THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RETRENCHMENT, ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT, ABSENTEEISM AND LABOUR TURNOVER IN AN INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY CALL CENTRE.

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Mini-thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Magister Administrationis in the Department of Industrial Psychology, Faculty of Economic and Management Science, University of the Western Cape.

Supervisor: Mr. Karl Heslop

2004
DECLARATION

I hereby declare that “The relationship between retrenchment organisational commitment, absenteeism and labour turnover in an IT Call Centre” is my own work. It has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other institution of higher learning, all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references. It is being submitted for the degree of Magister Administrationis at the University of the Western Cape.

Full Name: Marwan Davids
Date: 15 November 2004
Signed: 

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE
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ABSTRACT

Until recently South Africa experienced an economic decline, however, despite the current positive trends, many large corporations are compelled to reduce personnel costs. Retrenchments have therefore become an increasingly common occurrence within South Africa. This has had an impact on the level of organisational commitment, absenteeism and turnover. Literature validates that surviving employees will have lower levels of organisational commitment after retrenchments.

Studies support the link between the levels of organisational commitment of employees, absenteeism and subsequently labour turnover. There is a relative lack of research in South African organisations into the influence of retrenchments on employees within call centre environments that have undergone retrenchments. The aims of this study are therefore to identify the levels of organisational commitment amongst call centre employees who survived a retrenchment that occurred in 2001. Ninety-four (94) respondents completed a biographical questionnaire as well as an organisational commitment questionnaire, to identify the levels of organisational commitment. To ascertain the extent of absenteeism and turnover, company records were examined for the period 1998 until 2003.

Despite the restructuring undertaken in this organisation, the results indicate that most members maintain a slightly higher than average belief in the organisation’s goals and values, express a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and have a strong desire to maintain membership of the organisation.
The relationship between biographical variables and organisational commitment varied from weak, positive correlations to moderately strong relationships. In addition, there were significant relationships between organisational commitment, absenteeism and labour turnover, respectively.

Although the research indicates that organisational commitment has been shown to exert an influence on important employee behaviours such as absenteeism and turnover, ongoing research is required in this area. However, it is suggested that future research needs to focus on the differentiation between various kinds of organisational commitment (e.g. affective, continuance and normative commitment) to determine their relationships to turnover and absenteeism.

**Key Words:**

Retrenchments
Organisational Commitment
Absenteeism
Labour Turnover
Economic decline
Surviving employees
Call centre environment
Gender
IT Industry
Employment equity
Tenure
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONTENT</th>
<th>PAGE NO.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1. Introduction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2. Problem Statement</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Research Questions</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Research Objectives</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 Research Hypotheses</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6 Delimitations of the Study</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7 Definition of Terms</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7.1 Organisational Commitment</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7.2 Absenteeism</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7.3 Labour Turnover</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7.4 Retrenchment</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8. Summary of the chapter</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9. Chapter Outline</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 2
ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.1 Introduction 13
2.2 Affective Commitment 14
2.3 Continuance Commitment 16
2.4 Normative Commitment 17

2.5 Antecedents of Organisational Commitment 18
2.5.1 Personal Determinants 18
2.5.1.1 Age 18
2.5.1.2 Tenure 19
2.5.1.3 Level of Education 20
2.5.1.4 Gender 21
2.5.1.5 Personality 21
2.5.1.6 Race 22

2.5.2 Role-related Determinants 23
2.5.2.1 Job Scope 23
2.5.2.2 Role Conflict 23
2.5.2.3 Role Ambiguity 24
2.5.2.4 Pay/Compensation 24
2.5.2.5 Job Level 25
2.5.2.6 Opportunities for Promotion 25
2.5.2.7 Empowerment 26
2.5.3 Work Experience Determinants

2.5.3.1 Organisational Dependability

2.5.3.2 Fulfilment of Expectations

2.5.3.3 Personal Importance to the Organisation

2.5.3.4 Leadership Style

2.5.3.5 Social Involvement

2.5.3.6 Co-workers

2.5.4 Structural Determinants

2.5.4.1 Decentralisation

2.5.4.2 Formalisation

2.5.4.3 Functional Dependence

2.5.4.4 Worker Ownership

2.5.4.5 Participation in decision-making

2.6 Organisational Commitment and Work Behaviour

2.6.1 Job Performance

2.6.2 Tenure

2.6.3 Tardiness

2.6.4 Turnover

2.6.4.1 Individual Variables or Personal Factors

2.6.4.1.1 Age

2.6.4.1.2 Gender

2.6.4.1.3 Personality
2.6.4.1.4 Marital Status and Kinship Responsibility 38
2.6.4.1.5 Length of Service (Tenure) 38

2.6.4.2 Organisational Variables 39
2.6.4.2.1 Leadership 39
2.6.4.2.2 Pay 39
2.6.4.2.3 Promotion 40
2.6.4.2.4 Organisational Structure 40
2.6.4.2.5 Supervision 40

2.6.4.3 Integrative Variables or Environmental Factors 40
2.6.4.3.1 Perceived Alternatives 41
2.6.4.3.2 Terms and Conditions of Employment 41

2.6.5 Job Satisfaction 42

2.6.6 Absenteeism 42
2.6.6.1 Personal Factors 44
2.6.6.1.1 Age 44
2.6.6.1.2 Gender 45
2.6.6.1.3 Length of Service 45
2.6.6.1.4 Level of Seniority 45
2.6.6.1.5 Impact of having Children 46
2.6.6.1.6 Race 46
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Research Design

3.2.1 Sample

3.2.2 Procedure
3.2.3 Measuring Instrument

3.2.3.1 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

3.2.3.1.1 Nature and Composition of the OCQ

3.2.3.1.2 Reliability of the OCQ

3.2.3.1.3 Validity of the OCQ

3.2.3.1.4 Rationale for inclusion of the OCQ

3.2.4 Measures of Absence

3.2.5 Turnover

3.3 Statistical Methods

3.3.1 Descriptive Statistics

3.3.2 Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation

3.3.3 Analysis of Variance (Anova)

3.3.4 Scheffe’s Multiple Comparison Method

3.4 Conclusion

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

4.2.1 Result’s of the Biographical Questionnaire
4.2.2 Descriptive Statistics of the OCQ  

4.3 Correlations for the Biographical Data and OC  
4.3.1 Gender  
4.3.2 Race  
4.3.3 Age  
4.3.4 Educational Level  
4.3.5 Years of Service  
4.3.6 Nature of Employment  
4.3.7 Home Language  
4.3.8 Job Level  

4.4 Absenteeism  

4.5 Turnover  

4.6 Inter-correlation matrix for the relationship between OC  
Absenteeism and Labour Turnover  

4.7 Summary  

CHAPTER 5  
DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS  

5.1 Introduction
5.2 Levels of OC amongst IT Call Centre Environment Staff 85

5.3 Relationships between Biographical Characteristics and OC 86

5.4 Relationships between OC, Absenteeism and Labour Turnover 86
  5.4.1 OC and Absenteeism 87
  5.4.2 OC and Turnover 88

5.5 Differences in OC 89
  5.5.1 Gender 89
  5.5.2 Race 90
  5.5.3 Age 91
  5.5.4 Educational Level 92
  5.5.5 Years of Service 94
  5.5.6 Nature of Employment 95
  5.5.7 Home Language 95
  5.5.8 Job Level 96

5.6 Conclusions and Recommendations 97

Reference List 101

Appendix A Biographical Questionnaire
Appendix B Organisational Commitment Questionnaire
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE NO.</th>
<th>PAGE NO.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.1: Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of OC</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.2: Pearson’s correlation matrix between biographical data and OC</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.3: Biographical data and OC</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.4: Inter-correlation matrix between OC, absenteeism and labour turnover</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FIGURE NO.</th>
<th>PAGE NO.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.1: Age in years</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.2: Gender distribution of the sample</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.3: Racial Composition of the sample</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.4: Home language of respondents</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.5: Educational level of the sample</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.6: Nature of employment</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.7: Tenure</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.8: Job level</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.9: Sickness absence rates for the period 1998-2003</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.10: Turnover for the period 1998 - 2003</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Lifetime employment was once the aim of every employee, the stated policy of many large firms and other employers, and the desired aim of many other organisations (Birt, Wallis & Winternitz, 2004). Given the highly volatile nature of today’s markets and the concomitant business and process re-engineering endeavours of modern organisations, typically reductions in the number of employees and managers are required, paving the way to repeated cycles of redundancies (Baruch & Yehuda, 1998). In anticipation of reductions in profit margins the only competitive edge for a company is the commitment of its people (Smith, 1998). Given this scenario, Bagrain (2003) argues that most organisations based in emerging markets continue to grapple with effective management of scarce, highly skilled knowledge workers.

Re-engineering is a relatively new doctrine in the management sciences and is based on creating fundamental changes in the work place, which culminate in reduced employment levels (Hammer & Champy, 1993; Jacobson & Hartley, 1991, in Hartley, Jacobson, Klandermans & van Vuuren, 1991). Initially, downsizing was undertaken by failing companies, and so its victims were primarily blue-collar workers. However, relatively successful companies are undertaking downsizing, and recently the focus has shifted to include white-collar professionals. Downsizing often complements
outsourcing and contracting as a means by which an organisation can improve its cost effectiveness (Duncan & Oates, 1996).

In addition, firms that have downsized are also likely to downsize again (Burke, 1998). In conjunction with this, Baruch and Yehuda (1998, p. 135) maintain that “we are now entering a new era of Human Resources and Industrial Relations Systems, characterised by frequent redundancies and downsizing processes. This trend reflects a low commitment from organisations to their employees which is followed by a reduced level of organisational commitment.”

The state of turbulence and uncertainty that exists after a retrenchment may influence the very nature of the employment relationship. Due to this, the assurance of job security and steady rewards in return for hard work and loyalty no longer exist (Brockner, Grover, Reed & De Witt, 1992), and surviving employees more often have lower levels of organisational commitment after retrenchments (Kozlowski, Chao, Smith & Hoedlund, 1993).

The South African economy started undergoing an economic decline with jobs becoming increasingly scarce and a number of large companies previously considered to be stable also undergoing retrenchments. The South African Reserve Bank stated that 104,000 jobs were lost in the first nine months of 1997 while Statistics South Africa reported that 186,000 jobs were lost in the South African economy during 1998, with there being no sign of the process coming to an end (Vermeulen & Wiesner, 2000).
The profound increase in economic restraints has produced a situation where competition has become the crucial element in industrial settings. In highly competitive environments, profit margins diminish and control over cost assumes prominence. Expenses on human resources have traditionally been a considerable proportion of general operational costs, and with a simple way to reduce costs being to restructure or downsize an operation. Technological developments too have contributed to this trend, particularly the ever-increasing advances in information technology, which have enabled significant reductions in the workforce. Employees are retrenched in favour of new staff who are trained in new technologies or they are even replaced by technology (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Arnolds and Boshoff (2004, p. 1) maintain that despite these changes in the economic landscape and their concomitant repercussions for employees, organisations essentially “want committed and productive employees to meet their production targets over the short-term in order to achieve their long-term goals, such as return on investment and the survival of their firms.” A number of studies have shown that a direct link exists between the level of organisational commitment of employees and absenteeism rates experienced by an organisation (Huczynski & Fitzpatrick, 1989; Huselid & Nancy, 1991; Mowday, Porter & Dubin, 1974). According to Meyer and Allen (1997), the findings of the studies into the relationship between organisational commitment and absenteeism all support the theory that the higher an employees organisational commitment, the lower is the employees rate of voluntary absence.
Absenteeism is expensive and its consequences are lost productivity, unnecessary sick leave pay and overtime pay (Tyler, 1997).

Research consistently indicates there is a significant correlation between absence and turnover, meaning that employees are more likely to have a high level of absence before they resign (Mitra, Jenkins, & Gupta 1992; Romzek, 1990; van der Merwe & Miller, 1993; Yolles, Carone & Krinshy, 1975). Organisational commitment has also been shown to correlate with employee turnover (Hackett, Bycios & Hausdorf 1994; Jaros, Jernier, Koehler & Sincich, 1993; Spector 2003).

High rates of employee absence and turnover can be extremely costly for any organisation in that committed employees do not only exhibit reduced withdrawal behaviours but are more likely than others to work towards keeping the organisation competitive (Angle & Lawson, 1994; Larkey & Morrill, 1995). Studies conducted by a number of researchers have found that women as a group are more committed than the men in their employing organisation (Cramer, 1993; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1982).

Allen and Meyer (1990) posit the view that what employees do on the job is as important or perhaps more important than whether or not they choose to remain within the employment of an organisation, especially if the job involves dealing with clients on a daily basis. Research findings are not equivocal with regard to the impact that an employee’s position within an organisation has on the level of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Circumstances within the organisation may therefore play a large role in the level of commitment of supervisors within the organisation. Boshoff
and Arnold's (1995, p. 92) research indicates that "organisational commitment exerts a positive influence on job performance whilst reducing turnover and absenteeism."

