The influence of perceived organisational support and organisational commitment on turnover intentions within selected Higher education and training institutions in the Western Cape

By

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ABSTRACT

High staff turnover has been a cause for concern for most organisations in South Africa. Tertiary institutions have not been spared. Tertiary institutions that are surviving are the ones that are offering some support to their employees especially in the light of the so-called “publish or perish” adage that is prevalent among tertiary institutions as they compete to be the best in research output and quality.

The purpose of the current research study was to answer the question, “What is the influence of Perceived Organisational Support (POS) and organisational commitment on turnover intention among academic staff at selected higher education institutions in the Western Cape Province of South Africa?”

In order to answer the research question explaining the hypothesised relationships, the research study developed a theoretical model and tested an explanatory structural model to explain the manner in which POS and organisational commitment contribute to turnover intention.

The study was conducted using employees drawn from selected tertiary institutions in the Western Cape Province of South Africa. The participants were asked to complete three self-reporting questionnaires comprising the Shortened Perceived Organisational Support Questionnaire (SPOS), Organisational Commitment Survey (OCS), and the Turnover Intention Questionnaire. A total of 140 (n=140) completed questionnaires were returned. Item and dimensionality analyses were conducted on all of the dimensions using SPSS version 23. The hypotheses were analysed through structural equation model using the Partial Least Squares (PLS-SEM) technique. The results indicated a significant but negative relationship between POS and organisational commitment and significant positive relationships between POS and
turnover intentions as well as a significant negative relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions. This study will add significance to the body of knowledge by attempting to give insight as to whether perceived organisational support and organisational commitment influence turnover intentions among academics. The practical implications of the study and limitations are discussed as well as the direction for future research studies.
DECLARATION

I herewith declare this work to be my own, that I have acknowledged all the sources I have consulted in the research proposal itself and not only in the bibliography, that all wording unaccompanied by a reference is my own, and that no part of this research proposal has been directly sourced from the internet without providing the necessary recognition.

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The saying ‘no man is an island’ is a saying I believed to be for the faint hearted. In my life’s journey, I believed I was the exception because I made things happen for me... or so I chose to believe. I have learnt that the saying is not a truth I should dishonour in my journey.

I have had the support of my family, and this support had fostered in various ways and means, without me knowing. Today I am grateful for my family and their contribution towards my success, I am grateful to my mom, Frances Fortuin for always supporting me in the best way that she could. I am even more grateful to my late dad, Ben Fortuin for the legacy that he left behind, a legacy that I wanted to continue and I believe that he would be proud of in my achievements; it is his legacy and passion that will continue to drive me to be extra ordinary.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The creation of a world-wide university ranking system has exerted some tremendous pressure on South African universities. Universities are mainly ranked on the quality of their teaching and research output by organisations such as Times Higher Education. Universities have therefore been somehow forced to ensure staff compliance to university research policies by stipulating the numbers of publications per year required per staff member (Binswanger, 2014; Callaghan, 2016), through the ‘publish or perish’ adage. This pressure often lead to problems with work-life balance as academics take work home thereby failing to accord the family some attention (Callghan, 2016). The resulting problems created due to the ever-increasing work load and failure to achieve some work-life balance have arguably created problems regarding employee retention. As universities strive to remain competitive, focus has shifted towards the recruitment, selection and retention of key research competent employees (Halawi, Aronson & McCarthy, 2005; Powell & Snellman, 2004, as cited in Coetzee et al, 2014). Turnover intention has therefore become an important variable in the survival of universities as they strive to maintain their research excellence.

Turnover intention refers to an individual’s intention to leave the organisation (Hom & Griffeth, 1991). Leaving one’s job, to consider another is a deliberate, conscious act to leave an organisation and is considered as the last stage in the withdrawal cognitive process when employees feel that they are undervalued, or there is a lack of job satisfaction (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1979). There are three distinct factors that form part of the withdrawal cognitive process namely, thoughts of leaving an organisation, the intent to search and look for another job, and the intention to leave.
the organisation (Boshoff et al., 2002). Employee turnover is a measure of how many employees leave an organisation. Turnover can be a result of retirement, death, interagency transfer, and resignations (Wilson- Kirsten, 2012). There are two types of turnover patterns; unavoidable staff turnover occurs when employees leave the organisation because of death, retirement, retrenchment and when seriously ill and work performance might be affected (Wilson- Kirsten, 2012). Avoidable employee turnover occurs when employees leave the organisation by choice. When employees leave by choice it could be a result of better working opportunities that provide more rewarding positions, better benefits, and possibly more job security. (Wilson- Kirsten, 2012).

According to Turnipseed and Rassuli (2005) change can effectively be managed and accepted if managers acknowledge the process by which the turnover decision is made; identifying the factors that lead to the intention to quit is worth identifying, as it is the most meaningful antecedent of actual turnover.

Among academics turnover intentions have been documented to be due to a variety of reasons that include: lack of commitment (Abraham, 1999) and job satisfaction (Riggle, 2009); inability to maintain work-life balance as well as changes in one’s family circumstances possibly due to relocation of family (Beauregard & Henry, 2009). The work climate also plays a significant role as employees move away from departmental work environments that are generally regarded as “toxic” and punctuated with poor interpersonal relationships (Baeuaregad, 2009). In addition to the afore-mentioned reasons, employees are also moving from one organisation to another in search of the so-called “greener pastures” and work conditions which offer improved chances for personal development and opportunities to attend international conferences in order to develop one’s research skills (Ngobeni & Bezuidenhout, 2011). One way of containing the turnover rate is by implementing mechanisms that focus on the staff development to ensure that employees feel supported by the organisation.
Therefore perceived organisational support (POS) plays an important role in the development of interventions geared towards combating employee turnover.

Perceived organisational support (POS) refers to “generalised beliefs about the extent to which an organisation is supportive of its employees” (O’Driscoll & Randall, 1999, p. 198). Bishop, Goldsby and Neck (2002, p. 299) defined organisational support as “the degree to which employees believe the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being.” Kim, Leong and Lee (2005) argues that organisational support refers to management’s encouragement of service, training, design of service systems and organisational procedures for optimal service delivery.

Employees develop their perceptions about the organisation based on the organisation’s concern and consideration towards them (Satardien, 2014). Perceived organisational support has been documented to result in positive work outcomes such as: job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, positive affectivity, work engagement, creativity and innovation and job performance (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; Islam, Khan, Ahmad, Ali, Ahmed & Bowra, 2013; Yulianti, 2014). An organisation’s ability to show concern toward employees’ well-being would most likely result in high levels of job involvement and employee performance (Satardien, 2014). Employees that experience POS in the organisation would most likely exhibit high levels of work commitment in achieving the objectives and goals of the organisation, this can be as a result of their feels of belonging, increased self-esteem in their jobs, need for approval being met by their superiors and increased levels of affiliation within their teams and the organisation at large (O’Driscoll & Randall, 1999). The benefits of positive POS extend beyond the classroom in that educators would become more involved in other related academic concerns thereby creating and fostering a more efficient learning, teaching experience and research intensive culture (Satardien, 2014).
In view of the aforementioned beneficial work outcomes, POS clearly has a relationship with turnover intention. Islam, et al. (2013) in a study on the influence of POS on turnover intentions using 412 banking employees in Malaysia, reported a negative relationship between POS and turnover intentions. These findings were supported by Satardien (2014) in the aviation industry. In addition to POS helping combat turnover rates among employees, it is likely to create feelings of emotional attachment to the organisation by way of affective commitment (Lacity & Iyer, 2008).

Meyer and Allen (1997) define organisational commitment as a psychological state that depicts the employee’s perception and relationship with the organisation to the extent that the perceptions of the employee will determine the tenure of their services. This definition underpins Meyer and Allen’s three dimensional model of organisational commitment namely, affective, continuance and normative commitment. Affective commitment alludes to “positive feelings of identification with, attachment to, and involvement in the work organisation” (Carmeli & Gefen, 2005, pp. 66). Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment in the organisation because they want to do so. Continuance commitment is defined as “the extent to which employees feel committed to their organisations by virtue of the costs they feel associated with leaving the organisation” (Carmeli & Gefen, 2005, pp. 65-66). Normative commitment refers to “feelings of obligations to stay with an organisation because of the belief that it is the right thing to do” (Wasti, 2002). Furthermore, organisational commitment is a psychological state that characterises the employee’s relationship with the organisation. According to Barlett (1999), commitment is something that displays an emotional connection. Commitment consists of more than just supporting, to have a positive partiality to be in support of a goal. Organisational commitment can be described as how strongly an employee relates and identifies with their organisation, and this could be reflected by higher levels of involvement in the organisation (Curie & Dollery, 2003).
Committed employees would be more driven to execute and implement the goals, objectives and mission of the organisation if they adopt the goals of the organisation and internalise them as their own; this being the case where employees feel that their goals and objectives for the organisation are aligned resulting in more involved employees (Lacity & Iyer, 2008). Employees that are committed as a result of identifying with the goals and vision of an organisation would display and implement more innovative ways of executing their jobs and become more goal driven because of renewed insight and ambition (Meyer & Becker, 2004).

When employees’ levels of commitment increase, employers can almost be guaranteed that absenteeism in the workplace would decrease as well as less health related issues (Somers, 1995). Organisational commitment from employees would most likely foster positive behaviour in the form of less absenteeism from work among staff, and this would decrease the possibility of staff leaving their jobs (Cetin, 2006). This is because employees’ perception of their employers’ commitment towards them, will create a sense of loyalty towards their employers. A sense of belonging amongst employees will enhance the performance of staff indicating their level of commitment (Shore & Wayne, 1993).

Although several studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between turnover, POS and commitment (Arshadi, 2011; Kalidas & Bahron, 2015; Satardien, 2014), most of these studies were conducted in corporate environments ranging from the banking sector and the aviation industries just to mention a few (Islam, et al., 2013; Satardien, 2014). There are a few studies that have looked at these variables in a university setting (Yulianti, 2014). Therefore the present study wishes to close this gap by answering the following research questions: “What is the influence of POS and commitment on turnover intention among academic staff at selected Higher Education institutions in the Western Cape Province of South Africa?”
1.2 RESEARCH PURPOSE

The primary objective of the intended study is to determine the influence of perceived organisational support and commitment on turnover intentions among academic staff members at selected higher education institutions in the Western Cape Province. The secondary goal is to validate a theoretical model explicating the structural relationships between these variables among academic staff members. In so doing, it will help organisations gain an in-depth understanding of how POS affects employees’ commitment (loyalty) and retention.

The overarching research question guiding the present study is: “What is the influence of POS and commitment on turnover intention among academic staff at selected higher education institutions in the Western Cape Province of South Africa?” The main research question is further dissected into the following sub research questions:

The sub-questions are:

- What is the influence of POS on turnover intention?
- What is the influence of POS on organisational commitment?
- What is the influence of organisational commitment on turnover intention?

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study are as follows:

a) To test a model that explains the manner in which POS influences organisational commitment and turnover intention;

b) To evaluate the significance of the hypothesised paths in the model; and

c) To assess the goodness of fit of the theoretical model.
1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

Universities are responsible for the development of the human and intellectual capital of a nation. Therefore, it is vital to ensure that universities are not affected by employee turnover in order to create stability and promote the research output that universities require. The research output creates more information that corporations need to function efficiently. Positive organisational support is likely to instil some commitment in employees which can assist in reducing turnover intentions. Furthermore, the reduction of employee turnover may help universities reduce their recruitment and selection budgets thereby creating some competitive advantage for universities especially in the light of the so-called “fees-must-fall” protests which have created financial nightmares for universities. Providing the necessary support through availing resources for academic staff members to sharpen their research and teaching skills, provides some extrinsic motivation which creates some loyalty to the organisation and ultimately results in reduced turnover intentions.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS

Chapter 1 provides the rationale, context, and framework of the research. This includes the problem statement and objectives of the study, definitions of terms that are to be used in the study and the hypotheses of the study. Furthermore, it highlights the limitations of the study. It provides brief insight into the research study.

Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive discussion of the theoretical background pertaining to the premise of the study. Literature focusing on perceived organisational support, organisational commitment and turnover intention is addressed. This chapter provides an insight into these concepts by focusing on previous research in this space and presents reviewed literature applicable to this study.
Chapter 3 describes the research design used, more specifically, the chapter describes the sample of the study, the measuring instrument to be used, the procedure followed to gather the data, the hypotheses and the statistical techniques used in order to analyse the data.

Chapter 4 presents and discusses the findings gathered during the analysis of data that had been collected during the study. It presents the results of the empirical analysis. An analysis of the descriptive statistics on the variables under consideration is provided, together with inferential analysis.

Chapter 5 describes the results of the study in more specific and greater detail. Comparisons with existing research, where available are provided. The limitations of the study and the implications for future research are addressed, followed by the chapter concluding with recommendations for the future.

1.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

In this chapter the problem statement regarding the reasons for driving commitment and perceived organisational support to control turnover intentions were provided, as well as the objectives of the study and significance of the study were discussed. Key constructs were emphasised, as well as a brief overview of each chapter was provided. The chapters to follow attempt to shed light on the above by discussing the existing literature of commitment, perceived organisational support and turnover intentions.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
Organisations that seek to control their industries and markets need to create an environment where they are able to retain talented employees that have qualities and skills that are essential for the success of the organisation (Athey, 2004). In the current information based economy, organisations with the largest pool of talented employees have a competitive advantage, because the “people” component has become the most essential influencing factor of organisational success (Brown, Duncan, Harris & Kelly, 2003). To maintain a competitive advantage in the market, it is believed that organisations must understand the need to manage the psychological factors that bring forth both commitment and high levels of performance from talented employees (Bagraim, 2003), as well as those factors that prevent them from nurturing turnover cognitions (i.e. nurturing thoughts of leaving).

2.2 Turnover Intention
Increasingly organisations are interested in developing committed workforces to reduce employee turnover and absenteeism, while improving the employees’ performance and job-related attitudes. According to Turnipseed (2005), talent can only be managed effectively if managers understand the process by which the turnover decision is made. Determining the underlying factors that lead to the intention to quit is noteworthy as it is the most important antecedent of actual turnover (Firth, Mellor, Moore & Loquet, 2003). Organisations have in the past normally made use of exit interviews as a tool to understand employees’ reasons for quitting. This method is retrospective, whereas understanding the cognitive process underlying the intention to quit and being able to identify the variables related to it, provides an opportunity
for managers to act more proactively to prevent such intentions from forming and becoming a turnover decision (Pienaar, Sieberhagen & Mostert, 2007).

