversight roles. These are just cases of “busy bodies” who appear to be working without tangible results. It also appears that in the case of casual workers or wage earners, working on weekends results in financial gain. That is to say, there is an added incentive for employees to work on weekends. By factoring in the socio-economic climate of South Africa, many workers will opt to work on weekends to make extra money and that means being away from family and social responsibilities. One interviewee stated that:

“Working on weekend equates to 4 days’ pay”. – C1

Working on weekends is also be justified by the employees who choose to work on weekends. The industry is notorious for paying poor wages to casual workers thus working on weekends becomes livelihood strategy. One of the participants stated that:

“Employees are overworked and underpaid in construction.” – A7

The downside of allowing work on weekends is that employees stretch weekly targets deliberately so that they fall into the weekends, purely for the extra money gained from working on weekends. In some firms employees have specific mind-sets about work as described by this participant:

“If you want to live like a king, you need to work like a slave” – E2

The statements above highlight the different personal perceptions of work-life balance.
5.11.2.7 Personality and Work-life Balance

Some of the participants in this study conceded that the ability of workers to balance their work and life domains depends on personality. That is to say individual personalities determine the degree to which a person achieves work-life balance. In a sense, some people will have high or low thresholds to stress, overwork and energy. In the same way some people are more prone to stress and fatigue whilst others are not. Person-organization fit is an important issue in this regard. This has implications for recruitment processes and the availability of skills. Assuming there is a type of person that is fit for the construction industry, does not necessarily mean that they will achieve a better balance. There are many variables, such as those have been enumerated in Table 5.4 that can disrupt individuals’ abilities to balance their work and life domains. Naturally some people are more resilient than others but that is not an exclusive factor when it comes to recruitment processes for the construction industry. Other people have an innate ability to put their lives in boxes as one participant indicated:

“Personalities play a big role in work-life balance. When I am at home, I don’t think about work”. – A6

It is plausible then to posit that , career guidance and psychometric tests could play a big role in selecting candidates that are suitable for the industry because in the end, people that become part of the industry should understand the nature of the industry from the onset. In addition, these assessments, would allow the industry to employ individuals with appropriate personalities. For instance, a doctor cannot all of a sudden be afraid of blood or complain about night duty. People need to be aware of the nature of the different professions.

5.11.2.8 Age

The data shows that age is a determinant of workers ability to balance their work and life domains. Apparently, younger employees in the construction industry are particularly concerned with work-life balance issues. This is consistent with global recruitment analysts who contend that people are now more inclined to choosing jobs that will allow them to balance their work and life . Within the middle aged category of the participants, there was a strong indication that times had changed in
the sense that the younger generation was more concerned with work-life balance. The participants further explained that in their young days, there was no focus on work-life balance instead, work was everything. One of the managers quipped:

“The younger guys are finding it difficult. They want to be with their girlfriends, enjoy their social life, fancy phones and social networks. In one or two years they are tired. They want balance. Others will keep it going to chase money.” – G3

In as much as the younger generation is concerned about work-life balance, they are also concerned with fast-tracking their mobility on the corporate ladder and making money. This in itself induces a personal conflict that can outplay in the work-life interface. Young people also find themselves having to change completely once they start having families. At that time, their outlook towards work changes as the demands from the life domain increase. This twenty-five year old participant noted:

“At the moment I think my life is sort of balanced. However, I am planning to get married and have children. I don’t know what is going to happen with my balance but I know things will change”. - A5

The older generation of employees appears to have a better balance than the younger workers. According to some of the older workers:

“When you are older, your priorities change. You start realising what matters and what doesn’t. Family life becomes central to your existence. You are no longer chasing money or trying to prove yourself” – A3.

Another worker stated:

“Older people have more freedom and time. Older people are less at loggerheads with themselves” – A6.

That is to say older people reach a state of understanding what matters in life. Also, at that age older workers may have management or strategic responsibilities and are not required to work the odd hours. In addition their work may be office based, in
some instances. Therefore, it becomes easier to balance their work and life responsibilities.

5.11.2.9 The experiences of women regarding work-life balance

A total of eight women were interviewed for this study. Six out of the eight women had administrative and office responsibilities whilst the other two were quantity surveyors. Ironically, five of the women holding administrative positions had organizational development responsibilities housed in the Human Resources department. In addition to their experiences in the industry they also shared general information about the operations of the industry. They noted that work-life balance, organizational culture and associated issues are at the forefront of the human resources and organizational development portfolio. Work-balance is very important to these female employees. Their responses are quoted below;

“You are always working under pressure. You find yourself having to make crucial decisions. I play tennis to relieve stress. Despite the pressure, you still need to take care of yourself. Work is not everything. Overworking oneself means not taking care of oneself”. I am young but at some point I will want to get married and start a family. WLB is going to be even more important then.”– A4

“Work is not my top priority. It’s my family first, then work. Not that I take my job lightly but there is time for work and time for family. Generally, we still have different roles in society. I have a young child, my husband is a pastor. I need to make time for church as well. Sometimes the bosses don’t understand when I have a family emergency.”– C2

Construction sites are not conducive for women. I used to work on site. I will never do it again. I have a family. There is another colleague, who works on site. She works away and leaves her child. I can never leave my child for a week. Some people stay in that situation because they need the jobs”– E1

“It is really tough. It’s a male dominated industry. You still have to battle a lot of prejudice. Men can be unhappy and be verbal about it. But when women do the same, they are said to be emotional. I find myself being the only one that has to fight
the battles. No one else will. Things like maternity leave…it’s a battle. Other industries are way ahead” – E2

“We put a lot of pressure on ourselves. We don’t want to be seen as using our femininity as a crutch. So we do much more to prove that we have equal abilities” – A5

“It is always about the choices you make” – A6

You have to make the necessary arrangements to adapt to the requirements of work. However women have the added responsibility of having and raising children. I will feel stressed if I miss an event at school. It is difficult to detach from the realities of life”. – F1

It is much harder. You are constantly trying to prove yourself. You don’t want to be treated like someone on a pedestal. You need to keep your emotions in check otherwise you will be labelled as a hysterical woman”. – F4

Even though the data indicates that work-life balance cuts across all genders, the voice of the minority group i.e. women, provides a valuable insight to the study. Evidently, women are experiencing a variety of challenges. Women have to work twice as hard to ensure that that they are not perceived as liabilities in the work place. This results in heightened stress levels due to the pressure of keeping up with work and family responsibilities. The women indicate that eventually, tough choices have to be made in favour of the family interface. One of the women remarked that:

“I am very lucky that I have a supportive spouse. Without that support, I wouldn’t manage the responsibilities of senior quantity surveyor” – A5

Construction involves a lot of travelling. Women are not inclined to leave their children and family to work in another country or out of the city for extended periods of time. Perhaps these reasons are responsible for the mass exodus of female employee from site based work to office based responsibilities. Ultimately women will experience the work-life interface differently from their male counter parts. Despite the global changes regarding gender and responsibilities, women that live in
traditional and patriarchal societies such as South Africa, are still required to participate in family oriented and domestic duties in addition to paid work. To some extent, men are fully involved and are capable of doing some of these chores, but childbearing and its consequences is women’s domain. There is an added pressure for women to balance their lives and work responsibilities. In addition to the nature of the work in construction, the women also indicated that men are not sympathetic to the plight of women. They posited that:

“Construction is still a man’s world” - F1.