There is presently a lack of research into the influence of retrenchments on organisational commitment, absenteeism and labour turnover of South African call centre employees who remain within an organisation that has undergone retrenchments. Research in the above-mentioned area is therefore necessitated. Moreover, the relative paucity of research on the relationship between these variables on the levels of organisational commitment within South Africa, attests to the need for research in this area.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research problem stated above can be translated into the following research questions:

- What is the level of organisational commitment amongst employees in a Call Centre environment following retrenchments?

- Is there a relationship between biographical variables and organisational commitment?

- Is there a relationship between organisational commitment, absenteeism and labour turnover following retrenchments?

- Are there differences in organisational commitment based on biographical variables namely age, race, gender, level of education, years of services, home language and nature of employment?
1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Based on the research questions stated above, the research objectives of the study can be formulated as follows:

- To determine the levels of organisational commitment for call centre employees following retrenchments.
- To determine the relationship between biographical variables and organisational commitment.
- To determine whether there is a statistically significant relationship between organisational commitment, absenteeism and labour turnover after retrenchments.
- To determine whether there are significant differences, between employees based on their biographical characteristics.

1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

H1: The levels of organisational commitment following retrenchment in an IT call centre environment will be low.

H2: There will be a significant relationship between biographical variables and organisational commitment in an IT call centre environment.
H3: There will be a significant relationship between organisational commitment, labour turnover and absenteeism following retrenchments in an IT call centre environment.

H4: There will be significant differences in the organisational commitment of employees in an IT call centre environment based on their biographical characteristics.

1.6 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The sample consists of call centre employees within the tele-communications industry in the Western Cape region. Due to the nature of the sample, the results of the study may not be generalised to other job categories or occupational levels. The sample comprised mostly male employees from certain designated racial groups and hence the external validity of the findings may be compromised. The retrenchments were part of a larger company wide restructuring initiative and the skill level required for the positions within the call centre were the same for all employees who applied for employment. The findings may only be relevant within South Africa, specifically the Western Cape, where the call centre is situated.

The impact of confounding variables such as job satisfaction, job involvement and other work-related attitudes and behaviour, which could potentially play a role, have not been considered. Hence their potential threats to the internal validity of the research need to be borne in mind. Hence, any conclusions arising from the research are somewhat tenuous.
1.7 DEFINITION OF TERMS

1.7.1 Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment has generally been defined in terms of an employee’s attachment to or identification with an organisation. According to Swanepoel, Erasmus, van Wyk and Schenk (1998, p. 93), commitment can be defined from an attitudinal perspective as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation.” Moorhead and Griffen (1992) and Young, Worcel and Woehr (1998) agree that commitment entails identification with the employing organisation, but elaborate by stating that employees have a greater sense of dedication and interest in the effectiveness of the organisation.

Researchers have also suggested that organisational commitment is demonstrated through congruence between an employee’s personal and the organisation’s goals and values. Kreitner and Kinicki (1992) consider commitment to be the extent to which an employee identifies with and is committed to organisational goals. This definition is expanded on by Camp (1994), who defines commitment as “a congruence between the goals of the individual and the organisation whereby the individual identifies with and exerts effort on behalf of the general goals of the organisation” (p. 281). Ting (1997) supports this view by defining commitment as the individual’s belief and trust in the organisational goals and values.
According to Scarpello and Ledvinka (1987) commitment is the outcome of matching
the individual’s job-related and vocational needs and the organisation’s ability to
satisfy these needs. Penley and Gould (1988) maintain commitment is a multi-
dimensional construct, consisting of three independent dimensions - calculative
(instrumental), moral and alienative (affective) commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1991) have identified three distinct themes in the definition of
commitment: commitment as an affective attachment to the organisation, commitment
as a perceived cost associated with leaving the organisation and commitment as an
obligation to remain in the organisation. These three forms of commitment are
referred to as affective, continuance and normative commitment.

1.7.2 Absenteeism

Robbins (2001) defines absenteeism as “the failure to report to work” (p. 20).
Absenteeism can be defined as “the failure of workers to report on the job, when they
are scheduled to work.” (U.S.A. Department of Labour, 1962). According to van der
Merwe and Miller (1993, p. 3) absenteeism “implies an unplanned, disruptive
incident; but more specifically it can be seen as non-attendance when an employee is
scheduled to work.”

1.7.3 Labour Turnover

According to Robbins (2001), turnover can be considered to be the “voluntary and
involuntary withdrawal from an organisation.” (p.21). The most precise definition of
labour turnover according to van der Merwe and Miller (1993, p. 38) is that “turnover consists of the movement into and out of the boundaries of an organisation.” Maier (1973) identifies two main categories of labour turnover, namely unavoidable and avoidable turnover. Retrenchments and redundancies are the two most common types of unavoidable labour turnover and resignation is the most important form of avoidable turnover.

1.7.4 Retrenchment

In terms of the South African Labour Relations Act of 1995 retrenchments are referred to as dismissals based on the employer’s operational requirements. The manner in which retrenchments are conducted can have a negative effect on employees’ productivity, morale and overall commitment to the organisation (Brockner, 1992). Retrenchments that are not correctly managed have also been found to reduce employees “trust in management and undermines employee commitment to the firm” (Boxall & Purcell, 2003, p. 57).

1.8 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The chapter presented an overview of the challenges that are taking place within organisations and the impact these changes have on employees. The research questions and research objectives highlighted the focus areas of this study with regards to organisational commitment, absenteeism and labour turnover. The chapter also states the hypotheses of the study and defines the key terms. An overview and brief explanation of each chapter is provided below.
1.9 CHAPTER OUTLINE

Chapter one introduces the concepts under investigation and addresses the problem statement. Furthermore, it provides an insight into the theoretical framework and significance of research on organisational commitment, absenteeism and labour turnover following a retrenchment endeavour in an Information Technology Call Centre environment.

Chapter two provides a comprehensive literature review pertaining to organizational commitment. The chapter specifically focuses emphasis on the definition of the construct, the personal, role-related, work experience, and structural determinants of organizational commitment, as well as the consequences of this attitude. The chapter concludes with an in-depth discussion pertaining to the relationship between organizational commitment and work-related behaviours and outcomes.

The empirical section of the study is addressed in chapters three and four. Chapter three provides an outline of the research methodology employed in the investigation of the proposed problem. Aspects which receive attention include the approach followed in selecting the sample, the manner in which the data was collected, as well as the statistical techniques employed in testing the research hypotheses. To this end, attention is specifically devoted to the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the discussion of results.
The statistical techniques discussed include descriptive statistics, Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Scheffe’s Multiple Comparison Method. Chapter four concludes with a delineation of the research hypotheses which were subjected to statistical testing. The study concludes with chapter five which outlines the results obtained in the study and provides a discussion of these results. Conclusions are drawn based on the obtained results and the possible practical implications of the research findings are pointed out. Finally, suggestions and recommendations are made that may be of value in future research.
CHAPTER 2

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Over the past few decades there has been a proliferation in interest and subsequent research conducted in the area of organizational commitment processes (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004; Bagraim, 2003; Buck & Watson, 2002; Eby, Freeman, Rush & Lance, 1999; Lance, 1991; Wasti, 2003). Indeed, Aryee and Heng (1990) postulate that commitment has become more important than job satisfaction in understanding employee work-related behaviour because it is regarded as being significantly more stable and less subject to fluctuations than is the case with job satisfaction.

One of the main reasons why commitment has been one of the most popular research subjects in industrial psychology and organizational behaviour is its assumed positive correlation with performance (Benkhoff, 1997). Committed employees are viewed as more consistent, productive, and more likely to accomplish organizational goals (Birt et al., 2004; Larkey & Morrill, 1995).

Mowday et al. (1982) postulate that reduced organizational commitment may culminate in greater absenteeism and turnover. Concomitantly, the subsequent recruitment, training and development costs will increase directly with increases in the rates of turnover and absenteeism, hence, the importance of organizational commitment cannot be taken lightly.
Furthermore, it is not just the organization that is likely to be affected negatively by reduced organizational commitment, but the individual employee as well. A reduced feeling of attachment to an organization may, in certain cases, have some degree of adverse impact on the individual’s psychological well-being (Mowday et al., 1982).

In light of the above, it becomes necessary that commitment processes be examined with the aim of gaining a better understanding thereof. Through such an understanding conclusions may be arrived at as to how an organization will be able to stimulate greater commitment amongst its employees. To gain a better understanding of the nature of organisational commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) differentiate between affective, continuance and normative commitment.

2.2 AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

Meyer and Allen (1984, p. 375) define affective commitment as the employee’s “positive feelings of identification with, attachment, and involvement in, the work organisation.” Bagraim (2003, p. 13) maintains that “affective commitment develops if employees are able to meet their expectations and fulfil their needs within the organisation.”

Affective commitment has four antecedents, namely, personal characteristics, job characteristics, structural characteristics and the nature of one’s work experience (Allen & Meyer, 1990). A study conducted by Dunham, Grube & Castaneda (1994) found that age, tenure, organisational dependability, participatory management
practices and five job design dimensions namely, (task autonomy, significance, identity, skill variety and supervisory feedback) could be used as antecedents of affective commitment.

It may be important for an organisation to distinguish between the different types of commitment since a study found that “Affective commitment of employees to a food services organisation was positively related to their measured job performance, whereas continuance commitment was negatively related” (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin & Jackson, 1989, p. 155).

Affective commitment results in employees staying within an organisation because they want to and according to Romzek (1990) these employees will generally act in the organisation’s best interest and are less likely to leave the company. However, South African research (Pelwane, 1997) with 108 white-collar workers failed to find a relationship between affective commitment and job performance.

In a number of studies both age and tenure were significantly correlated with the affective measures, adding to a substantial body of literature suggesting that employees who are older and have been employed longer with a particular organisation have a stronger affective commitment to it (Porter, Steers & Mowday, 1974). According to Becker’s theory - side bets (Continuance Commitment) in Meyer and Allen (1984, p. 378) “will not influence commitment unless the individual is aware that they have been made.”
In another study McGee and Ford (1987) state that “Employees who were more emotionally committed were significantly less likely to remain because of a perceived lack of alternatives, but significantly more likely to perceive great personal sacrifice related to leaving” (p.640). The results “suggest that affective and continuance commitment may not operate totally independently of one another” (McGee & Ford 1987, p. 640).

2.3 CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT

Meyer and Allen (1984) posit the view that continuance commitment can be conceptualised as the propensity for employees to feel committed to their organisation based on their perceptions of the associated costs of leaving the organisation.

The antecedents of continuance commitment are communication skills, gender, tenure and self-investment, in terms of time and effort (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Meyer and Allen (1984) elaborated on the meaning of continuance commitment by stating that continuance commitment can be used to refer to anything of value that an individual may have “invested (e.g. time, effort, money) that would be lost to be deemed worthless at some perceived cost to the individual if he or she were to leave the organisation. Such investments might include contributions to non-vested pension plans, development of organisation specific skills or status, use of organisational benefits such as reduced mortgage rates and so on. The perceived cost of leaving may be exacerbated by a perceived lack of alternatives to replace or make up for the foregone investments” (1984, p. 373).
In a two-year study conducted among student nurses it was found that “Age, in spite of the restriction in range for this sample, correlated negatively with affective commitment and positively with continuance commitment” (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993, p. 543). There have been studies where continuance commitment “was associated positively with organisational tenure but was unrelated to age for nurses, whereas, for the bus operators, continuance commitment was positively associated with age but was unrelated to tenure” (Hackett et al., 1994, p. 21).

A study conducted by Dunham et al. (1994, p. 376) supports the view that continuance commitment “has two meaningful subdimensions (personal sacrifice and lack of alternatives).” In a South African study Pelwane (1997) using 108 white-collar workers found a significant negative relationship between continuance commitment and job performance.

2.4 NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

Normative commitment can be conceptualised as the belief that “employees have a responsibility to their organisation” (Bagarim, 2003, p. 14). Wiener (1982, p. 471) defines commitment as the “totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals.” According to Meyer et al. (1993), employees experience normative commitment due to their internal belief that it is their duty to do so. This component of organisational commitment has not been sufficiently addressed in organisational commitment research undertaken (Bagarim, 2003; Meyer & Allen, 1997).
The following aspects will now be addressed in order to discuss organisational commitment from a theoretical view: firstly the antecedents / determinants and consequences of commitment are considered, and secondly the three components of organisational commitment are discussed, thirdly the review of literature focuses on the relationship between organisational commitment, retrenchments, absenteeism and labour turnover.

2.5 THE ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organisational commitment can be divided into four distinct categories, namely personal determinants, role-related determinants, work-experience determinants, and structural determinants according to Mowday et al. (1982), each of which is addressed.

2.5.1 Personal Determinants

There have been a number of studies that have investigated the personal correlates of organisational commitment. Characteristics such as age, tenure, educational level, gender, race and various personality factors have been found to influence organisational commitment.

