EXAMINING JOB SATISFACTION LEVELS AND THE INTENTION TO QUIT AMONGST EMPLOYEES IN A SMALL TO MEDIUM AUDITING FIRM IN SOUTH AFRICA

by

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March 2016
DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the mini thesis entitled “Examining job satisfaction levels and the intention to quit amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa” is my own work. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other institution of higher learning, and that all references have, to the best of my knowledge been indicated and acknowledged as complete references. It is being submitted in partial fulfilment for the degree of Masters in Commerce at the University of the Western Cape.

Full Name: Tabassum Bray

Date: 11 March 2016

Signed
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

As I write this acknowledge I realise that this is the final run to a chapter of my life that took many hours of hard work, sacrifice, dedication, motivation and the sheer drive to succeed.

There were moments during this year that I questioned the purpose, “why was I doing this”, “what did I want to prove”. Then someone told me “what’s meant for you, will never miss you”, and I realised that this was part of my journey.

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ABSTRACT

Job Satisfaction and the Intention to Quit are two factors that are synonymous with each other. Various research and studies have been conducted over the years indicting that there is a direct relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit, suggesting that these factors often result in employees with low levels of job satisfaction resigning from the organisations they are employed at.

Therefore the objective of this study was to examine those factors that affect job satisfaction and the intention to quit amongst employees at a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa. Demographic factors such as age, gender, marital status, tenure (length of service), number of dependents and qualification was used to establish the impact it had on employee’s job satisfaction levels and their intention to quit.

The study was conducted using a quantitative, non-probability, convenience sampling method. The sample group consisted of all permanent employees (N = 350) of an auditing firm with nine (9) offices across South Africa. The one hundred and fifteen (115) participants who voluntarily completed the questionnaires were made up of the CEO, Directors, Managers and employees within the Audit and Assurance, Accounting, Internal Auditing, Consulting and Group Services spectrum. They were required to complete an online biographical questionnaire (BQ), the Work Satisfaction and Motivation Questionnaire (WMQ) as well as the Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire – Intention to Quit (ITQ), was used in order to gather relevant data for the study.

Participants were informed that their participation was voluntary, anonymous and strictly confidential. All participants were informed of the purpose of the study and all ethical issues were clarified. Data was analysed by making use of the following data analysis techniques: descriptive, inferential, the Pearson product–moment correlation coefficient and ANOVA statistics.

The results indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit amongst the sample of the auditing firms employees. There was also a
significant relationship between pay and job satisfaction with a converse relationship between pay and intention to quit.

Furthermore, the findings of the current study indicated that when taking into consideration the significant relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit in relation to various biographic factors, there was no significant difference between different age groups, male or female, number of children (dependents) an employee had, their marital status or the qualifications that they held.

However, it was found that there was no statistically significant difference between length of services and job satisfaction, but that there was a significant difference when taking into account the impact length of service had on the intention to quit.

Recommendations were made and limitations for future research discussed in order to provide insight to the organisation stemming from the current study.

**KEYWORDS**

Employees; Job Satisfaction; Intention to Quit; Intrinsic Factors; Extrinsic Factors; Motivation Theories; Biographical Factors; Intention to Leave Theory; Consequences
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1. INTRODUCTION TO THE TOPIC
Organisational employees generally experience a tremendous amount of occupational stressors related to their various roles and responsibilities within the organisation. They are tasked with setting operational goals, establishing action plans, allocation of resources, monitoring staff and problem solving (Mxenge, Dywili & Bazana, 2014).

These overwhelming amount of tasks lead to various factors (such as work overload, lack of organisational support and resources, team absenteeism and the working environment) which may lead to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction amongst these individuals (Khan, Khan, Khan, Khan & Yar, 2013).

According to Mxenge et al (2014), overworked and stressed employees who often feel that they have inadequate support and/or their skills, knowledge and experience are not being fully utilized by the organization, tend to have feelings of lack of motivation, changes in attitude towards the organization or even the work itself. These feelings more often than not increase the feeling or the need to leave the organization. This results in the intention to quit. When key role players in any organisation leave, it places additional pressure on the remaining staff members. This has a ripple effect on employees and tends to foster an attitude amongst employees of constantly looking for better opportunities.

According to Nel, Gerber, van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono and Werner (2001), “individual performance is the result of motivated employees” (pg. 33). He also further stated that the psychology and cooperative contract between the employee and employer plays an important role in the employee’s motivation and ultimately their satisfaction levels. These contracts state the agreement between employees and employers which include: (1) the contract type, (2) expectations and needs of the employee and (3) the expectations and needs the employer expects from the employees.
Nel et al. (2001) continues to state that when employees feel that they are doing more than their stated contracts, with no additional recognition, acknowledgment, pay or benefits, it leads to a negative effect of the employment relationship. As employees often feel:

- Dissatisfied with the work;
- Production levels decrease;
- Poor attitudes towards management and the organisation;
- Have low morale;
- Increased conflict and tension; and
- Increased labour turnover (resignation)

Job satisfaction and the intention to quit is a phenomenon most often associated with employee behaviour. According to Bull (2005) the way employees respond to their work is a clear indication of the commitment they show towards their employers. Therefore it will clearly influence their job satisfaction levels and which will lead to the intention to quit and employees seeking alternative employment.

All employees react differently to changes within the organisation, this is due to various biographical factors which differ from one employee to another that may influence them. According to Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2002), various intrinsic and extrinsic factors, such as age, gender, marital status and qualification as well as supervision, pay and co-workers directly affect an employee’s feelings towards their work.

Taking the above into consideration, the aim of this study is to:

- Determine the levels of job satisfaction experienced by employees as well as the factors which contribute to these satisfaction levels. This will be the focus so that employers can take the necessary precautionary steps to eliminate and enhance those factors that contribute to the employee’s satisfaction levels.
- Determine the factors that lead to an employee’s Intention to Quit. Thus gaining insight into this phenomenon and establishing measures in which employers can eliminate factors that lead to the want to quit by implementing precautionary measures.
• Determine whether or not variables (for example age and gender, work experience, qualification level, current designation, working conditions, pay and supervision) have an effect on the level of job satisfaction experienced by these employees and whether it has contributed to the decision to leave the organization.

1.1 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY
The organisation being studied operates in the field of Audit, Assurance and Consulting. The organisation consist of nine (9) branches, one in each province of South Africa. A large majority of their employees are trainees studying towards qualifications and professional memberships such as SAICA (South Africa Institute of Chartered Accountants), SAIPA (South African Institute of Professional Accountants), CIA (Certified Internal Auditors) and ACCA (Associated Chartered Certified Accountant). All trainees serve a three (3) to five (5) year articles programme to achieve various competencies before signing off as members of the above mentioned accounting bodies.

Recently, a large majority of trainee accountants have been leaving the organisation, without giving any consideration that the cancellation/termination of their training contracts will have a negative effect of their articles and result in costly penalties.

Resigning employees go through a termination process with the Human Resources Department, in which one of the processes include an exit interview. The human resources department monitored these responses in order to gain awareness on the issues that affect the organisation. Over a period of time it was established that employees who leave the organisation are unhappy with management, the organisational structure, work pressures, not enough time off to study (many of the trainees study part-time), pay, and the amount of overtime worked, lack of recognition and appreciation, and travelling. It was established that many of the employees were not motivated enough. This directly contributed to their job satisfaction levels.

1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE
The purpose of the research is to study the following objectives:
• To determine the job satisfaction levels amongst employees in a small to medium Auditing Firm in South Africa.
To investigate and add to existing research that has been done on job satisfaction and the intention to quit that employees are currently faced with.

To determine if there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit amongst employees in South Africa working in a small to medium auditing firm.

To determine if there is a significant relationship between pay in relation to job satisfaction and the intention to quit amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

To determine whether various biographical factors such as tenure (length of service), age, gender, dependents, marital status and qualification, has a significantly different role in influencing an employee’s job satisfaction and intention to quit levels in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

1.3 HYPOTHESIS

Therefore, in this study the hypotheses are as follows:

**Hypothesis 1:**
There is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

**Hypothesis 2:**
There is a significant relationship between pay, and job satisfaction experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

**Hypothesis 3:**
There is a significant relationship between pay, and the intention to Quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

**Hypothesis 4:**
There is a significant difference between the length of services (tenure) in terms of job satisfaction and the intention to quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.
Hypothesis 5:
There is a significant difference between the various age groups in terms of job satisfaction and the intention to quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

Hypothesis 6:
There is a significant difference between males and female in terms of job satisfaction and the intention to quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

Hypothesis 7:
There is a significant difference between the number of children (dependents) staff have in terms of job satisfaction and the intention to quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

Hypothesis 8:
There is a significant difference between marital status of employees in terms of job satisfaction and the intention to quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

Hypothesis 9:
There is a significant difference between the qualification levels of employees in relation to job satisfaction and the intention to quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

1.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
The research will contribute to the existing body of knowledge pertaining to job satisfaction and intention to quit. However, there are a number of limitations that need to be mentioned.

The first limitation applies to the non-probability sampling method used in the form of a convenience sample. As a result certain groups have been under presented. Staff between the ages of 20 – 30 years old made up 55% of the sample, resulting in participants from this group potentially influencing majority of the findings in this study. With respect to the other biographical factors, 80% of the sample population indicated that they had qualifications
higher than that of a national senior certificate, 33% indicated that they were from African
descent, 46% were English speaking, 80% indicated that they had either no or 1 – 3
dependents and a further 59% stated that they were single. Due to the poor distribution of the
represented sample, selection bias had been introduced, which reduced the extent to which
the results could be generalized to the entire population.

The next limitation would be the questionnaires used. The questionnaires used all contained
close ended questions with specific answers being - true, not true or not sure, which is subject
to bias. Participants may have answered questions in a socially acceptable way or based on
what they thought/felt the researcher wanted to hear or was the socially acceptable answer.

In addition to the above limitation it has to be noted that the current study was only
conducted in one audit, assurance and consulting firm in South Africa, due to time
constraints.

Finally, there is limited literature available on job satisfaction and the intention to quit
amongst audit, assurance and consulting employees in the South African context.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS

This research paper will be made up of the following chapters:

Chapter 2:
This chapter will present a detailed literature review on job satisfaction and the intention to
quit as the focal, research point of the study. It further investigates the relationship between
the two constructs, by researching how certain biographical factors influence a variety of
demographic factors, such as age, gender and race, amongst other, which will be used to
establish a sound argument in relation to the research problem statement.

Chapter 3:
This chapter consists of an in depth discussion on the research methodology, including the
research design, the data method of collection and the statistical techniques used to analyse
and investigate the research problem stated. This chapter also discusses the research tools
being used including their validity and reliability in relation to the research findings.
Chapter 4:
This chapter will focus on analysing the research gathered from the questionnaires completed by the respondents. This information is represented in the form of tables and graphs in an attempt to interpret the data in relation to the hypothesis identified.

Chapter 5:
The motivation for this chapter is an overall discussion based on the research findings as well as the implications it may have on the organisation. The chapter further discusses and provides recommendations to the organisation in the attempt to be used to possibly enhance the organization and eliminate the issues of job satisfaction and the want to leave the organization.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

One of the most researched areas of organisational behaviour is the influence of stress and job satisfaction amongst employees. Employee satisfaction is found to be important to an organisation’s success. This is an important area of research because job satisfaction is correlated to enhance job performance, positive work values, and high levels of employee motivation and lower rates of absenteeism, burnout and turnover (Begley & Czajka, 1993; Chiu, 2000; Tharenou, 1993 as cited in Bull, 2005). Countless organisations are investing a vast amount of resources in an effort to reduce absenteeism, increase motivation and decrease burnout, while improving productivity.

The way an employee responds toward his/her work is a clear indication of the commitment they have towards their employer. Employees are under the impression that downsizing, rightsizing and re-engineering give employers the opportunity to dispose of those workers whom they see as a liability to the organisations (Mc Cormick & Ilgen as cited in Bull, 2005). Every organisation has the objective of ensuring that they provide their staff with duties and responsibilities that are demanding, gratifying and fulfilling. As stated by Alavi and Askaripur (2003), the reason for this is because:

1. Unhappy employees are likely to terminate their employment with the organisation, which can lead to anxiety, psychological health conditions and depression etc.
2. Fulfilled employees have the propensity to stay with the organisation longer.
3. Job satisfaction directly impacts on an employee’s private life. Problems arising from this situation may lead to the employee staying out of work to sort out problems, like poor health and marital issues. This can also have a negative impact on the employee’s attitude towards their work.

Therefore this chapter will focus on providing literature on Job Satisfaction and the Intention to quit as the construct/variables being studied. The chapter will discuss the definitions of the constructs, job satisfaction and motivational theories, followed by both the extrinsic and
intrinsic factors that influence job satisfaction. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of employee’s intention to quit an organisation, with the definition thereof, as well as the factors which influence an individual’s intention to quit.

2.2 JOB SATISFACTION

Satisfaction is commonly known as the gratification one experiences when a need or expectation is met. In terms of the work environment, it is the contentment that arises out of the interplay of the employees’ positive or negative attitudes and how happy and fulfilled with their work needs the employees are.

Researchers have different views on job satisfaction, some view job satisfaction as an “employees observation of how well their work presents those things which are important to them” (Chelladurai, 1999, p. 230 as cited in Bull, 2005). Some studies describe job satisfaction as “the feeling a worker has about his/her job, or job experiences in relation to previous experiences, current experiences, or available alternatives” (Balzer, 1997, p. 10 as cited in Bull, 2005).

Job satisfaction can be defined as “a global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects of the job” (Spector, 1996, p. 2 as cited in Bull, 2005). Graham (1982) as cited in Bull (2005) furthermore stated that “job satisfaction is the measurement of one’s total feelings and one’s attitude towards one’s work” (p. 68). McCormick and Ilngen (1985) as cited in Bull (2005) added that job satisfaction can be viewed as an association of attitudes held by the members of an organisation.

Job satisfaction may be an indication of whether individuals will be affectively connected to an institution, will comply with directives or will quit (Ma & Macmillian, 1999).

Greenberg and Baron (1995) cited in Nel, Werber, Haasbroek, Poisat, Sono and Schultz (2008) stated that job satisfaction is the individuals cognitive, affective and evaluated reaction to their work.

It is therefore important to understand the factors that influence employee’s satisfaction levels in terms of their working lives and what sort of input these factors play in determining job satisfaction in the organisations they work for.
2.3 JOB DISSATISFACTION

According to Locke (1976) as cited in Luthans (2008), Job Satisfaction is a pleasant or positive state of mind resulting from the assessment of an individual’s job and work experience. Thus, Job Satisfaction is seen as an employee’s perception of how well their job provides for those things they deem as important or the difference between the amounts of some valued outcome the person receives and the outcome of what the person thinks he or she should receive (Grobler et al., 2002). Therefore, when things do not go a certain way it can cause Job Dissatisfaction among employees. An employee’s satisfaction or dissatisfaction levels will generally depend on pay, benefits, supervision, co-workers, work and the organisation (Grobler et al., 2002).

According to Grobler et al. (2002) dissatisfied employees can cause costly problems for the organisation, in the form of excessive absenteeism, turnover and grievances.

Measuring Job Dissatisfaction using survey techniques are the most common and reliable. Non-attitudinal organisational data, like turnover and absenteeism are sometimes integrated with Job Satisfaction, but raises two problems. Firstly, job dissatisfaction is unlikely to be the only reason for employees to abstain or even resign from the organisation. Secondly, because measuring job dissatisfaction through analysing data, will not provide reasons as to why the employee feels dissatisfied in their jobs (Grobler et al., 2002).

According to Grobler et al. (2002) organisations can reduce job dissatisfaction by:

- Employing people who are less inclined to be dissatisfied. Hiring people with happy, positive attitudes,
- By asking employees what will make them satisfied and ideas on how management should response, and
- To implement a system that measures the importance of each potential reward (pay, bonus and incentive). Through this system management can determine the importance of each reward to the organisation
It is important to first understand the various theories that relate to job satisfaction. This study will focus on various factors that are important to consider when researching employees satisfaction levels.

2.4 APPROACHES TO MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES

The theories of motivation were provided in an attempt to explain the behaviour and attitudes of employees. These theories can be divided into two categories when focusing on the behaviour of individuals, namely content theories and process theories (Carr, 2005).

“Content theories offer ways to profile or analyse individuals to identify the needs that motivate their behaviour” (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1994, p. 168). Schermerhorn et al. (1994), further states that content theories are useful as they give insight into peoples’ needs and help management understand what employees will and will not value as work rewards or need satisfiers.

Process theories analyse how people behave. “Process theories seek to understand the thought process that takes place in the minds of people and that act to motivate their behaviour” (Schermerhorn et al., 1994, p. 168). These theories describe how behaviour is initiated or moderated by personality factors and psychological states to direct, energize and sustain behaviour and how they stop behaviour (Carr, 2005). Schermerhorn et al. (1994) goes on to say that content and process theories complement one another. Content theories are directly linked with job satisfaction, while process theories are concerned with work efforts and their performance implications.