“This industry is still a boys club”. – E1

In short the industry is characterised by muscular hegemonies that can prevent women from balancing their work and their life. This is particularly important with matters such as maternity leave. The assumption is that construction industries will think twice before hiring women at a child bearing stage as once they are in the system, they are not supported by policy and legislation. Moreover, women might not even be involved in policy making and therefore cannot champion their interests. One of the participants further stated that:

“All men are born by women and they have good relationships with their mothers, but when it comes to the workplace, all of that goes out of the window. They forget where they came from. I mean, they are great because of woman.” – A5.

5.11.2.10 Health and Safety

The relationship between work-life balance and health and safety is not conspicuous yet it is very pertinent. Globally and in South Africa, there continues to be an assortment of advances directed at improving health and safety in construction. Currently there is great emphasis on management practices, training and financing health and safety as well as compliance to regulation and standards. Very little attention is paid to the individual construction worker particularly on the matters that require their participation in these advances. That is, at firm level there are plans that need to be put in place to ensure compliance regarding health and safety guidelines. Similarly individual responsibility contributes to the success or the failure of these
advances. For instance, workers are required to wear personal protective equipment (PPE), however, each individual needs to take it upon themselves to actually wear PPE. Considering the many physical, psychological and emotional challenges that individuals in construction firms are experiencing, as this study has established, the efforts of health and safety need structural support. Mistakes, non-compliance are likely to be high if employees are not functioning properly due to poor work-life balance, personal challenges, stress, burnout and fatigue. This study noted that at least three of the construction firms have embarked on processes to bolster their health and safety.

Unfortunately, once again, the purpose is from the premise of compliance and accreditation. If there were no rules, regulation, and criteria set for conducting business in public works, health and safety would not even feature at all. For the purposes of this study, there is a clear indication that health and safety, needs to be directed at the individual level to ensure that efforts bear fruit.

5.11.3 Strategies for work-life balance in the construction industry

Reflecting back to the research question “What is the nature of Work-life balance in the South African Construction industry” it is evident that a paradox subsists. Indicating that there is a balance or not, is not satisfactory. There are many determinants of this phenomenon and they are intrinsically entrenched in the nature of the industry itself, the socio-economic and political landscape, culture, both national and organizational, and to some extent individual characteristics such as personality. All the facets that have been discussed highlight the overarching issues that govern work-life balance.

So in essence, the nature of work-life balance in construction is relatively poor due to time, strain and other psychological impacts. In addition, companies in the construction industry have not really embarked on a process to understand or address the phenomenon. This is consistent with the statement that was highlighted in the Section 1.4 of Chapter One of this study, that there is very little research, policy and programming in this area within the construction industry.
Currently, of the 7 construction companies that formed part of this research, only two were in the process of implementing a work-life balance strategy as part of a comprehensive employee wellbeing framework. Needless to say, both firms were in their very early stages of this process which involved assessments and piloting strategies such as abolishing work on Saturdays and introducing flexitime for employees. Overall, work-life balance is not a priority in the firms that participated in this study.

Notwithstanding the complexity of these issues, firms are in a position to formulate policies to support employees through work-life balance strategies. The critical consideration in creating these policies is to develop them organically from within the construction firms. The construction industry cannot just replicate what other industries have done but it needs to devise specific work-life balance strategies. Table 5.5 represents important strategic directions for work-life balance based on the responses of the participants. The possible work-life balance strategies for the South African construction industry conclude the analysis of the nature of work-life balance in the construction industry (see table 5.5)
Table 5.5 Work-life balance Strategies for the Construction industry.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAMME CATEGORY</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource function</td>
<td>• Adapt the human resources function to include employee wellbeing or employee assistance programme which includes:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o WLB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Disability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Health and Wellness (Periodic Medicals)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Substance Abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o HIV/AIDS, TB, and other communicable diseases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Dedicated personnel and resources for programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-life balance Assessment</td>
<td>• Awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Each firm to assess the work-life balance needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Employee engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Consideration of wage earners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Benchmarking from other industries such mining</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Creating Policy and standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time spent at work</td>
<td>• Flexi-time with graduated clocking in and clocking out times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Compressed work week, i.e. abolishing work on weekends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Compensatory time where overtime work is rewarded with subsequent time off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Review leaves of absence i.e. sick leave, paternity and maternity leave.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher, 2014 (Based on participants responses) (Table Format adapted from Kossek & Friede, 2006)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAMME CATEGORY</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staffing and skills</td>
<td>• Plan to recruit more key personnel to reduce understaffing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Increase artisans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Implement performance management i.e. clear job descriptions and evaluations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Empowerment of line managers on soft skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Revise remuneration policies i.e. overtime and working on weekends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programming work</td>
<td>• Lobbying and advocacy on regulation and government driven strategy/programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Implementing project management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Utilising technologies such as BIM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Working smart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Revise subcontracting strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Financial management</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher, 2014 (Based on participants responses) (Table Format adapted from Kossek & Friede, 2006)

5.12 Presentation and Analysis of Data – Part Three

This section entails a discourse on the third research question.