2.5.1.1 Age

As employees age their level of commitment towards their employing organisations increases. Research conducted by Dunham et al. (1994) found a significant
relationship between organisational commitment and age. Similarly, researchers (Cramer, 1993; Lok & Crawford, 1999; Loscocco, 1990; Luthans, 1992; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1982; Sekaran, 2000) support the findings that the relationship between organisational commitment and age, is significant. The aforementioned research consistently reports that older employees are generally more committed to the organisation when compared to younger employees. South African research (Laher, 2001) amongst university academics did not, however, find any significant differences with regards to age.

Several reasons are cited for this difference. They include the possibility that alternative employment opportunities generally tend to decrease with age, therefore an employee’s current job becomes more important (Kacmar, Carlson & Brymer, 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). Alternatively, older individuals may be more committed to their organisations because they have made greater investments with their organisations over time, than younger employees would have made (Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Kacmar et al., 1999). Older employees are also less willing to sacrifice the benefits and idiosyncratic credits that are associated with seniority in an organisation (Hellman, 1997). Younger employees will often find that early in their working lives they may have chosen the wrong career and therefore leave the organisation in search of a career that they are more suited to.

2.5.1.2 Tenure

Tenure or the length of service of employees contributes towards increasing the employees level of commitment towards the organisation. Research corroborates the
view that a positive relationship exists between organisational commitment and tenure (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Dunham et al., 1994; Larkey & Morrill; 1995; Malan, 2002; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1982). Gerhart (1990) found a positive relationship between organisational commitment and tenure. The possibility exists that tenure carries an element of status and prestige, and this induces greater commitment and loyalty to the employing organisation. However, Kinnear and Sutherland’s (2000) research failed to find support for the relationship between organisational commitment and tenure. These findings are corroborated by other studies that failed to find support for the relationship between tenure and organisational commitment (Cramer, 1993; Kinnear, 1999; Voster, 1992).

2.5.1.3 Level of Education

According to Chusmir (1982) cited in Voster (1992), there is a positive relationship between commitment and educational qualifications, and level of education may be a predictor of commitment, particularly for working women. However, the level of education does not seem to be consistently related to an employee’s level of organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Higher levels of education are postulated to enhance the possibility that employees can find alternative employment which may reduce their levels of commitment. McClurg’s (1999) research found that highly educated employees had lower levels of organisational commitment. This is supported by other research findings (Luthans, Baack & Taylor, 1987; Mowday et al., 1982; Voster, 1992).
2.5.1.4 Gender

Women are more committed to an organisation since they have more barriers to overcome to attain their positions within an organisation and will more likely have to overcome barriers should they leave the organisation (Mowday et al., 1982). An investigation into the impact of downsizing, based on a sample of 848 managers and employees working for a hospital over a 3 year downsizing time period found that female employees expressed higher levels of organisational commitment (Luthans & Sommer, 1999).

Loscocco (1990) reports that women are more likely to report that their values are similar to that of the organisation and that they will be prepared to accept almost any other job offered to them if it meant they would remain with their current employer. However, Laher (2001) failed to find any significant gender differences in organisational commitment. Similarly other researchers found no evidence of a relationship between organisational commitment and gender (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Caruana & Calleya, 1998; Kinnear, 1999, Kinnear & Sutherland, 2000; Ngo & Tsang, 1998; Wahn, 1998).

2.5.1.5 Personality

A number of personality factors have been found to be related to organisational commitment. The personality factors related to commitment are achievement motivation, sense of competence, employee values, work ethic and work-oriented central life ethic, according to Mowday et al. (1982). These authors maintain that
employees with a strong personal work ethic and a work-oriented central life interest tend to be more committed to an organisation. Of the personality factors, achievement motivation particularly correlates significantly with organisational commitment (Steers & Spencer, 1977, cited in Mathieu, 1991). In addition, support has been found for positive self-esteem as a predictor of commitment, according to Voster (1992).

A number of studies have also found significant differences in the organisational commitment of employees with an internal and an external locus of control (Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Lim, Teo & Thayer, 1998; Luthans et al., 1987). Employees with an internal locus of control have been found to have higher levels of commitment. It may be that employees with an internal locus of control believe that they have greater influence over their work environment and as a result experience higher levels of organisational commitment.

2.5.1.6 Race

There are a limited number of studies that take into account the impact of race on the level of commitment experienced by employees within South Africa. An investigation by Laher (2001) could not find a significant difference in the level of commitment experienced with a sample of 124 academics of a South African university in terms of race. In a study conducted by Mueller, Finley, Iverson and Price (1999) using a sample of 838 elementary and secondary school teachers investigating the level of commitment experienced by teachers, results indicate that there is no difference in the level of commitment for Black teachers in schools of different racial compositions. However, White teachers in White-teacher dominated and White student dominant
schools are more committed to their schools than white teachers in other racial composition configurations (Mueller et al., 1999).

2.5.2 Role-related Determinants

The role-related determinants of organisational commitment include job scope, job level, role conflict, role ambiguity, compensation, opportunities for promotion and empowerment.

2.5.2.1 Job Scope

A number of studies (Kinnear, 1999; Kinnear & Sutherland, 2000; Larkey & Morrill, 1995; Meyer & Allen, 1997) indicate that job scope can be used as a variable to predict employees’ organisational commitment. The larger the degree of scope an employee has within a job, the greater the possibility of increased organisational commitment. It is therefore important that employees should not be limited in terms of the nature to their jobs, since this may limit the degree of their commitment.

2.5.2.2 Role Conflict

Several studies have demonstrated that there is a negative relationship between role conflict and organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday, et al., 1982). Research conducted by Voster (1992), which involved women employed in a high-technology manufacturing organisation, failed to establish a relationship between commitment and role conflict.
2.5.2.3 Role Ambiguity

Research demonstrates that there is a negative relationship between role ambiguity and organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Johnston, Parasuraman, Futrell and Black (1990) further argue that role ambiguity is a direct determinant of commitment during the early stages of employment. A study conducted by McClurg (1999) found that the formalisation of job duties and job descriptions was found to relate to commitment.

2.5.2.4 Pay / Compensation

There is no consistent view regarding the influence of pay on organisational commitment. Some researchers argue that there is very little empirical evidence to suggest that the amount of pay an employee receives is related to commitment (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004; Voster, 1992; Young, et al., 1998). Studies conducted by Brewer (1996) and Cramer (1993) found pay dissatisfaction to be a significant predictor of low commitment. According to Tang and Kim (1999) people’s attitudes towards money will determine the impact that money has on the levels of employee commitment. In a longitudinal study into the commitment and retention of graduates, Arnold and Davey (1999) found a statistically significant relationship between the pay and benefits of employees and their level of organisational commitment. The combination of financial reward and recognition has been found to be an important influence for knowledge workers (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004; Kinnear, 1999; Kinnear & Sutherland, 2000). It may therefore be that the perceived equity of pay is a more
important determinant of organisational commitment, than the level of pay received (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

2.5.2.5 Job Level

The view held by Mowday et al. (1982) is that occupational level is not related to organisational commitment. However, Luthans et al. (1987) maintain that individuals employed in higher positions within an organisation are more committed towards the organisation. This point of view is supported by Aryee and Heng (1990), who state that the association between job level and commitment is due to higher level employees being more likely receiving larger economic rewards and being more likely to perceive the system of authority as legitimate, and therefore support it.

2.5.2.6 Opportunities for Promotion

A number of researchers are of the opinion that organisational commitment is strongly related to opportunities for promotion (Brewer, 1996; Brewer & Hensher, 1998; Voster, 1992; Zaccaro & Dobbins, 1989). This view is supported in studies conducted by Young et al. (1998) and Arnold & Davey (1999), where satisfaction with promotional opportunities / career development was found to be positively and significantly correlated with organisational commitment.

However, it may be, as in the case with pay, that the influence of promotional opportunities on commitment is determined more by the perceived equity thereof than by the actual opportunities themselves (Kacmar et al., 1999).
2.5.2.7 Empowerment

Empowering employees can help to increase their level of commitment through a process of reciprocation (Arnold & Davey, 1999; Brewer & Hensher, 1998; Linden, Wayne & Sparrow, 2000). A significant relationship has been found between empowerment and organisational commitment (Arnold & Davey, 1999; Dwyer 2001; Malan 2002; Menon 2001).

2.5.3 Work Experience Determinants

Work-experience determinants of organisational commitment include organisational dependability, personal importance to the organisation, fulfilment of expectations, leadership style, social involvement, and the influence of co-workers. Due to these experiences being viewed as a socialising force they have a major influence on the strength of the psychological link an employee forms with the organisation (Mowday et al., 1982).

2.5.3.1 Organisational Dependability

Organisational dependability is the degree to which employees feel that they can count on the organisation to look after their interests (Mowday et al., 1982). Although there has been limited research to investigate the relationship between organisational dependability and commitment, the two variables appear to be positively correlated (Arnold & Davey, 1999; Mowday et al., 1982). Retrenchments can result in employees feeling that the organisation is not capable of looking after
their interests and may therefore reduce the level of organisational commitment of employees (Allen, Freeman, Russell, Reizenstein & Rentz, 2001).

In a study conducted by Pasewark and Strawser (1996), it was found that raising the level of trust in the organisation might increase commitment among professional accountants. Dunham et al. (1994), who found organisational dependability to be an antecedent for organisational commitment, supports this view.

2.5.3.2 Fulfilment of Expectations

Research findings indicate that there is a direct relationship between the degree to which an individual’s expectations are met within the organisation and the employee’s level of commitment to that organisation (Mowday et al., 1982). If an employee’s expectations are not met it will result in the employee leaving the organisation or a reduction in the employee’s level of commitment (Voster, 1992). A study conducted by Wanous, Poland, Premack and Davis (1992) further proved that there is an empirical relationship between met expectations and organisational commitment.

2.5.3.3. Personal Importance to the Organisation

To date, insufficient research has been reported on with respect to the role of personal importance in organisational commitment. It has been pointed out by Mowday et al. (1982), that when employees feel that they are important to the organisation, their level of commitment tends to increase.
2.5.3.4 Leadership Style

Meyer and Allen (1997) report on a number of studies which support the view that the nature of leadership experienced by employees influences the organisational commitment of employees. There are three aspects of leadership behaviour that have shown to impact on the commitment of employees, namely initiating structure, leader consideration, and performance feedback.

Initiating structure is mainly concerned with problem solving, clarity, planning, coordinating and productivity. A number of researchers have found that a positive correlation exists between initiating structure and employee commitment (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). However, Boshoff and Mels (1995) are of the opinion that the relationship is largely indirect. Initiating structure will help to lower role ambiguity, which, in turn, facilitates greater employee commitment.

Leader consideration involves behaviours such as supportiveness, consultation, representation and recognition (Yukl, 1981). There is a positive association between consideration and commitment (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Brewer & Hensher, 1998; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Lok & Crawford, 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). Boshoff and Mels (1995) suggest that, as with initiating structure, leader consideration helps to reduce role conflict and role ambiguity, which raises employee commitment.
Feedback enables employees to assess how well they are meeting organisational expectations and work requirements as noted by Tziner and Latham (1998). Without any feedback “even the most challenging and meaningful jobs may fail to foster commitment because an individual’s role in the overall functioning of the organisation is unclear” (Eby et al., 1999, p. 468). In addition to this, employees generally prefer a leadership style that involves participation in decision-making and being treated with fairness and consideration (Brewer & Hensher, 1998; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

2.5.3.5 Social Involvement

Mowday et al. (1982, p. 35) found that “the greater the social interaction, the more social ties the individual develops with the organisation.” This means that an employee therefore unknowingly increases the investments made in an organisation in terms of friendships formed, thereby increasing commitment to the organisation. This view is supported by Guest, Peccei and Thomas (1993) and Wech, Mossholder, Steel & Bennett (1998) who found that group cohesiveness led group members to perceive greater social involvement in the organisation, and this helped to stimulate greater organisational commitment.

2.5.3.6 Co-workers

Aryee and Heng (1990) and Brewer (1996) maintain that employees are more likely to be committed to an organisation if they have good relationships with and can trust the ability of their co-workers. Dunham et al. (1994) found the commitment of co-
workers to be an antecedent for normative commitment. Another study which involved blue-collar workers found that co-worker relations only improved the level of commitment for male employees (Loscocco, 1990). Relationships with colleagues have also had a statistically significant impact on the level of organisational commitment, experienced by graduates (Arnold & Davey, 1999). In a study of knowledge workers (highly qualified employees) it was found that “the need to be associated with people from the same profession” (Kinnear & Sutherland, 2000, p. 110) strongly influenced the level of commitment experienced by knowledge workers, helping to increase the level of learning and development that can take place.

2.5.4 Structural Determinants

The structural components of organisational commitment according to Mowday et al. (1982) are formalisation, functional dependence, decentralisation, worker ownership and participation in decision-making. Significant attention has been given to the effects that structure has on job-related attitudes, while little research has been done with respect to commitment (Mowday et al., 1982). In a study conducted by Brewer and Hensher (1998, p. 128), it was found that “specifically, middle managers will express higher organisational commitment when they directly participate in the implementation of organisational change.”