2.2.1 Defining turnover intentions

Turnover adversely affects organisations' performance. Hatch and Dyer (2004) in their study that explored the causes of widespread and constant differences in learning performance, reported that the performance of organisations with increased rates of turnover is lower than their competitors with low turnover rates. Development is also fast becoming knowledge based such that organisations that are able to retain and attract their top performing employees are enjoying some competitive advantage over those who fall short of retaining their employees (Felps, Mitchell, Hekman, Lee, Holtom, & Haraman, 2009). Additionally, to provide excellent services and remain proficient, an organisation needs to retain its workers. Specifically, a university’s or college sector’s future and way forward depends largely on the number, quality and effectiveness of its academic staff (Mwadiani, 2002; Pienaar, 2008).

The value, credibility, and sustainability of any academic institution also depends on the quality, intellectual and innovative abilities as well as the commitment of its academic staff when compared to other organisations (Ng’ethe, Iravo, & Namusonge, 2012). It is of importance for an academic institution to retain its academic staff. Specially, to surpass and create a diverse academic environment, academic institutions must retain their academic staff (August & Waltman, 2004). However, studies have shown that women are employed less frequently and excessively into lower academic positions, yet, have higher rates of turnover than men (August & Waltman, 2004).
2.2.2 Causes of turnover intentions

Determinants of turnover intentions can be related to the association between job satisfaction, and organisational commitment (see Figure 2.1) (Okpara, Squillace, & Erondu, 2005). In this study, the model projected and attempted to evaluate the determinants of turnover intention originally proposed by Igbaria and Guimaraes (1999). There are two components in the model: the first is role stressors which results from unclear expectations (role ambiguity) and unjust expectations (role conflict) (Kim, Murrmann, & Lee, 2009).

Role ambiguity refers to the degree to which an employee does not have clarity on the apparent information relating to the expectations related to a role, methods of satisfying accepted role expectation, and/or the consequences of role performance outcome. Role ambiguity is inappropriateness and strangeness in the expectations linked with a given job role wherein the demands in one domain are likely to restrict or prevent the accomplishment in the other. It also refers to the occurrence of two or more sets of pressure simultaneously in such a way that the achievement and completion of one hinders the achievement of the other (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). That is, an individual with insufficient information to perform in the job, unclear objectives of peers, uncertainty of performance assessment practices, extreme job demands, and lack of precision on the agreement of job objectives or responsibilities between peers, supervisors, and customers, may make the person feel displeased with the job, less involved and committed and to the organisation, and display a greater inclination to leave the organisation.

The second component of the model is career success results, together with job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intention. Job satisfaction consists of emotional responses of a person to diverse characteristics of the job and job experience. Organisational commitment makes known an individual’s evaluation of the organisation as a whole, and consists of a resilient view in and taking of the organisation’s goals and values, willingness to exercise considerable effort for the organisation, and a resilient objective to reserve a relationship within the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990; O’ Reily & Chatman, 1986).

There are three components of organisational commitment suggested by Allen and Meyer (1990). These are (1), affective commitment which refers to employees’ emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement with the organisation; (2) continuance commitment is based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organisation; and (3) normative commitment refers to employees’ feelings of obligation to stay with the organisation. The intent to leave is an individual’s
perceived likelihood that he/she will be remaining or leaving an organisation (Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1999). From previous studies (e.g. Bedeian, & Armenakis, 1981; Brooke; Igbaria, & Greenhaus, 1992; Kim, Murrmann, & Lee, 2009; Russell & Price, 1988; Van Sell, Brief, Schuler, 1994), it can be accepted that role stressors are negatively related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment that results in the intention to quit.

2.2.2.1 Compensation and Benefits

A more attractive and favourable compensation package provided from competitors is one of the many reasons why turnover takes place. Individuals work as a means to gain an income, and therefore take on a job to sustain and maintain a living. It is therefore natural for employees to expect a favourable and manageable degree of compensation for their duties and services rendered within an organisation. Compensation may be in the form of monetary value, a direct means of acknowledging an employee’s contribution to the organisation, or in the form of reward, a salary or bonus. Employees’ compensation also results in medical insurance and other benefits (Mondy, 2010). Previous research has indicated that employees are attracted, retained and motivated to reach organisational goals when they are compensated and reward through monetary valued methods of acknowledgement (Milkovich & Newman, 2002). Compensation is the fundamental factor of the production-reward interchange process and the employment relationship. When employees believe that their employers cannot provide their expected level of compensation, turnover and intention to quit becomes a reality for the organisation (Mondy, 2010). Milkovich and Newman (2002) noticed that employees tend to leave an organisation when a competitor is willing to make a much better offer in terms of financial gain.
2.2.2.2 Career Development

As with compensation and benefits, career development is an added job characteristic that makes educational opportunities an inferior choice of careers (Richardson, 2008). Richardson (2008) emphasized that insufficient or unclear career structure plagues the image of hospitality work. This is a critical concern as Hartman and Yrle (1996) explored whether the lack of self-development influences the turnover rate. In their research, they suggested that employees are likely to leave when they believe that limited promotional opportunities exist. Similarly, Woods, Sciarini, and Heck (1998) surveyed almost 5,000 educators and came to the conclusion that the inability to advance and grow is one of the most common turnover causes.

Arthur (1994) reported that talented employees have a tendency to climb up their career ladder by moving across companies instead of a consecutive move within the same company. Barron, Maxwell, Broadbridge, and Ogden (2007) also found that Generation Y individuals anticipated a quick direct advancement in hospitality by changing jobs often. This reality is not something unknown as the tourism and hospitality industry is on a development path (UNWTO, 2010). Therefore there will be more job opportunities and advancement opportunities offered in the future. In addition, as baby boomers, who constitute the largest generation in the world, will begin to retire in large numbers, many more job opportunities will be available. While there are many baby-boomers in the Western world, of which most would already be retired, the on-going recession has affected many of these people to lose large percentages of what they once believed was sufficient investment for their retirement. As a result of that, baby boomers are postponing their retirement for economic reasons and will still remain in their positions held in organisations. Yet they will be departing from their positions in the future.
2.2.3 Consequences of turnover intentions

Employee turnover has both direct and indirect implications on an organisation. Direct implications consist of the recruitment and selection financial implications and costs associated with training and development of new staff (Staw, 1980). According to Dess and Shaw (2001), indirect implications of turnover consist of the reduction in morale amongst continuing staff, work overload, and loss of social capital.

Employee turnover can be both intentional and unintentional. A research study was conducted based on voluntary turnover in which the employee chooses to leave the organisation of his own choice, either to avoid negative practices in the work environment or to follow better prospects that are more rewarding, either in terms of career growth or financial growth. Literature shows that turnover intention is the most direct antecedent of turnover (Mobley, Horner & Hollingworth, 1978; Mobley et al., 1979; Bluedorn, 1982; Steel & Ovalle, 1984).

This is due to the fact that employee turnover embodies a considerable cost to organisations both in tangible as well as in intangible relations, thus hindering well-organized and efficient customer service, and challenges competitiveness. Confirmation from hypothetical as well as experiential writings shows that turnover intentions embody a consistent indicator of tangible voluntary turnover and are largely influenced by job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003; Cohen 1993; Hom & Griffeth, 1995). For example, Hom and Griffeth (1995) suggest that employees choose to leave their organisation when they are unsatisfied with their jobs and lose their commitment to the organisation. Similarly, Meyer and Herschovitch (2001) contend that when employees are unsatisfied with their jobs, their need to stay in their organisation begins to wear down. In fact, early indicators of these negative effects, in the form of low job satisfaction and organisational commitment, are turnover perceptions.
Increasing evidence from the academic literature advises that organisational tenure influences job attitudes and turnover intentions (Abbott, White, & Charles 2005; Van Breukelen, Van der Vlist, & Steensma 2004). For example, Steers (1977) suggests that tenure is the only best predictor of turnover because it characterises an employee’s past behaviour and encapsulates his or her relationship with the organisation. According to Turnipseed (2005) organisational change can effectively be accomplished and accepted if managers appreciate the process by which the turnover judgment is made. Establishing influences that lead to intention to quit is useful in identifying as it is the most significant antecedent of definite turnover.

2.2.4 Antecedents of turnover intentions

Employees occupy most of their time at their workplaces; it is therefore important that employers create and provide employees with conducive and favourable working environments to optimise their work performance and to increase the quality of work (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). Organisations have come to the realisation that retention strategies are of great value and importance, especially if top performers need to be retained; top performers in organisations need to be valued and given the best possible opportunities to use their talents. There are a multitude of direct and indirect costs aligned with employees which may be allocated to recruitment, selection, training, reward strategies etc. In order to make the most of the return on investment on employees, it is important to place emphasis on decreasing the degree of turnover amongst employees as it is discouraging for existing employees and also comes as a loss for the organisation. Employee turnover may be viewed as a change in the work environment throughout a certain time frame. It is a measure of the level to which older employees leave and new employees come into the organisation in a given period (Greenberg & Baron, 2000).
Turnover can be considered as voluntary turnover and involuntary turnover. When employees make the personal choice to leave an organisation, it is referred to as voluntary turnover; whereas if an organisation requests that an employee leaves, it is then referred to as involuntary turnover (Price & Mueller, 1981). Historically, involuntary turnover has been depicted as usually good for the organisational concern (Mc Shane & Williams, 1993); but voluntary turnover is believed to be harmful for organisations. Employees voluntarily leave organisations for various reasons, including low satisfaction with their jobs, low satisfaction with their employer, little to no career advancement and growth opportunities, more favourable career opportunities at other organisations, or displeasure relating to organisational changes or restructuring. Alternatively, turnover intention may be perceived as the intention of employees to quit the organisation. Turnover intention is a multifaceted occurrence (see figure 2.2) that depends on numerous factors. Much of the extant literature on employee turnover behaviour suggests that age, gender, tenure, designation, knowledge, reward, education, and the nature of employment, are determinants of turnover intentions amongst employees.

Figure 2.2: Quality of work life
There are numerous determinants of voluntary turnover such as Job Satisfaction, Job Stress (Psychological), Quality of work Life (Economic) and Age, Tenure, Marital Status (Demographic) etc (Randhawa, 2007). It can also be established from the available literature that there are noteworthy relationships between turnover intention and demographic variables such as age, qualification designation and it was found that age, designation and experience are significantly inversely correlated with turnover intentions (Randhawa, 2007).

2.2.4.1 Quality of Work Life

Quality of work life (QWL) is a key part of any employee’s life. A large portion of an individual’s time is spent on their jobs so it is important to have a better quality of work life (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). Quality of work life relates to desired or undesired conditions of the work environment of the people and refers to the value of relationships between employees and the overall working environment. It is a multi-dimensional concept which consists of various factors which are postulated to have an influence on the job of employees and are also taken into account for measuring the quality of work life. Several research studies have been conducted in the past, the results of which have shown that there are varying factors which affect the quality of work life. These factors are acceptable and reasonable compensation, safe and healthy working conditions, opportunity to use and grow human abilities, prospects for career growth, social incorporation in the work force, constitutionalism in the work organisation, and work and quality of life (Greenberg & Baron, 2000).

2.2.4.2 Organisational Justice

Organisational justice is the study of the fairness that needs to exist in an organisation and how the people perceive it. It is the awareness of fairness according to individuals. “At its most universal level, organisational justice is an extent of psychological
investigation that focuses on insights of fairness in the workplace. It is the psychology of justice functional to organisational settings”. It becomes necessary for organisations to have committed and trustworthy employees, the organisation desires to be fair in its system concerning distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. When employees perceive that they are treated fairly by the organisation in all encounters, they are motivated to display more positive attitudes and increased obligation towards their jobs. There are three types of organisational justice: distributive (fairness of outcomes), procedural (fairness of procedures) and interactional (fairness of relational treatment one obtains from authority figures). Research has established that unfair processes produce negative outcomes in the workplace like low job satisfaction, turnover, low commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998).

2.2.4.3 Job stress

Greenberg and Baron (2000) posit the view that stress is the complex pattern of emotional states, physiological reactions and related thoughts in response to external demands referred to as stressors, and to strain as the accumulated effect of stress, which results primarily in deviations from the normal states or performance and exposure to stressful events. Stressors are “factors that cause people to feel overwhelmed by anxiety, tension and/or pressure” (Lussier, 2009, p. 299). Figure 2.3 provides an insight into the effect that stressors may have on the individual
Stress refers to a state of mental or emotional pressure or strain resulting from hostile or difficult circumstances and can be associated with negative working conditions (Ahmad, Shaid, Huma & Haider, 2012). Individuals that are highly stressed are most likely to experience feelings of job dissatisfaction, increased absenteeism, excessive drinking and recurrent smoking that would impact negatively on the psychological state of mind and reduced ambition and self-esteem. The practice of role perceptions suggests that work-related stress is associated with individual, interpersonal and organisational variables. Stress is costly to organisations in that time is lost from work when employees are absent from work, on courses or training to manage their stress, is reflected in poorer productivity levels, reduced motivation, job skills, turnover, and increased misfortunes. It adds to health costs and contributes to a substantial economic loss for both the employee and the organisation.

It has been proven that employees that experience more job stress are more likely to have the tendency to quit (Ahmad et al., 2012). When the working environment is the
cause of hindering employee performance, it is then referred to as a contributing factor. Therefore, proactive measures for ensuring employee wellness with respect to job stress can help management reduce the turnover rate.

2.2.5 Turnover intentions and job satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been a direct influencing factor associated with employee intention to quit, this is the result and outcome when employees have perceived to be undervalued and receive no support from their managers or supervisors (Pienaar, Sieberhagen & Mostert, 2007).

Job satisfaction contributes largely to turnover in organisations; employees that are more satisfied within their jobs and in their working environments have the tendency to render a longer service at an organisation, whereas employees that are believed to be unsatisfied would look for better working conditions, more favourable and satisfying (Pienaar & Sieberhagen, 2007).