2.4.1 CONTENT THEORIES

Bull (2005) indicates that there is an emphasis on the type of goods and incentives that people attempt to achieve in order to be satisfied and succeed in their jobs. “Content theories attempt to explain motivation in terms of factors that initiate employee behaviour” (Stone, 2005, p. 415). People have many needs and the various content motivation theories help profile these needs in different ways. Given the focus of this study the following content theories will be looked at namely: the hierarchical needs of Maslow, the two-factor theory of Herzberg, Alderfer’s ERG theory and McClelland’s Acquired Needs Theory.
2.4.1.1 MASLOW’S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS THEORY

The most popular motivation theory is Abrahams Maslow’s hierarchy of Needs. Maslow stated the human beings have 5 basic needs to fulfil, namely (Robbins & Judge, 2009).

- Physiological Needs – refers to hunger, thirst, shelter, sex, and other bodily needs,
- Safety Needs – Security and protection from emotional and physical harm,
- Social Needs – Affection, belonging, acceptance and friendship,
- Esteem Needs – Internal factors, such as self-respect, autonomy, achievement and external factors, such as status, recognition and attention, and
- Self-Actualisation – driving to become what one is capable of becoming, growth, one’s achievement potential and self-fulfilment.

Schermerhorn et al. (1994) explains that these needs are divided into higher-order needs (self-actualization and esteem) and lower-order needs (social, safety, physiological). Maslow’s formulation suggest a pre-potency of these needs, that is, some needs are assumed to be more important than others and therefore they must be satisfied before the other needs can serve as motivators (Schermerhorn et al., 1994). Figure 2.1 demonstrates that psychological needs would need to be satisfied before one can move on to the next need. Therefore in order to satisfy one’s physiological needs one would need to have employment and receive the basic wage before one can move on to safety needs.

![Figure 2.1: Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory](image)

**Note:** Adapted from Schermerhorn (2002) as cited in Stone (2005), p. 415
Maslow’s theory alerts individuals of the dangers of unsatisfied needs dominating employee attention and influencing their attitudes and behaviour at work. Once a need is satisfied, it may no longer act as an effective motivator of employee behaviour (Stone, 2005). Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs remains popular as a motivation theory because recognition, enrichment and a safe workplace are factors that increase employee satisfaction (Stone, 2005).

Hofstede (1984) as cited in Gambrel and Cianci (2003) suggest that Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs, although the most researched and referenced motivational theory of our time, cannot be deemed as relevant to all cultures. Gambrel and Cianci (2003), indicate that Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs was developed by making use of U.S subjects. Hofstede (1984) makes reference to the fact that the United States is an individualistic society. Individualistic societies place a high level of importance of quality of life and achieving success. Respect, achievement, self-esteem and self-actualization are characteristic of an individualistic society. Hofstede (1984) as cited in Gambral and Cianci (2003) goes further to state that employees in this society separate their private lives from that of their work. Therefore, in the work setting they are focused on the task at hand before focusing on developing working relationships.

Hofstede (1980) describes collectivism as a tight social framework where differences exists between in-groups and out-groups. Schwartz (1990) states that collectivism is the practice of giving priority to in-groups over that of the individual’s personal goals. Hofstede (1982) states that individuals are born into collective societies, which are made up of extended and immediate family, tribe, clan or even a village. In this society, individuals are taught to look after their in-group (i.e. their families, clan and organisation) in order to display loyalty to them. Gambral and Cianci (2003) indicates that in a collective society focus is placed on relationships rather than only the job at hand or success.

Gambral and Cianci (2003) therefore state that although Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs is a well-known model used to determine motivation, it may not be fitting for all cultures around the world.

2.4.1.2 HERZBERG TWO FACTOR THEORY
After analysing nearly 4000 responses, Frederick Herzberg based his motivation theory on the two-factor theory, called the motivator- hygiene theory (Schermerhorn et al., 1994). The
respondents identified different things as sources of work dissatisfaction (called ‘dissatisfies’ or ‘hygiene factors’) than they did as sources of satisfaction (called ‘satisfiers’ or motivation factors’) (Schermrorn et al., 1994). Stone (2005), identified the two-factor theory as having a major impact on job design as it defines two-tier hierarchy of needs: (as indicated in Figure 2.2)

- Motivators are higher order needs for achievement, for example recognition, intrinsic interest in the work, responsibility and advancement. These factors will determine job satisfaction and performance.
- Hygiene factors are lower order needs that are met by pay, working conditions, interpersonal relations, supervision, company policy/policies and administration. These factors do not motivate by themselves but can prevent motivation from occurring.

Figure 2.2: Herzberg Two Factor Theory

Note: Adapted from Stone (2005), p. 417

Employees traditionally regard job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction as opposite ends of the same continuum. Herzberg’s two factor theory however, challenged this notion, factors that produce job satisfaction are true motivators and are directly related to job content, and factors leading to dissatisfaction are hygiene or maintenance factors. Herzberg concluded that only the presence of motivators can produce employee satisfaction and performance, and that hygiene factors do not motivate but their absence can result in job dissatisfaction (Stone, 2005).
Figure 2.3 shows various hygiene factors on the left side of the figure. Salary is one of the factors shown on the left and Hertzberg found that low salary results in people being dissatisfied but by paying them more would not satisfy or motivate them; improved working conditions would act in the same way (Schermerhorn, 1994). Schermerhorn (1994) state that the “9 reasons for these conclusions are that in the two-factor theory, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are totally separate dimensions; that is, improving hygiene factors, such as working conditions, will not make people satisfied with their work; it will only prevent them from being dissatisfied” (p. 174).

In order to improve satisfaction among employees, the organisation must use motivator factors as shown on the right side of Figure 2.3; these factors are related to job content and by adding these motivators/satisfiers to people’s jobs is Herzberg’s link to performance (Schermerhorn, 1994). The right side of Figure 2.3 covers such factors as achievement, recognition, work itself, and responsibility. When these factors are absent, workers will not be satisfied and they will not perform well.
Figure 2.3: Herzberg’s Hygiene and Motivator Factors

Note: Adapted from Herzberg (1968) as cited in Schermerhorn et al. (1994), p 175

However, Robbins et al. (2009) states that literature does not support the two-factor theory well, the criticism of this motivation theory is that (1) the procedure used by Herzberg is limited in its methodology as employees take credit for themselves when things are going well and blame failure on their extrinsic environment, (2) the methodology is questionable, as respondents are required to make interpretations and they may interpreted similar questions differently, (3) there is no overall measure for job satisfaction, which means that the
employee may dislike one aspect of the job but think that their job is acceptable, (4) Herzberg assumed that there was a relationship between productivity and satisfaction, but used a methodology that only looked at satisfaction. In order for the research to be relevant one has to assume a strong relationship between satisfaction and productivity.

Kim (2004) as cited in Saif, Nawaz, Jan and Khan (2012) states that Herzberg’s two factor theory is a useful model when studying job satisfaction. Many researchers have used this theory to understand and build a theoretical framework for assessing job satisfaction in various settings (Karima, 2007, as cited in Saif et al., 2012). However, Karima (2007) as cited in Saif et al. (2012) argues that this theory does not make reference to individual differences and fails to take into account that not all employees will react in the same manner to either motivator or hygiene factors.

2.4.1.3 ALDERFER’S ERG THEORY

The ERG theory differs from Maslow’s theory in that it is revised to align work with more empirical research. Alderfer’s Existence, Relatedness, Growth theory (ERG theory) is similar to Maslow’s theory in that it is also based on the fulfilment of needs. This theory is based on the fulfilment of three basic needs identified by Maslow. According to Luthans (2008), the three needs specified by ERG theory are:

i. Existence needs which are concerned with survival (physiological needs), such as material needs, necessities for basic survival and environmental factors for example food, water, pay, fringe benefits and working conditions.

ii. Relatedness needs which correspondence to Maslow’s social needs and refers to significant relationships (social and interpersonal) with an individual’s co-workers, family, community members and friends.

iii. Growth needs which refers to the need of certain individuals to be creative and productive while desiring opportunities of intrinsic personal development and achievement. These growth needs are based on the self-esteem and self-actualisation needs of that of Maslow’s Needs Hierarchy.

Maslow’s need hierarchy is a static system based on fulfilment-progression; the ERG theory on the other hand presents a more flexible three-need system based on a frustration-
progression process (Oosthuizen, 2001). According to Maslow’s theory, individuals can only move from the first factor to the fifth factor, whilst, with the ERG theory movement is allowed for in any direction between levels of need and also accommodates the needs of individuals on different levels, simultaneously (Schmerhorn et al., 1994). Although the need theories are not in complete agreement, they do agree that satisfying human needs is an important part of motivating behaviour on the job.

Alderfer’s ERG Theory is a useful motivational theory which was developed to overcome the shortcomings of Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs (Alderfer, 1972). However, although important it fails to take into account that motivation is not determined by needs only, but by that of incentives and perceptions. What one employee finds motivating and satisfactory, may not at all be sufficient to another. The concept of motivation is critical as individuals respond to perceptions rather than reality (Crooks, 1997).

Furthermore, Crooks (1997) states that the behaviour that leads to the satisfaction of needs vary as well. Content theories do not take into account to concept of choice.

2.4.1.4 MCCLELLAND’S ACQUIRED NEEDS THEORY

Schmerhorn et al. (1994) indicated that McClelland proposed that there are three basic needs that are operative in the workplace, that is:

- The need for achievement (nAch), which is the desire to exceed some standard of behaviour, the need to excel, the need to be successful
- The need for power (nPower), which is the need to make others behave in a way in which they would not otherwise have behaved, the need to control and/or influence others
- The need for affiliation (nAff), which is the need for warm and close interpersonal relationships, to be linked and accepted by others.

According to McClelland’s theory, these three needs are acquired over time, as a result of life experiences. People are motivated by these needs, each of which can be associated with individual work preferences. This theory encourages employees to learn how to identify the
presence of nAch, nAff and nPower in them and in others in order to be able to create a work environment that is responsive to each respective needs profile (Schermerhorn et al., 1994). Figure 2.4 indicates how this theory is made useful especially when each need is linked with a set of work preference.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual Needs</th>
<th>Work Preference</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High need for achievement</td>
<td>Individual responsibility; challenging but doable goals; feedback on performance.</td>
<td>Field salesperson with challenging quota and opportunity to earn individual bonus; entrepreneur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High need for affiliation</td>
<td>Interpersonal relationships; opportunities to communicate.</td>
<td>Customer service representative; member of work unit subject to group wage bonus plan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High need for power</td>
<td>Influence over other persons; attention; recognition.</td>
<td>Formal position of supervisory responsibility; appointment as head of special task force or committee.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 2.4:** McClelland’s Acquired Needs Theory

**Note:** Adapted from Schermerhorn et al. (1994), p.173

**2.4.1.5 COMPARISON OF CONTENT THEORIES**

Figure 2.5 indicates the differences and similarities between the four content theories, namely, the needs hierarchy of Maslow, two-factor assumption of Herzberg, the ERG theory of Alderfer and McClelland’s Acquired Needs Theory. This table clearly depicts the positive relatedness that exists between the various theorists and does not aim to identify exact theories.
Oosthuizen (2001) also noted the following:

- Maslow’s need hierarchy served as the basis for the ERG model, thus these two models are fairly similar. The only major difference is that Maslow’s need hierarchy is a static system based on the fulfilment frustration-progression process.
- Herzberg’s theory is based on both models. That is, if hygiene factors are present, the physiological and security needs are more likely to be met.
- McClelland’s model on the other hand does not recognise lower order needs. In this model, the need for affiliation corresponds with the level three (3) of Maslow’s need hierarchy. The need for achievement in this model correlates with the motivators of Herzberg. The need for power has no direct correlation with specific need levels, in comparison to any other theories, but it is recognized, as a high level need. McClelland’s three needs correspond roughly to Maslow’s self-actualization, esteem and love needs.

### 2.4.2 PROCESS THEORIES

Content theories as discussed, emphasize on the ‘what’ aspect of motivation, they do not emphasize the thought processes concerning the ‘why’ and ‘how’ people choose one action versus another in the workplace. For this reason, we need to look at process motivation theories (Schmerhorn et al., 1994). Stone (2005) indicated that “Process theories attempt to
explain motivation in terms of the thought processes that employees go through in choosing their behaviour” (p. 418). For this study, two well-known process theories will be discussed, namely the equity theory and expectancy theory.

2.4.2.1 EQUITY THEORY
The Equity theory indicates that if an employee sees an inconsistency between the outcomes they receive and their input, compared with those of other employees, that employee will be motivated to do more or less work (Stone, 2005). According to Schermerhorn et al. (1994) when people perceive an inequity in their work they will be stimulated to remove the discomfort and attempt to restore the feeling of equity. “Inequities exist whenever people feel that the rewards or inducements they receive for their work inputs or contributions are unequal to the rewards other people appear to have received for their inputs” (Schermerhorn et al., 1994, p. 179).

The equity comparison (thought process) that determines such feelings for an individual is depicted in the diagram shown below:

![Equity Theory Diagram]

**Figure 2.6:** Equity Theory

**Note:** Adapted from Schermerhorn et al. (1994), p. 179
When individuals feel that they have received relatively less than others in proportion to work inputs, a felt negative inequity exists. Felt positive inequity on the other hand exists when individuals feel that they have received relatively more than others have (Schermerhorn et al., 1994). Both feelings of inequity are motivating states. When either of those feelings exists, the individual will engage in certain behaviours to restore a sense of equity.

According to Stone (2005), employees may do the following, in an effort to restore equity:

- Change inputs (reduce performance efforts)
- Change outcomes (employees can ask for a raise without increasing the input they put in)
- Leave (employees can quit or ask for a transfer to another organisation)
- Change the comparison (compare oneself to a different co-worker)

Through these actions, employees will try to cope with situations that they perceive to be unfair.
2.4.2.2 EXPECTANCY THEORY

Vroom is the father of Expectancy theory. “Expectancy theory relates to choice behaviour and is based on the logic that employees will do what they can, when they want to” (Stone, 2005, p. 418). This theory argues that an employee’s choice of behaviour depends on the likelihood that their action will bring about specific results that is attractive to them. In order to understand this theory, Vroom (1964) as cited in Stone (2005), suggests that employees need to understand the following three factors:

- Expectancy (effort-performance link): employee’s perceived likelihood that putting forth a given amount of effort will lead to performance.
- Instrumentality (performance-reward link): degree to which an employee believes that performing at a specific level will bring about a desired result.
- Valence (attractiveness): the value or importance that an employee places on a potential result or reward that can be achieved.

In organisations, this means that individuals will choose to perform at a level which results in their greatest effort. Employees will therefore work hard if they expect this effort to lead to desirable rewards, such as a salary increase, a promotion and/or recognition. (Schultz, 1982 as cited in Roberts, 2005). From this it is evident to tie performance to rewards.

The Expectancy theory postulates that individuals are rational decision makers. Individuals therefore think about their actions and act in ways that satisfy their needs and help them attain their goals. The expectancy theory, therefore clearly states that people are motivated by the promise of rewards that is linked to a specific goal. This theory is based on the knowledge that there are huge differences among people in their needs and as a result in the importance attached to rewards (Lawler, 2005 as cited in Roberts, 2005).

Many experts indicate that the complexity of the theory makes it difficult to implement and thus difficult to test. All employees may not have the time, willingness and resources to calculate their motivation in the way the theory requires. Likewise, managers may not be trained with the correct parameters to make decisions that will motivate their employees (Parjat & Bagga, 2014).
However, Parjat and Bagga (2014) states that should the organisation focus on rewarding staff for their actual performance rather than their skills, effort and/or seniority level, the expectancy would be more valid. Parjat and Bagga (2014) further states that the expectancy theory fails to take into account some of the simple features of Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs and Herzberg’s two factor theory.

2.4.2.3 AN INTEGRATED MODEL OF MOTIVATION
According to figure 2.8, there are three components that influence individual performance:

- Individual attributes (the capacity to perform)
- Work Effort (the willingness to perform)
- Organisational Support (the opportunity to perform) (Schermerhorn et al., 1994).

![Integrated Model of Motivation](image)

**Figure 2.8:** Integrated Model of Motivation

*Note:* Adapted from Schermerhorn et al. (1994), p. 185

It is important to remember that the individual alone has control over his/her work efforts. The manager, will however attempt to influence efforts through the concept of motivation. Figure 2.8 will therefore be modified to figure 2.9 as stated by Schermerhorn et al. (1994).

![Modified Integrated Model of Motivation](image)

**Figure 2.9:** Modified Integrated Model of Motivation

*Note:* Adapted from Schermerhorn et al. (1994), p. 185

An extension of the Expectancy Theory is demonstrated in figure 2.10. This figure is based on the foundation of the individual performance equation. It includes a key role of the equity theory and recognises job performance and satisfaction as separate but potentially
independent work results. Furthermore, the content theories enter the model as a manager’s/director’s guide to understanding an individual’s attributes and identifying the needs that give motivational value to the various work rewards allocated by employees.

**Figure 2.10: Extension of Expectancy Theory**

*Note: Adapted from Schermerhorn et al. (1994), p. 186*

### 2.5 FACTORS INFLUENCING JOB SATISFACTION

#### 2.5.1 EXTRINSIC SOURCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

External (extrinsic) factors are those factors outside the person that play a role in their job satisfaction level. These factors include pay, promotional opportunities, co-workers, supervision and recognition (Josias, 2005). Extrinsic factors like pay and promotion play a significant role in contributing to an employee’s job satisfaction level. It also influences employee opinions of how interesting the work is, how routine, how well they are doing and basically how much they enjoy it. (Bull, 2005).