2.5.4.1 Decentralisation

A positive association exists between decentralised authority and organisational commitment. Employees who are provided with freedom to implement assigned work
tasks without interruption, demonstrate higher levels of organisational commitment (Brewer 1996; Brewer & Hensher, 1998).

2.5.4.2 Formalisation

Employees who experience greater formality of written rules and procedures to guide them feel more committed than employees who receive it to a lesser extent, since it helps to provide employees with guidance as to what is expected from them (Mowday et al., 1982).

2.5.4.3 Functional Dependence

Employees who have greater dependence on the work of others feel more committed than employees who are less dependent (Mowday et al., 1982).

2.5.4.4 Worker Ownership

Studies that have focused on the effects of worker ownership find that employees are significantly more committed when they have a vested financial interests in the organisation Larkey & Morrill (1995) and Mowday et al., (1982).

2.5.4.5 Participation in decision-making

A number of researchers support the view that participation in decision-making has a positive impact on organisational commitment (Brewer, 1996; Brewer & Hensher,
2.6 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND WORK BEHAVIOUR

Organisational commitment has been found to influence job performance, tenure, tardiness, absenteeism, job satisfaction and turnover. Throughout the various studies, commitment has been repeatedly identified as an important variable in understanding the work behaviour of employees in organisations (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). In situations where employees feel personally committed to an undertaking or organisation, they are more likely to expend additional effort to accomplish their goals (Ulrich, 1997).

2.6.1 Job Performance

The findings with regards to the impact of organisational commitment on job performance have not been consistent. A number of the researchers argue that higher levels of organisational commitment foster an increase in the productivity of employees (Aryee & Heng, 1990; Carson & Carson, 1999; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Mowday et al., 1974; Phillips, Stone & Phillips, 2001). Studies indicate that the mean level of commitment for employees of high performing bank branches is greater than the mean for employees in low performing bank branches (Benkhoff, 1997; Mowday et al., 1974).
Another study conducted using employees in a food services organisation found that commitment was positively related to their measured job performance (Meyer et al., 1989). The view is not supported by Gilbert (1989) who found that successful managers in an organisation are not more committed or creative than their peers. In line with this, Somers and Birnbaum (1998) did not find any link between commitment and performance. Despite this organisational commitment is still regarded as important since “Committed members are viewed as stable, productive and more likely to accomplish organisational goals than their less committed colleagues” (Larkey & Morrill, 1995, p. 193).

2.6.2 Tenure

Hackett et al. (1994) report on inconsistent research findings with respect to the relationship between tenure and organisational commitment. Despite this, tenure has remained important since many studies have been conducted that reveal a “strong correlation between commitment and job tenure, job scope, participation in decision-making, fulfilled job expectations, and worker ownership” (Larkey & Morrill, 1995, p. 194).

Romzek (1990) supports the view that committed employees behave in a manner that is in the organisation’s best interest and are less likely to leave the company. Crouch’s (2000) qualitative research based on a sample of 8 top executives found that, commitment is an important determinant of turnover intentions, since 75 percent of the sample said they experienced a decrease in organisational commitment before they decided to resign.
Robson’s (2000) comparative study of levels of organisational commitment amongst contract and permanent staff in the information technology arena, found that there is a weak level of commitment for both contractors and permanent staff. This may be because within the information technology arena employees are not expected to remain long with the same organisation since, it would limit an individual’s opportunity for growth, experience and further skills development (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989, in Robson, 2000).

The study therefore further supports “the fact that career commitment is gradually replacing organisational commitment in the information technology arena” (Robson, 2000, p. 81).

2.6.3 Tardiness

The view is held that highly committed employees will engage in behaviours that are consistent with their attitudes towards the organisation and therefore refrain from being tardy (Luthans, 1992; Mowday et al., 1982).

2.6.4 Turnover

A large number of studies strongly support the view that high levels of organisational commitment will result in reduced turnover (Camp, 1994; Ko, Price & Mueller, 1997; Lee, Allen, Meyer & Rhee, 2001; Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Mowday et al., 1982; Somers, 1995; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Research has also revealed
that commitment is a superior predictor of turnover than the more frequently used job satisfaction predictor, by as much as a 34 percent variance (Robbins, 2001; Tett & Meyer, 1993). A qualitative South African study into voluntary top executive turnover conducted by Crouch (2000) with a sample of 8 executives who had recently resigned from their respective companies found that for 75% of the respondents “a decrease in organisational commitment preceded their decision to resign” (p. 95).

All three organisational commitment components, (affective, continuance, and normative) have been shown to correlate with turnover (Hackett et al., 1994; Jaros et al., 1993, in Spector, 2003). For all three components low commitment was associated with resignation. Labour turnover is an important consequence of organisational commitment since it is “one of the few quantifiable measures of the person-work relationship, and possibly the most objective – due to the act of separation being a clear-cut event” (Nel, 1973, p. 13).

Even though commitment has been found to have a major impact on labour turnover, “longer tenure may reflect a high degree of organisational commitment, a good match between employee and job, or non-work attachments to a particular geographic area” (Gerhart, 1990, p. 473).

Phillips et al. (2001) support this view since they believe that employee turnover is perhaps the most critical withdrawal variable. High employee turnover can be extremely costly for any organisation and involves both direct and indirect intangible costs (Mullins, 1994). Direct costs of high turnover are: advertising, time spent recruiting, cost of temporary personnel or overtime, initial induction, training and
settling in time on the job. Indirect costs include: loss of sales, or service or customer satisfaction, under utilisation of machinery or reduction in output, supervisor time and further training (Rothwell, 1980).

Labour turnover can be divided into three categories, namely individual variables, organisational variables and integrative variables, according to Crouch (2000). Meta-analysis conducted by (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986, in Huselid & Nancy, 1991) found organisational commitment, salary, age, sex, organisational tenure, educational attainment, perceptions of job mobility, met expectations, work-group cohesion, opportunities for advancement, and job performance to be highly related to turnover.

2.6.4.1 Individual Variables or Personal Factors

According to Manona (2000), job turnover is often influenced by “personal factors such as age, tenure, kinship responsibility, general training, education, professionalism, marital status, and intent to stay” (p. 14).

2.6.4.1.1 Age

The younger an employee the greater the likelihood of employee turnover (van der Merwe & Miller, 1988). The reasons for this, according to Mobley (1982), is that younger employees may have more entry-level job opportunities, few family responsibilities and inaccurate job expectations, and are therefore not fulfilled in their early jobs. It is therefore easier for younger employees to move from one company to another. A study conducted by Porter et al. (1974), using a sample of 60 psychiatric
technician trainees found a significant difference of (p<0.1), between the mean age of people staying within the organisation (31.4) and the mean age of people leaving the organisation (23.9). "The homogeneity of stayers and leavers concerning demographic characteristics is reflected in the absence of significant differences between the two groups with respect to education, male-female ratio and income" (Porter et al., 1974, p. 606). A common theme in top executive turnover in South Africa is that "it would be more difficult to make a move the older one became" (Crouch, 2000, p. 86).

2.6.4.1.2 Gender

Huselid and Nancy (1991) found a relationship between gender and employee turnover. In addition "Women returning to the labour market, after a family break, are sometimes found to be the most reliable employees (given flexible policies)" (Rothwell, 1980, p. 26).

2.6.4.1.3 Personality

Employees who can be characterised as independent, self-confident and aggressive tend to be more likely to leave an organisation according to a South African study into top executive turnover (Crouch, 2000).
2.6.4.1.4 Marital Status and Kinship Responsibility

Price and Mueller (1981) state that kinship responsibility is the degree of an individual’s obligation to relatives in the community in which the employer is located. Marriage, children, and relatives are the sources of increased kinship responsibility. A study conducted by Manona (2000, p. 81) on the turnover among public sector registered nurses supports the theory that kinship responsibility “reduces turnover by increasing the nurse’s intent to stay.” Single employees have less family responsibilities. Birkenbach (1982) argues that increases in family size will increase female commitment to the family and will increase men’s commitment to organisations as the traditional breadwinners of the family.

2.6.4.1.5 Length of Service (Tenure)

A common view with regards to length of service is that “Separation is more likely to occur in the early weeks of employment when there is little to hold the new entrant to the working group” (van der Merwe & Miller, 1988, p. 75). Length of service can provide a “useful measure of the development of adjustment to the work situation. It was found that labour turnover was a function of this developing relationship over time with the result that there were more leavers in the earlier stages of employment” (Nel, 1973, p. 117).
2.6.4.2 Organisational Variables

These consist of leadership, pay, promotion, organisational structure, size and supervision.

2.6.4.2.1 Leadership

The impact of leadership on resignations has had mixed results though in general it is not a major determining factor with regards to the resignations for top executives in South Africa according to (Crouch, 2000).

2.6.4.2.2 Pay

A study conducted by Tang and Kim (1999) using a sample of 155 employees from a health department found people’s attitudes towards money and not necessary the amount of money people earn that is associated to many work related variables, such as turnover and have been used to attract, retain, and motivate employee, within organisations. In a study of 210 sales people intentions to resign (George, 1989), found that the existent to which sales people are paid on a commission basis will influence their turnover. This view is supported by Hellreigel, Jackson, Slocum and Stuade (2001, p. 61) who state that “low salaries tend to lead to absenteeism and turnover.” Though for senior employees in South Africa it has been found that “pay appears to have little impact on top executive turnover” (Crouch, 2000, p. 90).
2.6.4.2.3 Promotion

According to Crouch (2000), for top executives in South Africa the perception of opportunities for promotion does not have much of an impact on the resignation of top executives. Though he does comment that within government run organisations it can be expected that affirmative action can be seen as a threat to white males.

2.6.4.2.4 Organisational Structure

Crouch (2000, p. 93) found in his study of top executive turnover that “For 75% of the sample, structure appeared to have some influence on the decision to resign.”

2.6.4.2.5 Supervision

The quality of supervision and inequity with respect the treatment of staff has been found to influence the level of turnover experienced (van der Merwe & Miller, 1988).

2.6.4.3 Integrative Variables or Environmental factors

Integrative variables that influence the level of turnover within organisations are perceived alternatives, terms and conditions of employment, retrenchments and organisational commitment.
2.6.4.3.1 Perceived Alternatives

The state of the economy and the demand for the skills of individual employees will influence the level of voluntary turnover experienced by organisations. According to Rothwell (1980), turnover will be high when the economy is doing well and low when the economy is doing badly and unemployment is high.

This is supported by Gerhart (1990) after conducting a longitudinal study with heterogeneous sample which eventually consisted of 1395 respondents, who states that “voluntary turnover was influenced by unemployment rate and by perceived ease of movement” (p. 472). These findings have also been supported within the South African context, with study investigating top executive turnover, which found that, “The perception of and actual alternatives are strongly related to the resignations of the sample” (Crouch, 2000, p. 97).

2.6.4.3.2 Terms and Conditions of Employment

It has been found that employees “reasons for leaving give priority to higher pay, shorter or more suitable working hours, and opportunity for promotion” (Rothwell, 1980, p. 26).

Rothwell (1980, p. 25) found that “turnover is normally highest amongst new recruits and decreases with length of time on the job. Many companies find that 50% of new recruits have left within the first few months.” The findings are supported by Manona
(2000, p. 100) who established that “long tenured employees tend to stay longer in organisations.”

2.6.5 Job Satisfaction

Brooke, Russell and Price (1988) performed two sets of confirmatory factor analysis that illustrated discriminant validity among measures of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) obtained an average corrected correlation of .53 between organisational commitment and overall job satisfaction across 43 studies. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found a lower average corrected correlation between organisational commitment and satisfaction with several more specific aspects of the job (e.g. pay, co-workers, etc). The two concepts can therefore be considered to be distinguishable from one another.

2.6.6 Absenteeism

Studies conducted by (Mathieu & Kohler, 1990, cited in Huselid & Nancy, 1991) reported support for the organisational commitment and job involvement interaction with several measures of absenteeism. It is generally accepted that employees will be absent from work, be it authorised or unauthorised, during their employment with an organisation, but it is when unauthorised absence become excessive that it starts becoming noticeable and a problem for line managers.

It is also possible to further distinguish between what can be considered to be an individual employee absentee problem or an absence problem as explained by Nel
(1973, pp. 33-34): “An absence problem is a situation which arises within the work organisation or department when the cumulative effect of the absence behaviour of individual members manifestly disorganises the functioning of that organisation or group. A problem absentee on the other hand is that worker who tends to stay away from work frequently without valid excuses, generally for short periods.”

Huczynski and Fitzpatrick (1989) mention six different forms of absenteeism, namely, sickness absence, statutory time off, strikes or other industrial action, holidays, special leave and personal/domestic leave. According to van der Merwe & Miller, (1993) the cost of absenteeism can be estimated at one and a half to three times the daily rate of pay.