**HOW DOES ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY IMPACT ON WORK-LIFE BALANCE?**

Each participant was asked to describe how organizational culture impacted on work-life balance. Although some of the issues have been addressed in the previous section the responses to this specific question were recorded. The responses are represented in Table 5.6.
Table 5.6 Participants responses to the impact of organizational culture on WLB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P</th>
<th>IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ON WORK-LIFE BALANCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>Lack of resources, inadequate, cross border work results in working for long periods and increased workload</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>Lack of resources, inadequate, cross border work results in working for long periods and increased workload</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>Construction is production based and inter-linked. It’s a continuous cycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>Pressure to complete projects in short space of time, weekend work, prevents balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>Time factor in construction not conducive for work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>Personalities determine work-life balance than the culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>Time factor in construction not conducive for work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A8</td>
<td>Personalities determine work-life balance than the culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A9</td>
<td>Personalities determine work-life balance than the culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A10</td>
<td>Construction industry does not include work-life balance in their business strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>Industry is conservative thus it will not invest in work-life balance strategies. Work takes precedence over life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Industry is conservative, cyclical thus it will not invest in work-life balance strategies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>Working on weekends, work overload negates work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>Failed to respond</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>Its not the culture but it’s the individual that determines work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>Construction industry does not include work-life balance in their business strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1</td>
<td>Construction is a hard, negative environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D2</td>
<td>Working on weekends, work overload negates work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D3</td>
<td>Tight working schedules, lack of delegation prevents WLB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E1</td>
<td>Time factor in construction not conducive for work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2</td>
<td>Time factor, poor programming in construction not conducive for work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>Time factor, stressful working conditions in construction not conducive for work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2</td>
<td>Time factor in construction not conducive for work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3</td>
<td>Time factor, difficult conditions in construction not conducive for work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4</td>
<td>Time factor in construction not conducive for work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G1</td>
<td>Industry is conservative, cyclical thus it will not invest in work-life balance strategies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G2</td>
<td>Inherent issues in construction, personalities play into work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G3</td>
<td>Inherent issues in construction, personalities play into work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G4</td>
<td>High work-load affects work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G5</td>
<td>Site based work, time factor, working conditions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P denotes participants
Based on the responses of each of the participants organizational culture has an impact of the work-life balance. Without even delving into specific matters, organizational culture in organizations is a blueprint of organizations. It will impact on everything that involves or occurs within a firm. The participants raised the same aspects that were dealt with in Section 5.11 and they highlighted that the working hours which include working overtime, working on weekends, cross border work and the amount of work defines the parameters of work-life balance. Critically, what comes out strongly, is the absence of initiative on the part of the leaders or management to create a platform to address work-life balance. The leadership plays two important roles in this matter. Firstly, most of these firms are privately owned and the founding partners are still involved in the business and all the values, beliefs, assumptions are embedded on that premise. Secondly, if the culture has to change and embrace work-life balance, the leadership needs to take full ownership and include it in the business strategy; implement and evaluate its effectiveness.

This consolidates the argument that has been made throughout this research about the importance of leadership in all firm processes. If issues such as work-life balance do not mean anything to the leaders, it will be difficult to drive or inspire processes that are aimed at assisting employees in this regard. Leaders further play the role of inspiring and motivating employees towards specific goals. The nature of the industry, such as the long working hours, tight schedules, and the scramble for limited projects determines the amount of time that the workers can spend with their families. These characteristics are entrenched in the culture of the construction firms. When people are employed in this industry, they are expected to work for long hours. They are expected to work on weekends. Furthermore, some are given firm cell phones, laptops and vehicles so that they can continue working from home or outside the confines of the workplace. Most of the construction companies do not even have plans to create work-life balance strategies. There are no engagement processes to incorporate work-life balance in the construction firms.

The next section analyses data for the fourth research question.
This section computes the data for the fourth research question.

**WHAT IS THE LINK BETWEEN WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND WORK PERFORMANCE IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY?**

The data collected from each participant is summarised in the Table 5.8

**Table 5.8 Summary of responses describing the link between WLB and Performance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P</th>
<th>WORKLIFE BALANCE VS INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BALANCE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>Doing better on projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>Better focus and concentration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>Successful business, optimal production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>Building better relationships, energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>Good attitude towards work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>Successful projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A8</td>
<td>Meeting time frames</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A9</td>
<td>Improved performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A10</td>
<td>Concentration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>Optimum productivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Relaxed and organized workforce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>Optimum productivity, positivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>Good performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>Increased performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>Consistency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1</td>
<td>Improved performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D2</td>
<td>Improved performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D3</td>
<td>Improved performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E1</td>
<td>Improved performance, full potential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2</td>
<td>Creativity, Motivation, productivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>Increased performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2</td>
<td>Proper scheduling, optimal performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3</td>
<td>Rest, better prepared</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4</td>
<td>Focused and productive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G1</td>
<td>Improved performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G2</td>
<td>Improved performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G3</td>
<td>Improved performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G4</td>
<td>Improved performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G5</td>
<td>Best of both worlds</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Each participant described the manner in which work-life balance affected work performance. The responses depicted both the positive and negative aspects of the relationship between work-life balance and individual work performance as per the representation in Table 5.8. Thus, Table 5.8 shows the consequences of balance and imbalance to establish the link between work-life balance and performance.

From the responses, the re-occurring themes and issues were identified and are discussed in this section. It is important to point out from the onset that there are many determinants of individual performance. According to the literature (See Chapter 3, Section 3.10), performance has internal and external drivers. The internal drivers focus on the person’s abilities, skills, outlook and attitude towards the job and work-life balance whereas the external drivers include nature of the job, working conditions and remuneration. For the purposes of this study, the relationship between work-life balance and individual performance was examined.

5.13.1 Productivity
When employees experience work-life balance their performance improves (See Chapter 3, Section 3.10). This is a sentiment shared by most of the participants of this study. The participants indicated that achieving a balance would enhance their performance in the following spaces:

- Doing better on projects;
- Increased quality of the projects;
- Spending sufficient time on each project;
- Meeting project deadlines;
- Proper organization;
- Reduced repeat jobs; and,
- Concentration.

Meeting deadlines and proper organization is an individual level process. According to the Goal Setting theory, each individual needs to set out a plan of action for work related tasks. More so achieving work-life balance requires goal setting.

To further illustrate this position, some of the participants stated:
“If my life was balanced, I would do better on my projects. Also, an increased number of projects would allow me to spend maximum time on each project. Currently, the more projects I do, the more rushed they are” – A1

Another employee noted that:

“The more balanced your lifestyle is, the better you perform. Right now I am feeling out of it. I can see my performance is not optimal. I have deadlines and I know I won’t finish”. – C2

A few participants noted that the absence of work-life balance, depending on the personality of the person, can actually drive an individual to perform better. In such instances the underlying issue often relates to family problems. Thus drowning oneself in work is sometimes an escape from family or personal problems. According to the interviewees an imbalance is depicted by poor performance, increased mistakes, repeat jobs, poor concentration and not meeting deadlines. Others indicated that there is less anger and tension when one has a balanced lifestyle.

5.13.2 Job satisfaction

If an employee is able to achieve the points stated above, the employee is highly likely to be satisfied with their job. Eventually an employee will experience a level of contentment with their job. There is also a close relationship between job satisfaction and general outlook to life. An individual with a balanced lifestyle will be happier because the life and work domain are not in conflict. As a result that worker will have a relatively positive outlook to life and will perform better at work (See Chapter Three, Section 3.10). One of the participants indicated that:

“When I am unhappy, I do nothing. So it is everything if you are unhappy in your life, you will be unhappy with your work as well. You will not achieve tasks and everything will suffer. An unhappy employee is a useless employee. Happiness is everything. Happy work, happy wife, happy life!” – C1.