#### 2.5.1.1. PAY

Pay refers to the monetary reward an individual will receive for a specific job. Luthans (1995) cited in Josias (2005) and Bull (2005) stated that wages and salaries are an important measure and indicator of job satisfaction. The process of determining an individual’s remuneration is complex and multifaceted.

Luthans (2008) suggests that salaries not only help employees attain their basic needs but also play a role in satisfying their higher level needs. Voydanoff (1980) as cited in Bull (2005) states that research has shown that monetary compensation is one of the most significant
variables in job satisfaction. They also suggest that public sector employees experienced a lower level of job satisfaction than employees in the private sector when comparing monetary compensation.

Josias (2005) postulated that the relationship between the financial rewards received and job satisfaction is significantly smaller than expected. This means that pay cannot be used as a major indicator to measure and influence job satisfaction.

Spector (1996) as cited in Josias (2005) indicated that the fairness of pay plays a more important role in job satisfaction than actual pay itself. This means that employees will perceive their pay to be fair, when compared to another person in similar positions. This will lead to satisfaction.

Josias (2005) however, points out that pay is only a short-term motivating factor and the organisations should therefore look at more effective, steadfast ways to increase job satisfaction.

**2.5.1.2 JOB OR WORK ITSELF**

According to Luthans (2008) the type of work done by an employee has a significant influence of their satisfaction levels. Luthans (1992) suggests that employees experience satisfaction when their jobs are challenging and interesting.

Bull (2005) proposes that if the work is of personal interest to the individual and tasks are varied an individual’s job satisfaction level will increase. This implies that the greater the variety of skills used the greater the level of job satisfaction.

Josias (2005) advises that it is essential for employers to allow their employees freedom in performing a variety of tasks, providing constant feedback and introducing innovative ways to keep employees interested and motivated.

Josias (2005) further suggests that if the job is highly satisfying and motivating to the employee, they will be happy with the tasks, deliver a higher quality of work and thus in turn decrease their rate of absenteeism. However, Josias (2005) also suggests that the more
employees do the more they feel that they have learnt all the skills associated with a particular position the more dissatisfied they become because they feel they are already fully equipped to complete the task associated with a particular position.

2.5.1.3 PROMOTIONAL OPPORTUNITIES
An employee’s promotional opportunity is also a factor that plays a major role in job satisfaction. Robbins (1998) cited in Bull (2005) state that these promotions provide opportunities for personal growth, increased responsibility and social status.

Robbins (1998) cited in Josias (2005) indicates that employees seek out promotion policies and practices of the company. If these policies seem fair and in line with their expectations, these employees will experience a higher level of job satisfaction. Employees who see these promotional decisions/opportunities as reasonable and objective will to be likely to experience a higher level of job satisfaction.

2.5.1.4 SUPERVISION
Josias (2005) states that an employee, who has a good relationship with their supervisor and likes working with them, is more likely to be satisfied in their jobs. Studies have shown this leads to both team and organisational commitment.

Luthans (1995) cited in Josias (2005), stated there are 3 dimensions in which supervisors can affect job satisfaction.

- The extent to which supervisors show interest in the wellbeing of the employees.
- The level of decision-making supervisors entrust their employees with.
- The feeling of employees that they matter to their supervisors and the organisation as a whole.

If employees experience the above mentioned, there will be a higher level of job satisfaction.

2.5.1.5 CO-WORKERS
The skills, abilities and experiences, as well as the positive attitudes of co-workers are also a major distinguishing factor influencing job satisfaction. Studies suggest those individuals who work with this kind of co-workers will experience a greater level of job satisfaction, than

Research also shows when older employees speak well about the company, new and younger employees feel more satisfied to be working for the organisation (Josias, 2005).

2.5.1.6 WORKING CONDITIONS
Josias (2005) indicated that working conditions has a moderate impact on satisfaction. Suggesting that factors such as lighting, temperature and noise are factors to consider. Employees are concerned with working conditions for their own comfort as well as to improve their job performance. Surroundings that are safe, clean and comfortable with little distractions can lead to satisfaction (Bull, 2005).

Spector (1997) cited in Josias (2005), states that when employees have to work in an inadequate working environment with limited resources, they will experience a higher level of dissatisfaction.

Luthans (1995) cited in Josias (2005) agrees and states the employees do not concern themselves with working conditions, unless they are extremely bad.

2.5.1.7 FAIRNESS
The final extrinsic factor influencing job satisfaction is fairness. Here employees will be satisfied if they perceive that all employees are being treated in a similar manner.

There are two elements to fairness, being:

Distributive Fairness – Robbins (2002) cited in Josias (2005), is the degree to which employees see the decisions made by the company as fair. Should they perceive these decisions to the equitable, they will display a greater level of job satisfaction in their roles and duties.

Procedural Fairness – can been seen as the method used to establish whether the outcomes of the job and results are fair. Josias (2005) claims that procedural fairness can be used to
evaluate performance, wage increases, and retrenchments. Therefore, employees who see these processes are fair will experience greater satisfaction in their jobs.

Aamodt (2004) cited in Josias (2005) states that the correlation between perceived fairness and satisfaction is very high, therefore it is important for the stakeholders of the organisation to have an open approach to decision making, as well as provide feedback to their employees so they are happy and satisfied.

2.5.2 INTRINSIC FACTORS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Atchison (1999) cited in Josias (2005), postulated that these are factors which contribute to job satisfaction which comes mainly from within the individual, and essentially is stronger and longer lasting than extrinsic factors. These sources are insubstantial; they are feelings of sense of pride in one’s work and individual differences in personality.

2.5.2.1 PERSON – JOB FIT

Spencer (1997) cited in Josias (2005) states that research has been done to establish whether there is a relationship between the job and the employee’s personality. The study aimed to investigate whether different personality types responded in another way or the same to other jobs. Edwards (1991) cited in Josias (2005) therefore claims that job satisfaction will be high if the personality of the employee correspond to that of the job.

Mumford (1991) and Mullins (1991) as cited in Josias (2005) states that person-job fit is measured in a certain way, being:

- The match between the organisations needs that which the employee is looking for, and
- The fit between what the employee is seeking and what they actually receive.

This is referred to as the ‘discrepancy theory’. It states that satisfaction is the result between the inconsistency of the outcomes the employee wants and what they perceived to get. In other words the lower the percentage in the discrepancy, the higher the person’s job satisfaction will be (Josias, 2005). For example, a person working in an office, but desires working with the public, will experience job dissatisfaction.
2.5.2.2 DISPOSITION/PERSONALITY

Personality is “the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others” (Josias, 2005, p. 60). Research indicated that certain persons regardless of their working condition and other factors are less or more satisfied than other employees because of the type of personality they have.

According to Luthans (2008) personality can be defined as how people affect each other, how they understand and view others. It takes into consideration one inner and outer measurable trait and person-situation interaction. This includes external appearance, like height, weight, facial features, colour and other physical aspects.

An example of the latter is the Hawthorne study which indicates no matter how many participants they used in the study, the participants found something or a reason to complaint. Josias (2005) concludes that this is as a result of the participant’s personality and indicates that job satisfaction is directly related to an employee’s job and life satisfaction, simultaneously. Thus in essence in order to increase satisfaction in an organisation, employers should hire individuals with a positive attitude towards life in general (Josias, 2005).

Schneider and Dachler (1978) cited in Josias (2005), postulates that job satisfaction seems to be constant and is a result of a person’s personality traits. This view seems to be true as people with negative attitudes in life will naturally have negative attitudes towards their jobs, even if they seek alternative employment, likewise people with positive attitudes in life will enjoy and thus be satisfied with their jobs (Josias, 2005).

Organisations today are investing large amounts of time and resources in turning the negative attitudes of their employees into positive ones. However, the negative perceptions of others cannot be avoided and can be adopted by other employees/colleagues (Josias, 2005).

Aamodt (2004) cited in Josias (2005), notes that the personality-job satisfaction relationship is a controversial one that has drawn criticism and states that it only demonstrates a correlation, but no theory to support this findings.
2.6 IMPACT OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES OF JOB SATISFACTION

According to researchers, certain demographic characteristics have been identified to influence job satisfaction. This entails the comparison of job satisfaction with variables such as gender, age, race, tenure, marital status, number of dependents, years in the profession, qualifications and the job level (demographic factors).

2.6.1 GENDER

Researchers have tried to explain the relationship between gender and job satisfaction. However, researchers have found it difficult to find evidence to support this statement. Literature relating to this argument has been conflicting with some indicating that men are more satisfied than women and vice versa. Other studies on the other hand show that there are no differences in gender satisfaction levels.

A study indicated that male employees reported higher levels of job satisfaction compared to the female counterparts. Male nurses, for example, tend to be somewhat more satisfied with their supervisors than female nurses and male nurses related the characteristics of their work as more meaningful than female nurses (Zawacki, Shahan & Carey, 1995 as cited in Bull, 2005).

Another study revealed that women are inclined to be less satisfied in their jobs as they tend to hold positions at lower levels in the organisational hierarchy where pay and promotion prospects are less attractive. Numerous studies have found no significant gender differences in job satisfaction, despite the fact that women on average have inferior jobs in terms of pay, status, level of authority and opportunities for promotion (Bull, 2005).

A study by Loscocco (1990) as cited in Josias (2005) found that female employees have a higher satisfaction level, and get the most pleasure from rewards that are immediately available to them, such as lasting relationships with their colleagues. On the other hand, men enjoy tasks that have consistency and are rewarded in the form of monetary gains. However, financial rewards are short lived and not easily accessible which many result in lower level of satisfaction.
One of the most popular explanations as to the reason why it is difficult to establish a relationship between job satisfaction and gender, is because men and women assign various importance level to different aspects of the job (Josias, 2005).

### 2.6.2 AGE

Although studies suggest a conflicting relationship between job satisfaction and ages, a vast amount of research claims that there is a strong correlation between these two factors. Studies indicate that senior employees tend to experience higher levels of job satisfaction than younger employees. According to Blood et al., (2002) as cited in Bull, (2005), job satisfaction increases with age and work experience. Older employees are more confident and tolerant of authority and may learn to lower expectations of their jobs. Evidence further suggests that older employees may have jobs that use their skills better, work under better work conditions and appreciate fringe benefits and benefits from advancements than younger, less experienced workers (Bull, 2005).

According to studies conducted by Rhodes, (1983) as cited in Bull, (2005) the overall job satisfaction is related to age. Older employees appear to demonstrate greater satisfaction with their employment than younger employees, the relationship however is not clear.

Some studies suggest a linear relationship, while others report a U-shaped relationship. Clark (1996) as cited in Bull (2005) described that younger employees may feel satisfied because they have little labour market experience against which to judge their work. Older employees on the other hand, have reduced aspirations as they may realise that they face limited alternative choices as they get older.

Okpara (2004) depicted the positive correlation between age and job satisfaction can be explained as follows:

- Older employees experience higher satisfaction as they have grown accustomed to their jobs over time.
- Older employees tend to be more satisfied as prestige and confidence increases with age
• Younger employees see themselves as more mobile, always seeking greener pastures, thus leading to lower satisfaction levels
• Younger employees have higher expectations, however, should the organisation fail to fulfil these prospects, and it will result in this group feeling less satisfied.

2.6.3 TENURE
Tenure can be defined as how long the employee has been employed by the organisation (length of service) (Lim et al., 1998 as cited in Bull, 2005). Tenure is likely to influence job satisfaction according to researchers and indicates that there is a correlation between tenure and job satisfaction. This states that the longer you work for a company or in a specific job the happier you become. For this, it may be concluded that satisfaction increases with time, and those benefits that increase in time (for example, security and experience), are likely to have an important influence on employee satisfaction (Bull, 2005).

Okpara (2004) stated that this is because employees become comfortable in their jobs over the years, which naturally leads them to feel like part of the organisation. This will increase their commitment and job satisfaction.

On the other hand, Lambert et al., (2001) as cited in Bull (2005) argues that there is a negative relationship between length of service and satisfaction, stating that employees who has worked for the organisation for a long time feel less satisfied than newer employees. This can be attributed to the fact that older employees have been in the same position for a long time and the lack of growth may lead to boredom, leading to a sense of dissatisfaction. The reason the literature is both inconsistent and inconclusive in this regard may be because the relationship between these variables depends on the specific organisation and how tenure is viewed. In some organisations, senior employees are highly respected, while high tenure is viewed as a liability in other organisations.

Another view demonstrated by Alavi and Askaripur (2003) as cited in Josias (2005) contradicts these finding stating that there is no major difference between employees who have worked for the organisation over a long period and those who has a shorter employment history with the company.
Perhaps a valid explanation for this could be that the literature is inconsistent and inconclusive, since the relationship between these variables depend on the specific organisation and on how tenure is viewed (Lambert et al., 2001 as cited in Bull, 2005).

### 2.6.4 MARITAL STATUS

Research has suggested that married employees are more satisfied with their jobs than their unmarried co-workers. Chambers (1999) as cited in Josias (2005) suggested that married employees experience a greater level of satisfaction and where content with their remuneration, management and work. This is due to the additional responsibilities married employees need to fulfil in their personal life. This makes that challenge of holding a steady job more valuable, thus causing an increase in their satisfaction. Research however only focused on single and married individuals and excluded divorced couples who cohabit as well as the widowed from this investigation (Robbins et al., 2003 as cited in Bierschank, 2010).

Schulze and Steyn (2003) as cited in Roberts (2005) as however, contradicted this study. He revealed that married employees reported the lowest levels of motivation and satisfaction. Schulze and Steyn (2003) as cited in Roberts (2005) furthermore found a correlation between age and marriage and the motivation and job satisfaction levels of participants. Females in South Africa experience lesser degrees of satisfaction in terms of salaries, participation in decision-making and a fair workload (Schulze & Steyn, 2003 as cited in Roberts, 2005). Females on the other hand experience greater levels of satisfaction in terms of relationships with co-workers, pride in their work, self-esteem and love.

Alavi and Askaripur (2003) as cited in Josias, (2005) however, found no significant difference in job satisfaction and married or single employees. Therefore there are conflicting studies between researchers as to the effect marital status has on job satisfaction.

### 2.6.5 NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS

Strong evidence has confirmed that there is a relationship between the number of children an employee has and their level of satisfaction. This suggests that the more children an employee has, the more job satisfaction they will experience. This can be attributed to the fact that these employees may have been working for the organisation for a longer period of time and are in senior positions. This may be because these employees have already adjusted
to their work situation, leading them to feel comfortable within their jobs, leading to a greater satisfaction level (Robbins, 1989, as cited in Josias, 2005).

### 2.6.6 QUALIFICATION

Rogers (1991) as cited in Theron (2010) states that many researchers have found a positive relationship between Job Satisfaction and Educational Level. Previous research conducted indicates that higher educational levels are related to low job satisfaction, as stated by Clark (1991), Clark & Oswald (1996) and Nguyen et al (2000) cited in Theron (2010). This is because individuals with higher levels of education often have greater aspirations, than their colleagues who have a lower education.

In a study conducted by Belt (2002) cited in Theron (2010), it was found that call centre employees who have qualifications tend to move to jobs with greater and better prospects. The research also found that call centre employees that are young, single, well-educated and from the middle class groups tend to move out quicker. This is because their higher expectations in terms of their career. However, it was found that they do not experience more dissatisfaction than those with qualifications.

However, a study conducted by Crossman and Abou-Zaki (2003) cited in Luddy (2005) found that there is no correlation between an employee’s qualification and their level of satisfaction. Although this relationship is not significant, a relationship does exist. The results found that employees who held a school leaving certificate experienced the lowest level of job satisfaction, while employees with a college certificate experience a higher level of job satisfaction. The researcher contributes a lack of skill and less favourable treatment by management as contributing to the lower satisfaction levels amongst employees with school certificates only.

### 2.7 CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction plays a critical role in any organisation effects many aspects of the company. This can cover a wide range of aspects, such as performance and turnover (work factors) as well as health and life satisfaction (non-work factors). The following section will focus of the impact of these organisational factors on job satisfaction.
2.7.1 PRODUCTIVITY

It is commonly assumed that productive employees are happy workers. Research suggests that there is a positively correlated relationship between productivity and job satisfaction. However, Josias (2005) suggests that this is not always true. Josias (2005) indicated that occasionally a poor performer will be a happy employee and conversely, an excellent employee may not be as satisfied with their job.

Satisfied employees do not lead to increased productivity, it is said that productivity leads to satisfaction. This means that when an employee performs well and is productive, they will naturally feel good about themselves. This will lead to other extrinsic rewards, such as increase pay, and promotions which will contribute to the employee feel satisfied in their job (Robbins, 2005 as cited in Josias, 2005).