There have been a number of studies conducted that indicate that organisational commitment contributes to reduced levels of absenteeism (Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Robbins, 2001; Somers, 1995). Research shows a link between the organisational commitment of employees and absenteeism (Huczynski & Fitzpatrick, 1989). This view is supported by Angle and Lawson (1994) who state that committed employees not only exhibit reduced withdrawal behaviours, but are more likely than others to work towards keeping the organisation competitive. Van der Merwe and Miller (1993) maintain further that the three main factors associated with absenteeism are personal factors, organisational factors and attitudinal factors.
2.6.6.1 Personal Factors

Personal factors consist of age, gender, length of service, seniority level, the impact of having children and race.

2.6.6.1.1 Age

The view held is that employees’ level of absenteeism will increase as employees become older due to increased health problems associated with old age. A longitudinal study conducted during a 2-year time period using 763 local government employees found that “age was positively associated with the risk of increased sickness absence rates, indicating that older employees may be more vulnerable during stressful changes in their working and private lives” (Kivimaki, Vahtera, Thomson, Griffiths, Cox, & Pentti, 1997, p. 866).

The findings of the impact of age on absenteeism have however, not been consistent. An investigation into the absenteeism of the Cape Town manufacturing industry found “A strong and statistically significant association between good and poor attendees and age” (Butler, 1994, p. 107). The young employees were bad attendees and older employees were good attendees. Another study conducted by Lockhart (2001) did not find a significant relationship between age and the level of absenteeism for a sample of librarians.
2.6.6.1.2 Gender

In a study that involved 1287 blue-collar workers, Melamed, Ben-Avi, Luz and Green (1995) found that repetitive work or work under-load has been found to influence the level of absenteeism experienced by women. A study conducted by Kivimaki et al. (1997) into the level of absence experience during times of economic decline found that “women were absent more often than men” (p. 866).

2.6.6.1.3 Length of Service

In a study of 210 salespeople of a large department store, George (1989) found that the tenure of salespeople influence the level of absenteeism experienced by the organisation. The study is supported by Butler (1994) who found a significant relationship between length of service and good attendance. However, the length of service did not have a significant relationship with the days absent for librarians (Lockhart, 2001).

2.6.6.1.4 Level of Seniority

A study conducted by Kivimaki et al. (1997) found that “the risks of sickness absence were 1.7 times higher for people with low incomes than for those with high incomes” (p. 863). The findings is supported by Butler (1994) who found that the higher the level within the organisation the lower the level of absenteeism. There is not a
significant difference in the level of absenteeism experienced between the different levels of seniority (Lockhart, 2001).

### 2.6.6.1.5 Impact of having Children

There has been found to be significant differences in the level of absenteeism experienced by employees who have children compared to those who do not have children (Butler, 1994; Lockhart, 2001).

### 2.6.6.1.6 Race

South Africa’s apartheid legacy, the socio-economic and cultural disparities that exists between the different racial groups has necessitated that the level of absenteeism between the different racial groups is investigated. Research in this area is limited, but a study conducted by Butler (1994) using a sample 238 employees, which includes employees, shop stewards and managers from 20 companies in the dairy, food cosmetics, industrial inks and clothing, light engineering and metal industries, has found a statistically significant association between good and poor attendees and race (Butler, 1994).

There was no significant difference between the good and poor attendees for the Asian and Coloured racial groups. For the Black group of employees, 39.1% had good attendance and 60.9% poor attendance. The White group of employees evidenced 85.7% good attendance and 14.3% poor attendance. What should be kept in mind,
however, is that although White workers evidenced a lower frequency, the absence severity was higher (Butler, 1994).

2.6.6.2 Organisational Factors

Organisational factors consist of, organisation control policies, quality and nature of supervision, type of work, the size of the organisation and work group.

2.6.2.2.1 Organisation Control Policies

The policies used by an organisation can influence the nature of the level of absenteeism experienced by an organisation, the more lenient the absence policies the higher the level of absenteeism (Dalton & Todor, 1993; in Bennett, 2002; van der Merwe & Miller, 1993). Research conducted by Harrison and Shaffer (1994), using a sample of 505 students and 1324 workers concludes, “perceived absence norms, regardless of their lack of connection to any social reality, can guide future attendance behaviour.” (p.250). In a study conducted by Bennett (2002, p. 436) it was found that the absence tended to be lower when “line managers actively acknowledged their responsibility for absence management.”

2.6.2.2.2 Quality and Nature Of Supervision

It has been found that “Good relationships between management and staff foster a higher level of attendance.” (Bennett, 2002, p. 439). The quality of supervision contributes towards an employee’s perception of development opportunities within an
organisation. According to Butler (1994), employees who view their development opportunities as high will have low levels of absenteeism.

2.6.2.2.3 Type of Work

The level of absenteeism experienced is “equally influenced by objective work conditions and perceived monotony” (Melamed, et al., 1995, p. 39). Repetitive work has been found to influence psychological distress and sickness absence experienced (Melamed et al., 1995). Shift work and overtime have also been found to be related to absence-taking behaviour of employees (van der Merwe & Miller, 1988).

2.6.2.2.4 Size of the Organisation and Work-Group Size

For blue-collar workers “Employee attendance appears to be related to group size, with larger work groups having a higher rate of absenteeism” (van der Merwe & Miller, 1988, p. 7). This may be due to increased work-group size leading to lower group cohesiveness, higher task specialisation, and poorer communication (Mowday et al., 1982). The impact of the work group is important since “groups with high cohesion experience lower job turnover and less absenteeism” according to Gray and Starch (1984) cited in Gerber, Nel & van Dyk (1998, p. 323).

2.6.2.3 Attitudinal Factors

Circumstances that influence attitudinal factors are, the state of the economy, worker dissatisfaction and mode of transportation.
2.6.2.3.1 State of the Economy

The state of the economy and the ease with which it is possible to find alternative employment has been found to influence the level of absenteeism experienced by an organisation (van der Merwe & Miller, 1988).

2.6.2.3.2 Worker Dissatisfaction

There is evidence that employees who are dissatisfied with aspects of their jobs have higher levels of absenteeism (van der Merwe & Miller, 1988).

2.6.2.3.3 Mode of Transportation

A statistically significant relationship has been found between the mode of transportation used and the level of absenteeism experienced for employees within the Western Cape. Employees who depend on public transport to get to work, i.e. bus, train, taxi or a lift, have a higher level of absence when compared to employees who are self reliant on getting to work.

Though there is in literature considered to be similarities between absenteeism and labour turnover, Huczynski and Fitzpatrick (1989) list three differences between absenteeism and labour turnover, namely;
1) There are typically fewer negative consequences associated with absence than with turnover for employees.

2) Absenteeism can be spontaneous and easily decided on, whereas a resignation is often more carefully thought through.

3) Absenteeism is often an indication of an employee’s desire to leave an organisation if alternative employment is available.

According to Huczynski and Fitzpatrick (1989, p. 58), “nearly every published study which has compared female with male sickness absence has generally shown a higher rate for the former group as compared with the latter.” Early theory and research indicated that absenteeism is likely to be low when unemployment levels are high, and vice versa, “the broad indication is that absence, at the present time, does not appear to be greatly affected by the prevailing economic conditions” (Huczynski and Fitzpatrick, 1989, p.67).

Absence can take on a variety of forms which are not as easily identifiable and objective as is the case with labour turnover. Absence may be a measure of unsatisfactory work adjustment or be the result of a genuine incapacity on behalf of the individual (Nel, 1973). According to Meyer and Allen (1997), there have been many studies that have examined the relationship between organisational commitment and absenteeism. The findings of these studies all support the theory that the higher an employee’s organisational commitment, the lower is the employee’s rate of voluntary absence.
Theory suggests that absenteeism is merely a forerunner of turnover, and “today’s absentee is tomorrow’s quit or discharge” (Knolls cited in Yolles, et al., 1975, p. 39). This view is supported by van der Merwe and Miller (1976) who argue thus: “Generally, in groups where there are high levels of absence, labour turnover will be correspondingly high” (p. 30). In a more recent meta-analysis conducted by Mitra et al. (1992) it was also found that absence and turnover were correlated, meaning that employees are more likely to have a high level of absence before they resigned. Romzek (1990) supports this view with the argument that employees with positive attendance records are less likely to leave the organisation.

2.7 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND RETRENCHMENTS

Organisational downsizing results in an increase in the turnover intentions of employees immediately after retrenchments have taken place (Allen et al., 2001). Recent literature into retrenchments has shown that surviving employees are more negatively than positively affected (Kozlowski et al., 1993). Survivors tend to be angry and less productive, though according to Bergman (1991), committed employees are more likely than others to remain with their employing organisations and work towards organisational goals.

A study by Luthans and Sommer (1999) into the impact of retrenchments on managers and employees over a three-year time period reported significant declines in the levels of commitment. Retrenched employees tend to be less trusting of the organisation for which they work, and towards supervisors and managers under which
they work (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004). Studies have also shown that remaining employees are more anxious about their job and financial future.

In a longitudinal study conducted during a 2-year time period using 763 local government employees, “women were found to be more vulnerable to the adverse affects of downsizing than men” (Kivimaki, et al., 1997, p. 867). Retrenchment survivors are also less likely to be innovative in their jobs and tend to have low morale (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004).

2.8 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS

According to Laher (2001), “Justice perceptions have not been explicitly identified as an antecedent to organisational commitment, but research has shown that justice perceptions affect employees organisational commitment levels” (p. 14). Perceptions that employees form with regards to procedural justice are a more important predictor of organisational commitment than distributive justice in studies conducted by Foiger and Konovky (1989) and McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) cited in Laher (2001). Another study has found distributive justice perceptions to be more closely related to organisational commitment, Lowe and Vodanovich, 1995, cited in Laher (2001).

In a study with regards to the impact of prior organisational commitment and perceived fairness of a retrenchment on the level of commitment of retrenchment survivors, Brockner Tyler and Cooper-Scheider (1992) found that the combined effect of prior commitment and perceived fairness of the retrenchment influenced the level of commitment, work effort and turnover intention of the remaining employees. It is
therefore important that any retrenchment process undertaken by an organisation has to be considered to be fair in the eyes of the remaining employees, both in terms of the process followed and the reasons for the retrenchments.

2.9 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

According to Rousseau (1995), there are two sets of factors that operate in forming the psychological contract, namely, “external messages and social cues from the organisation or social setting and the individual’s internal interpretations, predispositions, and constructions” (p. 34). There are two distinct kinds of externally induced change processes when it comes to psychological contracts, namely, accommodation and transformation. “Accommodation makes adjustments within the framework of the existing contract. Transformation marks a fundamental shift in the nature of the relationship between the parties; redefining it and the contract on which it is based” (Rousseau, 1995, p. 153). Problems normally start to occur once changes are made to the contract that is not perceived as being favourable by one of the parties and difference of opinion exists with regards to what the contract is.

When the changes that have to take place in an organisation are too radical to be accommodated in the existing contract then transformation takes place. Transformation can be seen as “the creation of a new contract in place of an existing one, where the new contract engenders commitment and efficacy for all concerned” (Rousseau, 1995, p. 161). What this means is that retrenchments are effectively the most extreme form of transformation that can take place with regards to the
psychological contract. Hence a new or different contract needs to be established in order to maintain a positive relationship and strong level of employee organisational commitment. Should this not be possible, then an employee’s level of organisational commitment may decline and the organisation could then experience the negative consequences associated with low levels of organisational commitment.

2.10 SUMMARY

Research appears to be equivocal with respect to the inverse relationships between absenteeism and labour turnover respectively and organisational commitment. It is argued that the subsequent recruitment, training and development costs will increase directly with increases in the rates of turnover and absenteeism, hence, the importance of organizational commitment cannot be taken lightly. Research has indicated that ‘commitment to the organisation was clearly the most important variable in differentiating between stayers and leavers’ (Porter et al., 1974, p. 606).

The literature illustrates that high levels of organisational commitment help to reduce the levels of absenteeism and labour turnover experienced by organisations. The converse indicates that low levels of organisational commitment contribute towards increased absenteeism and labour turnover. It is also important that retrenchments must be managed correctly, in order to help limit the effect it can have on reducing employees’ levels of organisational commitment and thereby increasing the rate of absenteeism and turnover.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter focuses on how the research problem was investigated by referring to the selection of respondents, data gathering instruments and the statistical techniques utilised. In conjunction with the literature review which was undertaken, empirical analyses are conducted to assess the hypotheses generated for the purpose of the research.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The current research utilised a quantitative, non-experimental, cross sectional design. The reason for using a non-experimental design was due to the availability of the sample, which was a convenient sample. All information technology staff members were presented with an opportunity to participate in the research. The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire was used to gather data in order to assess the level of organisational commitment for the study. The company’s absenteeism and turnover records were used to assess the level of absenteeism and turnover within the department.
3.2.1 SAMPLE

Despite the methodological shortcomings of utilising a non-probability sampling design for this research study, in the form of convenience sampling it was considered appropriate since it is less complicated than a probability sampling design, incurs less expense and may be done to take advantage of the available respondents without the statistical complexity of a probability sample (Sekaran, 2000). According to Kerlinger (1986), convenience sampling involves collecting information from members of a population who are easily accessible and conveniently available to provide the required information. Convenience sampling is not necessarily representative of the population therefore the results are not generalisable to other organisations (Leedy, 1993).