People that are not satisfied with their jobs are highly likely to be negative about anything and everything because they have a negative outlook to life in general. This class of individuals whine and complain about everything even the positive aspects.
of life. Individuals that have a negative outlook to life usually have low self-efficacy and self-esteem. Poor balance with regard to work becomes a vicious cycle that impacts on both the individual’s job and the individuals’ family life (See Chapter Three, Section 3.10).

Job satisfaction is also connected to organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours (Rainey, 2009: 298; Fu, 2013: 196). The behaviour towards one job, determines how committed they will be to the entire organization. Eventually it is easier for employees to display behaviours that benefit the common good of the organization (Sani, 2013:57).

5.13.3 Motivation
According to the participants producing quality projects, within budget and within the required time frame spurs a sense of achievement in construction workers. It becomes motivation for the next job. The participants added that, due to issues of imbalance they were unable to complete projects at the required standard. As a result, they will not be motivated. Work-life balance motivates optimal performance (See Work-family Border Theory, Section 3.11). One of the participants highlighted that:

“If you are tired and your wife is not happy with you, you will not be motivated to work”. – D2

If the individual is productive and satisfied with their job, they will be motivated to do the next task. Another aspect to motivation in relation to construction is that your level of motivation determines the level of responsibility that each employee is given. Sophisticated or unique projects will be given to highly motivated individuals (See Section 3.11). That means that employees are less likely to reach their full potential as this employee suggested:

Without the balance between your work and life, you will not perform to your best level. You will not reach your full potential.” – E1

At some level, creativity is lost with employees that have a poor work-life balance, not satisfied with their job and demotivated (See Section, 3.10 and 3.11). However this is debatable because in the West most of the greatest inventions were born out of frustration and demotivation. Again, that is a totally different context.
5.13.4 Work Relationships

According to the participants, work-life balance fosters good relationships at work, which in turn improves performance. Within the construction industry, there is a great emphasis on teamwork. Construction work requires multiple sets of teams from the planning process up to the point that the complete project is handed over to the client. Teams comprise of individuals and each individuals’ duties feeds into the team and ultimately the entire project. A team of workers that are not at an equilibrium in terms of their work and family issues is a recipe for construction mishaps.

Firstly, maintaining effective communication is replaced by anger, outbursts and insults between employees. One of the interviewees

“I have 5 sites in different areas. If I visit all the sites then my office work suffers. So close communication with the production team is how I manage the process” – A1

Another employee added;

“When people feel the pressures of work and life, it results in poor communication on site” – G4

Secondly, unity cannot be maintained when workers are highly strung. One employee indicated:

“It’s a chain of different responsibilities. Any break of the chain breaks the entire system. Everyone is interlinked. There needs to be unity”. – A3

This further increases the levels of conflict especially if that imbalance is supplemented by other external contingencies such as the delivery of wrong or insufficient building material. That is to say, work-life imbalance is not the only factor that impacts on relationships in construction. In the absence of good working relationships, caused by employees that are dealing with work-life pressures, individual performance is compromised (See Section 3.11).
Thus, there is sufficient evidence that there is a vicarious relationship between work-life balance and individual performance. Work-life balance is one of the many factors that have a bearing the peoples’ capacity to perform optimally. Unfortunately, it spills over to other organizational processes such as communication. Again, good working relationships will enhance organizational citizenship behaviours and organizational commitment which ultimately contribute to an employee’s performance. The overriding issue as the data reflects is that employees claim that poor work-life balance contributes to poor performance (See Section 3.10 and 3.11).

5.14 Synthesis of the findings and the results

The results offer compelling insights on construction firms in South Africa. As aligned to the first research objective, which sought to determine the status of organizational culture in the construction industry, the data reflects a clan culture. The inference that is drawn from the results is that the culture in the industry is imbalanced and it appears that many of the challenges lie in this imbalance. Apart from measuring the culture, through the competency values framework, the data reveals that the culture in construction firms is complex and it mirrors to some extent the socio-economic and political variations of South Africa. Moreover, despite the political changes that have occurred in the industry in the last twenty years or so, problems of race, diversity, job security and inequality are still prevalent. Another issue that emanates strongly from the research, speaks to the employment practices of the industry. The data demonstrates that the industry utilises more casual labour than permanent labour (See Section 2.6.2) (Wells, 2007:92)

It also appears that the leadership in these construction firms is still trying to find its footing in ensuring that the firms are balanced according to the four quadrants of the CVF. Even though the CVF shows that the industry is characterised as a clan culture, the people focus is not as robust. This is apparent in the management of employees, which is largely authoritarian. Generally, a people centric organization permits a certain degree of flexible management for employees. Employees take responsibility of their tasks instead of being micro managed.
In addition, in such scenarios, employees are able to contribute to the overall functioning of the organization. The results show that in construction firms, this is not common practice. Employees follow orders in most cases. The top down approach also permeates through to communication processes in the firms. The leadership in the construction firms are largely not inclined to receive feedback from the bottom up.

Notwithstanding the measurement of the culture, the results also reflect the importance of understanding culture and how it transfers to every minute detail in organizations. The construction firms are also market driven and their core business is the generation of profits. This is explicable through the miniscule traits of market and adhocracy cultures that the construction firms exhibit. The second objective which was to ascertain the status of work-life balance in the construction industry was achieved through the operationalization of the work-family border theory. Firstly research conducted in other countries offered baseline perceptions about work-life balance in construction. The results reflect a poor work-life balance in construction firms. Again the type of employment proves to be a critical issue. Causal workers find it hard to balance their work and their life responsibilities due to problems caused by complex project cycles (Marx, 2012:2; Fellows & Liu, 2012: 653).

In most cases, projects overlap and employees find themselves working continuously for extended periods of time. However, all employees both permanent and causal, indicate that time, work load and strain are critical determinants of their ability to balance their work and life responsibilities. The industry is not only physically demanding but it also characterised by long working hours. Both factors negate work-life balance. Furthermore the results show that, balance, good or poor, it is exhibited through positive or negative behaviours that relate to work performance.

Specific to the firms that participated, the results show that due to the poor work-life balance, the employees work performance is sub-optimal. In addition, the breakdown in family structures and social relationships is noted. The only caveat in this case is that work-life balance is not exclusively a determinant of performance. This
concludes the third objective of ascertaining the relationship between work-life balance and performance.

The last objective which was to gauge the impact of organizational culture has been dealt with partially at the beginning of this section. The results reflect that the industry culture does not foster a positive work-life balance amongst construction workers.

The next chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER SIX
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the analysis of data collected for this study. This chapter provides a summary of the issues that are presented in the preceding chapters. It further discusses the findings emanating from the study and presents this study’s contribution to the body of knowledge. A set of recommendations is made towards the end of the chapter.