2.7.2 LIFE SATISFACTION

According to Cooper and Locke (2002); Spector (1996), as cited in Josias (2005) three theories have been established to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, namely:

- The Spill over occurs work experiences overflow into the employees life and vice versa. Problems emanating from one’s work or life experience will affect the other as well.
- The Segmentation hypothesis, is where individuals break their lives up into separate compartments. Satisfaction in one part of their life has no influence on other part.
- The Compensation hypothesis suggests that when people feel unfulfilled with one aspect of the life, say their work life, they will compensate for it by seeking satisfaction in their non-work life and vice versa. Spector (1997) as cited in Josias (2005) concluded that the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is strongly correlated; stating the satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the one area will lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the other area.
2.7.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Organisational commitment can be viewed as the degree to which an individual identifies with the mission, vision and goals of the organisation, and how committed they are to uphold them. According to Armstrong (1996) as cited in Bearschank (2010), three factors are used to characterise organisational commitment, they are:

- Identifying with the vision, values and goals of the company.
- Wanting to belong to the organisation
- Being willing to put in time and effort for the organisation

Another concept closely linked to organisational commitment is organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). OCB can be characterized by the behaviour of one employee’s willingness and intention to help his/her colleagues. Job satisfaction is a major determinant of OCB, as satisfied employees would most likely talk positively about the organisation and go beyond their normal call of duty (Robbins 2005 as cited in Bearschank, 2010).

2.7.4 WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIOURS

Withdrawal behaviours can be defined as the behaviour an employee will display when they wish to remove themselves from the organisation. This could be either temporary or permanent. Studies has shown that employees who do not like their jobs are likely to withdraw from them by avoiding their work responsibilities. This study will focus on three forms of withdrawal behaviour (Saal & Knight, 1988 as cited in Bearschank, 2010).

2.7.4.1 TURNOVER

In this case turnover refers to employee resignations, which is defined as the act of an employee permanently leaving the organisation and its boundaries (Cascio, 2003 as cited in Josias, 2005). Employee turnover can be defined as the conscious willingness of an employee to leave the organisation (Tett & Meyer, 1993 as cited in Egan, Yang & Bartlett, 2004). Despite this, the organisation continues to function without these employees, turnover can be quite costly, as the Human Resource Department has to conduct exit interviews with the employees who are leaving as well as spend time and other resources to recruit new staff members. Additional to this the new employees need to attend training and inductions.
programmes which place a financial burden of the organisation (Saal & Knight, 1988 as cited in Josias, 2005).

There have been a number of research studies to confirm the steady relationship between employee turnover and satisfaction. Egan et al. (2004) has indicated that behavioural indicators are the single best predictor of an employee’s intention to terminate their employment with their employer. Employees who are happy in the jobs will be less likely to quit, however, workers who dislike the jobs will leave the organisation. As indicated by Luthans (1995) as cited in Josias (2005) high job satisfaction will not prevent employees from leaving the organisation but it does play a significant relationship in determining turnover. It is therefore important that employers establish at an early stage which factors contribute to the employee’s decision to leave the company (Josias, 2005). According to Egan et al. (2004) the relationship between employee turnover and satisfaction has been studied on numerous occasions.

2.7.4.2 ABSENTEEISM

Absenteeism can reduce an organisation’s effectiveness (Josias, 2005). Being satisfied in your jobs plays a significant role in an individual’s decision to abstain from work. Banks, Patel and Moola (2012) state that workers are likely to take action if they feel that they are being treated unfairly or differently in comparison to their fellow counterparts. Employees often compare their inputs (what they invest in their work) with the outputs (rewards) they receive, to that of others in the organisation. When they feel or perceive the ratio of their inputs and outputs as unequal or unfair to that of other they resort to negative strategies in an effort to restore equality.

De Boer, Bakker, Syroit and Schaufeli (2002) indicate that employees may avoid unpleasant working conditions by resorting to absenteeism. Absenteeism is the practice of staying out of work. De Boer et al., (2002) further states that arriving for work late and/or leaving early can also be defined as absenteeism.

Riggio (2009) and Schaufeli, Bakker, and van Rhenen (2009) distinguished between voluntary and involuntary absenteeism. Voluntary absences refers to the unauthorised absences of employees (Banks et al., 2012) and/or an employee’s avoidance to work (De
Boer et al., 2002). Schaufeli et al. (2009) refers to voluntary absences as the frequency of lateness or work avoidance, the number of times an employee is absent regardless of the reason. This is often seen as a coping mechanism to stress, burnout and job demands. Involuntary absenteeism is usually operationalized by duration (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Duration refers to the length of time the employee is absent, regardless of the frequency.

Riggio (2009) describes involuntary absenteeism as situations beyond the workers control, such as illness.

However, according to Josias (2005) research has indicated that there is little to no relationship between absenteeism and employee satisfaction.

### 2.7.4.3 COUNTERPRODUCTIVE BEHAVIOURS

Counterproductive behaviours can be described as the converse of Organisation Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). Counterproductive behaviour is displayed when an employee act against another employee in aggression and acts violently towards the employer. This behaviour include stealing, plotting against the organisation as well as damaging the companies’ property and equipment, due to frustration, anger and dissatisfaction. Therefore is it extremely important for the organisation to create an environment that contributes to satisfaction in order to eliminate counter-productive behaviours (Josias, 2005).

### 2.8 INTENTION TO QUIT

Work in the modern century has become a fundamental part of every individual. According to Ulrich, Brockbank, Johnson, Sandholtz and Young (2008) suggest that once we start working, the possibility is that human beings spend most of their remaining years at work. They also suggest that the workplace and its workforce is an essential force in ensuring that the organisation reaches and continues to reach its goals.

Over time organisations have become increasingly competitive. This competiveness according to Ramesar, Koortzen and Oosthuizen (2009) can be contributed to 3 factors that influence our generation. They are Globalisation, the Information Revolution and Speed of Change. This has led to organisations becoming more efficient, through cost effectiveness and tighter budget constraints, which effectively result in retrenchments, downsizing,
multitasking and restructuring. The unfortunate result of these situations often mean that competent good performing employees loss their jobs as organisations may make use of various methods of retrenchments, like dissolving a particular function or department or even apply the LIFO (last in first out) or FIFO (first in first out) method of retrenchments.

The loss of certain competent employee, key players in the organisation, departments or job functions, mean that the employees that are left in the organisation are often required to multi-task, work longer hours or even perform jobs where they do not have the required skills. According to Mxenge et al. (2014) this places additional stress on the current employees due to the loss of these competent staff members. This in many cases leads to emotional exhaustion, burnout and job dissatisfaction.

Shortages in employee ratios can be seen when an organisation started displaying symptoms of low job satisfaction, poor management and a lack of organisational support (Zurn, Dal Poz, Stillwell & Adams, 2005). Shortages in staff members are resultant of heavy workload which is most often a precursor of job stress and burnout, and which leads to employees wanting to leave the organisation.

These factors in many situations result in employees expressly the dissatisfaction with the intention to leave the organisation.

2.8.1 TURNOVER INTENTION DEFINED

According to Williams and Hazer (1986) as cited in Lodewyk (2011), the intention to quit has been as topic of research amongst a number of professionals, such as industrial and organisational behaviour, psychology, sociology and business. Different authors and researchers use various terms to describe quitting, such as turnover, attrition, exit, migration, succession etc.

Unlike the actual employee turnover or quitting, intention to quit is not explicit as it is only a statement of the employee’s specific behaviour of interest and does not display actual behaviour (Berndt, 1981).
According to Du Plooy and Roodt (2010) and Morrel, Loan-Clarke and Wilkinson (2001) briefly describes the intention to quit as ‘the employees conscious and deliberate willingness to leave the organisation.

Ongori (2007) defines employee turnover as the rotation of workers around the labour market, between firms, jobs and occupations, and between the state of employment and unemployment.

Bothma and Roodt (2012) identify turnover intention as a type of withdrawal behaviour that is linked to non-identification with work. They too suggest that the intention to leave is a conscious and deliberate decision made by the employee to leave the organisation and is thus regarded as the last in a sequence of withdrawal behaviour.

Azjen and Fishbein (1980) and Igbaria and Greehaus (1992) state that intentions are the most immediate determinants of actual behaviour. They believe that once an employee implements the behaviour to leave, there is little likelihood that the employer will be able to gaining access to information that has lead the employee to initially make the decision to leave the organisation.

2.8.2 EFFECTS OF INTENTION TO QUIT

Intention to leave is a dilemma faced by every organisation and on every level. Mobley, Griffith, Hand and Meglino (1979) and Bluedom (1982) states that turnover intention can be classified into two categories, being, voluntary or involuntary employee turnover. Involuntary turnover is the result of internal organisational decisions often based on the performance of the organisation and their ability to sustain staff. The inability to keep employees or decisions made by management may lead to employees being retrenched. Voluntary employee turnover is when the employee terminates employment themselves by choice. This is known as giving notice or resignation. Research suggest that organisations are less able to control voluntary turnover and in order to ensure that it does not affect the organisation adversely, management is required to manage pro-actively in order to prevent it from affecting the organisations goals and objectives.
Therefore, according to Mxenge et al. (2014) there are numerous factors effecting organisations in either a positive or negative way when it comes to the intention to quit. According to Ulrich, Brockbank, Johnson, Sandholtz and Young (2008), further state that certain factors within the workplace and individual can hinder their ability to assist the organisation with achieving its objectives.

Gamage and Buddhika (2013) indicate that it is every costly due to the fact that organisations need to invest resources in termination, advertising, recruitment, selecting and hiring of new skilled employees. In order to attract new skilled labour, organisations are forced to relook and their recruitment, selecting and training needs to ensure that they are equip to attract competent, skilled individuals to their organisation. They further suggest that it is relatively difficult for these organisations to attract new applicants based on the comparatively high employee turnover of the organisation.

Once employees leave the organisation the skills level and aptitude of the remaining employees increase in order to fulfil the tasks required. Employee who are content with the change will be more likely to stay whereas employees who do not understand or feel unappreciated would be more likely to leave as well (Benjamin, 2010). Likewise according to Gamage and Buddhika (2013) one of the biggest issues faced by employers is how to find and keep skilled labour as high employee turnover hinders the motivational level of the remaining employees.

The loss of skilled competent employees often places additional responsibilities on the employees that are still within the organisation. These staff members will be required to multi-task, work longer hours and spend more time at work and then with their families. This often led to employees feeling a sense of withdrawal from their usually life and routine and places additional pressure of them to balance their lives. This evitable rears its ugly head in the form of job dissatisfaction. Job Dissatisfaction is the results of emotional exhaustion, burnout and stress and is often linked to feelings of, their employers are not concerned with their well-being, they are not included in decision making as well as poor management, low salaries, poor benefits and no job security (Albaugh, 2003).
An increase in employee turnover can reduce organisational performance and productivity drastically, which means that loyal customers may withdraw from the organisations as they start feeling that the service or products given or produced by the organisation are of a substandard quality.

However, Werbel and Bedeian (1989) argue that intention to leave does not play such a detrimental role to an organisation success as we may think. They suggest that in any workplace there are poor performers, who simply do not contribute to either the organisations success or failure. Even after mechanisms and interventions have been introduced these individuals fail to improve. They explain that losing these employee are often a blessing and beneficial to the organisation, as it provides human resources and management with an opportunity to develop new ideas and innovations as well as recruit the best possible employees which are best suited for a particular position. It also gives management the opportunity to restructure the organisation in order for it to operate at a more cost effective level.

2.8.3 INTENTION TO QUIT THEORY

Intention to quit is also known as Turnover Intention (Sheilds & Ward, 2001). Greenberg (2011) used this Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover as a model to shed some light of the reasons leading up to the intention to quit. It focuses on people’s decision making process when deciding to remain in or leave the organisation.

Greenberg (2011) explained that the decision to leave an organisation is a huge deal. Individuals consider a number of factors before making such a huge decision.

According to Greenberg (2001) as cited in Mxenge et al. (2014) the model makes use of two dominant factors when making the decision to quit. They are as follows:

a) Shock to the system – which relates to an event that gets the employee thinking about quitting. For example, a merger or acquisition of the organisation by another company, and
b) Decision frames – which related to a set of rules and imagines on how to interpret something. For example, things that the employee believes in and as a result which might have an obvious response to a situation based on what occurred in the past. From the two factors mentioned (shock to the system and decision frames), the Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover depicts four possible decision making paths.

![Voluntary Turnover – the unfolding model](image)

**Figure 2.11:** Voluntary Turnover – the unfolding model

**Note:** Adapted from Greenberg (2011)

1. When the shock to the system matches the decision frame. For example, the organisation losses a huge client. If the usually occurrence is that account losses result in job losses, the employees will make the decision to leave before the get laid off by the organisation.

2. When the shock to the system matches the decision frame, with no specific job alternative. For example, if the organisation goes through a merger, this is a shock to the employee, however they are not sure whether to stay because there is no alternative job to consider. Some employees leave even though they do not have alternative employment.

3. When the shock to the system occurs but fails to match the decision frame, however there is an alternative job available. Again using the example of the merger, it is a
shock to the system however the decision to leave may be easier to make due to the fact that the employee has an alternative job to fall back on.

4. Occurs when there is no shock to the system or decision frame. This occurs when other factors not related to the job or organisation influences the employee’s decision to leave. For example, the employee gets married and their spouse indicates that it is no longer necessary for them to work.

2.9 Variables influencing intention to quit

As stated various factors play an influencing role on the employee’s decision making process to leave or quit. In conjunction with Greenberg’s Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover, Guthrie (2000) as cited in Lodewyk (2011) states that employee turnover can be categorized based on individual and organisational influencers. Rough and Meme (2012) also indicate that these individual and organisational variables play an essential part of the decision making process and often determine whether an employee will in fact exit or continue to be employed at the organisation.

2.9.1 Individual Variables

Individual variables are those factors within the individual/employee themselves that may influence their intention to leave.

a) Age

The life span of which an employee spends at work is called his or her age. Khan et al, 2013, suggests that age play a vital role in an employee’s intention to quit. Dornstein and Matalon (1989) and Kushman (1992) stated that an organisation is made up of various levels and that in most company’s entry level positions are occupied by younger employees. Younger employees tend to have a lower level of certainty. These employees tend to focus more on exploration and growth in their careers and therefore retention of staff in the younger years are often low and intention to quit higher. Younger staff members are often more flexible as they often do not have families and therefore do not have the responsibility of having a stable job. They are therefore more likely to feel free to explore different avenues of employee as many young individuals may not be sure as to which career they would like to follow. When these employees leave they leave gaps
in the organisation in terms of knowledge, skill and competencies, which adversely affect the organisation and will result in costly recruitment processes.

Likewise Cramer (1993) and Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) suggest that older employees tend to stay longer and often have lower intentions to leave than the younger counterparts. They suggest that other than stability, professionalism and commitment, older employees also tend to stay longer. This is due to a loss of benefits such as unemployment insurance benefits and loss of retirement pay-outs. This will occur if they continue to move from one organisation to another as they start reaching retirement age.

Therefore according to Chevalier and Ellison (1999) it can be said that the younger the workforce of an organisation the higher their staff turnover ratio.

b) Gender
Khan et al, (2013) suggests that there is no relationship between gender and intention to quit. This is because factors that influence males and females are different (Owen & Todor, 1993).

Women at work are often still discriminated against and treated in an inequitable manner, because of their role and responsible as wife and mother. This often means that women are passed up for promotions. This effects their motivation, which means that if they are career driven will leave the company. This is unfortunate as if has been shown through research that family orientated females are more reliable. In many progressing countries women often delay having a family in order to have career and have opportunities for promotion.

Males on the other hand have a higher commitment to the organisation due to their responsibilities to their family (Price, 2005).

c) Marital Status
The state of being married or unmarried is referred to as the employee’s marital status. Research has shown that both unmarried males and females display a higher employee turnover than married employees. Khan et al, (2013) suggests that married women with
qualifications and steady positions tend to remain with the organisation over a longer period of time. Equally Spencer and Steers (1980) add that because of the family responsibility aspect married employee tend to remain with the company longer especially if they are the bread winners as they are depend on good medical aid benefits, salary progression, day care facilities and flexible working hours.

Younger single employees with less or no family responsibilities tend to have a higher intention to leave as they do not have the responsibility of taking care of others expect themselves.

Therefore it can be said that single unmarried employees have higher tendencies to quit the organisation if they are unhappy than married employee who have a responsibilities towards others.

d) Qualification
An excellence or achievement that makes someone appropriate for a particular job or role is known as qualification.

Several studies indicated that employees with qualifications have a higher tendency of having the intention to exit the organisation. This is because employees with qualifications often occupy higher positions within the organisation that often have higher levels of responsibility and stress. It is thus obvious that employees with a lower or no qualification occupy lower positions within the organisation with often means that they have less responsibilities and less stress (Khan et al, 2013).

Benjamin et al, (2010) suggests that employees with higher qualification will often leave or quit if their salaries are not proportionate to their job tasks and duties.

e) Tenure
Tenure refers to the length of service of an employee. It is suggested that in the first few weeks of employment, feelings of separation can occur for the new employee if the company does little or nothing to hold the new staff member (van der Merwe (1988) as cited in Lodewyk (2011). Van der Merwe (1988) as cited in Lodewyk (2011) states that if
the organisation does no instil a strong bond with the new employee they will start having
the feels or intention to leave behaviour will be displayed. In order for new employees to
stay within the organisation it is essential that firms realise the importance of a good
recruitment, induction and training process/programme.

Employees that make connect with the organisation will feel a sense of kinship will stay
longer and they feel they have a bond with the organisation. Therefore turnover will be
lower than in the previous instance where employees feel separated from the organisation.