Sekaran (2000, p. 225) defines a population as “the entire group of people, events or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate.” From this population a sample whose characteristics reflect those from which they are derived is determined to ensure accuracy and generalisability of the results. However, since a non-probability sample was obtained, the external validity was compromised.

3.2.2 PROCEDURE

Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the Human Resources Director and the Technical Support Call Centre Manager. The Call Centre Manager agreed to have the questionnaires completed during the normal departmental team meetings. Only employees who attended the team meetings completed the questionnaires. Time
was set aside at the start of the meeting for the team members as well as the team manager to complete the questionnaires.

The questionnaire was compiled into a single booklet with the instructions for completing the questionnaire. Sekaran (2000) indicates the advantages of using questionnaires as the administration thereof to a large numbers of individuals, allowing for anonymity, and they are more economical to use than other data collection techniques. However, the main problems encountered by researchers using questionnaires involve poor response levels and the likelihood of social desirability, faking, and validity of responses provided, being questioned.

Due to the operational requirements of the department employees work shifts, this means that a team will never have all of its members present during team meetings. It is possible that under different circumstances and based on a stratified random sampling design, the rigour of the research design could have been improved and the possibility exists that results could have been influenced as a result of all member not being present.

3.2.3 Measuring Instrument

3.2.3.1 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was used to elicit data on organisational commitment of employees.
3.2.3.1.1 Nature and Composition of the OCQ

The OCQ was developed by Mowday et al. (1982) due to their identification of the need for an instrument with acceptable psychometric properties that could be used to solely measure organisational commitment. The psychometric properties of the OCQ have been well documented and there is no compelling reason to replace it with another commitment questionnaire (Ko et al., 1997).

In order to score the responses the results are summed and then divided by fifteen to arrive at a summary indicator of organisational commitment. An attempt is made to reduce response bias by having six of the fifteen items negatively phrased and reverse scored (Mowday et al., 1982).

3.2.3.1.2 Reliability of the OCQ

To assess the psychometric properties a series of studies among 2563 employees in nine divergent organisations were used and satisfactory test-retest reliabilities and internal consistency reliability were found. In addition cross-validated evidence of acceptable levels of predictive, convergent and discriminant validity emerged for the instrument (Mowday et al., 1982).

The internal consistency of the OCQ has been conducted by means of determining the coefficient alpha, by conducting a factor analysis and an item analysis. According to
Mowday et al. (1982), the coefficient alpha for the OCQ was consistently high across all of the samples used, ranging from 0.82 to 0.93, with a median correlation of 0.90.

The findings of the factor analysis generally resulted in a single-factor solution and yielded further evidence that the items are measuring a common underlying construct (Mowday et al., 1982). Finally, the item analyses indicated that each item had a positive correlation with the total score of the OCQ, with the average correlation ranging between 0.36 and 0.72. The results therefore suggest that the OCQ items are relatively homogeneous in respect of the underlying attitude they measure (Mowday et al., 1982).

The stability of the OCQ was measured by means of computing the test-retest reliabilities. The test-retest reliabilities demonstrated acceptable levels ranging from $r = 0.53$ to $r = 0.75$ over periods ranging from two to four months (Mowday et al., 1982).

3.2.3.1.3 Validity of the OCQ

The OCQ demonstrates evidence of convergent, discriminant and predictive validity according to Mowday et al. (1982). To support the view that the OCQ possesses convergent validity, the OCQ was correlated with the Organisational Attachment Questionnaire. The convergent validities across six diverse samples ranged from 0.63 to 0.70, supporting the convergent validity of the OCQ (Mowday et al., 1982).
Intent to remain with an organisation forms a significant part of the conceptualisation of organisational commitment, as held by Mowday et al. (1982), significant correlations have been found between the OCQ and intent to remain in four separate studies. Additional evidence emerged from four studies that a modest relationship exists (correlation’s of between 0.35 to 0.45) between the OCQ and employee’s motivation to exert high levels of energy on behalf of the organisation (Mowday et al., 1982).

Convergent validity was demonstrated by showing that OCQ scores were positively correlated with a work-oriented life interest and supervisor rating of subordinate’s commitment (Mowday et al., 1982).

Additional support for the validity of the OCQ was provided by Mowday et al. (1982), by providing proof of discriminant validity. The measures of job satisfaction, job involvement and career satisfaction all demonstrated low correlations with the score of the OCQ. Proof of the predictive validity of the OCQ was provided by demonstrating the relationship between the scores on the OCQ and voluntary turnover, absenteeism and job performance (Mowday et al., 1982).

3.2.3.1.4 Rationale for inclusion of the OCQ

The OCQ has proven to be to a reliable and valid instrument for the measurement of organisational commitment.
3.2.4 Measures of Absence

Attendance records of 94 employees over a five-year period were studied. Absenteeism was measured by objectively calculating the number of absence days and occurrences from organisational records prior to and following the retrenchment endeavour undertaken by the company. The company’s leave records were used as a source to measure the absence rates for employees.

3.2.5 Turnover

Turnover can be considered to be the “voluntary and involuntary withdrawal from an organisation” (Robbins, 2001, p. 21). For this study it includes all full and part-time employees that left the organisation. Turnover rate is an important measure of the level of turnover (Spector, 2003).

3.3 STATISTICAL METHODS

In order to test the research hypotheses, a number of statistical techniques are used. The methods to be used include descriptive statistics to indicate the distribution of data with respect to frequencies, percentages, measures of central tendency and variability, as well as inferential techniques used to depict the relationships amongst the variables included in the research, and where applicable differences between respondents’ biographical levels of commitment. The techniques used include the Pearson’s product moment correlation, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Scheffe’s Multiple Comparison Method.
3.3.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics enable researchers to display the data obtained in a structured, accurate and summarised format (Huysamen, 1990). The descriptive statistics used in the current research include frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations of the variables investigated in the research.

3.3.2 Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation

According to Rosnow and Rosenthal (1996, p. 232) “correlation procedures are used to measure the strength of association between two variable (referred to as X and Y).” Wiersma and Jurs (1982) add that correlation coefficients serves as an index of the linear relationship between two variables and that it can be used in inferential tests of hypotheses. For the purposes of determining whether a statistically significant relationship exists between organizational commitment, turnover, absenteeism and retrenchment, Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used. It provides an indication of the extent to which the variables being investigated are related to each other or not, as well as the directionality and strength of the relationship (Sekaran, 2000).

3.3.3 Analysis of Variance (Anova)

Mouton and Marais (1990) maintain that statistical techniques such as analysis of variance (ANOVA) make it possible to determine the separate and joint influence of several independent variables on the experimental criterion. According to Wiersma
and Jurs (1982, p. 253), “in ANOVA, the hypothesis is that the mean performance in the population is the same for all groups (equality of population means).”

3.3.4 Scheffe’s Multiple Comparison Method

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) provides an insight into the differences between groups, but does not provide an exact indication as to where the differences exactly lie. Hence Scheffe’s Multiple Comparison Method was utilised to determine exactly where such differences lie in organisational commitment based on the biographical variables. Wiersma and Jurs (1982, p. 266) posit the view that “when a statistically significant F ratio is obtained in an ANOVA, and the null hypothesis is rejected, we conclude that at least one population mean is different from the others.” They add that all the population means could differ or that any combination differs and therefore in order to establish which pairs of means differ it is necessary to do a follow-up analysis like the Scheffe’ Multiple Comparison Procedure. This procedure involves computing an F value for each combination of two means.

3.4 CONCLUSION

In summary this chapter explained the research design, the nature of the sample, the procedure used to gather the data, the measuring instruments used and statistical techniques.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The current chapter outlines the results obtained in the study and discusses the findings of the results. The chapter commences with an overview of the most salient sample characteristics depicted in graphical format. The descriptive and inferential statistical results are presented thereafter, followed by a discussion of these.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow.

4.2.1 Results of the Biographical Questionnaire

The descriptive statistics calculated for the biographical questionnaire is presented in graphical format, followed by a description of the most salient sample characteristics in the form of frequencies and percentages.
The frequency distribution of the respondents' age presented graphically in Figure 4.1. There were 137 employees within the call centre. However, the questionnaire was only administered to 94 employees. The sample's age ranges from under 20 to over 35 years. It can be seen that the majority of the sample, \( n = 42 \), or 45% of the sample, falls into the age category of 30 to 34 years old. This is followed by the age category 25 to 29 years old, \( n = 27 \) which constitutes 29% of the sample. Only one of the respondents is under 20 years of age and two of the respondents did not answer the question.
Figure 4.2 contains the graphic presentation of the gender distribution of the sample. There are a larger number of male respondents (n=79), which is 84% of the sample. The female respondents comprise 16% (n=15) of the sample. This is due to the demographics of the call centre within which the study has been conducted in. Female employees are currently underrepresented in the call centre. The sample in terms of gender is therefore not representative of the demographics of the Province in which the call centre is located. This may be due to the call centre employing IT skilled individuals, which traditionally is a male dominated profession.
Figure 4.3 contains the racial composition of the call centre. From the frequency distribution in the graph it can be seen that sixty-two Coloureds (66%) represented the largest racial group in the sample. The least represented group is the Asian group (n = 1) or 1% of the sample. The nature of the sample may be due to the company’s recruitment attempts to reflect the demographics of the region in line with the requirements of the Employment Equity Act. The low number of Black employees (n = 14) may be indicative of the education system, which historically disadvantaged individuals in terms of their racial grouping. There is currently a lack of suitably qualified black employees with IT skills in the country. Alternatively, demographic and regional differences in race composition of various provinces could explain this bias.
The years of service for the respondents is displayed in figure 4.7. The majority of the respondents (n = 54) or 58% have between 3-4 years of service with the company and (n = 13) or 14% of the respondents has more than 4 years of service with the company. One of the respondents (n = 1) or 1% did not complete the question.
The graphic distribution of the job level of the sample is displayed in figure 4.8. It can clearly be seen that the majority of the respondents (n = 72) or 77% are employed as Customer Services Representatives (CSR), the job title in the company for the call centre agents. The specialists deal with the most complicated client support problems and generally do not spend their time at work on the phone receiving customer queries, are (n = 11) or 12% of the respondents who. One respondent (n = 1), or 1% did not complete the question.
4.2.2 Descriptive Statistics of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

Descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations were computed for the various dimensions assessed by the OCQ. The results are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of Organisational Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belief in organisation’s goals and values</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>29.814</td>
<td>4.632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>27.632</td>
<td>7.464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong desire to maintain membership of the organisation</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>25.713</td>
<td>11.236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Organisational Commitment</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>86.545</td>
<td>8.734</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of table 4.1 it can be seen that the arithmetic mean and standard deviation for the organisational commitment of the sample are 86.545 and 8.734, respectively. Given that a mean score of approximately 60 would constitute an average level of organisational commitment, it may be concluded that the sample in question demonstrates above average levels of organisational commitment as assessed by the OCQ. The obtained standard deviation of 8.734 is also not particularly high, which would suggest that most responses are distributed relatively close to the mean with regards to this construct. Despite the restructuring undertaken in this organisation, it appears that most members maintain a slightly higher than average belief in the
organisation’s goals and values, express a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and have a strong desire to maintain membership of the organisation.

4.3 Correlations for the Biographical Data and Organisational Commitment

Table 4.2 Pearson’s correlation matrix between biographical data and organisational commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Organisational commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.482</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>0.542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational level</td>
<td>0.323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of service</td>
<td>0.224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of employment</td>
<td>0.458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home language</td>
<td>0.332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job level</td>
<td>0.621</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.05

** p < 0.01

In terms of Table 4.2, it may be seen that moderately positive correlations existed between the biographical characteristics of the sample and their levels of organisational commitment. The correlation coefficients varied between 0.224 (years
of service and organisational commitment) to 0.621 (job level and organisational commitment).

The results depict low to moderate, positive relationships between the biographical characteristics and organisational commitment. The results indicate weak to moderately strong, significant relationships between gender and organisational commitment ($r=0.482$), educational level and organisational commitment ($r=0.323$), nature of employment and organisational commitment ($r=0.458$) and home language and organisational commitment ($r=0.332$) at the 95% confidence level.