6.2 Problem formulation and objectives

In the first chapter, the title, the problem statement and research questions of this study are identified. A lack of relevant and contextual literature and research regarding organizational culture and work-life balance in construction formed the basis of the problem for this study. Four research questions were developed to enunciate the problem;

- What are the characteristics of the organizational culture in the South African construction industry?
- What is the nature of work-life balance in the South African construction industry?
- What is the link between the organizational culture and work-life balance in the South African construction industry?
- What is the relationship between work-life balance and individual performance in the South African construction industry?

Thus the research set out to determine the nature or organizational culture, the status of work-life balance and the relationships between these two concepts in the South African Construction industry as well as the resultant effect on work-performance. It became evident that this area in the construction industry was not well researched particularly the South African context (Koekemoer, 2010:2). Internationally, many studies have been conducted but very few analyse the relationship between organizational culture and work-life balance (Kossek, Lewis, & Hammer, 2012: 5).
Consequently, a brief overview of the theoretical and conceptual dimensions of the study is outlined. From the onset, it was clear that this research draws from a variety of disciplines such as industrial psychology, sociology and anthropology, disciplines which when amalgamated produce organizational studies. The rationale being that human beings exist in societies and when they move into workplace situations, they do not detach from their societal connections. Similarly the literature highlights the cross pollination of issues between people’s lives within and outside work situations. In this case the construction industry is at the centre of these relationships. In addition, the industry is of paramount importance to the South African economy and that warrants critical research. In the same chapter a brief outline of the methodological process required to aid in the enquiry is also established. The exploratory and qualitative approach for this study is aligned to the problem of inadequate research of this research area in the construction industry (See section 1.4)

6.3 History and current status of the South African construction Industry

The second chapter comprises of a detailed presentation of the history and the current status of the South African construction industry. Since the democratic dispensation the regulation of the industry has been formalised into various legislative frameworks that address the business aspect of the industry, transformation and skills. In terms of construction work, the industry is holding on to it traditional roots. The industry is still highly cyclical and project based and continues to employ large numbers of people on a temporary basis. That said, the industry supports job creation initiatives through employment and the increase in the number of construction related small businesses (See section 2.3).

Unfortunately, the industry’s capacity to manage its human resource is underdeveloped compared to other firms in Australia and the UK. Corruption, skills shortages, the high failure rate of small businesses, environmental degradation and substandard products are specified as the key challenges in the industry. The socio-economic and political landscape of the construction industry informs many processes that occur in construction firms (See section 2.4). That is to say, organizational culture feeds from macro culture as dictated by national and societal
occurrences. To some extent some of the workers are part of the unions, thus making it a highly unionised working environment. Although the industry has been formalised in terms of legislation it is not operating at the expected levels. Seemingly, many issues still need to be refined for an effective industry (See section 24).

Furthermore the chapter highlights that the dynamism of the industry offers many opportunities for research. Significantly, the research agenda for most research institutions is limited to competitiveness, business management, health and safety and materials. Similarly, the national frameworks required to regulate the industry have not incorporated the importance of culture and social issues.

6.4 Theoretical and Conceptual perspectives of the study

The third chapter begins with an introduction of the concepts of organizational culture, work-life balance and performance. Since organizational culture is a derivative of culture in general, it is interpreted as the software of the minds of people, the values and beliefs, basic assumptions and manifestations within organizational parameters (Hofstede, 1984: 16; Schein, 201: 23). The importance of organizational culture is underscored in this chapter. According to the literature organizational culture falls short of a specific description but it is widely appreciated as an important feature of companies. In short organizational culture is understood more than it is defined (See section 3.2.2).

Organizational culture is entrenched in every single process or activity within organizations. Therefore construction firms need to understand the nature of the culture in order to reinforce it, if it is effective or be in a position to change it if it is ineffective (Schein, 2010: 27). Sometimes organizational cultures need to be modified and that cannot be achieved without understanding the full dimensions of culture in an organization. The critical issue, regarding organizations is that it is understood according to a hierarchy of factors. At the lowest level are the basic assumptions which are known but cannot be seen. This includes human beings’ interpretation of to the environment, time, space, reality and relationships with other beings. Values are at the second level and include all the issues that are known and
can be debated but at the same time taken for granted (Schein, 2010: 27). The last level involves manifestations of the basic assumptions and the values. Most organizations focus more on the topical issues as driven or seen through the manifestations. They rarely attempt to look deep to understand why things happen the way they do (Schein, 2010: 217).

The literature reveals that leadership is a strong mechanism for the creation and altering of culture. The leader initiates the organizational culture at the formation of the organization. He/she instils certain protocols of how the organization will be run. The leader further defines the vision, goals and the strategies of an organization. Classical theory indicates that leadership can further be broken down into classes of leaders. Presumably a certain type of leader, determines the nature of the culture. The literature further reveals that, leaders are instrumental in changing or modifying a culture. Leaders also require groups or people to effect an organizational culture. This perspective is consistent with classical authors such as Hofstede and Schein that culture exists in groups not just in singular individuals (See section 3.3.1).

Current trends indicate the rise of contemporary leaders who incorporate charisma and inspiration in their leadership technique. This increases the leaders’ ability to influence the groups (See section 3.3.4). According to the literature goal setting ensues from the leadership of an organization. Goal setting simply refers to the process of setting up goals and vision for individuals and organizations (Latham, 2007: 60). At firm levels, leaders are required to specify the goals and the vision of that firm. That allows all employees to be aligned to the same goal of achieving success (See section 3.11.6).

In terms of work-life balance, the literature discloses the importance of this phenomenon in this century in which the world of work has changed dramatically in the last fifty to a hundred years. Work-life balance is at the centre stage due to increase of paid work and the increase of dual income families (See section 3.6). Work-life balance is a corrective measure for the imbalances caused by the amount of time and pressure that work imposes on individuals. This conflict is analysed effectively in the work-family border theory. Workers and employees exist in two main domains; the life and the family domain. Each domain has boundaries and the
workers are border crossers. Each domain has its own unique activities and sometimes these activities are transported between the two domains. Furthermore, each has border keepers who control the passage between the two domains. The work-life conflict occurs when the domains pull in different directions (See section 3.6).

For instance, the manager’s requirements in the work domain, which can include extra working hours, will differ from the requirements of the employee’s wife or children (See section 3.7). Numerous research projects confirm that the conflict is experienced according to, time, strain, involvement and the behaviours that employees exhibit in each domain. Role overload for instance occurs when one domain has excessive demands on the other. Some studies propose that sometimes that conflict between the domains spurs an individual to perform effectively in the other domain. This means that individuals that have challenges in the home front can sometimes be effective in the workplace. Accordingly, work-life balance cannot just be a concept; it is operationalised into work-life balance strategies in the workplace which include, flexitime, leaves of absence and part time work. The strategies depend to a great extent on the nature of the job and work profile (See section 3.8).