2.9.2 Organisational Variables
Individual variables consist of factors within the individual, like age, gender, qualification etc
that influences an employee’s intention to leave. Organisation variables refer to factors
stemming from the organisation that may impact the employee and result in them thinking
about leaving the organisation. There are two organisational variables to consider:

a) Leadership
Lok and Crawford (2004), the success of any organisation is reflective of the relationship
between management and their subordinates. When the relationship between an organisations
leader and employees are strong, filled with respect, understanding and the sense of
appropriation the intention to quit is minimized.

However, Johns and Moser (1989), Jaramillo, Nixon and Sams (2005) as cited in Lodewyk
(2011) states the shortage or lack to the above factors would lead to the employee feeling a
sense of unwontedness, underappreciated and lost. This naturally will set off the feeling or
behaviour associated with wanting to leave the organisation.

It is therefore essential that organisations aim towards management and their leaders to foster
a relationship of understanding, appreciation, acknowledgment and give due when employees
achieve greatness in order to create an environment of fulfilment which in turn will lead to
employees staying longer and reducing the turnover of the firm.
b) Pay

The level of pay within any organisation plays a vital role in influencing employees to stay or leave. Pay is a variable of influence when it comes to people staying or leaving an organisation (Tang, Furnham & Davis, 2000).

Extensive research has shown that employees who earn a low salary compared to their higher earning counterparts will have a high need to leave the organisation. It has also been mentioned that skill-based pay systems which are based on the employee’s skill, experience and qualification are often a way to ensure that employees believe that they are being paid fairly and thus result to these employees staying at the organisation.

Shaw, Delerey, Jenkins and Gupta (1998), indicated that it is important for organisations to implement fair pay structures, good health and retirement benefits and incentives in order to ensure that staff turnover is reduced.

2.10 Summary of Chapter

The above literature review provided a theoretical overview of job satisfaction. An attempt was made to understand job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in general. Furthermore, the literature continues to look at the motivational theories in relation to job satisfaction.

The various factors influencing job satisfaction was then examined, this included both the intrinsic and extrinsic factors. In addition, the review continued to examine demographic factors which influence job satisfaction. Furthermore, the results or impact that a lack of job satisfaction on the bottom line of the organisation was discussed.

This chapter also focussed on Intention to Quit, which in many instances is due to factors both personally and via the organisation which lead to job dissatisfaction. When an employee is not happy with their job, or circumstances around it or then colleagues leave and they are forces to multi-task, work harder and have less family time they often then to become emotional exhausted, stressed and demotivated. These feels often result in an individual thinking about whether a particular job is meaningful. Once an employee starts feeling this, intentions to leave are the result.
High turnover for any organisation is not the best as it results in the loss of competent employee.

This chapter looked at factors which contribute to employee leaving in order to in later chapters focus on methods to deduce the turnover level of the organisation being investigated.

The following chapter consists of an in-depth discussion on the research method to be used. This will include and make reference to the data collection method and the statistical analysis used to investigate the research problem stated in chapter 1.

The chapter will conclude with a discussion on the research tools used to gain information from the studies respondents.
CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION
In the following chapter, the research methodology used to investigate the relationship between Job Satisfaction and the Intention to quit is discussed. The chapter describes the research plan, information regarding the participants, measuring instruments, procedure for data gathering as well as the statistical techniques employed in order to analyse the data gathered.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN
In order to study the relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit, information was gathered using a quantitative, non-probability sampling design, based on the method of convenience.

“In non-probability sampling designs, the elements in the population have no probability attached to them being chosen as sample subjects. Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006) states that non-probability samples do not rely on randomness to select the sample for the research study. This means that the findings from the study of the sample cannot be confidently generalized to the population.” (Sekaran, 2001, p. 277).

Researchers may at times be less worried about generalizability than they are about obtaining a number of preliminary information in a quick and inexpensive way. Certain non-probability sampling plans are more dependable than others and may possibly offer some important leads to potentially useful information with regards to the population (Sekaran, 2001). Sekaran (2001) goes on to state that non-probability sampling is used when time or other factors become critical.

Convenience sampling involves the process of collecting information from members of the population who are conveniently available to provide it (Sekaran, 2001). Terre Blanche et al. (2006) goes further to explain that convenience sampling is used in the instance when time is a critical resource to the researcher and results are required fast and effectively.
The advantages to making use of convenience sampling would be that it is quick, convenient and less expensive. However convenience sampling is not generalizable at all and this would be seen as a disadvantage.

According to Babbie and Mouton (2007), the use of quantitative research in the social sciences is important, especially in the study of Organisational Psychology. The reason for its importance is because it serves as an empirical system that can be used to establish relationships between the variables being studied. The purpose of the quantitative method was to develop and employ mathematics to models, theories and the hypothesis that was studied. This method was used to gather data in the form of an online survey in the form of a questionnaire distributed to the respondents.

Babbie and Mouton (2007) stated that surveys are mainly used in instances where the research study unit of analysis are people. Survey research are often used where the data collection sample are too large to be observed directly. Questionnaires were used in this study, where respondents were requested to select an answer from a pre-formulated written set of questions. The answers to these answers are predefined with closely defined alternatives. This method was also convenient and less time consuming, however, this sample design means that it cannot be generalised to the entire population of auditing firms in South Africa, as only one firm was used in this study (Sekaran, 2001).

Hayes (2001), and Babbie and Mouton (2007), indicated that there are several advantages and disadvantages to using this type of data collection method, which are stated as follows:

**Advantages:**

a) Questionnaires are relatively cheap and quick to complete;
b) Confidential and anonymous (in instances where respondents may fear that they will be victimized for the answers, opinions or attitudes);
c) Effective when researching sensitive issues; and
d) Allows for easy data gathering for large groups of respondents, as questionnaires can be completed simultaneously.
Disadvantages:

a) The response rate from participants may be relatively low;
b) The researcher runs the risk of obtaining incomplete questionnaires, as informants may skips questions;
c) The researcher will not be able to clarify or probe the respondent for more information; and
d) Language or illiteracy, may be an issue, as the use of a questionnaire assumes that all respondents are able to read and write as well as speak the same language.

3.2.1 POPULATION

Sampling is the process conducted by the researcher where he/she selects participants to partake in the study from the entire population (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Sekaran (2001) defines a population as the entire group of people, events, or things of interest that the researcher would like to investigate. Green (2005), stated that a research population is often selected based on their availability to the researcher. In the research paper the population that was used was the entire auditing community of a small to medium auditing firm. The firm was made up of various departments, which consist of Audit and Assurance, Accounting Services, Internal Auditing and Consulting, and Group Services. The Group Services function was made up of, Human Resources, Finance, Information Technology and Administration. The firm has nine (9) offices located throughout South Africa. The organisation employees +- 500 permanent and contracting staff, of which +- three hundred and fifty (350) are permanent.

3.2.2 SAMPLE

A sample is a subset of the population and it consists of some members selected from the population (Sekaran, 2001).

With this in mind, a convenience sample of three hundred and fifty (350) permanent employees in a small to medium privately owned auditing institution with offices in each of the nine (9) provinces in South Africa was used for this study. A convenience sample was used due to the critical time factor and pressure on the researcher to gain results in a fast and inexpensive manner, as this method makes use of respondents in the population that is readily available. In addition this sample size and make up was used to determine whether employees
in different branches of the same organisation experience differentiating levels of stress, as each offices working conditions will vary. Moreover, this sample was used as it would provide the shareholders of this organisation with a holistic view of the organisation, which would enable them to make decisions while looking at the entire organisation and not in terms of individual branches.

The Biographical Questionnaire (BQ), Work Satisfaction and Motivation Questionnaire (WMQ) and the Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire – Intention to Quit (ITQ) was distributed via email to all nine (9) offices. The questionnaire was sent to all three hundred and fifty permanent staff members, with three reminders going out over a period of one and a half weeks to urge respondents to complete the questionnaires. It was found that when the reminders were sent the response rate increased dramatically. One hundred and fifteen (115) respondents completed the questionnaire by the end of the response period.

3.2.3 PROCEDURE

A meeting was set up to meet with the Marketing Director of the Organisation being studied to discuss the aims and objectives of the research study as well as to be gain permission for access to the organisations employees as respondents to the study. The request was then sent to Managing Director of each HUB (the organisation operates as HUBS running with one major office overseeing various smaller offices) as well as to the Chief Executive Officer. After permission was granted by the organisation as well as the university, the questionnaires were distributed to all employees in the form of an email with a link to an online questionnaire survey tool. The email stated the name and contact details of the researcher and their supervisor, the purpose and motivation of the study as well as stated all ethical factors regarding participation in the research.

The email indicated to the respondents that their participation was voluntary and that all information was to be kept confidential and intended for research purposes only. Respondents were assured that their personal information and identity will be completely anonymous, as the online survey does not ask for their name or surname and was unable to distinguish between participants. Permission was granted for these questionnaires to be completed during business hours, at the respondents own desk, using their own desktop or notebook to ensure privacy as well as convenience.
The questionnaires were administered using an online survey system that electronically collate all responses on one database. This method ensured a high level of confidentiality.

3.3 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS
Three (3) measuring instruments were used to gather data from respondents in the form of questionnaires.

a) Biographical Questionnaire (BQ)
b) Work Satisfaction and Motivation Questionnaire, and (WMQ)
c) The Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire – Intention to Quit (ITQ)

Based on the research methodology used (non-probability convenience sampling) and the large number of respondents, questionnaires were selected as the most appropriate means of collecting data.

3.3.1 BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE (BQ)
The questionnaires each consists of a cover letter, explaining the nature of the study, assuring participants that their responses was to be kept strictly confidential and that only members of the research team would have access to the information provided by the respondents. The cover letter also stated that a summary of the results will be emailed to the respondents after the data was analysed.

A biographical information section was included that consisted of nine (9) questions. The questions were based on the respondents age; gender; race; highest completed level of education; first language, marital status, number of dependents (children); number of years worked in profession; and present designation. All the questions in the biographical information section were based on the independent variables of the study (see Appendix A)

3.3.2 WORK SATISFACTION AND MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE (WMQ)
The Work Satisfaction and Motivation Questionnaire (see Appendix B), consisting of forty-three (43) questions. It consisted of nine (9) sections; namely: work content; payment; promotion; recognition; working conditions; benefits; personal; my leader/supervisor; and general.
The questions in Work Satisfaction and Motivation questionnaire are to be answered by choosing whether the answer was true, not sure or untrue as set out by de Beer (1986, cited in Roberts, 2005). All forty-three (43) questions are to be answered by making an x at the appropriate answer.

Work content section of this questionnaire consisted of seventeen questions; payment section consisted of four questions, while promotion, working conditions and benefits consisted of three questions each. The benefit section consisted of three questions and personal section has two questions. The leader/supervisor section followed with four questions and then lastly the general section consisted of three (3) questions as well.

3.3.2.1 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF WMQ

According to Ali and Ahmed (2009), reliability refers to the consistency and/or dependability of a measuring instrument. An item analysis was conducted by De Beer (1987) in order to gauge the inter-item consistency of the WMQ. This provided an indication of the consistency of the responses to the items aligned to the measuring instrument. According to Prinsloo (1996) cited in Roberts (2005), the reliability of the WMQ was determined by means of a SPSSX programme in conjunction with a Cronbach coefficient-alpha. The calculated coefficient alpha is .82, which suggest strong positive item homogeneity in this instrument. This can be seen as an indication of test reliability (Prinsloo, 1996 cited in Roberts, 2005).

Furthermore, Ali and Ahmed (2009) conducted a study amongst 80 Unilever company employees, the country in which the research was conducted is not mentioned, determined that the coefficient alpha per subset as follows: Work Content (r = .78), payment (r = .86), promotion (r = .84), recognition (r = .90), working conditions (r = .77), benefits (r = .84), my leader/supervisor (r = .72) and general (r = .75).

Validity, as stated by Ali and Ahmed (2009), refer to the extent to which a measurement procedure measured what it is intended to measure rather than something else or nothing at all. Prinsloo (1996) conducted both an item and factor analysis to determine the internal consistency of the WMQ. Prinsloo (1996) reported a coefficient alpha of consistently high, ranging from .82 .93, with a median of .90 for the instrument.
The results of the item analysis, showed that each item had a positive correlation to the total score for the WMQ, with an average correlation ranging from a low .42 to .74, with a median of .64. This suggest that the 43 item questionnaire is relatively homogenous in respect of the constructs they measure. Similarly, the results of the factor analysis corroborate findings that the items are measuring a single common underlying construct.

3.3.3 MICHIGAN ORGANISATIONAL ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE – INTENTION TO QUIT (ITQ)

In addition to the Work Satisfaction and Motivation Questionnaire (WMQ), the Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire – Intention to Quit (ITQ) (see Appendix C), was be used to measure employee’s intention to leave the organisation. The Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire – Intention to Quit (ITQ) measured three items and is administered in the form of a 7 point likert questionnaire.

The Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire – Intention to Quit, consist of 3 questions focussing on the employees job, prospective employment as well as themselves.

Answers are given by circling the number on a 7 point Likert Scale which most closely relates to the employees agreement or disagreement with a specific statement. Answers range from 1 -7, with 1 being strongly disagree to 7, being strongly agree.


3.4 DATA ANALYSIS

3.4.1 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The statistical programme used for the analysis and interpretation of the data in this study is known as the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS), version 23. The SPSS programme is a quantitative mathematical system which allows the researcher to interpret the results of the data gathered, in order for the researcher to make conclusions, present their findings and to propose future research. Raw data collected from the questionnaires are
captured onto the SPSS programme and converted into information that can be used as research results and to draw conclusions. The following was determined:

3.4.1.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

In most organizational research it is the interest of the researcher to determine how frequently a certain phenomenon occurs, the mean average or the average score of the data collected, as well as the extent of the variability between the variables. This is known as descriptive statistics. The purpose of descriptive statistics is to describe the phenomena or interest (Sekaran, 2001). Huysamen (1990) suggests that descriptive statistics will ensure that researchers are able to present data gathered in a structured, accurate and short summarized version. This will allow for easy analysis of data and ensure that information is interpreted without errors. According to Sekaran (2001), descriptive statistics are presented in the format of percentages and frequencies.

3.4.1.1.1 PERCENTAGE

Percentages is a number or ratio expressed as fraction of 100. Often denoted using the symbol of % to express a percentage. In research, percentages are applied to create a contingency table from the frequency distribution and represents the collected data for better understanding. A percentage is a display of data that specifies the number out of 100 of the observation that exist for each data point (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

3.4.1.1.2 FREQUENCY

According to Lavrakas (2008), a frequency distribution is a tabular representation of the surveyed data. It is a list of quantitative or qualitative values that tabulates the number of times a specific data set occurs. Frequency distributions are useful in research as it, (a) organises and summarizes data in a table format, (b) it interprets the data, and (c) it identifies extreme value occurrences in the data set (Lavrakas, 2008).

3.4.1.2 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

In addition to descriptive statistics, the researcher aims to understand how variables relate to each other and whether or not there are differences between two or more groups, this is known as inferential statistics. The purpose of inferential statistics is to allow the researcher to draw inferences from the sample to the population (Sekaran, 2001). With inferential
statistics the researcher is able to infer from the data through analysis, the relationship between two variables and in some cases - three variables, the differences in a variable and how independent variables may be able to explain the variance in a dependant variable. In this research study, the inferential statistics is based on the examination of each of the hypothesis formulated for the study. All statistical test results were computed at the 2-tailed level of significance in accordance with the non-directional hypotheses presented, (Sekaran, 2001).

3.4.1.2.1 THE PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT
The Pearson product–moment correlation coefficient is the correlation between two variables and the degree to which variables are related. This is the most common measure of correlation. It has been identified that when measured in a population, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is designated with a “p” and when measured in a sample it is designated with a “r” The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient reflects the linear relationship between the two variables. The correlation could range between -1.0 (perfect negative relationship between the two variables) or +1.0 (perfect positive relationship between the two variables), and it is required of the researchers to determine whether or not the correlation found between the two variables is significant. For example, if the correlation coefficient occurred by chance or if there is a high probability that the actual existence with regards to the relationship between the two variables. It is common knowledge that a significance of $p = 0.05$ is the generally acceptable level in social sciences research. This indicates that there is a 95 percent chance that there is a true significant relationship between the two variables and there is a 5 percent chance that the relationship does not exist. If there is a correlation level at $p = 0.01$ this would indicate that there is a 1 percent probability that there is no relationship between the two variable (Sekaran, 2001).

3.4.1.2.2 ANOVA
The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is a parametric statistical method of comparing two or two groups in terms of another variable. The ANOVA is also referred to as the F-test, as the statistic used to test the significant difference observed is called the F-statistic. The ANOVA statistic is denoted as an F. The purpose of the ANOVA is to compare the means of two or more groups in order to decide whether there is an observed difference between them, which are represented as either chance occurrences or systematic effect (Pretorius, 1995). For the
purpose of this study, the ANOVA will be used to compare the difference between job satisfaction, the intention to quit and various biographical variables.

3.5 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

In this chapter the research methodology used in this study was discussed. A detailed explanation was provided with respect to the method and sampling approach used. The chapter further discussed the measuring instructions used, with specific references made to the biographical questionnaire, the work satisfaction and motivation questionnaire (WMQ) and the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire – Intention to Quit (ITQ). The chapter concluded with an explanation of the statistical techniques to be used, namely, the descriptive and inferential statistics, which will be used to test the relevance of the hypothesis.