The results further indicate there are moderately strong, positive relationships between race and organisational commitment ($r=0.542$) and job level and organisational commitment ($r=0.621$) at the 99% confidence interval.
### Table 4.3. Biographical data and organisational commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational commitment</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Scheffe’s Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>81.67</td>
<td>20.47</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>.000**</td>
<td>Black respondents differed significantly from the other groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female*</td>
<td>92.97</td>
<td>25.60</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Race</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black*</td>
<td>74.68</td>
<td>21.24</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>.000**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>97.63</td>
<td>12.46</td>
<td>62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>92.14</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>87.94</td>
<td>11.45</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 20 years</td>
<td>75.73</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.42</td>
<td>.000**</td>
<td>Younger employees differed significantly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24 years</td>
<td>84.12</td>
<td>16.35</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29 years</td>
<td>85.23</td>
<td>19.95</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34 years*</td>
<td>94.32</td>
<td>15.96</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 35 years*</td>
<td>102.36</td>
<td>23.34</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Educational level</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. 8-10*</td>
<td>74.69</td>
<td>21.60</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>.000**</td>
<td>Lower educational levels differ significantly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate degree / diploma</td>
<td>97.67</td>
<td>21.27</td>
<td>41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate degree / diploma</td>
<td>95.73</td>
<td>16.14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>87.74</td>
<td>17.24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Years of service</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 1 year</td>
<td>81.03</td>
<td>27.58</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>.000**</td>
<td>3-4 years differed significantly from other groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2 years*</td>
<td>95.39</td>
<td>31.20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4 years*</td>
<td>94.12</td>
<td>12.15</td>
<td>54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 4 years*</td>
<td>79.01</td>
<td>16.59</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nature of employment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>87.11</td>
<td>13.69</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>.000**</td>
<td>Contract employees differed significantly from Other employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract*</td>
<td>76.79</td>
<td>22.67</td>
<td>26</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Home language</strong></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>92.40</td>
<td>22.62</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>.000**</td>
<td>Others differed significantly from English and Afrikaans groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>86.04</td>
<td>14.32</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other*</td>
<td>72.59</td>
<td>11.53</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job level</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR*</td>
<td>73.29</td>
<td>19.70</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>.000**</td>
<td>CSRs differed significantly from the other groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Manager</td>
<td>92.65</td>
<td>7.34</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>98.23</td>
<td>12.71</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.05

** p < 0.01
4.3.1 Gender

From Table 4.3 the results indicate a significant difference between organisational commitment and gender. Female respondents have a mean score of (92.97), and a standard deviation of (25.60). The male respondents have a mean score of (81.67), with a standard deviation of (20.47). Since higher scores are indicative of higher commitment, it can be concluded that female respondents working in this sector are significantly more committed than their male counterparts (p < 0.01). However, any conclusions are somewhat tenuous since the number of females who participated in this research was fairly small.

4.3.2 Race

Results depicted in Table 4.3 indicate that there is a significant difference in organisational commitment based on respondents' race. The Black respondents in the sample (n = 14) have a mean of (74.68) and a standard deviation of (21.24) therefore suggesting that the Black respondents have lower levels of commitment. The Coloured respondents (n = 62) have a mean of (97.63) and a standard deviation of (12.46) suggesting that the Coloured respondents display the highest levels of organisational commitment. The Asian respondent (n = 1) has a mean of (92.14). The White respondents (n = 17) have a mean of (87.94) and a standard deviation of (11.45). It would appear that the level of commitment for White and Asian respondents are moderate. Since higher scores are indicative of higher commitment, it can be concluded that Coloured, White and Asian respondents working in this sector are significantly more committed than their Black (African) counterparts (p < 0.01).
However, any conclusions are somewhat tenuous due to the race distribution of the sample.

4.3.3 Age

In terms of Table 4.3 it would appear that there is a significant difference in organisational commitment based on respondents’ age. The age group 30-34 years of age has a mean score of (94.32), a standard deviation of (15.96) for the (n = 42) respondents that fall into this age category. For the 35 years and older age category the mean score is (102.36), with a standard deviation of (23.34) for the (n = 16) respondents that fall into this category. The respondents in the age category 30-34 and 35 years and older are significantly more committed than the other age groups. The respondent in the age category under twenty years (n = 1) has a mean of (75.73). The respondents in the age category 20 – 24 years (n = 6) have a mean of (84.12) and a standard deviation of (16.35). The 25 – 29 years age category (n = 27) has a mean of (85.23) and a standard deviation of (19.95). The results suggest lower levels of organisational commitment for the three categories viz, under 20 years of age, 20 – 24 years of age and 25 to 29 years of age (p < 0.01).

4.3.4 Educational Level

From Table 4.3 it can be seen that there is a significant difference in organisational commitment based on education levels. The standard 8 to 10 group (n = 7) have a mean score of (74.69) and a standard deviation of (21.60), these respondents have the lowest level of organisational commitment (p < 0.01). The undergraduate
degree/diploma respondents \((n = 41)\) have a mean of \((97.67)\) and standard deviation of \((21.27)\), suggesting that respondents with undergraduate degrees/diplomas have the highest levels of organisational commitment. The postgraduate degree/diploma category \((n = 17)\) have a mean of \((95.73)\) and a standard deviation of \((16.14)\). The other category \((n = 24)\) have a mean score of \((87.74)\) and a standard deviation of \((17.24)\). These two categories appear to have moderate levels of organisational commitment.

### 4.3.5 Years of Service

From Table 4.3 it can be seen that there is a significant difference in organisational commitment based on tenure. Those respondents employed between 1 to 4 years differ significantly from those in the other groups \((p < 0.01)\). Those with 1 to 2 years of service have a mean of \((95.39)\) and a standard deviation of \((31.20)\) for the \((n = 18)\) respondents. The respondents with 3 to 4 years of service have a mean score of 94.12 and a standard deviation of 12.15 for the \(n = 54\) respondents. Hence, employees with 1 to 4 years experience are significantly more committed than employees with less than one year and more than four years of service.

### 4.3.6 Nature of Employment

The respondents employed on a contract basis differ significantly from permanent employees as shown in Table 4.3 \((p < 0.01)\). Those employed on a contract has a mean score of 76.79 and a standard deviation of 22.67 for all of the \((n = 26)\)
respondents. The permanent employees have a mean of 87.11 and a standard deviation of 13.69.

4.3.7 Home Language

With respect to home language Table 4.3 indicates that those respondents not speaking English and Afrikaans as a home language differ significantly from other groups. The other language category has a mean of 72.59 and a standard deviation of 11.53. The “other” language category respondents are significantly less committed to the organisation than the English and Afrikaans speaking respondents (p < 0.01).

4.3.8 Job Level

The level of commitment for respondents employed as CSR’s differ significantly from other groups as reflected in Table 4.3. The CSR group has a mean of 73.29 and a standard deviation of 19.70. The CSR group is significantly less committed than the other groups (p < 0.01).
4.4 Absenteeism

Figure 4.9 indicates sickness absence rates (SAR) for the period from 1998 until 2003.

In terms of figure 4.9 it can be seen that there was a consistent increase in the absenteeism rate from 1998 until 2002 for the permanent staff members, with a decline in 2003. This decline can be attributed to the fact that data was only gleaned until March 2003. Given that only a few months’ absenteeism data had been analysed in 2003, it is probable that the absenteeism data for 2003 would have been higher than in previous years.
4.5 Turnover

Figure 4.10 indicates the turnover for the period 1998 until March 2003.

![Figure 4.10: Turnover for the period 1998 - 2003](image)

In terms of figure 4.10 it can be seen that there was a steady increase in staff turnover rates for the period analysed. Until the restructuring endeavour occurred in 2001, this rate showed a substantial increase. However, from 2001 onward, the turnover rate slowed own and declined somewhat. However, despite this decline, the turnover rate is still high for the period examined.
4.6 Inter-correlation matrix for the relationship between Organisational Commitment, Absenteeism and Labour Turnover

Table 4.4 presents the results of the inter-correlation matrix representing the relationships between organisational commitment, absenteeism and labour turnover.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Organisational Commitment</th>
<th>Absenteeism</th>
<th>Labour turnover</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Commitment</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absenteeism</td>
<td>-0.743**</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour Turnover</td>
<td>-0.642*</td>
<td>0.694**</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*  p < 0.05

**  p < 0.01

In terms of table 4.4 it can be seen that significant relationships exists between organisational commitment, absenteeism and labour turnover, respectively. The results depict a strong, inverse relationship between organisational commitment and absenteeism ($r= -0.743$), which is significant at the 99% confidence level. Moreover, there is a moderate, yet inverse relationship between organisational commitment and labour turnover ($r= -0.642$), which is significant at the 95% confidence level.

There is also a moderately positive and significant relationship between absenteeism and labour turnover ($r= 0.694$) which is significant at the 99% confidence level.
4.7 SUMMARY

This chapter has provided an overview of the most important findings which emerged from the empirical analysis. The next section presents a discussion of the findings obtained and compares findings obtained with other research conducted in this field.
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter discusses the results of the statistical analyses in relation to the hypotheses, previous research and related literature.

5.2 LEVELS OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AMONGST IT CALL CENTRE ENVIRONMENT STAFF

The results in the study indicate moderate levels of organisational commitment amongst employees in the IT call centre environment that was undergoing restructuring, in which this survey was conducted. In general, most members maintain a slightly higher than average belief in the organisation’s goals and values, express a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and have a strong desire to maintain membership of the organisation. However, the results depict low to moderate, positive relationships between the biographical characteristics and organisational commitment. *Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.*
5.3 RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Moderately positive correlations were found between the biographical characteristics of the sample and their levels of organisational commitment (cf. Table 4.2). The correlation coefficients varied between 0.224 (years of service and organisational commitment) to 0.621 (job level and organisational commitment). The results depict low to moderate, positive relationships between the biographical characteristics and organisational commitment. The results indicate weak to moderately strong, significant relationships between gender and organisational commitment ($r=0.482$), educational level and organisational commitment ($r=0.323$), nature of employment and organisational commitment ($r=0.458$) at the 95% confidence level. The results further indicate there are moderately strong, positive relationships between race and organisational commitment ($r=0.542$) and job level and organisational commitment ($r=0.621$) at the 99% confidence interval. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

5.4 RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT, ABSENTEEISM AND LABOUR TURNOVER

Significant relationships were found between organisational commitment, absenteeism, and labour turnover following retrenchments, respectively. The results depict a strong, inverse relationship between organisational commitment and absenteeism. Moreover, there is a moderate, yet inverse relationship between organisational commitment and labour turnover following retrenchment. There is also
a moderately positive and significant relationship between absenteeism and labour turnover.

Several researchers (Huczynski & Fitzpatrick, 1989; Huselid & Nancy, 1991; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1974;) support the theory that the higher an employees organisational commitment, the lower is the employee’s rate of voluntary absence. Research also consistently demonstrates there is a significant correlation between absence and turnover, meaning that employees are more likely to have a high level of absence before they resign (Mitra et al., 1992; Romzek, 1990; Spector 2003; van der Merwe & Miller, 1993). Similarly, Mitra et al. (1992) found a positive relationship between absenteeism and turnover behaviour.

High rates of employee absence and turnover can be extremely costly for any organisation in that committed employees do not only exhibit reduced withdrawal behaviours but are more likely than others to work towards keeping the organisation competitive (Angle & Lawson, 1994; Larkey & Morrill, 1995).

5.4.1 Organisational Commitment and Absenteeism

The results depict a strong, inverse relationship between organisational commitment and absenteeism. (cf. Table 4.4). The null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

There have been a number of studies conducted that indicate that organisational commitment contributes to reduced levels of absenteeism (Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Robbins, 2001; Somers, 1995). Research shows a link between the
organisational commitment of employees and absenteeism (Huczynski & Fitzpatrick, 1989).

This view is supported by Angle and Lawson (1994) who state that committed employees not only exhibit reduced withdrawal behaviours, but are more likely than others to work towards keeping the organisation competitive. Research by Eby et al. (1999) did not find evidence of a relationship between organisational commitment and absenteeism. Farrell and Stamm (1988) found a negative correlation between organisational commitment and absenteeism. The higher the organisational commitment, the lower the absenteeism reported. Similar findings were obtained by Hackett (1989).

5.4.2 Organisational Commitment and Turnover

There is also a moderately positive and significant relationship between organisational commitment and labour turnover ($r = 0.694$) which is significant at the 95% confidence level. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

A large number of studies strongly support the view that high levels of organisational commitment result in reduced turnover (Camp, 1994; Ko et al., 1997; Lee et al., 2001; Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Mowday et al., 1982; Somers, 1995; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

A qualitative South African study into voluntary top executive turnover conducted by Crouch (2000) with a sample of 8 executives who had recently resigned from their
respective companies found that for 75% of the respondents, "a decrease in organisational commitment preceded their decision to resign" (p. 95).

5.5 DIFFERENCES IN ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT BASED ON BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

5.5.1 Gender

There are significant differences between organisational commitment based on gender. The results of this study indicate the female respondents are significantly more committed to the organisation than the male respondents in the sample. The finding of this study is consistent with the findings of Luthans and Sommers (1999) which used a sample of 848 managers and employees, where the organisation has undergone a three-year period of retrenchments. Other research (Cramer, 1993; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Mowday et al., 1982) indicates that women as a group are more committed than the men in their employing organisation.