Like all research, work-life balance is heavily debated globally. Prominent organizational specialists reduce work-life balance to an issue of personal capacities. They conclude that each individual is wired differently and the individual’s threshold to maintain a balance varies from person to person (See section 3.9). Furthermore, personality plays an important role to a person’s ability to experience the pressures of work and life. Both classical and contemporary theories support this stance. For example, Motivation theory presumes that factors that push an individual to behave in a certain way are internally generated (Bagraim, 2011:82).

Similarly self-efficacy is generated internally based on a person’s interpretation on their external environment. Individuals cannot be forced or given motivation and self-belief. They can only be inspired by external factors (Peterson & Arnn, 2005: 2). According to the equity theory, individuals the in work domain are likely to compare themselves with other colleagues to determine how much they are work. This impacts on individual performance (Wlodarczyk, 2011: 21). The simplistic definition
of individual performance is what people do or say in an organization (Werner et al., 2011). People exhibit certain behaviours that are required to complete specific tasks in organizations. According to the literature, there is an excess of research directed at understanding the drivers of individual performance. Management disciplines in particular are continuously looking for ideas or factors that can promote individual performance (See section 3.11).

The literature reveals that performance is driven by internal and external factors. Internal factors include the individuals’ views, perceptions, outlook to live, feelings and attitudes (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003: 68). Although these factors are extremely elusive, they can be channelled into the positive behaviours that are required in an organization. The only difficulty is that work places are driven by production and not necessarily by the individuals. External factors include the working environment, the type of job, the relationships and remuneration (Wealiem & Frenkel, 2003: 336). They all determine the degree to which a worker will perform in an organization. Another murky area in individual performance is remuneration. Not a single study concluded that when workers are paid well, they will perform well. The conclusion to this matter is that there are many drivers of work performance. The culture of the organization, the nature of the environment, training and skills, remuneration, work-life balance, family matters, job security, personalities, attitudes, individual values and beliefs determine the degree to which an individual can perform. Evidently, human beings are complex if not complicated (See section 3.10).

6.5 Research methodology and design

The methodology and design chapter addresses the philosophical position of the study, the data collection process, the techniques that were utilised to collect data and the ethical considerations for this study. In this chapter the research is deemed inductive because the logical processes are informed by investigation and analysing patterns in social phenomena. Thus, the research method is set to be qualitative. Deductive reasoning on the other hand in research focuses more on proving or disproving theories. Also the literature shows that when researchers embark on a project, the reasons why the research is conducted in the first place determine the type of research protocol that will be followed (See section 4.4).
Like all academic research processes, research philosophy is important. Primarily it determines the focus of the research in terms of its location in the various research paradigms. For a long period of time researchers adopted a positivist paradigm that focuses on proving research. Contemporary research on the other hand is located in other philosophical stances such as post-positivism and interpretivism. Positivism is popular among natural scientists and whilst social sciences prefer interpretivism. There is evidence pointing to the fact that the paradigm wars are far from being settled (Bryman, 2008:13). The debates are further propagated by the objectivity of research. Positivists claim on one hand that research is only objective if it can be quantified, tested and validated. Social scientists on the other hand insist that social phenomena cannot be reduced to numbers (Noy, 2008: 332). The world is rather too complex to be analysed through the eyes of numbers (See section 4.3).

For this particular study, the Interpretivist perspective informs the study. Furthermore an exploratory research process is adopted since the subject matter in this study are relatively unknown and under researched (See section 4.2). Accordingly, the research techniques i.e. interviews that were selected for this study, are aligned to the exploratory nature of the study (See section 4.6). The method of analysis is outlined as the interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) which allows the researcher to thoroughly examine each interview and generate patterns from the data (See section 4.9). This section is concluded by a description of how each objective was achieved.

The OCAI and CVF protocols are selected to determine the nature of organizational culture in the construction industry. The interview questions are based on six factors as established in the OCAI namely, dominant characteristics, leadership, management of employees, strategic emphasis, criteria for success and organizational glue. Work-life balance is examined according to the participants’ experiences of work-life balance and strategies that could lead to an improved status of work-life balance in the industry.
6. Presentation and analysis of results

The fifth chapter outlines the actual research procedure, the data presentation, the results and the analysis of the data. The first section reflects briefly on the objectives of the study. The first part addresses the demographic information of the data, such as the age range of the participants, sex, number of active years in the specific firm.

6.6.1 Objective 1 – Nature of the organizational culture in the construction industry

In terms of the objectives set out in the first chapter, the nature of organizational culture in the construction industry falls in the clan culture category with a few characteristics of the market and adhocracy culture in the CVF framework. The dominant characteristics include; family orientation within the business, a general concern for people, profit making, client focus and regulation. The core business of such construction firms is to create profits. However since these organizations were founded by entrepreneurs and families, their involvement has incorporated the family values within these organizations. Even within the project sites, the teams seem to carry to some extent, the family values. In some organizations regulation in terms of complying with legislation, is linked to the profit making aspect (See section 5.3).

Construction firms cannot access projects without meeting some of the legislative requirements. Furthermore, for the construction businesses to survive they need to secure clients all year round. That is why they endeavour to meet current clients’ expectations with the hope of future business or referrals. Overall, the leadership in the industry is generally autocratic. The leaders have a firm hand on all operations in the firm. This is a challenge because power and decision-making are centralised. The workers in such companies are likely to be “puppets” opting to follow instruction than to give their input. This further indicates that the leaders in the construction industry are very traditional. In fact, in some of the organizations, the leaders have been in the organizations for at least thirty years (30). The leaders maintain however, that autocracy is key to avoid unnecessary mistakes and troubleshooting. Autocracy ensures consistency. A similar theme exists in the management styles. Managers adopt a similar approach to that of leaders. Some managers fulfil a mentoring role to the subordinates.
Senior managers are normally the best candidates for this role. The other critical aspect that relates to the leadership and management roles, is that the organizational structures are rather flat in the construction firms. They are not hierarchical. Perhaps that has to do with the fact that such firms employ fewer permanent employees and that reduces the levels in a hierarchy (See section 5.5 & 5.6).

The data reflects that organizational structure, growth, client focus, competition, and to a lesser extent research are the areas that construction firms need to concentrate on to create an effective strategic direction (See section 5.4). In this instance organizational structure refers to a clear vision and goals for the firm. It appears that most the goals and the visions of the construction firms are not known or understood by the general work force. It seems that the top brass are the custodians of such information. The posters hanging on the walls with the firm’s vision and mission statement are not sufficient to align all firm operations to the strategy. The strategic direction of any organization can only be circulated to every employee through communication and engagement processes. According to the participants, communication and engagement processes are suboptimal (See section 5.4).