The continuing chapter, chapter four (4) will focus of the findings gathered through the methodology discussed in the chapter. The results are presented and interpreted using statistical package for the social science, SPSS Version 23, computer programme.
CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION
In the previous chapter, the research methodology and design applied for the current study was defined. All information in this research is based on empirical analyses conducted to test the stated hypotheses.

The statistical programme used for the analyses and presentation of data was the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 23. The descriptive statistics that were computed during the study served as an outline of the characteristics of the sample with regards to the variables being studied. Data pertaining to the variables of the study were collected through the administration of three (3) questionnaires as mentioned in Chapter 3, and are summarized by means of calculation of the descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data clearly emerged and an overall picture was obtained. Thereafter, the analyses of the constructs relevant to the study, which is the level of job satisfaction and the intention to quit, are presented with the aid of inferential procedures. Conclusions were then drawn on the basis of the obtained results.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS
This section outlined the descriptive statistics calculated on the basis of the variables included in the biographical questionnaire. The demographic variables that received attention was: designation, education (qualification), age, ethnic background, gender, first language, tenure (length of service), dependents and marital status. Descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and percentages, were subsequently presented graphically for each biographical variable stated above based on the characteristics of the research sample of 115 respondents (n = 115).

The majority of the respondents, that is 23% (n =27) were trainee accountants, with B.Com degrees, 18% indicated that they hold a national senior certificate (grade 12). 31% (n = 35) indicated that they were between the ages of 26 – 30 years old, majority (33%) being of African descent, followed closely by 26% (n = 30) who stated that they are White. Male and female represented an equal percentage (50%), with 49% (n = 35) indicated that they were
English speaking and 21% (n = 24) stated that they spoke Afrikaans. 53 (61%) of the sample respondents indicated that they were with the organisation for between 0 – 3 years, while 31 (27%) showed that they had been with the organisation for between 4 – 7 years. Furthermore, 47% (n = 54) indicated that they had no dependents or 1 – 3 dependents. Lastly, 68 (59%) stated that they were single.

4.2.1 BIOGRAPHICAL ANALYSIS

4.2.1.1 DESIGNATION OF THE RESPONDENTS

The subjects’ responses with regards to their designation are presented graphically in Figure 4.2.1.1 and Table 4.2.1.1

![Designation distribution of respondents](image)

**Table 4.2.1.1: Designation distribution of respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Chief Executive Office (CEO)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Director / Associate Director</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Manager / Assistant Manager</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Supervisor</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Senior out of Articles / Senior</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Trainee Accountant</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>EBS Clerk (incl. Cases, Liquidations &amp; Tax)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Consultant</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Administration (Support Staff, Finance, HR &amp; IT)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Other: Please specify</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the frequency distribution presented in Figure and Table 4.2.1.1, it was deduced that a total of 27 of the 115 subjects in the sample were trainee accountants. It can thus be seen that a majority of the individuals in the sample (23%) fell into this category. This was followed by 17 respondents indicating that they fell within the Manager/Assistant Manager category, making up 15% of the respondents. This was followed by 16 subjects from both the Director/Associate Director and Administration staff contributing to 14% of the responses. The remaining distribution was represented as follows, 12% (n = 14) of the respondents are Entrepreneurial Business Services (EBS) clerks, including Company Secretarial, Liquidations and Tax, 7% were Senior out of Articles/Seniors (n = 8), 5% were consultants (n = 6), Supervisors were made up of 4% (n = 5) of respondents, with a further 4% (n = 5) falling within the category of others. 1% or n = 1 was said to be indicative of the Chief Executive Officer.

The results suggested that for this research sample, a majority of the employees were trainee accountants, suggestive of the organisations mission and vision that they are a training environment. This further suggested that a large portion of the organisations subjects were young professionals.

4.2.1.2 QUALIFICATION OF THE RESPONDENTS

The respondents’ qualification level in the organisation was under investigation and are presented in Figure and Table 4.2.1.2.

**Figure 4.2.1.2**: Qualification Levels of respondents
Table 4.2.1.2: Qualification Levels of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Grade 12 (Matric)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>National Higher Certificate (NHC)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>National Diploma (Ndip)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>B.com</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Honours</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>CTA Level</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>CA(SA)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Other: Please Specify</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.2.1.2 illustrated that 20% of respondents from the sample size (n = 23) held university accredited B.Com degrees. 21 (18%) respondents indicated that they held a Grade 12 national senior certificate. While a further 16% indicated that they either held a National Diploma or were qualified Chartered Accountants [CA (SA)]. The rest of the respondents fell into the following categories, 7% (n = 8) fell into the category on holding qualifications not mentioned in this list (other) while the same percentage stated the they were currently at CTA level, which is said to be equivalent to an Honours qualification in Accounting and is made up of two (2) levels. 7 respondents (n = 7) held an Honours qualification (6%), while 3% (n = 3) held either a Grade 10 or B-tech qualification. One (1) respondent illustrated that they held a Masters qualification.

The category within the qualification level that represented the highest number of respondents of the sample size was that of a B.Com degree. This suggested that the majority of employees with this organisation were young individuals with first time completed qualifications.
Furthermore, if one further analysed this category, it was seen that 80 of the 115 subjects held qualifications beyond that of a school leaving certificate (Grade 12). This suggested that 69% (n = 80) of the subjects were educated, professional individuals.

4.2.1.3 AGE OF THE RESPONDENTS

The respondents’ age in the organisation was under investigation was presented in Figure and Table 4.2.1.3

Figure 4.2.1.3: Age of respondents

Table 4.2.1.3: Age of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>20 - 25 years</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>26 - 30 years</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>31 - 39 years</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>40 - 49 years</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>50 + years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results from this category suggested that majority of the subjects in this sample were between the ages of 20 – 39 years of age as per Figure 4.2.1.3. Suggesting that the organisation was make up of a young workforce. The young age of the respondents could also suggest that the organisation may experience a high turnover level as the new generation
of employees were most likely to leave the organisation once they have received their training. The organisation under investigation is an accredited SAICA, ACCA, SAIPA and IIA training centres, where graduates join the organisation to complete their required training (articles). The organisations employment contracts of these employees specifically indicate that their contracts come to an end upon completion of their training contracts.

4.2.1.4 ETHNIC GROUP OF THE RESPONDENTS
The ethnical makeup of the respondents was under analysis in this category and were presented in Figure and Table 4.2.1.4.

**Figure 4.2.1.4.:** Ethnic Group of the Respondents

**Table 4.2.1.4:** Ethnic Group of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Indian / Asian</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>African</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Other: Please Specify</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Figure and Table 4.2.1.4 it could be deduced that 38 of the sample subjects (33%) were of African descent. Thirty (30) respondents indicated they were White (30%), with 18% being of coloured (n = 20) and 23% being of Indian or Asian origin (23%).

The results indicated that the make-up of the organisation was in line with South African Labour requirements, which prescribes that an organisations workforce should be representative of the country’s population. The results indicated that there is no under presentation of any group within the organisation.

4.2.1.5 GENDER DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENTS

Figure and Table 4.2.1.5 presented a graphical representation of the gender distribution of the selected sample.

![Gender distribution of the respondents](image)

**Figure 4.2.1.5:** Gender distribution of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from Figure and Table 4.2.1.5, the gender distribution between male and female were relatively on par, with 58 subjects from the sample being female and 57 of the
subjects from the sample being male, both represented 50% of the gender distribution of the sample size of the organisation.

4.2.1.6 LANGUAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENTS

The language distribution of the sample subjects were presented in the following Figure and Table 4.2.1.6.

![Figure 4.2.1.6: Language Distribution of the respondents](image)

**Table 4.2.1.6: Language Distribution of the respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ndebele</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Northern Sotho</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Sotho</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Swazi</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Tsonga</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Tswana</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Venda</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Xhosa</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Zulu</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Other: Please</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Specify</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>115</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure and Table 4.2.1.6 is presentative of the language distribution illustrated by the sample size. As was seen 53 of the respondents (46%) converse in English, with less than half of
them speaking Afrikaans (n = 24, 21%). The remaining sample subjects indicated the following language distribution when taking into account South Africa’s eleven (11) official languages: Ndebele (n = 1, 1%), Northern Sotho (n = 8, 7%), Sotho (n = 5, 4%), Tsonga (n = 1, 1%), Tswana (n = 4, 3%), Venda (n = 1, 1%), Xhosa (n = 4, 3%), and Zulu (n = 2, 2%). The remaining 12% (n = 12) stated the following as their home language, 1% Greek, 1% Urdu/Arabic and the rest of the 10 subjects indicated that Shona was their home language. The large difference in the language distribution may reflect the true difference in the population. That is, it is possible that there were a greater number of English speaking subjects in the organisation under investigation. However, this could also mean that Afrikaans, Zulu, or Xhosa speaking subject were under-presented in this study.

4.2.1.7 TENURE (LENGTH OF SERVICE) DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENTS

Figure and Table 4.2.1.7 were presentative of the tenure of the sample subjects in the organisation studied.

**Figure 4.2.1.7:** Tenure distribution of the respondents
Table 4.2.1.7: Tenure distribution of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0 - 3 years</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4 - 7 years</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>8 - 10 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>11 - 14 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>15 + years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As per Figure 4.2.1.7, 6% of the respondents have served the organisation for 15 years or more. Given that this was the category with the longest length of service, it appears that from this sample that they were under-represented.

The distribution of length of service (tenure) that has the highest representation with respect to the research sample, was those respondents serving the organisation between 0 – 3 years, where they represented 61% (n = 31) of the sample. It could be assumed that the sample is represented by a relatively young workforce as more than half of the sample fell within this category. It thus appeared as if the organisation was experiencing a relatively high level of employee turnover. The high turnover level could possibly be contributed to the organisation being seen as a training environment with new trainees coming and going every 3 – 5 years depending on the articles period.

4.2.1.8 NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS OF THE RESPONDENTS

Figure and Table 4.2.1.8, depicted the number of dependents of the respondents.

Figure 4.2.1.8: Number of dependents of the respondents
Table 4.2.1.8: Number of dependents of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1 – 3</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4 – 5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6 +</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It could be seen from the responses given by the subject sample that 47% (n = 54) did not have dependents. 47% (n = 54) indicated that they have 1 – 3 dependents, while 6 (5%) and 1 (1%) indicated that they have 4 – 5 and 6 or more dependents respectively.

It can therefore be assumed that majority of the sample either had no or 1 -3 dependents thus contributing to the age and tenure distribution. It therefore suggested that the organisation was made up of a young workforce.

4.2.1.9 MARITAL STATUS OF THE RESPONDENTS

Figure 4.2.1.9 and Table 4.2.1.9 were presentative of the marital status of the respondents.

Figure 4.2.1.9: Martial status of the respondents
Table 4.2.1.9: Marital status of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.2.1.9 and Table 4.2.1.9 referred to the marital status of the sample size (n = 115). It could be seen from the figure and table below that a large majority of the sample size were single (n = 68, 59%). Married respondents made up 36% (n = 41), with 4% (n = 5) and 1% (n = 1) indicated that they were either divorced or widowed.

It could therefore, once again be assumed that the organisation was made up of a fairly younger workforce, with single, unmarried respondents making up 59% of the represented sample.

4.3 FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

Table 4.3.1: Descriptive statistics for the Work Satisfaction and Motivation Questionnaire for the sample of 115 respondents.
Table 4.3.1 depicts the results of for the dimensions of the work satisfaction and motivation questionnaire, being: work content, pay, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, my leader/supervisor and general and total satisfaction and motivation. The results showed that the mean and median for the work satisfaction and motivation questionnaire for the sample size is 70.87 and 70.93 respectively.

The average mean score for the work satisfaction and motivation questionnaire is 86. Therefore, with the current mean score of 70.87, which is below that on the average score, that amongst the employees in this organisation, the general tendency is that they are unsure as to their feelings in respect of work satisfaction.

The questionnaire was in the form of a 3 point scale where respondents were required to provide answers to specific questions based on a true (1), not sure (2) or untrue (3) scale. The above table also indicated the results for the mean, standard deviation and median for the work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, and benefits, personal, my leader/supervisor and general ranged from a low 2.84 to a high 25.18 mean and a low 2.00 to a high 7.94 median.
The mean and median scores of the respective subscales are explained as follows:

Work content (Mean = 25.18, Med. = 25.00); which refers to the respondents feelings about the work they do, focusing on questions about their ease of work, level of control and independence, indicated that from the mean score it can be seen that the respondents indicated that they are happy with their work content. This indicted that their work was easy to manage, control and handle and that they enjoyed the independence and variety in their work. The average mean score for this subscale is 34.00. With the current mean and median, it can be deduced that employees are fairly unsure to slightly satisfied with their work content.

Pay was made up of four questions, which focused on the employee’s belief that their salaries are equal, fair and in line with industry standards and within the organisation itself. With a mean score of 7.94, and a median of 8.00, it can be seems that many employees are not sure as to whether their salaries are equal to, or in line with what others earn in the same industry. This could perhaps mean that although employees receive an increase they do not believe it is in line with their duties or tasks, or with what other employees are receiving.

Promotion is made up on 3 questions which focus on an employee’s feelings towards their promotional prospects. It can be stated from the results that employees are unsure as to their promotional prospects within the organisation or as to whether those who have received promotions have been granted it on a fair bases (Mean = 5.49, Median = 5.00). Likewise the mean score of subscale – Recognition (Mean = 6.90, SD = 2.609, Median = 6.95) subscale, indicated that employees are unsure as to whether they receive enough praise, credit and progress they received from the managers regarding the work content. Working Conditions (Mean = 4.65, SD = 1.469, Median = 25.00) consist of 3 questions relating to an employee’s work hours, overtime and communication with other colleagues. The low mean score is contributed to the number of questions asked in this subscale. Majority of the respondents indicated that they believe that their working hours and communication with co-workers was good but that they worked too much overtime.

Benefits (Mean = 5.14, Median = 5.00), My leader/supervisor (Mean = 6.18, Median = 6.00) and General (Mean = 6.54, Median = 7.00) all indicated that employees were fairly unsure as
to their benefits they received, feelings towards their leader/supervisor and other general work aspects.

However, it is important to mention that in the subscale regarding to personal, which questions focus on qualification and whether employees are given work that are in accordance to their qualifications, a great percentage indicated that they are happy (Mean = 2.84, Median = 2.00).

The subscales Work Content, Payment, Promotion, Recognition, Working Conditions, Benefits, my Leader/Supervisor and General are subscales were the respondents indicated that they were unsure, with a majority of the questions answered as ‘Not Sure’. Employees displayed a higher satisfaction and motivation when the variable personal was considered, which indicated that they were happy that their qualification and skills where being used.

**Table 4.3.2:** Descriptive statistics for the Michigan Organisational Assessment – Intention to Quit Questionnaire for the sample of 115 respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New Job in the New Year</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>2.278</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>5.189</td>
<td>0.149</td>
<td>-1.410</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Think about Quitting</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>2.154</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.638</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>-1.191</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same benefits</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>2.238</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>5.007</td>
<td>-0.410</td>
<td>-1.203</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to Quit Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>11.72</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>24.992</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>-0.606</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3.2 depicts the dimensions of the Michigan Organisational Assessment – Intention to Quit (ITQ) Questionnaire and the total Intention to quit in respect of the employees feelings and intentions towards leaving the organisation. The average mean score for this questionnaire was 12.
The results showed the mean and median for the employee’s intention to quit as being 11.72 and 12.00 respectively. The questionnaire consist of three (3) questions which related to the employees desire for a new job in the New Year (Mean = 3.71, Median = 4.00), whether they were considering leaving the organisation (Mean = 3.50, Median = 4.00) and whether they believe they would receive the same benefits elsewhere (Mean = 4.50, Median = 4.00). The above results indicated that employees are indifferent (neither agree or disagree) as to their intentions to leave the organisation, whether they will be seeking alternative employment, thinking about leaving or whether they will receive the same benefits at another firm.

**4.4 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS**

The following section addressed the results by making use of inferential statistics to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit, job satisfaction and pay, the intention to quit and pay as well as between job satisfaction, the intention to quit and selected biographical variables. The Pearson Product Moment correlation co-efficient and ANOVA was be used for this analysis.

**Table 4.4.1:** Pearson correlation between job satisfaction and the intention to quit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ITQTot</th>
<th>JobsatTot</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ITQTot</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.407**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>JobsatTot</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.407**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 4.4.1 indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit (r = .407, p <0.01). It depicted that there was a moderate correlation between the two variables, job satisfaction and the intention to quit. All relationships were direct suggesting that there was a converse relationship between job
satisfaction and intention to quit. This suggests that as job satisfaction increases, intention to quit would increase.

There was therefore a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit. Therefore the hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4.4.2: Correlation between job satisfaction and pay

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>JobsatTot</th>
<th>Paytotal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JobsatTot</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paytotal</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.535**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 4.4.2 showed that there was a relationship between job satisfaction and pay ($r = .535$, $p < 0.01$). This suggested that there was a strong correlation between the two variables, which indicated that there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and pay.