2.2.6 Underlying theories of turnover intention behaviour

2.2.6.1 Human Capital Theory

The fundamental hypothesis of human capital theory is that humans’ learning characteristics are similar to other natural resources that are part of the production process (Becker, 1993). The theory’s origin resides in the work of Adam Smith or William Petty. Yet it was Gary Becker who comprehensively introduced the human capital theory in 1964. The basic tenet of human capital theory pivots around the axial point that not all work is equivalent and that the employees’ eminence can be improved by investing in them (Becker, 1993). According to Becker (1993), education and training is the most significant asset in human capital.
Learning capacity is closely correlated to earning level, it can therefore increase an employees’ income. The income of more educated people is generally above average. The education, practice and skills of a worker have an economic significance for employers and for the economy as a complete entity. In addition, operative employees have to be continuous learners in order to thrive in a progressively universally competitive business environment. Hence occupational income variances refer to the total of investment in human capital (Henneberger & Sousa-Poza, 2007).

2.2.6.2 Matching Theory

Matching Theory relates to a practice where humans or other entities “dispense their behaviour relative to the degree of support for response replacements” (Mace, 1990, p. 197). It provides an understanding around the output and the conclusion of a work agreement when faced with uncertainty. Employees work toward positions which best fit their abilities that compare with suitable compensation. Employers are prone to fill positions, so that they can take full advantage of their benefits (Henneberger & Sousa-Poza, 2002). An employee’s productivity in a specific job is not recognised in advance but rather gives insight on the worker’s level and degree of services increases (Jovanovic, 1979). Therefore the younger generation of employees display an investigational stage at the commencement of their professional life, where they amass some work experience and address their lack of relevant job information. In this context, job flexibility can be understood as an instrument for improving matching failures (Henneberger & Sousa-Poza, 2002).

2.2.6.3 Equity Theory

Equity theory, also known as justice theory, was developed by John Stacey Adams in 1963 and can be considered in job motivational theory. It suggests that individuals
control whether or not the distribution of resources is fair to both relational partners (Brinkmann & Stapf, 2005). In organisations, the Equity theory of employee motivation defines the fair balance to be associated with an employee’s efforts, such as hard work, skill level, tolerance or interest and an employee’s outcomes, such as salary, benefits or intangibles matters. Justice is present, when effort expended and outcomes received are fairly allocated among the contributors, whereas the unbiased criteria of the situation are less significant than the approach, how individuals evaluate the value and the significance of the efforts and productions of the various participants (Brinkmann & Stapf, 2005). Highly motivated employees therefore perceive their rewards to be equivalent to their contributions. Employees will judge to be treated fairly, when they feel that they are working and being compensated at the same rate as their co-workers. It should be highlighted that the person’s evaluation and perception of their relationship with their relational partners differs; hence every employee does not evaluate his/her contributions in the same fashion. According to Leventhal, employees evaluate the fairness of the procedural justice regarding the following standards (Brinkmann & Stapf, 2005, p. 27):

- The procedure must not violate ethical standards.
- The distribution has to be applied constantly over time and people.
- Decisions have to meet the interests of everyone.
- The person, who uses the procedural approach, should not be influenced by self-gain.
- The procedural approach should encompass modification possibilities in order to re-define decisions, for instance in cases where there are disagreements.

Based on the Equity theory, if an employee identifies that the distribution of resources is unfair, then turnover intent will arise.
2.2.6.4 Organisational Equilibrium Theory

Barnard (1938) claimed that “the state of equilibrium of an organisation refers to the capacity and ability to maintain the effectiveness of an organisation” (Mano, 1994, p. 17). Organisations are reliant on the continuity of partakers’ contributions and in order to preserve this, organisations have to propose equitable incentives. Thus Barnard’s explicit development is the decision to participate, in other words “balancing of afflictions by satisfaction which results in continuance” (Barnard, 1938, p. 57).

According to Barnard, if the personal cost is greater than the incentives an individual receives, then the individual will withdraw his deliverables and will leave the company. Simon supplemented Barnard’s theory into the Barnard-Simon Organisational Equilibrium theory, which contributes to Barnard’s observations. Simon contended that the success of organisational equilibrium holds the condition that the totality of contribution of all employees warrants the kinds and quantity of necessary incentives (Mano, 1994).

2.3 PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Perceptions have the ability to alter certain attitudes and relationships because an individual’s opinions and understanding of a particular phenomenon could be formed by his/her perceptions (Lok, Westwood, & Crawford, 2005). Goulder (1960 cited in Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) suggests that employees are more likely to perceive and believe that organisations are supportive if they are able to establish a particular attachment and acknowledgement from the organisation to the employee. Important to acknowledge is that belief according to Aselage and Eisenberger (2003), originates from the employee’s subjective perceptions and internalised opinions and thus the process seems to be more informal than formal. The researchers allege that perceived organisational support is seen as an individual-level concept.
2.3.1 Defining perceived organisational support

The experience of perceived organisational support (POS) which refers the extent to which the organisation values their employees’ contributions and cares about their wellbeing have been used to describe the social exchange relationship between the employer and the employee (Allen et al., 2003). The definition consists of two dimensions. The first dimension refers to an understanding that the organisation values employees’ contributions and these contributions are underpinned by performance-reward expectancies (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The second dimension, a perception that the organisation cares about employee well-being, underlined by the need for fulfilment of socio-emotional needs at work (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Shapiro and Conway (2005) argued that the extent to which employees feel valued by virtue of their contributions, and feel that their best interest and well-being is cared for, is normally accompanied by employees’ increased commitment, loyalty, and work performance. Perceived organisational support has a significant influence on employees’ overall affective reactions to their jobs, including job satisfaction and positive mood; and contributes to job satisfaction by meeting socio-emotional needs (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

Researchers have emphasised and focused their attention on perceived organisational support as a determining factor of turnover (Firth et al., 2003). When employees perceive that there is commitment from their managers and supervisors, in terms of supporting them, a sense of purpose and direction develops which significantly contribute towards reduced turnover. The impact of support from the organisation and supervisors can have a positively significant impact on the prevention of turnover (Yoon & Thye, 2000).
2.3.2 Antecedents of perceived organisational support

In light of the organisational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986), three general categories of perceived favourable actions received from the organisation (i.e., fairness, supervisor support, and organisational rewards and job conditions) should ideally increase POS. Although most studies have assessed the relationship between employees’ perceptions of favourable treatment and POS, a few of the studies reviewed have explored the relationship between personality and POS. Demographic variables are considered as a potential third-variable explanation of relationships between antecedents and POS. Antecedents of perceived organisational support can be grouped into three categories, namely (a) fairness, (b) supervisor support, and (c) organisational rewards and job conditions.

2.3.2.1 Fairness

Procedural justice pertains to the fairness of methods used in the allocation of resources among employees (Greenberg, 1990). Shore and Shore (1995) suggested that repeated instances of fairness in decisions concerning resource distribution should have a strong collective consequence on POS by expressing a concern for employees’ well-being. Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997) explored differences between structural and social aspects of procedural justice. Structural determinants pertain to formal procedures and policy decisions that affect employees, including perceived organisational support. Social aspects of procedural justice, sometimes called interactional justice, address the value of interpersonal treatment in resource distribution. Social influences include treating employees with dignity and respect and providing employees with information concerning how outcomes are established.

Distributive justice is based on the premise that equity theory is more closely related to economic exchange (Loi et al., 2006). Distributive justice leads to POS because there is an exchange of financial reward and compensation for work done by the employee.
for the organisation. This would then highlight the significant relationship between
the perception of fair organisation rewards and compensation and POS (Allen, Shore
& Griffeth, 2003; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Procedural justice, a social exchange phenomenon, gained prominence when research
demonstrated that distributive justice did not adequately encompass the concept of
fairness (Loi et al., 2006). Ambrose and Schminke (2003) found that in organisations
with a mechanistic structure, the positive impact of procedural justice on POS is
stronger than that of interactive or distributive justice. In addition, Shore and Shore
1995 (in Eisenberger et al., 2004) demonstrated that repeated instances of procedural
fairness in decisions have an increasing positive effect on POS. Importantly for
organisational outcomes, POS has proven to completely intercede the relationship
between procedural justice and extra-role behaviour (Moorman et al., 1998 in
Eisenberger et al., 2004).

Interactional justice appears to have a diminutive, positive relationship with POS
(Ambrose & Schminke, 2003). However, this relationship is not significant and
research suggests that interactional justice is more predictive of the quality of
employees’ exchange relationship with their supervisors than with the organisation
(Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Masterson et al., 2000 in Eisenberger et al., 2004).

2.3.2.2 Organisational rewards and job conditions

Organisational rewards and recognition strategies, such as pay and promotion, and
working environment, such as job security and autonomy (Rhoades & Eisenberger,
2002), have a significant positive impact on POS. However, when the working
environment is perceived as discretionary, the impact of POS is up to seven times
greater (Eisenberger et al., 2004).
A strong sense of perceived organisational support will exist when employees know that they have job security and that the organisation intends to preserve the employee’s future with the organisation (Allen., Shore, & Griffeth, 1999). When employees feel that they have autonomy and control over the methods, means, and ways in which their jobs are done such as the scheduling, procedures, task variety and responsibility assumed. Organisations that put their trust in their employees in this regard would increase the level of POS amongst employees (Eisenberger, Rhoades, & Cameron, 1999).

Wayne et al. (1997) conclude that job training is an investment made by the employer at their discretion, which may lead to an increase in POS. When employees feel that the organisation has an interest in their future development and socio-economic well-being in providing long-term opportunities, employees would feel a sense of value and loyalty as a result.

Dekker and Barling (1995) concluded that individuals feel less valued in large organisations, where policies and procedures are highly emphasised that may ease flexibility in addressing employees’ individual needs. Large organisations, as well as small ones can show compassion to groups of employees, to ease flexibility for meeting the needs of individual employees, imparted by formal rules, which could reduce POS.

Human Resource (HR) practices are an important point of reference in terms of communicating and creating awareness around the extent to which the organisation values and cares about the well-being of individuals which are direct indicators of POS (Allen et al., 2003). HR practices have a significant impact on POS when individuals’ development, training initiatives, and growth opportunities in the organisation are taken into consideration (Allen et al., 2003).
2.3.2.3 Perceived Supervisory Support

Perceived organisational support (POS) has a negative relationship with intention to quit and has the ability to lead to job retention at the same time (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). Hay (2002) suggests that employees quit their jobs because of being unhappy with leadership and the manner in which they treat and undervalue staff. Research has shown that it is the second highest contributing factor that leads to high levels of employee turnover; research on perceived supervisory support has, however, brought about indifferent findings. Yoon and Thye (2000) in their study on supervisor support in the workplace, reported that contrary to the overt prominence of the supervisor-employee relationship, little is known about the causes or consequences of having supervisor support.

In evaluating the influence of leaders on individual followers, most researchers tend to emphasise the effects of leaders’ general behaviour or attitudes towards their subordinates. If these behaviours prove to be promoting high-quality relationships, the leaders have an influence on the organisational effectiveness through the effect of those high-quality relationships on extra role behaviours (OCBs) (Ilies, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007). This suggests a positive relationship between perceived supervisory support (PSS) and organisational citizenship behaviour. In the same way, in their study on supervisors and subordinates working in an organisation, Erdogan and Enders (2007) reported that employees with high-quality relationships and interaction with their supervisors are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs than employees with low-quality relationships (i.e. experience greater job satisfaction).

According to Maertz (2007) employees are able to differentiate between relationships with the immediate supervisor from relations with the organisation as a body or its leaders. When this differentiation is established, employees become self-reliantly attached to each focus, and connections to supervisors have distinctive effects on
turnover cognitions. On the other hand, several authors reported that PSS strongly correlates to POS (Eisenberger, 2002; Eisenberger, 2001; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Yoon & Lim, 1999). This occurs when supervisors behave as agents of the organisation in leading and evaluating employees. Subordinates would rather attribute this supportiveness to the organisation's needs to meet their socio-economic needs than to the interest the supervisors may have in meeting their needs, or well-being (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). This statement supports the further investigation of the view that POS and PSS are both dimensions of the perceived support construct.

2.3.3 The impact of immediate managers on Perceived Organisational Support

Employees' relationships with their immediate manager or supervisor play a significant and strong role in influencing POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Management actions that have a direct and positive impact on POS include involving employees in decision-making, including them in privileged communication and recognising their work efforts (Wayne et al., 2002). Support from supervisors improves both the employee-organisation relationship and the employee-manager relationship (Eisenberger et al., 2004). Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenbergh, Sucharski and Rhoades (2002) found that the relationship between Perceived Supervisor Support (which is similar to POS but where the support referent is the direct supervisor) and POS increased with the status accorded to employees by their supervisors. In other words, to the extent that immediate managers are identified with the organisation, they contribute to POS. Perceived employer inducements, as part of the psychological contract, are also antecedents to POS (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005).
2.3.4 Consequences of perceived organisational support

Employees have the expectation that their employers take care of their socio-economic well-being by providing them with a conducive and pleasant working environment allowing for enriching jobs and emotional support (Kickul & Troth, 2003). Employees expect that a mutual relationship of respect exists between employees and the organisation where expectations would be addressed in a reciprocal manner (Kickul et al., 2003). As research suggests, organisations would try to gain the trust and loyalty of employees by providing employees the opportunity of long-term employment, valuing the contributions made and offering a level of emotional support. Employees, in turn, would value the opportunities and resources received from their employers if they are based on the merit that employers wilfully provided these opportunities and resources, and that their actions were not governed or dictated by external parties such as union contracts, company policy and procedures or governmental influences (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Employees appreciate and reciprocate acceptable and forward thinking intentions when they perceive the employers’ intentions to be from a wilful nature as opposed to an agreed, formal arrangement. Employees will reciprocate beneficial actions directed to the organisation as a result, however will retract from their perceived obligations should the organisation withdraw from their discretionary actions; the two parties would exist independently in relation to the behaviour and actions towards one another. Organisations that commit to discretionary actions would foster a workforce where job performance would increase, organisational commitment would be high, and a sense of motivated employees would directly affect the level of job satisfaction, where the exact opposite behaviour such as leaving the organisation would be fostered if there was a lack of perceived organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 2001).
Perceived organisational support is believed to have a positive impact on employees’ affective association to the organisation with the expectation that there would be rewards for better and enhanced work performance (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Perceived organisational support strengthens affective commitment in the course of reciprocation, which will bring forth employees’ felt obligation toward the organisation and this gratitude can be satisfied through an increase in affective commitment. Perceived organisational support fosters a positive sense of affective commitment, believed to have a direct relationship with job satisfaction increasing the performance of standard job activities, and desired actions, which will result in going beyond the required and assigned job responsibilities of employees (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

2.3.4.1 Organisational commitment

Based on the reciprocity norm, Perceived organisational support should produce an intentional responsibility to be concerned about the organisation’s well-being in relation to its growth and profitability (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). Employee responsibility in exchange for responsibility from the organisation ought to develop the employees’ affective commitment. Employees are committed towards an organisation when they perceive that they are being valued and that their socio-economic well-being is taken care of (Foa & Foa, 1980). POS should also develop affective commitment through the satisfaction of socio-economic needs in the form of relationships and emotional support (Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Such need fulfilment creates a strong sense of belonging to and within the organisation, linking the employees’ membership and role status into their social character. POS should therefore enhance an employees’ sense of drive and meaning. Additionally, Shore and Tetrick (1991) advised that POS might reduce feelings of entrapment (i.e., continuance commitment) that occur when employees are forced to stay with an organisation because of the high costs of leaving.
2.3.4.2 Job Related- Affect

Perceived organisational support has been documented to significantly influence employees’ overall affective responses to their job, including job satisfaction and positive mood. Job satisfaction refers to employees’ overall attitude toward their job (Witt, 1991). POS ought to contribute to overall job satisfaction by meeting socio-emotional needs, enhancing performance-reward expectancies, and indicating the availability of assistance when required. Positive mood differs theoretically from job satisfaction in that it encompasses a general emotional being without a definite object (George, 1989). Mood has been found to be a vital component of affectivity, influenced by environmental factors (George & Brief, 1992). POS may influence employees’ feelings of capability and value, therefore as a result enhancing positive mood (Eisenberger et al., 2001; George & Brief, 1992).