A study by Loscocco (1990) using a sample of 3559 blue-collar workers in the manufacturing industry also reports that female employees are more committed than male employees. The reason why women are more committed to an organisation may be due to them having more barriers to overcome to attain their positions within an organisation and will more likely have to once again overcome similar barriers should they leave the organisation (Mowday et al., 1982). Female employees have also been found to be more committed than male employees according to a study conducted by McClurg (1999).
Blau and Boa (1989) cited in Voster (1992) maintain that men demonstrate higher levels of organisational commitment than women. Contrary to this, in a study with a sample of 124 university academics in a South African University, Laher (2001) failed to find any significant gender differences in organisational commitment. A number of studies have also failed to find support for the relationship between commitment and gender (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Caruana & Calleya, 1998; Kinnear, 1999, Kinnear & Sutherland, 2000; Ngo & Tsang, 1998; Wahn, 1998). Meyer and Allen (1997) and Allen & Meyer (1990) contend that the relationship between organisational commitment and gender is dependent on the work characteristics and experiences of the employees in question.

5.5.2 Race

Results in the study indicate that there is a significant difference in organisational commitment based on respondents’ race. Coloured, White and Asian respondents working in this sector are significantly more committed than their Black (African) counterparts.

There are a limited number of studies that take into account the impact of race on the level of commitment experienced by employees within South Africa. The levels of commitment for Black respondents are significantly lower than the level of commitment of other racial groups. These findings are unexpected since a study conducted by Laher (2001) using a sample of 124 academic staff did not find any significant difference in the level of organisational commitment experienced between
different racial groups. In another study, Mueller et al. (1999) did not find lower levels of organisational commitment for Black teachers.

5.5.3 Age

There is a significant difference in organisational commitment based on respondents age. The results suggest lower levels of organisational commitment for younger employees compared to older employees.

This is consistent with international research findings (Cramer, 1993; Dunham et al., 1994; Lok & Crawford, 1999; Loscocco, 1990; Luthans, 1992; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1982; Sekaran; 2000) where organisational commitment increases significantly with age.

This relationship may be due to alternative employment opportunities decreasing with age, and an employee’s current job becoming more important (Kacmar et al., 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). Older respondents are probably more committed to their organisations because they have made greater investments with their organisations over time, than younger employees would have made (Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Kacmar et al., 1999).

Several reasons as to why older employees are more committed, are cited. Younger employees generally have lower psychological investments in an organisation and are likely to be more mobile. Older employees are also less willing to sacrifice the benefits and idiosyncratic credits that are associated with seniority in an organisation.
(Hellman, 1997). Younger employees will often find that early in their working lives they may have chosen the wrong career and therefore leave the organisation in search of a career that they are more suited to. South African research (Lafer, 2001) based on a sample of 124 university academics did not, however, find any significant differences with regards to age.

5.5.4 Educational Level

There is a significant difference in organisational commitment based on education levels. Employees with lower levels of education indicated the lowest levels of organisational commitment. According to the results the respondents with an education between standard 8 to 10 are significantly less committed than respondents with a higher level of educational qualification.

This finding was contrary to the majority of researchers (Luthans et al., 1987; McClurg, 1999; Mowday et al., 1982; Voster, 1992) who found that highly educated employees have lower levels of organisational commitment. Plausible reasons for these differences is that this may be due to highly educated employees having higher levels of expectations that are more difficult for an organisation to fulfil. These employees may also be more committed to their professions and are often more marketable in terms of having a large number of alternative work opportunities available (Mowday et al., 1982; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Higher levels of education are postulated to enhance the possibility that employees have to find alternative employment which may reduce their levels of commitment.
McClurg’s (1999) research into organisational commitment amongst 200 temporary workers from 24 different agencies found that highly educated employees had lower levels of organisational commitment.

Current findings contradict the majority of previous research due to the nature of the sample, as well as the organisational context. The educated employees are predominately IT skilled individuals who are dedicated towards their profession and they are employed within an IT company. They display higher levels of commitment because the organisation is able to meet their expectations and the scarcity of alternative employment opportunities within South Africa.
5.5.5 Years of Service

There is a significant difference in organisational commitment based on tenure. Respondents employed between 1 to 4 years differ significantly from those in the other groups. Hence employees with 1 to 4 years experience are significantly more committed than other groups. The results of the current study show that those respondents employed for more than 4 years are less committed to the organisation while those employed for 1 to two years are the most committed.

In the current context those employed between 1-2 years might have higher levels of organisational commitment because they believe that the organisation will be able to meet their career aspirations. It is possible that those employed for more than 4 years may perceive themselves as having stagnated and no longer believe that the organisation is able to meet their career aspirations.

Robson’s (2000) comparative study of levels of organisational commitment amongst contract and permanent staff in the information technology arena, found that there is a weak level of commitment for both contractors and permanent staff. This may be because within the information technology arena employees are not expected to remain long with the same organisation since, it would limit an individual’s opportunity for growth, experience and further skills development (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989, in Robson, 2000). The study therefore further supports “the fact that career commitment is gradually replacing organisational commitment in the information technology arena” (Robson, 2000, p. 81).
However, a South African study conducted by Kinnear and Sutherland (2000) using a sample of 104 knowledge workers from different organisations failed to find support for the relationship between organisational commitment and tenure. These findings are corroborated by other studies that failed to find support for the relationship between tenure and organisational commitment (Cramer, 1993; Kinnear, 1999; Luthans, McCaul & Dodd (1985) cited in Voster, 1992).

5.5.6 Nature of Employment

The respondents employed on a contract basis differ significantly from permanent employees. The results show that the respondents employed on a contract basis are less committed than those employed on a permanent basis.

In a study conducted by Robson (2000) with regards to the levels of organisational commitment that exists between contract and permanent staff in the information technology arena, it was found that there is a low level of commitment for both contract and permanent staff. It is therefore important for the company to continue to ensure that the majority of its employees are permanently employed to help maintain the employees level of organisational commitment.

5.5.7 Home Language

Those respondents not speaking English and Afrikaans as a home language differ significantly from other groups with respect to organisational commitment and are less committed. According to the current findings, those respondents within the
“Other” languages category are the least committed to the organisation. The other language category generally represents the languages spoken by Black respondents within the organisation.

5.5.8 Job Level

The level of commitment for respondents employed as CSR’s differ significantly from other groups, with this group being significantly less committed than the other groups.

The results obtained from the current study indicate that the level of commitment for respondents employed as Customer Service Representatives (CSR’s), are significantly lower than the specialists and team managers. The CSR’s are the lowest ranked respondents in the call centre, the specialists are ranked above the CSR’s and the Team Managers are ranked higher than the CSR’s and Specialists.

Research findings are not equivocal with regard to the impact that an employee’s position within an organisation has on the level of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Circumstances within the organisation may therefore play a large role in the level of commitment of supervisors within the organisation. Boshoff and Arnolds’s (1995, p. 92) research indicates that “organisational commitment exerts a positive influence on job performance whilst reducing turnover and absenteeism.”

Mowday et al.’s (1982) research provides evidence that occupational level is not related to organisational commitment. However, researchers such as Luthans et al.
(1987) maintain that individuals employed in higher positions within an organisation are more committed towards the organisation. This point of view is supported by Aryee and Heng (1990) and Luthans et al. (1999), who state that the association between job level and commitment is due to higher level employees being more likely receiving larger economic rewards and being more likely to perceive the system of authority as legitimate and therefore support it.

5.6 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Organisational commitment has been found to be inversely related to such withdrawal behaviours as tardiness, absenteeism and turnover, and positively associated with productivity and organisational effectiveness (Mowday et al., 1982; Robbins, 2001).

Since the current research utilised a non-probability sampling method in the form of convenience sampling, certain groups may have been under-represented. Due to the selection bias, the extent to which results can be extrapolated from the sample to the population is questionable. Furthermore, although the sample size of 94 employees is considered appropriate, a larger, stratified random sample would have enabled to ensure greater rigour and strive for greater precision and control with respect to the sample. The study was conducted in one organisation located in the Western Cape. Hence the ecological validity of the study will be somewhat restricted to the Western Cape.

Only selected variables were considered in the research and the role of potentially confounding extraneous variables, for example, role conflict, job satisfaction, job
involvement and organisational climate, have not been considered although their potential impact are noted. In order to improve on this, it is suggested that future research be undertaken to ascertain the potential relationship with these extraneous variables.

Lance (1991) maintains self-report questionnaires reflect respondents’ perceptions, and not actual work targets from questionnaire data. Eby et al. (1999) maintain that the huge costs associated with turnover and absenteeism necessitate linking work attitudes to these outcomes since it provides organisations with an insight into enhancing quality of work life for employees.

The empirical findings indicate that employees in an IT call centre environment undergoing restructuring would exhibit slightly higher than average levels of organisational commitment. This is probably unexpected in view of the typical uncertainty and anxiety associated with new tasks, having to discard long-standing work practices and formal social networks (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004).

Given the fact that the company was undergoing retrenchments at the time of the survey and a potential second round of retrenchments was pending, management of the organisation needs to accord significant attention to the management of the restructuring process in order to ensure that job performance and withdrawal behaviours (e.g. absenteeism and labour turnover) are not adversely effected. Hence, careful attention needs to be paid to open communication channels and regular feedback about restructuring (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004).
Absenteeism can amount to inordinately high levels of unplanned costs for organisations, perhaps in excess of what they actually anticipate. Unless concerted efforts are made to ascertain the extent of the exact costs of absenteeism, the true extent thereof will remain hidden. Similarly, turnover has major repercussions for organisations given the costs associated with recruiting, training and producing future talent.

In accordance with this, organisations need to ensure they accord adequate attention to reducing absenteeism and turnover. Stringent monitoring of the extent of absenteeism is required, organisations need to ensure they have proper policies in place to ensure control thereof, and a culture of attendance needs to be cultivated amongst employees (Bielous, 1993; Martocchio, 1994).

Future research needs to closely examine the absence severity rate (ASR) in terms of the average number of days' sick leave per incident for a period of time expressed as a number i.e. how long employees are off when they do take sick leave. Additionally, the absence frequency rate (AFR) needs to be monitored. This would entail examining the total number of absence incidents over a period divided by the average number of people in employment for that period. For this reason, “each absence, irrespective of length, is counted as one incident, and the normal period for data collection must be consistent for comparisons to be valid” (van der Merwe & Miller, 1976, p. 21). This will provide a more accurate index of how widespread absence is (van der Merwe & Miller, 1988).
Since organisational commitment has been shown to exert an influence on important employee behaviours such as absenteeism and turnover, ongoing research is required in this area. However, it is suggested that future research needs to focus on the differentiation between various kinds of organisational commitment (e.g. affective, continuance and normative commitment) to determine their relationships to turnover and absenteeism.
REFERENCE LIST


Lockhart, J. (2001). *Managing absenteeism for improved productivity and cost-


McGee, G.W., & Ford, R.C. (1987). Two (or more) dimensions of organisational


APPENDIX A

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE
Section A

Biographical Questionnaire

Please circle the answer that is most applicable to you in respect of each of the following items. Your responses will be treated as strictly confidential.

1. Your Age.

| Under 20 | 20 to 24 | 25 to 29 | 30 to 34 | 35 and Over |

2. Your Gender.

| Male | Female |

3. Race (For statistical purposes only)

| African | Coloured | Indian | White |

4. Home Language

| English | Afrikaans | Other (Please Specify) |

5. Your Highest Completed Level of Education:

| Std 8 to 10 | Undergraduate degree/diploma | Postgraduate degree/diploma | Other (Please Specify) |

6. Are you currently employed as:

| Permanent | Contract/Temp |

7. The number of years you have worked for this organization.

| Less than 1 | 1 - 2 | 3 - 4 | Over 4 |

8. Your present job level.

| CSR | Specialist | Team Manager |

Please ensure that all questions have been answered.
APPENDIX B

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE
Section B

Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that you may have about the company. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling the number, which is most applicable to you.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Your responses will be treated as strictly confidential.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. I talk about this organisation to my friends as a great organization to work for.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td>3. I feel very little loyalty to this organisation.</td>
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<td>4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation.</td>
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<td>5. I find that my values and the organisation’s values are very similar.</td>
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<td>6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.</td>
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<td>7. I could just as well be working for a different organisation as long as the type or work was similar.</td>
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<td>8. This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.</td>
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<td>9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organisation.</td>
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<td>10. I am extremely glad that I chose to work for this organisation rather than others I was considering at the time I joined.</td>
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<td>11. There is not much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely.</td>
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<td>12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organisation’s policies on important matters relating to its employees.</td>
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<td>13. I really care about the fate of this organisation.</td>
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<td>14. For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work.</td>
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<td>15. Deciding to work for this organisation was a definite mistake on my part.</td>
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