Furthermore, it suggested that when pay was unsatisfactory, job satisfaction was low and likewise it proposed that when pay was satisfactory (high), job satisfaction would be high. There was therefore a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and pay. The hypothesis was therefore accepted.
Table 4.4.3: Correlation between intention to quit and pay

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Paytotal</th>
<th>ITQTot</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paytotal</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITQTot</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.279**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 4.4.3 suggested that there was a positive direct relationship between pay and the intention to quit (r = .279, p < 0.01). This indicated that the relationship was convergent and statistically significant, which demonstrated that there was a relationship between pay and the intention to quit. It suggested that when the intention to quit is high, pay will be high. The relationship between pay and intention to quit (r = .2) is a weak relationship, which may suggest that it have occurred by chance, or that other variables other than pay itself are influencing employee intention to quit. There was therefore a statistically significant relationship between pay and intention to quit. Therefore, the hypothesis could be accepted.

Table 4.4.4: ANOVA indicating the difference between job satisfaction, intention to quit and length of service (tenure)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jobsattot</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1153.321</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>288.330</td>
<td>2.179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>14613.723</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>132.852</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15767.043</td>
<td>114</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITQTot</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>483.020</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>120.755</td>
<td>5.614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>2366.076</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>21.510</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2849.096</td>
<td>114</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results indicated in Table 4.4.4 indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between job satisfaction and tenure ($F = 2.170$, $p > 0.01$), and that there was a statistically significant difference between intention to quit and tenure ($F = 5.614$, $p < 0.01$). This therefore indicates that there is a partial difference between job satisfaction, intention to quit and tenure. Therefore the hypothesis was partially accepted.

Table 4.4.5: ANOVA indicating the difference between job satisfaction, intention to quit and age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Jobsattot</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>754.723</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>150.945</td>
<td>1.096</td>
<td>.367**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>15012.321</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>137.728</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15767.043</td>
<td>114</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ITQTot</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>148.630</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29.726</td>
<td>1.200</td>
<td>.314**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>2700.466</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>24.775</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2849.096</td>
<td>114</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Table 4.4.5 examined whether there was a significant difference between job satisfaction, intention to quit and age. It indicated that there was a small significant relationship between job satisfaction and age, with no statistically significant difference ($F = 1.096$, $p > .001$). Intention to quit and age displayed a strong significant relationship, but with no statistically significant difference ($F = 1.200$, $p > .001$). Therefore there is no statistically significance difference between job satisfaction, intention to quit and age. Therefore the hypothesis was rejected.
The results explored in Table 4.4.6 looked at whether there was a significant difference between job satisfaction and intention to quit based on gender. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between job satisfaction and gender (F = .160, p > .001) and intention to quit and gender (F = .009, p > .001). There was therefore no statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction, intention to quit and gender. The hypothesis was therefore rejected.
**Table 4.4.7:** ANOVA indicating the difference between job satisfaction, intention to quit and number of children (dependents)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Jobsattot</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>22.287</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>22.287</td>
<td>.160</td>
<td>.690**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>15744.757</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>139.334</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15767.043</td>
<td>114</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ITQTo</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>.232</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.232</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>.924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>2848.863</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>25.211</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2849.096</td>
<td>114</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The results discovered in Table 4.4.7 looked at whether there was a significant difference between job satisfaction, intention to quit and number of dependants. The results indicated that there no statistically significant difference between job satisfaction, intention to quit and number of dependents, (F = 1.308, p > 0.01) and (F = 3.784, p > 0.013) respectively. It can therefore be said that there is no significant difference between job satisfaction, intention to quit and gender and therefore the hypothesis was rejected.
The results explored in Table 4.4.8 looked at whether there was a significant difference in job satisfaction and intention to quit based on marital status. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between job satisfaction and marital status ($F = 1.281, p > 0.01$) and intention to quit and marital status ($F = 2.594, p > 0.01$). There was therefore no statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction, intention to quit and marital status. Therefore the hypothesis was rejected.
Table 4.4.9: ANOVA indicating the difference between job satisfaction, intention to quit and level of qualification.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jobsattot</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2488.768</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>248.877</td>
<td>1.949</td>
<td>.047**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>13278.275</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>127.676</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15767.043</td>
<td>114</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITQTo t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>175.101</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17.510</td>
<td>.681</td>
<td>.740**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>2673.994</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>25.711</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2849.096</td>
<td>114</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The results explored in Table 4.4.9 looked at whether there was a significant difference in job satisfaction and intention to quit based on qualification. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between job satisfaction and qualification (F = 1.281, p > 0.01) and intention to quit and qualification (F = 2.594, p > 0.01). Therefore there was no statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction, intention to quit and qualification. The hypothesis was therefore rejected.

4.5 CRONBACH ALPHA ANALYSIS (RELIABILITY OF QUESTIONNAIRES)
The below table makes reference to reliability of the questionnaire used being the WMQ and the ITQ using the form of analysis known as the Cronbach Alpha. The reliability refers to the consistency and/or dependability of the measuring instrument (Ali & Ahmed, 2009). According to Sekaran (2001) the Cronbach Alpha measures the internal consistency of the variables (items) of the questionnaire, the higher or stronger and closer to 1 the co-efficient is, suggests a positive item homogeneity in the instrument.
4.5.1 WORK SATISFACTION AND MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE (WMQ)

The WMQ questionnaire consist of 43 questions which investigated the employee’s feelings towards: work content; pay; promotion; recognition; working conditions; benefits; personal; my leader/supervisor and general.

Table 4.5.1: Reliability of the Work Motivation Satisfaction Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work Content</td>
<td>0.695</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>0.734</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>0.736</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>0.668</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Conditions</td>
<td>0.501</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>0.537</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>0.616</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My Leader/Supervisor</td>
<td>0.745</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>0.790</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.847</strong></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>115</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In a previous studies done by Prinsloo (1996) as cited in Roberts (2005) and, Ali and Ahmed (2009), the Cronbach’s Alpha co-efficient was indicated as 0.82 and 0.64 respectively.

Likewise, the Cronbach’s Alpha was used to assess the reliability of the WMQ in respective of the current study being conducted. Scores of all the subscales obtained where in the range of 0.50 to 0.79, which suggested that these subscales ranged from having a poor level of homogeneity to an acceptable level of homogeneity. More specifically being: Work content, Pay, Promotion, My Leader/Supervisor and General scores are at an acceptable level. Recognition and Personal are questionable and, working conditions and benefits are poor.

Table 4.5.1 (above) showed that an overall good Cronbach’s Alpha Co-efficient was obtained for the WMQ questionnaire used. The overall co-efficient of 0.847. This suggested that there was a high level of internal consistency and that the responses obtained from the items (variables) were aligned with the measuring instrument. It also suggests that there is a strong item homogeneity, which indicated that test reliability in this instrument existed.
4.5.2 MICHIGAN ORGANISATIONAL ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE – INTENTION TO QUIT (ITQ)

The ITQ questionnaire consists of three (3) questions which investigated the employee’s feelings towards their intention to quit from the organisation. The questionnaires answers are in the form of a 7 point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.5.2: Reliability of the Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire – Intention to Quit (ITQ)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s Alpha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.610</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table made reference to the homogeneity of the ITQ, by making use of the Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient. Previous test reliability for this instrument showed an internal consistency score ranging from 0.67 to 0.95.

The Cronbach’s Alpha for the current research study reflected as 0.610 score, which suggested that the internal consistency and reliability of this instrument was questionable. This result could have been due to the fact that the respondents failed to answer the questions truthfully or may not have understood the questions correctly.

4.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter provided an overview of the most significant findings obtained based on an empirical analysis of the data collected from the research respondents.

Chapter 5 will present a discussion on the research findings obtained and will use the framework of previous research done on job satisfaction and intention to quit as the bases for this discussion.
5.1 INTRODUCTION

This is the concluding chapter for the research undertaken. The chapter commenced with a discussion of the nine (9) hypothesis that were under investigation, and references was made to previous studies conducted on job satisfaction and the intention to quit.

5.2 DISCUSSION

5.2.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

In the study, the presented sample consisted of 115 permanent staff members of a national audit, assurance and consulting firm. All departments where included in the study. To assist with making references to the constructs of job satisfaction and the intention to quit, biographical statistics was used in order to make meaningful conclusions in respect of the sample used.

5.2.2 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

In addition to the descriptive statistics method used, the researcher also made use of inferential statistics, in an attempt to further validate and confirm the hypothesis that was under investigation. Inferential statistics is the process used by a researcher to draw inferences between 2 or more variables, usually the dependent and independent variables (Sekaran, 2001). This allowed the researcher to understand and explain the relationship or the effect of one variable on another. The Pearson product-moment correlation co-efficient and ANOVA was used for this purpose.

5.2.2.1 HYPOTHESIS 1

There is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

The results of the research indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit (r = .407, p < 0.01). Hence the hypothesis was therefore accepted.
Due to the limited amount of research available on the auditing, assurance and consulting environment, references were made to various other industries to support the findings on the study.

The findings of the current research were unexpectedly not supported by a number of studies. In a study done by Alam and Mohammed (2004) amongst nurses, it was found that low job satisfaction was contributed to organisational issues, such as poor management, lack of support and heavy workloads. These factors lead to increased job dissatisfaction which directly influenced and leads to an increase in intention to quit.

Research done by Cowin (2002) further supported the research findings by indicating that when intrinsic and extrinsic factors were unsatisfactory, employees who were unhappy displayed a greater propensity to leave the organisation.

On the other hand, Gamage and Buddhika (2013) confirmed in a study conducted amongst IT staff in Sri Lanka. The study resulted in a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit (r = .626, p < 0.01). The study suggested that when job satisfaction was low, the intention to quit was high.

Eby, Freeman, Rush and Lance (1999) as cited in Lodewyk (2011) did not find a relationship between the two constructs, this was possibly as a result of a third variable, such as biographical factors influencing the results of the study.

Job Satisfaction was found to be the most important contributor to an organisation's success. This was because job satisfaction was found to be directly correlated to enhance work performance and ultimately reduce intentions to quit (Begley & Czajka, 1993). Likewise Azjen and Fisbein (1980) and Igbaria and Fisbein (1992) as cited in Alam and Mohammed (2004) indicated that intentions are the most immediate bases of actual behaviour. They stated that once an employee displayed the behaviour to quit, there was little that the organisation could do or little likelihood that the employee was to change their behaviour.

The results further indicated that there was a positive linear relationship, which means that there was a direct relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit. This suggested that as job satisfaction or dissatisfaction increases, intention to quit would increase accordingly.
Shields and Ward (2001), in a U.S study they conducted on nurses found that amongst the nurses surveyed 65% who displayed a low level of job satisfaction was likely to quit the organisation compared to their satisfied counterparts.

Buchko (1993) and Guthrie (2000) as cited in Lodewyk (2011) indicated that committed and satisfied employees not only exhibit reduced withdrawal behaviours, but were more likely to work towards keeping the organisation competitive and prosperous. Lodewyk (2011), who conducted research in a financial services division in the Western Cape found that when job satisfaction was high, intention to quit was low \(r = -0.096, p > 0.05\).

However, in support of this researcher, Luthans (2008) does suggest that job satisfaction and intention to quit would not always result in an inverse relationship. He stated that job satisfaction was influenced by various factors such as pay, working conditions, gender, and marital status amongst a few, which would lead to the intention to quit even though employees were satisfied with their jobs. Luthans (2008) further stated that social and economic factors could also influence job satisfaction in a converse way, stating that many employees are comfortable at their current organisations, and even though they are unhappy prefer to stay at these organisations instead of having to look for alternative employment, which results in the situation as seen in the current study’s relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit.

5.2.2.2 HYPOTHESIS 2

*There is a significant relationship between pay, and job satisfaction experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.*

The results of the research indicated that there was a strong positive statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and pay \(r = .535, p < 0.01\). Hence the hypothesis was accepted.

This finding was supported by various studies, especially Luthans (1995) as cited in Josias (2005) and Bull (2005) stated that wages and salaries was an important measure and indicator of job satisfaction. Therefore, as seen from the results of the findings, it was said that as pay increased job satisfaction was higher and when job satisfaction was low it can be contributed to a low level of pay.
The finding was supported by Voydanoff (1980) as cited in Bull (2005), they found that employees within the public sector experienced lower levels of job satisfaction as compared to the private sector when taking into account monetary value.

Churchill et al. (1974) as cited in Alam and Mohammed (2004) supported the findings through a study conducted on a sample of nurses. It suggested that the extent of the nurse’s compensation and benefits package, such as medical aid, retirement annuities, travel allowances and other company peaks also had an influence on their job satisfaction level, in relation to their workload. If the full compensation package were satisfactory they were more likely to be happy and fulfilled.

However, Josias (2005) does not agree with such findings, postulating that the relationship between financial reward and job satisfaction was smaller than expected. Josias (2005) therefore suggesting that pay cannot be deemed as a major influencing factor in respect of the underline construct.

Spector (1996) goes further to support Josias (2005) in stating that fair pay influences job satisfaction more than actual pay itself. This was because employees compared their pay levels to others within the organisation. When employees felt they are being treated fairly compared to the rest of the employees they were satisfied.

Furthermore, a study conducted by Josias (2005) indicated that pay was a short-term motivator and organisations should look into a more steadfast way to increase job satisfaction.

5.2.2.3 HYPOTHESIS 3

There is a significant relationship between pay, and intention to Quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

The results from the study indicated that there was a positive linear correlation between pay and intention to quit ($r = .279, p < 0.01$). Hence the hypothesis was therefore accepted.

From the research findings it was seen that there was a positive relationship between pay and intention to quit, which suggested that as pay increased, intention to quit increased as well. In this case we had to take into account that pay itself was not the only reason employees choose
to quit from the organisation they work for, but had to consider that other biographical factors could have influenced the outcomes of these two variables.

Tang, Furnham and Davis (2000) stated that pay played a vital role in influencing employee’s willingness to stay or leave an organisation. Extensive research conducted showed that employees who earned low salaries, had a higher inclination to quit than their higher earning counterparts. These employees were more likely to leave the organisation in search for higher earning jobs.

Lodewyk (2011) further stated that when employees where paid in proportion to their skills set, knowledge, experience and qualifications, they automatically felt the need to stay with a particular organisation. Whereas, those who felt that their skills and knowledge was not being used optimally would leave the organisation regardless of their income ratio.

Shaw et al. (1998) supported this notion stating that in conjunction to fair pay, pay for skills and experience as well as company peaks also contributed strongly to an employee’s attitude towards quitting from the organisation. Shaw et al. (1998) stated that when employees felt they were being taken care of financially, they had a higher degree of appreciation and commitment to the organisation and showed a lower inclination to leave or quit.

El-Jardali, Jamal, Abdallah and Kassak (2007) who did a study on Lebanese nurses found a negative correlation between the two constructs. They stated that nurses displayed a greater need to leave the organisation as company benefits and pay decreases. They also found that when the hospitals incentives (extrinsic rewards) where poor, employees felt a higher propensity or need to leave.

The remaining six (6) hypothesis focussed on the difference between job satisfaction, intention to quit and the biographical factors; tenure, age, gender, number of dependents, marital status and qualification.

5.2.2.4 HYPOTHESIS 4

There is a significant difference between the length of services (tenure) in terms of job satisfaction and intention to quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.
The results from the study indicated that there was a weak but no statistically significant difference between job satisfaction and tenure \( (F = 2.170; p > 0.01) \) and intention to quit and tenure \( (F = 5.614, p < 0.01) \), where there was a strong significant difference. **Hence the hypothesis was partially rejected/accepted.**

A study done by Alavi and Askaripur (2003) amongst 310 government employees, supported this finding by stating that there was no significant difference in job satisfaction based on tenure (length of service) amongst employees.

In addition to the current findings and the study conducted by Lambert et al. (2001) as cited in Bull (2005), argued that there was a difference in the relationship between tenure and satisfaction. Lambert et al. (2001) as cited in Bull (2005) stated that older employees often felt less satisfied that new employee. This was attributed to the fact that older employees could have been employed in the same position over a long period of time, leading to a lack of growth. This would lead to a sense of frustration, boredom and demotivation, which was ultimately likely to lead to dissatisfaction.

Bull (2005) on the other hand contradicted the above statement indicating that research has previously stated that the longer you worked for an organisation or in a specific job, the happier you become, alluding to the fact that as an employee’s length of services increased so do their job satisfaction levels.

Bilgic (1998) as cited in Okpara (2004) also found that employees who had more work experience and worked longer at a particular organisation were more satisfied in comparison to those with fewer years of work experience.

However, Bilgic (1998) as cited in Okpara (2004) also found that there was no difference in an employee’s job satisfaction when related to tenure. Okpara (2004) stated that this may be due to the process of acculturation, where over a period of time employees adapt to the culture of a particular organisation and start to settle into their position, where they start to like their jobs. Okpara (2004) further stated that older employees were likely to stay with their organisation as they have moved pass the acculturation process, and have started feeling that the organisation was part of their being.

However, Lambert et al. (2001) as cited in Bull (2005) goes further and identified that the reason for the inconsistent literature in this respect, could be attributed to the influence of other variables as well as how tenure is viewed within the organisation. In some organisations
senior employees are highly respected, while in other organisation tenure could be viewed as a liability.