2.3.4.3 Job- involvement

Job involvement refers to identification with an interest in a specific field of work that one would ideally want to be associated with (Cropanzano et al., 1997; O’Driscoll & Randall, 1999). Perceived ability has been found to have a direct relationship with task interest (Eisenberger et al., 1999). By enhancing employees’ perceived ability, POS ought to enhance employees’ interest in their work.

2.3.4.4 Performance

Perceived organisational support should enhance performance of regular job actions and engagements that are favourable to the organisation, which go beyond allocated responsibilities. According to George and Brief (1992), these activities go beyond the expected responsibilities, include supporting employees, taking actions that care for
the organisation from risk, offering encouraging recommendations, and acquiring knowledge and skills that are valuable to the organisation.

2.3.4.5 Withdrawal behaviour

Withdrawal behaviour refers to employees’ reduced involvement in an organisation. Employee withdrawal behaviours are any observable behaviours that alter the employees’ level of engagement towards their job in a negative way. The relationship of POS to behavioural intentions to leave (i.e., turnover intention) has been evaluated and suggests that actual behaviours such as tardiness, absenteeism, and voluntary turnover are a reflection and insight into perceptions employees may have about the organisation’s POS towards them. The ability to retain staff, high attendance, commitment to work, and promptness provide overtly identifiable means for employees to return POS. POS should increase affective organisational commitment, and in so doing decrease withdrawal behaviour (e.g., Allen et al., 1999; Aquino & Griffeth, 1999; Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994; Wayne et al., 1997).

There are several types of withdrawal behaviours, of which various consequences would result. These behaviours and consequences negatively impact the organisation, either directly or indirectly. In the same manner, “no employee exists as an island”, it is similarly said that no withdrawal behaviour is an island bearing no on-going consequence. The consequences of the behavioural symptoms may have negative influences and impact as a result. Employees that display behaviours associated with low morale are known to be mentally disconnected from their jobs, which is a concern and call for action to managers in general. Declining morale levels consist of undesirable perceptions and attitudes towards their jobs and/or the organisation, and can entail job discontent, lower levels of commitment or very little interest in the
job. Attitudes such as this can result in stress, breakdown, and intent to quit (Eisenberger et al., 2001; George & Brief, 1992).

2.3.5 Underlying theories of perceived organisational support

2.3.5.1 Organisational Support Theory

Organisational Support Theory is an application of the reciprocity norm to the employee-employer relationships (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The theory suggests that employees should be cognisant of the manner in which they are valued and treated by the organisation, as a means to establish the extent to which the organisation supports and values their contribution of employment (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). The theory further suggests that on the basis of the norm of reciprocity, employees endeavour to meet the organisational goals by providing a high level of support by increasing their performance and commitment levels (Scott, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2013). Organisational Support Theory also suggests that a highly held experience of perceived organisational support premises itself on the idea that the organisation has the socio-economic needs of the employee at heart that would suggest a humane trait to the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Organisational Support Theory seeks to emphasise the psychological consequences of perceived organisational support (Shoss et al., 2013). Eisenberger et al. (2001) emphasise that the caring, approval and respect associated with perceived organisational support positively meets the employees’ socio-emotional needs, which as a result, would foster employees to incorporate membership and role status into their social identity. Furthermore, according to Eisenberger et al. (2001), perceived organisational support has the effect of enhancing and developing employees’ beliefs that organisations do support employees when positive behaviours such as excellent performance and organisational commitment are observable.
When employees are able to identify that these processes have complimentary outcomes both for individual employees (for example, increased job satisfaction and heightened positive behaviour) and for the organisation as a whole (for example, increased affective commitment and performance, and reduced turnover) a greater and consistent sense of commitment will exist between both parties in terms of meeting organisational and individual needs and goals (Eisenberger, Stinglhamer, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades 2002; Rhoades et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

2.3.5.2 Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory suggests that the exchange relationship between two parties often goes beyond economic exchange and includes social exchange. Organisational studies as a result argue that the employer and employee do not merely just exchange impersonal resources of monetary value, but also socio-emotional resources such as acknowledgement, respect, recognition, compensation, and support (Baran, Shanock & Miller, 2012; Dawley, Andrews & Bucklew, 2008).

In organisational research, the social exchange theory, the norm of reciprocity, and the theory of perceived organisational support have been useful in describing the psychological process essential for the enactment of employee attitudes and behaviour. The experience of perceived organisational support (POS) which refers the extent to which the organisation values their employees’ contributions and cares about their wellbeing has been used to describe the social exchange relationship between the employer and the employee (Allen et al., 2003).

The norm of reciprocity suggests that employees who perceive high levels of POS within the organisation will reciprocate positive behaviour and attitudes towards the organisation as a result; positive attitudes such as higher levels of affective
commitment and positive expression of work behaviours such as commitment to organisational goals would encourage a lower intention to leave (Allen et al., 2003).

2.4 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Over the past few decades, organisational commitment has been researched at length and has developed into a topic of ever-increasing significance in the sphere of industrial and organisational psychology (Adzeh, 2013; Chen, Wang, & Sun, 2012; Joo & Park, 2010; Mahembe & Engelbrecht, 2013; Manetjie & Martins, 2009; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Somers, 2009; Tladinyane, 2012). On-going significance in this area of interest has been due to theorised relationships between organisational commitment and employee behaviour such as performance, turnover, employee wellness, and job satisfaction (Farris, 2012; Singh, Bhagat, & Mohanty, 2011).

Research has shown that employee commitment is a vital factor in accomplishing organisational success (Khalili & Asmawi, 2012; Roodt, 2004) with high employee commitment being a prominent feature of world-class businesses (Roodt, 2004). In a highly unstable world of work characterised by change, it has been revealed that committed employees adjust and accept change and changing circumstances more willingly than less committed employees (Suliman & Iles, 2000).

2.4.1 Defining Organisational Commitment

Researchers suggest that despite the lack of consensus on the numerous definitions, conceptualisations and dimensions of organisational commitment, a common topic is shared through all these definitions namely, that organisational commitment is perceived to be a connection or linkage to the organisation.
All definitions according to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), commonly refer to commitment being (i) a steadying and helpful force and (ii) providing course to behaviour (for example, limiting freedom and holding the individual to a course of accomplishment). Organisational commitment, as defined by Miller and Lee (2001), refers to employees’ recognition of organisational goals and their readiness to exercise effort on behalf of the organisation. Organisational commitment can be defined as the strength of an employee’s association with, and participation in the organisation (Curie & Dollery, 2003). Martin and Roodt (2008) suggest that researchers frequently describe organisational commitment as an employee’s psychological connection to the organisation.

Allen and Meyer (1996) define organisational commitment as the psychological connection between the employee and the organisation that reduces an employee’s intention to voluntarily leave the organisation. A committed employee, according to Stander and Rothmann (2008), relates to the organisation, makes individual sacrifices, performs outside normal role duties and expectations, works unselfishly and adds value to the organisation’s general effectiveness. Becker, Randal and Riegel (cited in Tella, Ayeni, & Popoola, 2007) define organisational commitment in terms of three dimensions, namely:

(i) A strong desire to continue as a member of the specific organisation,
(ii) A readiness to exercise high levels of efforts on behalf of the organisation and
(iii) A confidence in and suitability of the standards and objectives of the organisation.

Allen and Meyer (1997) suggest that irrespective of the definition, ‘committed’ employees are more likely to continue in the organisation than ‘uncommitted’ employees. According to the researchers, commitment can accept various methods (in that, the relationship between an employee and the organisation might differ) and committed persons may be committed to dissimilar entities.
2.4.2 Meyer and Allan’s model of organisational commitment

Meyer and Allen’s (1991) three-component model of organisational commitment can be viewed as the leading model in organisational commitment research (Farris, 2012; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Nazari & Emami, 2012; Solinger, Van Olffen, & Roe, 2008; WeiBo, Kaur, & Jun, 2010) and has experienced the most widespread experiential estimation (Krishnaveni & Ramkumar, 2008; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2004). The model was established on the basis of the observation that there were resemblances and variances in the current one-dimensional ideas of organisational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer et al., 2004). The commonalities existing between all the one-dimensional ideas resulted in the understanding that commitment binds an individual to an organisation and decreases his/her intentions to leave the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 2004). The important variances were in the mind-sets supposed to characterise commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) contend that it is essential to differentiate between the dissimilar beliefs that go together with the development of commitment because these beliefs bind an individual to a way of action.

Meyer and Allen (1991) combined attitudinal and behavioural methods of commitment as a means to produce three distinct dimensions. The distinct dimensions or beliefs are described in the three- component model of commitment as affective, continuance and normative, and vary in terms of the connection between employee and organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The affective and normative components replicate employees’ attitudinal characters, whereas the continuance component shows their behavioural positioning (Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1997). Meyer and Allen (1991) contend that the three components replicate (i) a desire (affective commitment), (ii) a responsibility (normative commitment) to continue employment in an organisation. They have confidence in that employees can experience all three forms in changing degrees and that all three components can exercise self-governing (and
possibly interactive) effects on certain behaviour. Figure 2.4 below represents the Meyer and Allen’s (1991) three-component model, illustrating the antecedent and consequence for each component of affective, continuance, and normative organisational commitment.

**Figure 2.4: Meyer and Allen (1991) Three-component model of Organisational Commitment**

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), one of the key reasons for differentiating between the varying forms of organisational commitment was that they have different consequences for behaviour. Although all three methods are inclined to bind employees to the organisation, and as a result relate negatively to turnover, their relationships with other types of work behaviour may be different (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Research by Meyer et al. (2004) contended that affective commitment has the most positive relationship with job performance, organisational citizenship behaviour and attendance, following normative commitment. Continuance commitment tends to be disparate or negatively associated to these behaviours (Meyer et al., 2004).

Theoretical differences exist between the three components of commitment; Meyer and Allen (1991) also propose that affective, normative and continuance commitment will possibly progress as the result of dissimilar causes or experiences, and have different consequences for on-the-job behaviour and turnover.

2.4.2.1 Affective Commitment

The development of affective commitment is built on the exchange principle – individuals commit themselves to the organisation for the purpose of gaining rewards received or the penalties avoided (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Affective or emotional attachment to the organisation is the most dominant factor describing organisational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Affective commitment refers to work-related attitudes that entail a positive emotional state towards the organisation (Morrow, 1993). Affective commitment according to Heery and Noon (2001) is when an employee continues to stay in a particular organisation because the values and the objectives resonate with the individual’s personal values. Meyer and Allen (1997) declare that affective commitment is the employee’s connection to, identification with and participation in the organisation. This kind of commitment causes organisational members to continue working for the organisation because they have a sense of loyalty towards the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991).
Farzad, Nahavandi and Caruana (2008) conclude that employees with strong affective commitment continue with the organisation because they see their goals and values to be aligned with that of the organisation. In the same way, Shahnawaz and Juyal (2006) suggest that affective commitment describes an alignment that employees feel between their organisation and their personal value system and desires. According to Beck and Wilson (2000), employees who are committed on the affective phase continue with the organisation because they perceive their individual employment relationship as compatible to the goals and values of the organisation. Liou (2008) contends that when employees shows affective commitment, they are likely to advance the operative characteristics of the organisation. Additionally, such developments include greater satisfaction and participation, as well as increases in job performance. Meyer and Allen (1997) add that if behaviours of good citizenship become more observable, turnover rates will decrease, and employees have more opportunities to develop leadership skills.

According to Meyer and Allen (1997), affective commitment is probably the most desired form of commitment and the one that organisations are most likely to encourage in their employees because it encompasses employees having an emotional connection to the organisation. Manetjie and Martins (2009) conclude that respondents who are affectively committed to the organisation, are more enthusiastic to uphold their relationship with the organisation than those who display normative and continuance commitment. However, other researchers (Farris, 2012; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Somers, 2010) highlight the necessity to foster numerous organisational commitment forms as opposed to only concentrating on affective commitment. Farris (2012) suggests that the best model for foreseeing job satisfaction results from applying all three forms of commitment. Based on their
research findings, Sinclair, Tucker, Cullen and Wright (2005) contend that profiles or arrangements of affective and continuance commitment may lead to improved performance than just considering commitment forms independently.

It has been recommended (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997) that the antecedents of affective attachment to the organisation form part of the following three categories: personal characteristics (which comprise of demographic variables as well as dispositional variables such as personality and values), work experiences and organisational physical characteristics. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), evidence has been delivered for work experience antecedents, predominantly those experiences that achieve employees’ psychological needs to feel contented in the organisation and capable in the work role. Job characteristics (such as job challenge, job role and degree of autonomy) also have strong relationships with affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Relationships between demographic variables and affective commitment are neither strong nor consistent (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). Research suggests that gender and affective commitment are isolated, while research studies suggest that age and affective commitment are inadequately related (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In terms of organisational physical characteristics, positive correlations have been established between beliefs of equality of policies presented in organisations and affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). Guerrero and Herrbach (2009) reported a significant relationship between perceived organisational support and affective commitment.