With respect to success, construction companies have a clear understanding of what needs to be done to achieve success. The data reveals that improved productivity and providing clients with excellent service and products that are delivered according to specifications and on time and improving skills and innovation would enable the industry to achieve success (See section 5.9). To consolidate all of the factors namely; dominant characteristics, management, leadership, strategic emphasis, criteria for success, the participants indicate that relationships bind the organizations. That is to say, organizational cohesion is a result of the cordial relationships that employees have with one another in the different organizational levels.
6.6.2 Objective 2 – Status of work-life balance in the construction industry

Work-life balance in the construction industry is suboptimal as a result of the type of working conditions, the time spent doing work and the workload and its impact on the life domain of workers. The analysis of the data shows that, workers in the construction industry are fully knowledgeable of the concept but are not in a position to experience a balance between the work and family domains. Furthermore, there is a consensus that this imbalance impacts on the workers’ ability to perform both at work and at home. As a result workers exhibit negative behaviours both at home and at work due to the frustrations of not being able to give full attention to each domain (See section 5.10).

It seems that construction workers have accepted their fate, that work precedes everything. Furthermore, the issue of personalities that are eligible to work in the construction firms comes out strongly. That is to say, some people have a higher threshold of dealing with pressure than others and those are the ones that thrive in the industry. The ability to strike a balance between the work and life domain depends on the individuals’ personality. Unfortunately, even those with a higher threshold can only put up with the pressure for a specific time. Families also appear to be bearing the brunt of the poor work-life balance. Wives, children, and family members have grown accustomed to the fact that their construction worker relative is largely absent (See section 5.10)

Unfortunately, this contributes to the breakdown of the very social structures that each individual needs for support. Since the industry is patriarchal in nature, the few women that are involved in the industry, find it even more difficult to fulfil their responsibilities. On one hand they need to deliver at the same level as their male counterparts whilst on the other, their family and child rearing responsibilities have to be met. As a result, many women are taking up administrative positions in the industry rather than production orientated jobs. Some resort to consulting. Work-life balance strategies are proposed to assist the industry to follow global trends of creating working environments that are supportive to work-life balance (See section 5.10).
6.6.3 Objective 3 – Impact of Organizational Culture on Work-life balance
Organizational culture defines all processes and operations in an organization. In this sense, the current culture of the industry prevents the existence of work-life balance in the following manner; the industry requires workers to work for long hours, with heavy workloads in a high-pressure working environment and construction firms have not incorporated work-life balance as a key strategic issue. Based on this interface, the industry impacts negatively on workers ability to experience work-life balance (See section 5.11).

6.6.4 Objective 4 – Relationship between Work-life balance and individual performance
The data analysis reveals that the relationship between work-life balance is justified by the levels of productivity, job satisfaction, motivation and working relationships in the construction industry. A positive work-life balance determines the levels of productivity amongst workers. Employees that experience a great sense of balance are likely to perform optimally in the work place. Poor work-life balance will impact on an individual’s ability to perform. In many work situations, this further plays into issues of job satisfaction and motivation. A balance between the work and family domain will improve job satisfaction and self – efficacy. In addition, an individual is more likely to foster better working relationships with colleagues if their work and life are at an equilibrium (See section 5.12).

6.7 General Findings
The study shows that organizational culture in the construction industry is classified as a clan culture with minor traits of market and adhocracy cultures. The study further reveals that work-life balance in the construction industry is sub-optimal. Currently, the nature of the culture in the industry is imbalanced and impinges on the workforces’ ability to balance work and life responsibilities. Inevitably, work-life balance has a noticeable effect on work performance in the construction industry.
6.8 Critical Review of Methodology

Utilisation of an exploratory approach, through interviews was effective for this study. However, for the purposes of extrapolating the results across construction firms at different levels of the cidb grading system, a mixed methods approach would be more effective. Thus this research offers a base level understanding of the status of organizational culture and work-life balance in the construction industry.

6.9 General Conclusion

This study set out to describe the characteristics of organizational culture and work-life balance in the construction industry. In addition to using the CVF and OCAI models to measure the culture, the literature revealed that the socio-economic and political setup as well as the national culture, are important factors. The methodology, stemming from the contemporary interpretivist paradigm guided the data collection and analysis process.

The results show that the construction industry is categorized as a clan culture on the basis that the dominant characteristics include; family type of working environment, a certain degree of concern for people and the fact that most of the organizations that were part of this study, were either family owned or still controlled by the founding partners. Furthermore, based on the results of this research, construction firms are run by authoritative leaders and managers who are task oriented. The focus of these construction companies lie in creating profits and maintaining relationships with clients and other external players. As a result the industry also portrays, to a lesser extent the market and adhocracy cultures.

According to the CVF, ideal companies are supposed to display characteristics of all four cultures, namely; clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market cultures and they need to be flexible and have an internal focus if they are to be effective organizations. Thus, the culture in construction firms is imbalanced.
Inevitably work-life balance in the industry is suboptimal. Imbalanced organizations according to the CVF run the risk of many organizational and human resource related challenges. In this case the industry is notorious for not paying attention to soft issues. In addition, the nature of work, the time spent on construction activity exacerbates the problem of poor work-life balance. The study has also established that although, work-life balance has in the past been associated with women and their changing work responsibilities, men equally experience work-life balance challenges. Consequently, as the study has established, work-life balance, amongst other variables such as job satisfaction and remuneration have an impact on work-performance. Issues of organizational culture, work-life balance and work performance intensify the complexity of the construction industry. At the same time, understanding these organizational issues provides an opportunity for the industry to improve its human resource management processes.
6.10 Contribution to the body of knowledge

The South African construction industry faces a myriad of research related gaps especially in the industrial psychology and sociology aspect. At the onset of this research study, a problem of lack of literature and research in aforesaid areas was identified. Moreover, there was a strong indication based on the available literature and best practices from other industries that in general, the industry’s human resource practices are outdated and suboptimal. Therefore, this study set out to investigate two important features of the human resources portfolio, namely organizational culture, work-life balance and its impact on work performance. The outcomes of this study have contributed to the body of knowledge in the following ways:

- This study confirms that the organizations in the construction industry are predominantly clan cultures with minor characteristics of the market or adhocracy cultures.
- Organizational culture in the construction industry is very critical to the overall performance of construction firms and the industry. The culture further determines the nature of structures that are required for supporting the workforce.
- Work-life balance is equally an important issue in the South African construction industry.
- This study further confirms that the industry does not support work-life balance. Therefore, work-life balance is suboptimal in the South African construction industry.
- This research developed a bespoke methodology which was utilised for the conduct of this research. The OCAI tool is commonly applied in quantitative research. For the purposes of this study, the OCAI was modified into a qualitative research technique.
- The research applied the OCAI in a construction context. This tool is applied frequently in other industries.
- The study has also formulated a framework for work-life balance strategies for the construction industry.
6.11 Recommendations

This section presents recommendations for construction entities.