The contributions of affective commitment are of paramount significance to organisations because Meyer and Allen (1997) found that employees with strong affective commitment feel emotionally committed to the organisation, and will have a greater level of motivation or aspiration to contribute profoundly to the organisation.
compared to that of an employee with weak affective commitment. Janet, Cadwallader and Busch (2008) concluded that a significant correlation exists between motivation and affective commitment.

Flu, Bolander and Jones (2009) established that affective commitment has a positive and direct effect on sales effort. Janet et al. (2008) found a noteworthy relationship between employee affective commitment, performance development and the success of change employment. Labatmediene, Endriulaitiene, and Gustainiene’s (2007) study shows that affective commitment is the key predictor of intention to leave.

Meyer and Allen (1997) highlight the significance of person-job fit. They hypothesise that when an individual’s wants, values and characters are compatible with his/her job, it will affect his/her affective commitment. McDonald and Makin (2000) highlight the role of individuals’ met prospects in terms of the organisation, that is, the psychological contract. Affective commitment is pertinent to this study because it may help to regulate employees’ feelings of connection to the organisation.

2.4.2.2 Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment is derived from Becker’s (1960) side bet theory. According to the theory, commitment takes place when a person making a side bet, associates irrelevant interests with a reliable line of movement (Becker et al., 1995). It can be described as the assumed price an individual links with leaving an organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Employees that experience continuance commitment continue with an organisation because they feel obliged to (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Meyer and Allen (1997) report that continuance commitment refers to the degree to which the employee feels a sense of commitment towards the organisation. Greenberg and Baron (1997) define continuance commitment as the degree to which an employee feels they should continue working for an organisation. In these conditions,
employees would be alarmed about what they may lose in terms of retirement funds, and knowledge acquired should they choose to leave the organisation and change jobs. Döckel, Basson and Coetzee (2006) agree that continuance commitment refers to the employee’s supposed sacrifices related with ending, such as losing one’s title or pension benefits, which results from leaving the organisation.

According to Herscovitch and Meyer (2002), employees who are happy with their jobs but are not committed towards the organisation, are more likely to become distant from the organisation, possibly through absence or through quitting their jobs. According to Swailes (2002), employees with continuance commitment may perform only as required in order to keep their jobs. Continuance commitment can grow as a consequence of any accomplishment or occurrence that heightens the costs of leaving the organisation, on condition that the employee identifies that these costs have been acquired (Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1997). In their three-component model of organisational commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) concluded that these actions and events in terms of two sets of antecedent variables: investments and alternatives.

According to Becker (1960), the possibility that employees will continue to stay with the organisation will be positively associated with the size and number of side bets they recognise and the number of profitable choices. Like investments, the lack of employment options also escalates the apparent costs associated with leaving the organisation (Wasti, 2005). Employees who perceive that they have a number of alternatives will have weaker continuance commitment than those who perceive they have fewer alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Continuance commitment is related to advanced levels of investment on the job and is returned, for example, in tenure (Meyer et al., 1993). Continuance commitment escalates as organisational and positional tenure escalates (Allen & Meyer, 1997). Insights of changes can also be influenced by preceding job search attempts; whether
various other organisations have attempted to recruit the employee and the degree to which family influences the employee’s capability to relocate (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Earlier research has linked continuance commitment with opposing organisational results, such as employee intention to leave the organisation (Labatmediene et al., 2007; O’Donnell, Jayawardana, & Jayakody, 2012). Meyer et al. (2002) have established in their research study that continuance commitment is negatively associated with turnover intention. They propose that organisations trying to reduce turnover intention ought to possibly increase continuance commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Continuance commitment is related to this study because it may assist in determining employees’ intention to work for the organisation or not.

2.4.2.3 Normative Commitment

Normative commitment refers to an employee’s feelings of responsibility or onus to remain with an organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1997). Employees assume organisational goals and values to such a degree that they become committed to the organisation since they have confidence that it is the ethically right thing to do (Allen & Meyer, 1990). According to Roodt (2004), normative commitment to the organisation matures on the basis of a collection of challenges that employees may feel throughout their initial socialisation (from family and culture) and through their socialisation as beginner in the organisation. Wasti and Can (2008) are of the view that the sense of obligation to continue with an organisation might result from the internalisation of normative challenges exercised on an employee preceding into the organisation (familial/cultural socialisation) or subsequent to entering the organisation.

Employees stay committed to an organisation because they feel it is the ethical and ‘moral’ thing to do (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Meyer and Parfyonova (2009) also point out that normative commitment could mature when an organisation offers the
employee some ‘rewards in advance’ (for example, paying education fees) or if the organisation experiences costs in providing employment, such as, costs related to the training of the employee. Normative commitment, as defined by Felfe and Yan (2009), refers to the level to which an employee is psychologically committed to the employing organisation through the internalisation of its goals, values and missions. It varies from affective commitment since it reflects a sense of responsibility, and obligation, or calling to work in the organisation but not essentially an emotional connection.

The model of commitment developed by Meyer and Allen (1990) recognises a relationship between the above mentioned methods and indicates that it has an effect on turnover. Two factors according to Wasti and Can (2008) that have an effect on the advancement of normative commitment are (1) the role of socialisation as well as (2) the receiving of an advantage that will force an employee to somewhat stay committed to the organisation than leave.

A possible antecedent for normative commitment is the psychological agreement between the individual and the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The psychological agreement creates either a transactional or interpersonal employee obligation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). A transactional psychological agreement is founded on economic exchange (for example, a readiness to work overtime in exchange for extra compensation), though an interpersonal psychological agreement is based on social exchange (for example, loyalty to the employer in exchange for job security) (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Normative commitment to the organisation has been positively associated with work behaviours such as job performance, work attendance and organisational citizenship behaviour (Döckel et al., 2006). It is replicated in more favourable work practices and to an overall sense of responsibility to others (Meyer et al., 2004), as well as more pro-social and citizenship behaviours (Allen & Meyer, 1996).
Normative commitment is relevant to this study because it may help to establish employees’ sense of obligation and responsibility towards the organisation.

2.4.3 Consequences of Organisational commitment

Maxwell and Steele (2003) are of the view that a consequence of understanding the experiences of organisational commitment and intentionally managing it to secure employee commitment translates to heightened performance in organisations. For an organisation to function appropriately, it depends on employees to perform in such a manner that they surpass their role descriptions (Maxwell & Steele, 2003). Sutherland and Jordaan (2004) consider behavioural intentions and actual behaviours as consequences of organisational commitment. Numerous consequences of commitment have been investigated, some of which are explored below.

2.4.3.1 Job Satisfaction

Research conducted by Kim, Leong and Lee (2005) within the hospitality industry indicated that customers discovered lower levels of job satisfaction, but higher levels of organisational commitment. According to Popoola (2005), the relationship between higher affective commitment and job satisfaction might influence the employee’s intention to leave the organisation.

Alternatively, a sample of academic and support staff reported a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (McWatts, 2005). Fu et al.’s (2009) research study emphasized that affective and normative commitment reflected a more significant relationship with job satisfaction, whilst continuance commitment presented no significant effect on job satisfaction.
Research indicates that there is a significant relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004). According to Maharaj, Ortlepp and Stacey (2002), managers who were dedicated to the organisation because of the development of profitable skills, with mentally stimulating jobs, demanding work, and skills development, displayed less intention to leave feelings. The results of the study indicate that committed employees had the least intention to quit where career advancement had been experienced (Maharaj et al., 2002).

In an investigation into respondents’ intent to stay, continuance rather than affective commitment was reported as important in the decision in staying with the organisation (Birt, Wallis, & Winternitz, 2004). Abbot, White, and Charles (2005) suggest that it is affective commitment rather than normative commitment, and continuance commitment that act as a safeguard alongside intentions to leave the organisation. The research study conducted in a call centre publicized that organisational commitment may lessen the possibility of employee separation from an organisation (Davids, 2004). The author supports that this outcome of the research may be a result of an employee’s perception and classification with the organisations values and goals.

A South African study by Vallabh and Donald (2001) found that the relationship between organisational commitment and intention to leave to be significant and negative for both White and Black managers. However, the relationship was higher for Black managers (Vallabh & Donald, 2001). Organisational commitment has in fact been identified to be significantly associated with the possibility of the intention to emigrate (Miller, Haskell, & Thatcher, 2002). A longitudinal field study conducted by Neininger, Lehmann-Willenbrock, Kauffeld and Henschel (2010) suggests that
organisational commitment heightens job satisfaction and minimises turnover intention (and that these effects increase over time). According to Lok and Crawford (2004), when employees experience dissatisfaction in the work place, they tend to be less committed and will most likely seek employment elsewhere with the intention to leave an organisation. Law (2005) supports the view that affective commitment is the most important factor of organisational commitment in assuming turnover intention.

In light of the foregoing discussion the following hypotheses were postulated to guide the study and included as part of a conceptual model depicted in Figure 2.5.

Hypothesis 1: POS negatively affects turnover intention
Hypothesis 2: POS positively affects organisational commitment
Hypothesis 3: Organisational commitment negatively affects turnover intention

These hypotheses are translated into the following conceptual model:

Figure 2.5
Proposed PLS Path Model
This chapter discussed the theoretical conceptualisation of perceived organisational support, organisational commitment and turnover intention. The intention of the literature review was to highlight the importance of these aspects within an organisation. The theoretical definitions of the variables used in the study have been provided as well as the arguments leading to the postulation of the hypotheses guiding the study.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter focuses on addressing how the research problem was investigated. The chapter serves to establish the framework of the research methodology employed in the investigation of the influence of perceived organisational support, organisational commitment and turnover intention. It provides a summary of the research design used to investigate the research hypotheses. The population, sampling method and characteristics of the sample are also discussed in this chapter. Furthermore, the data gathering instruments (that is, the Biographical questionnaire and Survey of Perceived Organisational Support, Turnover Intentions questionnaire and Organisational Commitment Questionnaire), data collection procedure, statistical analysis methods and ethical considerations also are outlined.

3.2 Research design

A quantitative design was adopted for this study. The quantitative research design entails examining relationships among variables numerically using a variety of statistical techniques (Sekaran, 2003). It is associated with the positivism metatheory which studies participants’ reality based on objective methods used in the natural sciences. The quantitative design is deductive in nature as it seeks to test a theory using empirical data (Sauders et al., 2012). The advantage of utilising this approach is that it is cost effective and less time consuming than qualitative methods. However, quantitative research measures do not provide in-depth information. Furthermore,
respondents may give inaccurate information or responses that are biased and socially desirable. The quantitative design makes use of closed ended questionnaires.

Sekaran (2003, p. 233) states that a questionnaire is defined as “a pre - formulated written set of questions to which respondents record their answers usually within rather closely defined alternatives”. Denzin and Lincoln (2002) maintain that there are advantages associated with the use of questionnaires:

- The cost per questionnaire is relatively low.
- The structured information in the questionnaire and few open questions makes analysing questionnaires relatively straightforward.
- Questionnaires give respondents extended time to formulate accurate responses.
- The questionnaire method of data collection produces quick results.
- The questionnaire method is a stable, consistent and uniform method of collecting data.

3.3. Hypotheses of the study

After an in-depth literature review, a theoretical model was developed. Figure 3.1 illustrates the theoretical model that depicts the specific hypothesised causal linkages between perceived organisational support (POS), organisational commitment and intention to quit.

In order to test the validity of the postulated relationships in the structural model, the following specific research hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1: POS negatively affects turnover intention
Hypothesis 2: POS positively affects organisational commitment
Hypothesis 3: Organisational commitment negatively affects turnover intention
These hypotheses are translated into the following conceptual model:

Figure 3.1

*Proposed PLS Path Model*

3.4. Sampling and research participants

3.4.1 Population

Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006) define a population as the large pool from which the sampling elements are drawn, and to which the findings will be generalized. It comprises all the elements that make up the unit of analysis. The population for this particular study comprised of the 900 employees from the Higher Education sector in the Western Cape. Only 140 participants responded.

3.4.2 Sample size

According to Terre Blanche et al. (2006, p. 133), sampling is “in turn compiled from and ideally represents a larger group, referred to as a population; a sample is therefore those units or elements that are included into a study.” According to Sekaran (2003, p. 266), sampling is “the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the
population so that a study of the sample and an understanding of its properties or characteristics would make it possible to generalize such properties or characteristics to the population elements.”

The sample consisted of mostly female participants (62.1%). The predominant age groups of the sample were between were 51 and above (34.3 %) and 31-39(25.7%). The highest qualification obtained by most of the participants was a post-graduate degree -51.4%. Regarding years of service the majority have been working for over 10 years (27.1%).

3.4.3 Sampling procedure

Sampling is broadly categorised into two types namely, probability and non-probability sampling (Saunders et al., 2012; Sekaran, 2003). Probability sampling involves the random selection of participants, hence every participant has an equal chance of being selected. Conversely, non-probability sampling does not involve random sampling as a result there is no guarantee that each participant has a known probability of being included in the study.

For the purpose of the current study, non- probability sampling was used centred on the method of convenience. According to Terre Blanche (2006, p. 139), non- probability refers to “any kind of sampling where the selection of elements is not determined by the statistical principle of randomness, researchers often use a convenience sample of individuals who volunteer to participate in the research.” The advantage that comes with utilising the convenience sampling method is that it is a cost-effective method, as well as the fact that it is less time consuming as getting willing participants may be a tedious procedure. It does, however, come with its disadvantages in that the
researcher would be limited to its confined generalizability especially in lieu of the higher chances of sampling error (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

The data collection procedure is a vital part of the research design, as the manner in which the data is collected could have a major impact on the rigour and effectiveness of the research investigation (Sekaran, 2003). It is important that with a good theoretical base, a sound methodical design is selected and implemented.

Before commencing the data collection procedure and distributing the questionnaires, permission was obtained from the Management of the institutions used in the study as well as the university’s research committee. Once permission was granted, the questionnaires were personally delivered to the research site. Each participant received a questionnaire comprising of an information sheet, biographical section and the instruments measuring POS, Organisational commitment and Turnover intentions. The questionnaire contained some information pertaining to the rationale of the study and basic instructions on successfully completing the questionnaire were provided on the information sheet.

With regard to the questionnaire administrative procedures, the questionnaires were personally delivered to the employees. In terms of collection, the questionnaires were personally collected from the participants. A total of 140 questionnaires were returned. It is important to note that during the data collection procedure it was made clear that participation was voluntary, and that all information would be treated with confidentiality and anonymity. The main purpose was to remove all possible fears from the respondents regarding potential traceability and victimisation.
3.6. Measuring instruments

For the purpose of the current research study, a questionnaire was considered appropriate as a data gathering instrument. Section A of the questionnaire comprised of the demographic information. This section included the following personal information of individual staff members:

- Gender
- Age
- Tenure (years of service)
- Level of education
- Post level

Section B comprised of the three instruments used to measure POS, commitment and turnover intentions.

3.6.1 Turnover Intentions Questionnaire

The Turnover Intentions Questionnaire was used to elicit data on employee’s intent to exit the organisation.

3.6.1.1 Nature and Composition of the Turnover Intentions Questionnaire

Turnover intentions has been addressed to a large degree, there is however a requirement to officially validate scales to characterise turnover cognitions (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Numerous researchers have utilised only one item to evaluate turnover intentions (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). The approach to use single-item indicators to measure turnover cognitions is criticized as construct validity is unknown (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). As a result, this study made use of The Turnover Intentions Questionnaire developed by Roodt (2004) which consists of 14 items. The items are...
measured on a seven point intensity response scale anchored at extreme poles (example, 1=“never/to no extent/low/always” - low intensity, to 7 = “most of the times/to a large extent/ high/ always” - high intensity).

3.6.1.2 Psychometric properties of the Turnover Intentions Questionnaire

Du Plooy and Roodt (2013) conducted a study on 2429 employees from a large South African Information and Communication Technologies sector organisation and established a Cronbach alpha score of 0.80 for their research study. Two earlier studies (Jacobs, 2005; Martin, 2007) showed Roodt’s (2004) questionnaire to be both reliable ($\alpha = .913$ and $\alpha = .895$ respectively) and empirically valid.

Jacobs and Roodt, (2008) conducted a research study regarding the expansion of a predictive model of turnover intentions for a sample of 500 nursing employees and also found a Cronbach alpha score of 0.913 for the scale, representing an acceptable reliability. A Cronbach Alpha of 0.70 or higher is considered satisfactory according to Cortina (1993). Jacobs (2005), in addition, found that a high degree of similarity exists between the items in the questionnaire and that it has construct validity.

Jacobs (2005) posits that the Turnover Intentions Questionnaire has construct validity. First and second level factor analyses were conducted by Jacobs (2005) and he found that two factors and one factor emerged respectively. The researcher posits that the emergence of one factor constituting 85% of the variance is a significantly high factor load representing the existence of a single construct namely, Turnover Intentions Questionnaire. Researchers, therefore postulate that the instrument has construct validity.
3.6.2 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

3.6.2.1 Nature and Composition of the Organisational commitment questionnaire

Organisational commitment can be defined as a belief in as well as the acceptance of an organisation’s value system, and goals; it also pertains to a desire that an individual may have instilled within them to apply efforts on behalf of the organisation and lastly a need to sustain a good/ pleasing relationship with the organisation and within Mowday, et al.’s (1982, p. 27).

The questionnaire consists of 15 items in relation to employee (s) / individual’s belief and adherence of the value system and beliefs of the organisation. Furthermore it also seeks to address the employee (s) need to be part of the organisation as well as to maintain some form or level of membership in the organisation. The scoring procedure proceeds in that the results acquired by the questionnaire are totalled up after which the total is divided by 15 to get to a summary indicator of organisational commitment.

Six items are typically negatively phrased and reverse scored, thus as a means to eradicate any form of bias in response (Mowday et al., 1982).

3.6.2.2 Reliability and Validity of the OCQ

The reliability estimates of this scale are found by Meyer and Allen (1997) to have internal consistencies with the dimensions varying between 0.85 for affective, 0.79 for continuance and 0.73 for normative. The overall reliability estimates exceed 0.79 (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Based on a study conducted amongst three hundred and eighty five Hong Kong employees across two samples, results of the self-administered
questionnaire suggest that the reliability of the three subcomponents are acceptably high as they were all found to be above 0.60 (Siu, 2003).

DeNicolis, Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino and Rosner (2005) utilised the organisational commitment questionnaire on a sample of teachers employed at an elementary, middle, and high schools in Northern New Jersey and the New York Metropolitan area. The authors, after conducting an exploratory factor analysis, established that the organisational commitment scale loaded on the three commitment sub components providing support for the internal consistency which was found to be 0.83.

In a sample of 102 chartered accountants, the internal reliability for the tool was established to be 0.80, with the subscales affective and normative commitment producing scores of 0.83 and 0.70 individually (Maharaj, 2006). The author posits that the reliability for the sub components and the total scale is acceptable. Vandenberghe and Tremblay (2008) found reliability scores reaching from 0.87 and 0.84 for affective commitment, 0.89 and 0.91 for normative commitment and 0.83 and 0.84 for continuance commitment for the two samples that were evaluated. In a study conducted by Iun and Huang (2007), the authors used the eight item affective commitment sub component to assess the influence of organisational commitment on older employees and found a coefficient alpha of 0.77.

Construct validity of the dimensions of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire is based on the fact that they relate as predicted with the suggested antecedent variables (Meyer & Allen, 1997). This delivers initial proof that this questionnaire is a valid measure for organisational commitment. Allen and Meyer (1990) found evidence of convergent validity between the full commitment construct and affective commitment and discriminant validity in investigating the relationship between continuance commitment and the full scale. Chen and Francesco (2003) found
affective and normative commitment to be different constructs. The researchers’ view is that the instrument demonstrates adequate evidence for discriminant validity. Results from a study into the validity of Allen and Meyer’s (1990) three component model with a sample of 226 employees in China, found evidence for discriminant validity of the commitment scale (Cheng & Stockdale, 2003).

3.6.3 Perceived Organisational Support Questionnaire

3.6.3.1 Nature and Composition of the Perceived Organisational Support Questionnaire

A shortened version of Eisenberger et al.’s (1986) 36-item SPOS measured employee perceptions of the extent to which the organisation supports them. Organisational support, in this measuring instrument, is defined as the extent to which the organisation values its employees’ contribution and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). A literature review revealed no other measuring instrument for POS, necessitating the use of the SPOS. Examples of SPOS items include, “The organisation is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability” and, “Help is available from the organisation when I have a problem”. While several shorter versions of the SPOS exist, this study used the 17-item survey. These items were the 17 highest-loading items on the original 36-item SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1986). As for the WTS, questions were answered using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). However, unlike the WTS, some of the 87 items were negatively worded and therefore had to be reverse-scored. Examples of reverse scored items are, “If the organisation could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary, it would do so” and, “The organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me”.

According to Fields (2002), the 17-item SPOS consists of eight questions measuring the degree to which employees believe the organisation values their contribution and nine
questions measuring the degree to which employees believe the organisation cares for their well-being. However, Fields (2002) does not indicate which of the items are intended to measure which dimension.

3.6.3.2 Psychometric properties of the Perceived Organisational Support Questionnaire

Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses have established high internal reliability for the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Cronbach alpha values for all of the versions of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support were above $\alpha = .70$ (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Fields, 2002; Harris et al., 2007; Ladebo, 2009; Worley, Fuquo, & Hellman, 2009) indicating that it has adequate reliability for use.

However, in Worley et al.’s (2009) analysis of the 36, 16, 8 and 3-item measures, there was a significant variance between the three-item survey and the others. In order of highest to lowest number of items, the Cronbach alpha values were $\alpha = .96$, $\alpha = .95$, $\alpha = .93$ and $\alpha = .81$ (Worley et al., 2009). This result led researchers to determine that there would be inferences for the validity of the three-item measure and the use of the three-item version is not admissible. Worley et al.’s (2009) analysis of four versions of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support showed that these versions have significant convergent validity.

Studies of the 17-item version of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support resulted in Cronbach alpha values of between $\alpha = .74$ and $\alpha = .95$ (Fields, 2002). Although the 36-item survey has been presented to have the highest reliability at $\alpha = .96$, the 17-item survey has been proven to have very similar reliability at $\alpha = .95$. Therefore, the 17-item survey was selected for expediency, with insignificant loss of reliability.
3.7 Ethical considerations

In conducting this study no harm was intended to occur to any of the participants involved; both psychologically and physically. The privacy of the participants was ensured at all times, and no information was disclosed without the prior permission of the participants. The respondents were made fully aware of the limitations of this study. Furthermore, no participant was forced to participate in the study. The confidentiality and anonymity of participants was ensured throughout the study. The participants were not required to write down their names on the questionnaire, thus remaining anonymous. Confidentiality was maintained by guarding the participants’ interests and well-being through the protection of their identity from unauthorised parties. Anonymity concerns the ethical protection that participants remain nameless, their identity is protected from disclosure and remains unknown (Neuman, 2000).

Furthermore, the analysis and reporting of the data was reported to the readers as well as the participants. In addition, the shortcomings, limitations and failures of this research investigation were reported.

3.8 Statistical Techniques

3.8.1 Missing values

Before analysing the data the problem of missing values needs to be addressed. Missing data is usually a common occurrence when self-reporting instruments such as questionnaires are used. Missing data usually occurs as a result of respondents failing to respond to certain questions due to a variety of reasons as well as refusing to respond on the part of the participants (Mels, 2003; Williams, 2015). The missing values problem can have a significant effect on the conclusions drawn from the data. The multiple imputation method is usually the preferred method of addressing missing values as it does not result in a significant reduction in sample size – it replaces missing values with averages calculated from complete cases on a variable.
3.8.2 Item analysis

Item analysis was conducted on all the measures that were developed or obtained from stipulated scores. All the scales and sub-scales were put through item-analysis using the SPSS Reliability procedure (this may only be conducted for the Personal resilience and change questionnaire). This ensured that only items that contribute to the internal consistency of the scale are included. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted using SPSS in order to conduct a uni-dimensionality test thus to ensure there is a uni-dimensionality of each scale and subscale. Items that did not have a satisfactory factor loading were removed.

For this study, the item analysis was executed using the reliability analysis procedure available in the SPSS version 23 which calculated and generated the Cronbach alpha value, item-total correlation statistics and inter-item correlation statistics. Nunnally’s (1967) guidelines were used to determine levels of reliability for the scales as indicated in Table 3.1. An item is excluded from further analyses if it has an item-total correlation value less than 0.30 and would result in a considerable increase in the scale internal consistency when removed (Pallant, 2010). In this research study no items were deleted.

Table 3.1

*General guidelines for interpreting reliability coefficients*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability coefficient value</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.9 and above</td>
<td>excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.80 – 0.89</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.70 – 0.79</td>
<td>adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>below 0.70</td>
<td>may have limited applicability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Nunnally, 1967, p. 206)
Exploratory factor (EFA) analysis is a statistical technique or approach that is commonly used in social sciences to explore the interrelationships among a set of variables (Costello & Osborne, 2005). EFA is a technique used to reduce a smaller set of summary variables and to explore the underlying theoretical structure of the phenomenon. Therefore, the researcher only explores the key constructs to produce a theoretical model or theory from a fairly large set of latent constructs usually characterised as items (Williams, Brown & Osman, 2012).

The purpose of EFA is to remove any latent variables that cause manifested variables to differ in the same time period (Costello & Osborne, 2005). The objective of conducting a dimensionality analysis to examine if the subscales are unidimensional. Items with an inadequate factor loading are removed. It is also a vital step before the creation of item parcels since item parcels should be created using uni-dimensional scales or subscales.

The following guidelines were followed to determine which items to extract and which items to include when conducting the EFA:

- factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or more are retained for further investigation and will not be extracted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996);
- if an item results in an item-total correlation of less than 0.30 on any factor, it means that the item is measuring something different from the scale as a whole. Therefore the item was excluded (Fields, 2005);
- an item loading less than 0.30 on more than one factor would be excluded if the difference between the higher and the lower loading was 0.25 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996); and
- Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO index) cut-off value used in this research study was 0.70. According to Kaiser (as cited in Fields, 2005),
2005), values greater than 0.50 are acceptable, values between 0.50 and 0.70 are mediocre, and values between 0.70 and 0.80 are good. Furthermore, values between 0.80 and 0.90 are great and values above 0.90 are superb (Fields, 2005).

3.8.4 The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient

According to Sekaran (2003) the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient indicates the direction of the relationship between commitment and perceived organisational support and the independent variables as well as the strength and magnitude of that relationship. Roberts (2005, p. 71) states that “the sign of a correlation coefficient (+ or -) indicates the direction between -1.00 and +1.00. Variables may be positively and negatively correlated”.

Since the study attempts to describe and discuss the relationship between the different dimensions of organisational commitment and perceived organisational support questionnaires, as well as the relationship between the biographical variables and commitment and perceived organisational support, the Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, is therefore suitable for this study.

3.8.5 Structural equation modelling (SEM): Partial Least Squares (PLS)

The SEM technique was used to establish the relationship that exists amongst the variables. SEM contains a large number of models which can be utilised to evaluate consistency of theories and scales of data. The SEM is based on two approaches hard-based modelling and the soft modelling. In this particular research the soft-modeling approach was applied. The soft modelling approach is a variance based approach and the purpose of the approach is based on prediction. The Partial Least Squares (PLS) form part of the variance based approach. PLS-SEM is a causal modeling approach aimed at maximizing the explained variance of the dependent latent constructs (Hair,
Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, p. 139). PLS allows for the analysis of smaller sample size and allows the detection of pathways between, hence it appealed to this study as the sample size was too small to be analysed by other sophisticated tools like LISREL and SPSS.

Roux (2010, p. 64) refers to the Partial least squares (PLS), as a family of alternating least squares algorithms, or “prescriptions” which extend principal component and canonical correlation analysis. PLS has been viewed with less favourable perception in literature as it is considered to be a less vigorous analytical tool when examining relationships of variables. Another view by researchers who have become more familiar with PLS consider it to be, a “silver bullet” or panacea for dealing with empirical research challenges such as smaller sample sizes (Marcoulides & Saunders 2006; Sosik, Kahai, & Piovoso 2009 as cited in Hair et al, 2011). The motivation of making use of PLS included:

- Its ability to deal with empirical research challenges such as smaller sample sizes (Marcoulides & Saunders 2006; Sosik, Kahai, & Piovoso 2009).
- PLS-SEM often provides more robust estimations of the structural model (e.g., Lohmöller 1989; Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler 2009; Wold 1982).
- PLS path modeling can be used when distributions are highly skewed (Bagozzi, 1994).
- The primary objective is to maximize explained variance in the dependent constructs at the same time evaluating the data quality on the basis of measurement model characteristics (Hair et al., 2011, p. 140).