6.11.1 Recommendations for Construction workers

- Construction workers have an opportunity to exercise their lobbying rights through the labour unions. Workers must hold unions accountable and make sure that they put their interests ahead. In that way workers will be able to negotiate for better working conditions, i.e. in-house work-life balance strategies, appropriate leaves of absence, improved remuneration, and improved lodging facilities and ablutions for women and those workers that work away from home.
- Workers are responsible for changing the culture in the construction firms. It is time for a fresh labour movement that will focus on the real issues that affect their lives. The situation in the industry is not likely to change if workers do not stand up and fight for the ideal conditions.
- Workers need to take responsibility of their lives. It boils down to personal decision making, especially with regard to work-life balance issues. The industry might be time consuming, but if an employee has an hour to spare, that hour should be spent wisely. Making excuses will not change the situation.

6.11.2 Recommendations for Construction firms

- Most companies use the catchphrase “people centred” in strategic documents. However, very few are implementing this statement into action. Construction companies need to adopt in house policies and standards that will ensure that their workforce is supported. Without the labour force, construction would not occur. Workers are a prerequisite to any construction activity. As ambitious as this is, and against the backdrop of the pending labour challenges in South Africa, construction firms need to understand that without the workers, no construction activity would occur and no profits would be generated.
- The construction firms need to adopt best practices and standards from other industries and other countries that are applying modern human resources. Thus workforce related issues must be incorporated into the business model of each firm.
Furthermore, construction firms must set aside funding for organizational and skills development. Part of the problem that the industry is experiencing, is the lack of organizational development initiatives. Secondly, the human resources functions are very limited. Changing the culture is embedded in organizational development and work-life balance is just an aspect of employee wellbeing. The industry needs to move towards comprehensive employee assistance programmes that will include financial skills, health and safety, HIV/AIDS, substance abuse and work-life balance. NGO’s such as FAMSA and SANCO provide various services to that effect. Construction firms need to make the commitment to support workers by actions.

- Construction firms need to revisit the “working on weekends” practice to assist employees to improve their work-life balance.
- Effective project management needs to be implemented

6.11.3 Recommendations for Academia

- Local academics need to start paying more attention to the human issues in the construction industry. Research is currently focused on the issues that have been identified as problems in the construction industry. These areas include, contractor development, competitiveness and health and safety. Very little research addresses why these challenges exist at the individual level.

6.12 Caution/Disclaimer

The recommendations in this study should be adopted with caution as the findings offer a base level understanding of organizational culture and work-life balance in the construction industry.
REFERENCES


construction-development/5904-sa-construction-industry-set-for-clean-up-of-corrupt-practices.html


Dear Sir/ Madam

RE: Organizational Culture in the South African Construction Industry: Effects on Work-Life Balance and individual performance

My name is Gcebekile Dlamini. I am PhD candidate at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in Port Elizabeth. I am conducting research on the cultural configuration of the South African construction industry. The aim of the research is to determine the nature of organizational culture, the status of work-life balance, the relationship between organizational culture and work-life balance and the relationship between work-life balance and job performance in the South African construction industry. My population is Grade (9) rated firms within the General Building category as specified in the CIBD registry.

I wish to invite you to participate in this study.

I will collect data, physically through an interview process, which will last for 1 hour, therefore I request for the participation of three (3) employees, 2 male and 1 female, if possible from your organization. I hope to conduct the interviews in March 2014. Participants should be:

- In employment of 2 years or more,
- Conversant in the English Language
- Possess a degree or an equivalent qualification in any discipline in the built environment and
- Knowledgeable of the organizations operations

Appointments will be confirmed with the participants telephonically. Should you require further information, please refer to the contact details hereunder.
Please note that a complete code of ethics as dictated by the University’s Research Policy will be observed throughout the interviews. Anonymity and confidentiality are assured. I further request for the privilege to record the interviews for transcription purposes.

Thanking you in advance for your valued contribution to this research

Regards

Gcebekile T Dlamini
PhD (Construction Management) Candidate
Cell – 0769513536, email – s210263393@nmmu.ac.za

Professor Winston Shakantu
Promoter
Director of School, Built Environment
Tel – 0415041400 email – Winston.Shakantu@nmmu.ac.za
Organizational Culture in the South African Construction Industry: Effects on Work-life Balance and Work Performance

Interview Schedule

Interviewee's Demographic Details

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post Grad</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Sex</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Designation</th>
<th>Years of Experience in the Industry</th>
<th>Years of Experience in the company</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Please describe your role in this organization

SECTION 1

Status of Organizational Culture

Dominant Characteristics
1. Can you describe the values that are held by this organization?
2. In your opinion what drives this organization?
3. What do you know about the history of the organization? Founders?
4. Would you say it is a structured and controlled organization, or informal. Why?

Organizational Leadership
1. Can you describe the leadership style in this organization
2. Where do you see this company in 10 years?
3. What strategies are in place to promote creativity and innovation in your organization?
4. Describe any bold risks that this organization has taken over the last few years?
Criteria for Success
1. What is the organizations’ definition of success?
2. What is the criteria for success in this organization?
3. What are employees doing in order to achieve success?
4. What is this organizations response to competition?

Strategic Emphasis
1. Are the goals of the organization, clearly defined, reviewed and articulated by management? Why do you say so?
2. Everything that employees do within the organization is aligned to the strategic focus of the organization
3. How do different departments in the organization interact with each other?
4. How would you describe the communication processes for this organization?

Management of Employees
1. Describe your ideal employee
2. Please describe the management style of this organization
3. How involved are the employees in the decision making processes of the organization?
4. Does the organization encourage employees from every level to express their ideas?

Organizational Glue
1. What holds this organization together?
2. Generally, what values do employees share in this organization?
3. When things go wrong, how do employees react?
4. Describe any extracurricular activities that employees do during and outside work.
SECTION 2
Status of Work-life balance

1. What is your understanding of work-life balance?

2. Can you tell me about work-life balance in the construction industry?

3. Is work-life balance an important issue in the construction industry? Why?

4. How would you describe the status of your work-life balance?

5. What strategies do you think should be employed to improve work-life balance?

SECTION 3
LINKS
Organizational Culture and Work-life balance

1. In your opinion, how does organizational culture impact on work-life balance?

Work-life balance and Individual Performance

1. In your opinion what is the relationship between work-life balance and work performance?