The PLS criteria is based on its two way process model, which is made up of the inner and the outer model. The inner model is seen to represent the context—which shows the relationships (paths) between the latent constructs (Hair, et al, 2011). The outer or measurement model on the other hand, includes the unidirectional predictive
relationships between each latent construct and its associated observed indicators (Hair et al, 2011, p. 141). The PLS model can look into both the reflective and formative indicators which can reveal the estimated reliability and validity of variables. Hair et al, proposes that unlike Cronbach’s alpha, composite reliability does not assume that all indicators are equally reliable, making it more suitable for PLS-SEM, which prioritizes indicators according to their reliability during model estimation. (2011, p. 145). The Composite reliability values of 0.60 to 0.70 in exploratory research and values from 0.70 to 0.90 in more advanced stages of research are regarded as satisfactory (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

3.9 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The chapter provides a description of the research design, including the sample used, the method of data collection is also presented, data gathering instruments are discussed and the related reliability and validity of the Perceived organisational support, Organisational commitment and Turnover Intention Questionnaires are highlighted. The chapter concludes with an explanation of the statistical techniques utilized to test the hypotheses.
This chapter starts with addressing the missing values problem, next item analyses and dimensional analysis and concludes with the presentation of the confirmatory factor analyses and structural equation modelling results.

4.2 MISSING VALUES

Missing values is the process of participants in the study that have neglected to respond to certain items in the questionnaire arising for various reasons; therefore prior to any form of analysis taking place, the possibility of any missing data should be resolved. Multiple imputations, by means of which missing data was resolved, constituted the preferred approach. All 140 cases were retained due to low levels of missing values.
4.3 ITEM ANALYSIS

For the purpose of this study, item analysis was performed using SPSS. The objective for conducting an item analysis was to identify items that were not contributing to the internal regularity of the variables being evaluated by subscales used in the various instruments utilised.

4.3.1 Item Analysis of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

An adapted version of the Allen and Meyer (1997) version of the Organisational Commitment Scale was used to measure organisational commitment within the selected organisations. The self-report instrument had 15 items measuring 3 subscales.

4.3.1.1 Affective Commitment

The reliability coefficient for affective commitment is 0.760 which is acceptable (see Table 4.1). Furthermore, the corrected item-total correlations were above 0.30 for all items indicating that the items measured the same total scale factor. A decision was made to exclude item OCQ3. Although OCQR4 reflected below 0.30, it was not excluded as it did not have a significant influence on the Cronbach Alpha.
Table 4.1

Reliability output for the affective commitment subscale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Squared Multiple Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OCQ1</td>
<td>21.20</td>
<td>23.997</td>
<td>.484</td>
<td>.290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ2</td>
<td>21.21</td>
<td>23.088</td>
<td>.587</td>
<td>.398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ3</td>
<td>21.83</td>
<td>26.956</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ7</td>
<td>21.54</td>
<td>23.761</td>
<td>.519</td>
<td>.304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQR4</td>
<td>21.86</td>
<td>26.951</td>
<td>.246</td>
<td>.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQR5</td>
<td>21.15</td>
<td>23.593</td>
<td>.550</td>
<td>.478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQR6</td>
<td>21.34</td>
<td>23.403</td>
<td>.557</td>
<td>.450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQR8</td>
<td>21.32</td>
<td>23.403</td>
<td>.549</td>
<td>.370</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.1.2 Continuance Commitment

The reliability coefficient for affective commitment is 0.824 which is acceptable (see Table 4.2). Furthermore, the corrected item-total correlations were above 0.30 for all items indicating that the items measured the same total scale factor. A decision was made to exclude item OCQR17. Although OCQR20 reflected below 0.30, it was excluded in the revised item-total correlations which resulted in a significant increase in the Cronbach Alpha .920.
Table 4.2

Reliability output for the Continuance commitment subscale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.824</td>
<td>.802</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Squared Multiple Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OCQ18</td>
<td>21.28</td>
<td>42.639</td>
<td>.688</td>
<td>.575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ19</td>
<td>21.14</td>
<td>41.220</td>
<td>.759</td>
<td>.683</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ21</td>
<td>21.09</td>
<td>41.467</td>
<td>.751</td>
<td>.634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ22</td>
<td>21.41</td>
<td>42.127</td>
<td>.731</td>
<td>.663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ23</td>
<td>21.10</td>
<td>41.493</td>
<td>.769</td>
<td>.702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ24</td>
<td>21.27</td>
<td>41.979</td>
<td>.723</td>
<td>.554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQR17</td>
<td>20.65</td>
<td>56.856</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQR20</td>
<td>21.22</td>
<td>57.825</td>
<td>-0.054</td>
<td>.099</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.1.3 Normative commitment

The reliability coefficient for normative commitment has an alpha coefficient of 0.624 (see Table 4.3). The items OCQ9 and OCQ12 are below 0.30 however not significantly altering the reliability coefficient.

Table 4.3

Reliability output for the normative commitment subscale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.624</td>
<td>.624</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.1.4 Turnover intention

The reliability statistics indicate that the Cronbach Alpha for turnover intentions is 0.88 which is significantly good (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The corrected item-total correlation shows that the items for this dimension correlated above 0.30, none of the items were excluded (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4
Reliability output for the turnover intention subscale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Squared Multiple Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OCQ9</td>
<td>11.07</td>
<td>11.016</td>
<td>.232</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>.641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ12</td>
<td>12.01</td>
<td>10.892</td>
<td>.253</td>
<td>.108</td>
<td>.631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ13</td>
<td>11.60</td>
<td>8.860</td>
<td>.258</td>
<td>.086</td>
<td>.488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ14</td>
<td>11.48</td>
<td>9.474</td>
<td>.434</td>
<td>.322</td>
<td>.541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ15</td>
<td>11.64</td>
<td>9.686</td>
<td>.465</td>
<td>.293</td>
<td>.528</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/
### Table 4.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Squared Multiple Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TIQ1</td>
<td>44.17</td>
<td>284.949</td>
<td>.742</td>
<td>.721</td>
<td>.884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ2</td>
<td>44.25</td>
<td>288.290</td>
<td>.625</td>
<td>.647</td>
<td>.890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ3</td>
<td>43.91</td>
<td>312.597</td>
<td>.366</td>
<td>.256</td>
<td>.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ4</td>
<td>44.13</td>
<td>300.631</td>
<td>.586</td>
<td>.517</td>
<td>.892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ5</td>
<td>44.12</td>
<td>303.805</td>
<td>.543</td>
<td>.461</td>
<td>.893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ6</td>
<td>44.05</td>
<td>276.969</td>
<td>.799</td>
<td>.713</td>
<td>.881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ7</td>
<td>43.26</td>
<td>281.261</td>
<td>.708</td>
<td>.637</td>
<td>.885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ9</td>
<td>43.79</td>
<td>306.472</td>
<td>.369</td>
<td>.246</td>
<td>.902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ10</td>
<td>43.56</td>
<td>289.328</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>.420</td>
<td>.892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ11</td>
<td>43.89</td>
<td>290.916</td>
<td>.576</td>
<td>.484</td>
<td>.892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ12</td>
<td>44.11</td>
<td>294.672</td>
<td>.653</td>
<td>.676</td>
<td>.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ13</td>
<td>44.09</td>
<td>292.315</td>
<td>.692</td>
<td>.675</td>
<td>.887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ14</td>
<td>44.29</td>
<td>291.014</td>
<td>.617</td>
<td>.488</td>
<td>.890</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 4.3.1.5 Perceived Organisational Support

The reliability coefficient for perceived organisational support is significantly accepted with an alpha coefficient of 0.89 (see Table 4.5). The items within this subscale correlated above 0.30 within the corrected item-total correlation.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Squared Multiple Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POS1</td>
<td>61.76</td>
<td>235.592</td>
<td>.497</td>
<td>.417</td>
<td>.886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS4</td>
<td>61.48</td>
<td>230.309</td>
<td>.582</td>
<td>.542</td>
<td>.883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS7</td>
<td>61.89</td>
<td>233.757</td>
<td>.486</td>
<td>.537</td>
<td>.887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS8</td>
<td>61.64</td>
<td>227.384</td>
<td>.608</td>
<td>.556</td>
<td>.882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS11</td>
<td>61.66</td>
<td>229.131</td>
<td>.541</td>
<td>.521</td>
<td>.885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS12</td>
<td>61.43</td>
<td>227.858</td>
<td>.629</td>
<td>.568</td>
<td>.881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS15</td>
<td>61.59</td>
<td>228.804</td>
<td>.544</td>
<td>.595</td>
<td>.884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS16</td>
<td>61.66</td>
<td>226.484</td>
<td>.640</td>
<td>.662</td>
<td>.881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS17</td>
<td>61.43</td>
<td>225.383</td>
<td>.691</td>
<td>.711</td>
<td>.879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPOS2</td>
<td>61.10</td>
<td>234.378</td>
<td>.376</td>
<td>.427</td>
<td>.892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPOS3</td>
<td>61.11</td>
<td>227.426</td>
<td>.572</td>
<td>.514</td>
<td>.883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPOS5</td>
<td>61.34</td>
<td>233.853</td>
<td>.444</td>
<td>.421</td>
<td>.888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPOS6</td>
<td>61.04</td>
<td>235.509</td>
<td>.414</td>
<td>.382</td>
<td>.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPOS10</td>
<td>61.43</td>
<td>230.261</td>
<td>.532</td>
<td>.520</td>
<td>.885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPOS13</td>
<td>60.91</td>
<td>226.827</td>
<td>.555</td>
<td>.557</td>
<td>.884</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.2 Dimensional Analysis of the Turnover Intention scale

Exploratory factor analysis shows that the Turnover Intention scale is factor analysable as indicated by the KMO index and Bartlett’s test of sphericity values of 0.882 and 791.793 (df = 45; p = 0.000) respectively. According to Kaiser (as cited in Field, 2005), these values are satisfactory and indicate the factor analysability of the correlation matrix of the Turnover Intention subscale. The initial round of exploratory factor analysis on the Turnover Intention exhibited 3 factors. However, after the removal of complex items (TIQ 4 and TIQ8), 2 clear factors emerged. Item TIQ 4 was an outlier and had to be excluded since factor analysis is sensitive to outliers (Pallant, 2016). Item TIQ8 was a complex factor. The dominant theme in Factor 1 relates to Turnover Intention (intention to leave) while Factor 2 relates to Turnover Intention as a result of

---

1 An item loading >0.30 on more than one factor would be excluded if the difference between the higher and the lower loading was 0.25 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).
frustration with the job. Factor 1 explains 52.4% of the variance while Factor 2 accounts for 12.8%. The factor loadings were all above 0.30. The results are depicted in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6
Pattern Matrix for the Turnover Intention scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TIQ1</td>
<td>.845</td>
<td>.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ2</td>
<td>.845</td>
<td>-.080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ6</td>
<td>.732</td>
<td>.201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ7</td>
<td>.746</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ9</td>
<td>.466</td>
<td>-.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ10</td>
<td>.123</td>
<td>.528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ11</td>
<td>-.042</td>
<td>.717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ12</td>
<td>-.088</td>
<td>.890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ13</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>.796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIQ14</td>
<td>.093</td>
<td>.638</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.3 Dimensional Analysis of the Organisational Commitment Survey

4.3.3.1 The dimensionality analysis output for the affective commitment subscale

Exploratory factor analysis shows that the affective commitment subscale is factor analysable as indicated by KMO index and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity values of 0.791 and 251.271 ($df = 28$; $p = 0.000$) respectively. According to Kaiser (as cited in Field, 2005), these values are satisfactory and indicate the factor analysability of the correlation matrix of the affective commitment subscale. In the initial round of exploratory factor analysis on the affective commitment subscale two factors emerged. However, after the exclusion of two items (items OCQR4 and OCQR5) which were complex one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained and this factor
accounted for 43.45% of the variance. The factor loadings were all above 0.30. The results are depicted in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7

*Factor Matrix for the Affective subscale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>OCQ1</th>
<th>OCQ2</th>
<th>OCQ3</th>
<th>OCQ7</th>
<th>OCQR6</th>
<th>OCQR8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.603</td>
<td>.746</td>
<td>.301</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.579</td>
<td>.532</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.3.2 The dimensionality analysis output for the continuance commitment subscale

Exploratory factor analysis shows that the *continuance commitment subscale* is factor analysable as indicated by KMO index and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity values of 0.844 and 433.796 (*df* = 28; *p* = 0.000) respectively. According to Kaiser (as cited in Field, 2005), these values are satisfactory and indicate the factor analysability of the correlation matrix of the *continuance commitment subscale*. The *continuance commitment subscale* initially exhibited 2 factors, however, after the removal of item OCQ20 which loaded below the 0.30 level for item adequacy the scale became uni-dimensional. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained and this factor accounted for 63.45% of the variance. The factor loadings were all above 0.30. The results are depicted in Table 4.8.
Table 4.8

*Factor Matrix for the Continuance subscale*

| Factor Matrix
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.3.3 The dimensionality analysis output for the normative commitment subscale

Exploratory factor analysis shows that the *normative commitment subscale* is factor analysable as indicated by KMO index and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity values of 0.610 and 96.366 (df = 28; p = 0.000) respectively. According to Kaiser (as cited in Field, 2005), these values are satisfactory and indicate the factor analysability of the correlation matrix of the *normative commitment subscale*. The *normative commitment subscale* initially exhibited two factors. However, the removal of item OCQ 9 which was complex resulted in a uni-dimensional scale. The factor accounted for 48.20% of the variance. The factor loadings were mostly above 0.30 with the exception of item OCQ12 which was retained in order to have a reasonable number of items in the scale. The results are depicted in Table 4.9.
Table 4.9

*Factor Matrix for the Normative subscale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor Matrix²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCQ12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.4 Dimensional Analysis of the POS

Exploratory factor analysis shows that the *POS scale* is factor analysable as indicated by KMO index and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity values of 0.880 and 1272.830 (*df* = 136; *p* = 0.000) respectively. According to Kaiser (as cited in Field, 2005), these values are satisfactory and indicate the factor analysability of the correlation matrix of the *POS subscale*. The initial round of exploratory factor analysis exhibited 3 factors which were reduced to 2 factors after the removal of complex factors (POS1, POS4, POS11 and POS12). The dominant theme in Factor 1 relates to *POS (Lack of caring from the organisation)* and Factor 2 relates to *POS (support)*. The dominant factor explains 39.39% of the variance while the other factor accounts for 19.97% of the variance. The factor loadings were all above 0.30. The results are depicted in Table 4.10.
Table 4.10

*Factor Matrix for the Meaning subscale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POS7</td>
<td>-.106</td>
<td>-.732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS8</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>-.739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS9</td>
<td>-.030</td>
<td>-.714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS16</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>-.772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS17</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>-.772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPOS2</td>
<td>.627</td>
<td>.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPOS3</td>
<td>.671</td>
<td>-.085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPOS5</td>
<td>.671</td>
<td>.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPOS6</td>
<td>.575</td>
<td>-.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPOS10</td>
<td>.693</td>
<td>-.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPOS13</td>
<td>.686</td>
<td>-.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPOS14</td>
<td>.837</td>
<td>-.113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS15</td>
<td>-.001</td>
<td>-.735</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Correlation

The relationships between POS, organisational commitment and turnover intention were examined by means of the Pearson correlation co-efficient. The initial analyses to ensure that the assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity and linearity are met were conducted. A significant positive correlation was found between POS and Turnover intention, \( r = .558, n = 140 \ p < .01 \) while a significant negative correlation was found between POS and Commitment, \( r = -.386, n = 140 \ p < .01 \). A significant negative correlation was found between Turnover intention and commitment, \( r = -.333, n = 140 \ p < .01 \) (see Table 4.11).
4.5 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OUTPUT

Multiple Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether POS and Commitment predict turnover intention since the variables have been found to be correlated. The ANOVA table indicated that the model is significant. Both POS and Commitment are significant predictors of turnover intention with POS explaining 50.4 percent of the variance in turnover intention (see Table 4.12).
4.6 RESULTS OF THE MEASUREMENT AND STRUCTURAL MODELS

Structural equation modelling was utilised for the continuous analysis of the data. The structural equation modelling was performed with the PLS (Partial Least Squares) software. A decision was taken to make use of PLS because of the sample size obtained which was less than 200, that is required to make meaningful analysis using the LISREL 8.80 software.

Chin (1998) deems PLS as a powerful method of analysis which can suggest where relationships might or might not exist and furthermore suggest propositions for later testing. It allows for the estimation of complex cause-effect relationship models with latent variables (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2014). In support of the postulation by Hair et al, Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009) state that the purpose of the PLS path modelling is to facilitate predictions.

The SmartPLS 3 programme was utilised for the analysis. When making use of this method, if zero is included in the confidence interval, then the corresponding coefficient is not significant (Roux, 2010). The analysis using the SmartPLS draws back to the research questions pointed out in Chapter 3. The hypothesized relationships that were put to test, included:

- Hypothesis 1: POS negatively affects turnover intention
- Hypothesis 2: POS positively affects organisational commitment
- Hypothesis 3: Organisational commitment negatively affects turnover intention

In line with the research objectives, the PLS Path Model which was built, is depicted in Figure 4.1 below. In this Figure, the path coefficients are indicated.
In order to consider a path to be significant it must have obtained a T value that is greater than 1.96 (Chi, 2006). The PLS path model shows the structural model and the related hypotheses. The t-values for the path between POS and commitment is greater than 1.96 and is significant at p < 0.05 (t value = -10.862). The relationship between commitment and turnover intentions has a t-value greater 1.96 (t value = -6.227). The t-value between POS and turnover has a t value that is above 1.96 (t value = 2.585). The path coefficient values are displayed in the graph in Figure 4.2:
4.6.1 Goodness of fit

Unlike most structural equation modelling programmes, the PLS does not provide a comprehensive list of fit indices that can be assessed to determine the goodness-of-fit of the model. According to Roux (2010), the Goodness-of-fit indices, refer to numerical indices that are aimed at evaluating how well a model accounts for the data. The indices are comparable over a series of model which may increase the number of common factors. Fletcher (2007, as cited in Roux 2010, p. 55) stipulates that “the appropriate number of factors is determined by fitting a model in which a model with one less factor demonstrates substantially poorer fit and a model with one more factor provides little improvement in fit”.

Figure 4.2
Path Coefficient graph

Path Coefficients

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4.6.2 Analysis of the VIF values for multicollinearity diagnostics

Multicollinearity refers to the statistical phenomenon in which there is an existence of a perfect or exact relationship between the predictor values (Joshi, 2012). When there is a perfect relationship it deems it difficult to come up with reliable estimates of their individual estimates. The multicollinearity can be analysed through the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) which is aimed at measuring the impact of collinearity among the variables in a regression model. Values of VIF that exceed 10 are often regarded as indicating multicollinearity, but in weaker models values above 2.5 may be a cause for concern (Pallant, 2016). In this case the Variance Inflation Factor is equal to 1.175.

4.7 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to present the results of the statistical analyses achieved through the statistical packages namely, SPSS (version 23) and the SmartPLS 3 programme. Item and dimensional analyses were performed on the data to identify poor items. The model was assessed using item parcelling created using uni-dimensional scales or subscales. The results indicated a significant relationship between POS and Commitment; POS and Turnover intention as well as Turnover intention and Commitment.
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the research investigation by providing an overview of the results that were depicted in chapter 4. It provides a detailed argument of the results and where applicable, literature will be integrated into the argument. Chapter 4 serves as a foundation against which the contents of this chapter are presented and interpreted. The results presented in chapter four are discussed in this chapter. The chapter addresses the limitations of the study and concludes with recommendations for future research purposes.

The purpose of this study was to answer the question: “What is the influence of POS and commitment on turnover intention among academic staff at selected higher education institution in the Western Cape Province of South Africa?” The main research question was further dissected into the following sub research questions:

The sub-questions are:

- What is the influence of POS on turnover intention?
- What is the influence of POS on organisational commitment?
- What is the influence of organisational commitment on turnover intention?

5.2 DISCUSSION OF THE HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1: Perceived organisational support (POS) negatively affects turnover intention

The t value of the path between Perceived organisational support (POS) and turnover intention is positive, greater than 1.96 and is significant at $p<0.05$ ($t$ value = 2.585). This tallies with the correlational output. This is not consistent with the findings in the

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existing literature. One would expect a significant negative relationship. According to organisational support theory, if employees perceive that the organisation is supportive toward them, they would be more prone to cultivate more positive behaviours towards the organisation (Eisenberger et al, 1986). For example Eisenberger et al, (1986) contended that explanations of support from the organisation decreased the level of absenteeism and improved organisation citizenship behaviour and employee job performance (Eisenberger et al, 1990). High levels of POS are thought to encourage feelings of trust and strong feelings of affiliation with the organisation (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Since employees frequently react favourably to the support they receive from their organisations (Sherony & Green, 2002), hence it is anticipated that POS will inspire a strong need to remain with the organisation. Eisenberger et al. (1990) perceived that employees with high POS would be less likely to explore other employment opportunities in other organisations.

However, Allen et al. (2003) established that POS was negatively correlated with turnover intention and actual turnover. Among a range of studies, turnover intention was found to be the most robust contributor of all (Griffeth et al, 2000) which illustrates that an employee wilfully leaves his/her job as a result of workload and lack of Perceived Organisational Support that eventually can lead to the development of job dissatisfaction, turnover intention and finally turnover (Price et al, 1981; Tett et al, 1993).

One of the possible explanations of the positive relationship between POS and turnover intentions in this study is that the participants may not have read the items properly when they were responding. Alternatively, respondents may have been prone to acquiescence response bias which relates to the tendency for survey respondents to agree with statements regardless of their content. This type of response bias could influence any question in which the response options involve confirming a statement, but it may be particularly problematic with agree-disagree questions. Moreover, both the Turnover intentions OPS scales had some negatively
worded items which the participants did not take time to read or clarify the appropriate response for that particular item. On the other hand, the results could be taken to mean that as the organisation supports their employees to become better in terms of skill development, the employees become more marketable and likely to be headhunted by other tertiary institutions.

**Hypothesis 2: POS positively affects organisational commitment**

The t value of the path between POS positively and organisational commitment is negative and greater than 1.96 and is significant at p<0.05 (t value = 10.862). This tallies with the correlational output. This finding is not consistent with the literature. A research study conducted for the purpose of establishing the impact of training on organisational commitment and turnover intentions in the private sector of Saudi Arabia provided robust support for a negative relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Mowday et al., 1982). A research study explored the effect of organisational commitment and perceived organisational support on the turnover intention of Telecom employees in Pakistan. Data was obtained from 230 participants took part in the study to assess the influence of two factors on turnover intentions. Correlation and regression analysis methods were utilized to evaluate the relationship of organisational commitment and perceived organisational support with turnover intention. The outcome of the research study was that turnover intentions of telecom industry employees were reliant on the organisational commitment and perceived organisational support; additional organisational commitment and perceived organisational support had a substantial negative influence on the turnover intentions of the employees.

The negative relationship between organisational commitment and POS on this sample may also be due to questionnaire response problems involving social desirability. The results can also indicate that as POS increases and the employees become better in terms of their skills they are confronted with job offers which lead to

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them potentially evaluating these and culminating in thoughts relating to quitting their jobs.

**Hypothesis 3: Organisational commitment negatively affects turnover intention**

The t value of the path between Organisational commitment and turnover intention is greater than 1.96 and is significant at \( p < 0.05 \) (t value = 6.227). This tallies with the correlational output. A research study investigated the relationship between organisational commitment and perceived organisational support and turnover intentions. The research study sample consisted of 297 postgraduate students at Uganda Management Institute employed in the private, public and NGO sectors in Uganda. Mediated regression and path analysis were utilised to test the direct and mediated relationships between the constructs. Outcomes emphasised significant relationships between (a) perceived organisational support and organisational commitment, (b) organisational commitment and turnover intentions, (c) perceived organisational support and turnover intentions. Outcomes made known that although support is positively associated with organisational commitment; both organisational commitment and support are negatively associated with turnover intentions. The outcomes provide proof that organisational commitment has a significant mediating effect on the relationship that exists between perceived organisational support and turnover intentions.

Perceived organisational support has been known to be a significant predictor of organisational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1986; 1990). More importantly, Currie and Dollery (2006) established that POS was significant in predicting affective commitment and normative commitment; higher scores on POS were related to higher commitment scores. However, POS did not significantly predict continuance commitment (Currie and Dollery, 2006). In a comparable earlier study, Allen et al. (2003) stated that POS mediated the relationship between human resource practices

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and organisational commitment. Social exchange and reciprocity theories (Gouldner, 1960; cited in Allen et al., 2003) proposed that employees feel the need to support individuals who supported them. It is fair, therefore to assume that in organisational settings, POS will prompt a desire to recompense remunerations offered by the organisation with an increased association with the organisation (affective commitment), a feeling of commitment to the organisation (normative commitment) and a comparative rise in the consequence of leaving the organisation (thereby growing continuance commitment).

In Uganda, Onyinyi (2003) explored the relationship between POS and organisational commitment amongst health workers and established a weak, yet significant relationship between the two constructs. In the same way, Makanjee et al. (2006) established that POS positively affected radiographers’ organisational commitment in South African hospitals. Earlier, Ssemogerere (2003) had established that affective commitment was positively associated with a high quality psychological contract which has characteristics of perceived organisational support such as fairness and meeting the individual’s requirements and beliefs on the job. Based on organisational support theory, if employees perceive that support from the organisation exists, they are more prone to develop positive beliefs and attitudes towards the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Eisenberger et al. (1986) established that if employees believed that the organisation was supportive of them, absenteeism would decrease, and individual work performance and organisational citizenship behaviour would increase (Eisenberger et al., 1990). The consequence of heightened beliefs of POS results in increased feelings of trust and a strong sense of belonging to the organisation (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Since it is the practice that employees ever so often respond favourably to their organisations (Sherony & Green, 2002), it is realistic to suppose that, POS will encourage a strong want to remain with an organisation.
In a research study conducted by Rhoades and Eisenberger’s (2002), the relationship between perceived organisational support and organisational commitment and the mediating role of organisation based self-esteem between these variables, were explored with 148 white collar employees participating in the study. Results showed a direct, significant relationship between POS and affective commitment and normative commitment, but an inverse relationship between POS and continuance commitment existed. Results showed that organisation based self-esteem has a partial mediating influence between perceived organisational support and affective commitment and played a mediating role between perceived organisational support and continuance commitment. Moreover, results also point out that organisation based self-esteem has no mediating role between perceived organisational support and normative commitment.

5.3 Limitations and Recommendations for future study

The participants of this research study were from two different Higher education institutions in the Western Cape of which the sample groups were selected from approximately five different campuses. For the purpose of this research study, a convenience sampling method was utilised, which creates limitations to the study as the outcome of the research study cannot be generalised beyond the confines of the participating institutions.

- Since a non-probability sampling method in the form of convenience sampling was used, the external validity is impacted, bias cannot be controlled as certain groups may be under-represented. Thus it is recommended for future research that stratified random sampling be utilised which would enable greater rigour and strive for greater precision and control with respect to the sample.
- Even though the sample size (N=140) of the current study is appropriate, a larger number of participants within the study would be more favourable for the purpose of providing a richer understanding of the study.

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Furthermore, a larger female representation participated in the research study, 63% this as a result could lead to a skewed outcome of the research findings. In order to enhance the external validity of the research, future research should strive to stratify the sample with respect to important contaminating variables.

- A quantitative study was conducted and this data collection method limited the quality of responses as the study represented no form of qualitative feedback which would have allowed for more elaborate, detailed responses from participants.

- Language, a potential barrier could have compromised the feedback provided since English was not a first language for many of the participants thus, taking the subject terminology used into account too. This may have contributed to some of the missing values and low scores of significance in the study.

5.4 CONCLUSION

The findings of the current research study verified much of the empirical evidence attesting to the between turnover intentions, POS and commitment. The findings suggest a positive and significant relationship exists between turnover intentions and POS. The study also reported a negative relationship between POS and commitment. These findings prove to be inconsistent with previous research findings that relate to the two constructs. However, a negative relationship was found between turnover intention and commitment.
REFERENCES


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