Furthermore, from the research results it can be stated that there was a significant difference between intention to quit and length of service (tenure). This suggested that length of services does influence an employee’s intention to quit.

Van der Merwe (2003) as cited in Lodewyk (2011) indicated that intention to quit was more likely to be experienced during the early stages of employment when the employee was still new and adapting to the policies, procedures and processes of the organisation. When the obligation of staying is minimal.

Williams and Livingston (1994), Chevalier and Ellison (1999) and Idson (1996) as cited in Lodewyk (2011) agreed to the findings of van der Merwe and Miller (2003) as cited by Lodewyk (2011). They indicated that when employee services the organisation for a long period, then commitment to the organisation increased and these employees did not display behaviour of quitting.

Barak Nissly and Levin (2001) further supported this statement, stating that long servicing employees remained loyal as they wanted to see their return on their investment through their retirement or provident fund.

van der Merwe (1998) as cited in Lodewyk (2011) stated that it was important for an organisation to form a strong bond with the new employees from an early stage in order to eliminate the behaviours associated with the intention to quit. Lodewyk (2011) found in a study conducted amongst 86 employees in a financial services division in the Western Cape, that there was no difference between intention to quit and tenure (Beta = - 0.322324, T = 0.0032). This strongly supported the finds of this research study.

It can therefore be said from the research finding above that there was no direct difference between job satisfaction and tenure, however that there is a difference in intention to quit and length of service (tenure).

5.2.2.5 HYPOTHESIS 5

There is a significant difference between the various age groups in terms of job satisfaction and intention to quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.
The research outcomes found that there was no statistically significant difference between job satisfaction and age ($F = 1.096, p > .001$), as well as between intention to quit and tenure ($F = 1.200, p > .001$). Therefore the hypothesis was rejected.

Confirmation of these results could be seen in a study conducted by Josias (2005) amongst 472 employees in the electricity industry where it was found that there was no significant variance between job satisfaction and age. The results was collaborated by Alavi and Askaripur (2003) as well as by Carr and Human (1988) and Kachmar and Ferris (1989) as cited by Josias (2005).

However, Clark (1996) as cited in Bull (2005) stated that younger employees felt more satisfied because they had little work experience against which to compare their current work situations. Cramer (1993), Lok and Crawford (1999) and Luthans (1992) reported that younger employees tend to use self-progression and career growth as their own motivator. They stated that when organisations provided these young employees with ways to fast track their careers they were more satisfied.

Blood et al. (2002) as cited in Bull (2005), argued that job satisfaction increased with age and experience. They claimed that older employees were more tolerant and accepting of authority and may have over time learnt to lower their expectation of their jobs. Bull (2005) collaborated this finding suggesting that older employees use their skills better, have adapted to certain working conditions and appreciate their company benefits more than younger employees with less work experience.

Rhodes (1983) as cited in Bull (2005) stated that overall job satisfaction was related to age. Older employees appeared to demonstrate a greater level of job satisfaction, however the relationship was not clear.

Okpara (2004) depicted that there was a positive relationship between age and satisfaction which could be attributed it to the following reasons. (1) older employees become accustomed to their jobs over time and therefore experienced higher job satisfaction, (2) older employees become more confident over time and with confidence, job satisfaction increases, (3) Younger employees are always looking to progress and looking for greener pastures, which lead to lower levels of satisfaction and (4) younger employees have higher
expectations and if the organisation cannot fulfil their need for growth, they feel less satisfied and their need to quit increases.

However, it was important to note that older employees on the other hand, may have reduced their job aspirations due to their age and have become accustomed to the alternative choices that they face as they become older.

Khan et al. (2013) suggested that age played a vital role in an employee’s intention to leave. Results from a study conducted showed a weak relationship between intention to quit and age. It suggested that as older employees, provided that they are not bored or lack progression within the firm will often stay longer, however stated that younger employees are also likely to stay longer if the organisation takes their careers aspirations into account and assist with their development.

It was difficult to outright say that age was a determinant of intention to quit, this was because of various other factors coming from an employee’s life stage that could influence their intention to quit (Lok & Crawford, 1999).

Dornstein and Matalon (1989) and Kushman (1992) stated that the majority of literature did not agree with this statement, stating that in many organisations entry level positions were occupied by younger employees. Younger employees often did not have focus as they had a higher degree of uncertainty about their chosen career path. They indicted that this coupled with them often not having family commitments lead to younger employee’s exploring options and opportunities available to them. This meant that many organisations experienced a high turnover amongst younger employees.

Likewise Cramer (1993) and Mowday et al. (1982) suggested that older employees tended to stay longer and often had lower intentions to quit. This was because, other than stability, professionalism and commitment, older employees stayed with the organisation as they wanted to reap the rewards on their return of investment with the organisation. Older employees had a lower tendency to quit as they wanted their retirement benefits.

5.2.2.6 HYPOTHESIS 6

There is a significant difference between males and female in terms of job satisfaction and intention to quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.
The results from the research study showed the following differences, job satisfaction and the intention to quit in relation to gender. The outcomes showed that there was no statistically significant difference between job satisfaction and gender \((F = .160, p > 0.01)\), as well as intention to quit and gender \((F = .232, p > 0.01)\). **Therefore, the hypothesis was rejected.**

Researchers have tried to explain the relationship between gender and job satisfaction, however, a large number of researchers have found it difficult to find evidence with which to support their statements (Josias, 2005). Literature relating to this argument has been conflicting with some indicating that men are more satisfied than women and vice versa. Conversely, other studies have showed that there is no difference in gender satisfaction levels (Josias, 2005).

The outcome of the current research was in support of Josias (2005) as it was found that there was no statistically significant relationship between satisfaction and gender. The results could be attributed to the fact that there was a fair representation of males (50%) and females (50%) as part of the sample respondents.

A study by Alavi and Askaripur (2003) clearly supported this finding amongst 310 government employees that there was no significant difference between job satisfaction and gender. In another study, conducted in a Danish library amongst 411 library managers and in the United Kingdom amongst 237 library manager, Pors (2003) also found no overall difference between gender and job satisfaction.

In addition, a study was conducted by Carr and Human (1988) as cited in Josias (2005) had a similar view. The investigation done in the Western Cape textile industry amongst 224 respondents, held that there was no significant difference between genders based on satisfaction levels.

In a study conducted by Josias (2005) amongst 472 employees at an electricity utility company, it was found that gender had a significant impact of job satisfaction.

Furthermore, in a study conducted by Okpara (2004) it was established that there was a significant difference in gender satisfaction level amongst 360 IT managers in Nigeria. It found that men where happier than their female counterparts, especially when taking into account pay, promotion and supervision. Okpara (2004) however accredited this finding to
the fact that females had higher qualification levels and that their education level raised their job expectations.

A study steered by Zawacki, Shahan and Carey (1995) as cited in Bull (2005) reported that men had a higher level of job satisfaction compared to their female counterparts. They indicated that male nurses where somewhat more satisfied than females in respect of supervision and found that they considered their work more meaningful than female nurses.

In another study, it was revealed that women tended to be less satisfied in their jobs because they often held lower level positions within the organisation, where pay and promotion opportunities were less attractive. However, numerous studies have found no significant gender difference in job satisfaction, despite women holding inferior jobs with less pay, status, lower levels of authority and less promotional opportunities (Bull, 2005).

In addition, an inquiry done by Loscocco (1990) as cited in Josias (2005) found that female employees displayed higher satisfaction levels and get the most reward from those that are immediately available, such as relationships with their co-workers, but male employees enjoyed tasks that were consistent and rewards that represented monetary gain. It must be noted that monetary gain is short lived and does not contribute to long-term satisfaction (Josias, 2005).

When considering the relationship difference between gender and intention to quit, the research outcomes was that there was no statistically significant relationship between gender and intention to quit.

Khan et al. (2013) supported this finding suggesting that there was no relationship between gender and intention to quit. Owen and Todor (1993) ascribed this to the fact that there could be different factors influencing gender. Lodewyk (2011) confirmed that literature was found that contradicted the current research findings and noted that there was a significant difference in gender in relation to intention to quit. The literature made reference to women being in lower positions, being paid less, being passed up for promotion and discriminated against due to their family responsibilities as contributing factors that increased their intention to quit. According to Stuart (1992) and Korabik and Rosin (1995) as cited in Lodewyk (2011) women often delay becoming wives and or mothers in order to further their careers. This is in order to ensure that marriage and motherhood does not hamper their career
growth. Price (2002) indicated that men often held a higher sense of commitment, due to their role as breadwinner in the households.

5.2.2.7 HYPOTHESIS 7

There is a significant difference between the number of children (dependents) staff have in terms of job satisfaction and intention to quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

The research conducted amongst employees at an audit, assurance and consulting firm in South Africa, showed that there was statistically no difference between job satisfaction and dependents (F = .160, p > 0.01), and intention to quit and dependents (F = .009, p > 0.01). This reflected that the hypothesis was therefore not accepted.

In contradiction to the research findings, Robbin (1989) as cited in Josias (2005) found that there was strong evidence that suggested that there was a relationship between satisfaction and the number of dependents an employee had. It stated that the more children an employee had, the more satisfied they were. Robbin (1989) as cited in Josias (2005) attributed this to the fact that these employees has worked longer for the organisation and may be in senior position. This means that they are more comfortable in their jobs leading to greater level of job satisfaction.

The outcome of the current study did not support the above finding. This could be attributed to the fact that the majority of the respondent in the sample size were young, single trainees. Studies done by Alavi and Askaripur (2003) supported this view.

When taking into account the relationship between intention to quit and number of dependents, the study showed no significant difference between the two (2) variables.

Halawi (2014) contradicted this findings of the current study, where it was perceived that family structure had a significant influence on intention to quit. Halawi (2014) claimed that in two-parent household’s supervision of children was better controlled than in single-parent homes. When an employee had a support structure, especially with a spouse that was also working, these employees had no difficulty in making a decision to leave the organisation, however, single parents had to stay with a particular organisation even in the event of being dissatisfied because they could not afford to quit.
5.2.2.8 HYPOTHESIS 8

There is a significant difference between marital status of employees in terms of job satisfaction and intention to quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

The research outcomes found that there was no statistically significant difference between job satisfaction and marital status ($F = 1.281, p > 0.01$) and that of the intention to quit and marital status ($F = 2.594, p > 0.01$). Therefore, the hypothesis was rejected.

Marital status did not predict job satisfaction level amongst the sample employees. This was in contradiction with previous research that indicated that there was a significant difference, where married employees was found to be more satisfied than their unmarried co-workers. Married employee experienced higher satisfaction, and where seen to be content with the salary, management and work, due to the additional responsibilities they had in the private lives. This caused that they add more value to holding a steady job (Chambers, 1991 as cited in Josias, 2005). Robbins et al. (2003) as cited in Bearschank (2010) stated however, that researcher only focussed on single and married employees, and often have not considered the influence of divorced and widowed employees on their investigation of marital status.

Schulze and Steyn (2003) as cited in Roberts (2005) however, does not agree. He revealed that married employees displayed the lowest level of satisfaction.

Conversely, Alavi and Askariipur (2003) found no significant difference between job satisfaction and married or single employees. Therefore there was conflicting studies between whether there was a difference between job satisfaction and marital status.

Marital status did not predict intention to quit amongst the sample size. It showed that there was no difference between marital status and intention to quit.

Karabik and Rosin (1996) as cited in Lodewyk (2011) stated that there was a significant difference between marital status and intention to quit, but this was only if other factors where included. This was because married employees had a greater sense of responsibility to their families, especially if they were the breadwinner, and due to this commitment they stayed with an organisation for a longer period of time (Spencer & Steers, 1980).
Khan et al. (2013) also suggests that married women, with a qualification and steady job tend to stay with the organisation longer. However, Meyer and Allen (1997) indicated that unmarried staff tended to have a lower commitment level, due to the fact that they do not have any family responsibilities or commitments and because they were often focussed on career progression. Because of this intention to quit amongst single employees are higher.

The finally hypothesis related to the difference between job satisfaction, intention to quit and qualification.

5.2.2.9 HYPOTHESIS 9

There is a significant difference between the qualification levels of employees in relation to job satisfaction and intention to quit experienced amongst employees in a small to medium auditing firm in South Africa.

The research outcomes found that there was no statistically significant difference between job satisfaction and qualification (F = 1.949, p > 0.01) and that of the intention to quit and qualification (F = .681, p > 0.01). Therefore, the hypothesis was rejected.

A study conducted by Crossman and Abou-Zaki (2003) as cited in Luddy (2005) in support of the above, found that there was no significant correlation between an employee’s qualification level and job satisfaction. Rogers (1991) as cited in Theron (2010) stated that many researchers found a positive correlation between job satisfaction and qualification. They indicated that higher education levels was attributed to lower levels of satisfaction as stated by Clark (1991), Clark & Oswald (1996) and Nguyen et al. (2000) as cited in Theron (2010). This was because these employees have higher career aspirations. It was also found that younger, well-educated employees, from the middle class were more likely to move out faster than their other co-workers, but that those without qualifications did not experience more dissatisfaction.

The research study indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between intention to quit and qualification levels. However, Khan et al. (2013) indicated that several research studies indicated that there was a relationship between the two constructs. He stated that as employees become educated the higher the tendency to exit the organisation. He attributed this to the fact that highly educated individuals often occupied senior positions within the firm, with that come more responsibility and stress, leading to these employees exiting the organisation. Khan et al. (2013) also stated that employees with lower education
levels, occupied lower positions within the firm and often did not have as much stress as the senior counterparts. These employees would thus stay with the organisation longer.

Benjamin (2010) went further to add that employees with higher education levels would leave the organisation if they felt that their remuneration and company benefits were not in proportion to their education level.

5.3 LIMITATIONS

The research conducted has contributed to the existing body of knowledge pertaining to job satisfaction and the intention to quit. However, there are a number of limitations that need to be mentioned.

The first limitation applies to the non-probability sampling method used in the form of a convenience sample. As a result certain groups have been under represented. Staff between the ages of 20 – 30 years old made up 55% of the sample, resulting in participants from this group potentially influencing majority of the findings in this study. With respect to the other biographical factors, 80% of the sample population indicated that they had qualifications higher than that of a national senior certificate, 33% indicated that they were from African descent, 46% were English speaking, 80% indicated that they had either no or 1 – 3 dependents and a further 59% stated that they were single. Due to the poor distribution of the represented sample, selection bias had been introduce, which reduced the extent to which the results could be generalized to the entire population. Therefore for future research it would be recommended to use a stratified random sample to ensure greater rigour and greater control over the sample.

The next limitation was the questionnaires that was used. The questionnaires used all contained close ended questions with specific true, not true or not sure answers, which is subject to bias. Participants may have answered questions in a socially acceptable way or based on what they thought the researcher wanted to hear. Therefore, for future research it would be recommended to make use of open ended questionnaires, which will allow the respondents to express themselves clearly or perhaps to conduct interviews in order for the respondents and researcher to ask follow up or questions for more clarity.

In addition to the above limitation it has to be noted that the current study was only conducted in one audit, assurance and consulting firm in South Africa, due to time
constraints. Hence, the results from the current study could not be generalized to the entire population of audit, assurance and consulting firm across South Africa.

There was limited literature available on job satisfaction and intention to quit amongst audit, assurance and consulting employees in the South African context, therefore reference had to be made to other professions or organisations to support the current study’s findings.

Furthermore, the results from the study indicated that there was a converse relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit. This means that as job satisfaction increases, so does the intention to quit. This could be due to various factors that the researcher may not have considered.

Finally, it was mentioned that the current research was conducted within an organisation that had nine (9) offices, nationally, with the biggest office being Centurion. It was also noted by the researcher that a large majority of the responses was from this office. Due to this it could be that majority of the research results are based on the Centurion office.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

In recommendations to both the researcher and the organisation, the following strategies could be implemented within the audit firm to alleviate issues associated with job satisfaction and intention to quit, as well as assist future researchers in improving their research undertakings.

5.4.1. RESEARCH ISSUES

The following suggestions can be made to future researchers in an attempt to improve and contribute to future studies on this topic.

The researcher used a non-probability convenience sample. Due to this the results of the study could not be generalised to the entire population of audit, assurance and consulting firms in South Africa. Therefore it would be recommended that for future research the researcher make use of a stratified random sampling method.

Due to the limited response options of the closed ended questionnaires used in the research study, it was suggested that future researchers make use of a mixed method response approach, using the qualitative method of data collection. This will allow the respondents to give more detail and answer questions in their own words or by making use of an interview method where the researcher will be able to ask follow up questions to obtain more clarity.
Furthermore, the research results could not be generalised to the entire population of audit, assurance and consulting firms in South Africa, due to only one firm being used. Therefore, for future research it is recommended that more than one firm be used in order to generalise the results to the entire industry. It will also contribute to the limited amount of literature currently available relating to the audit and assurance industry and therefore will increase the knowledge base of job satisfaction and the intention to quit in this industry.

In addition, reference was made to the converse relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit, which indicated that as one variable increased so does the other. It is important to note that although the majority of previous research indicated that there was an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit and that it required further exploration.

For example, a large majority of the staff with the organisation being investigated, are young recently graduated individuals. These staff members are all working towards completing a professional qualification with various accredited accounting bodies in order to gain their professional memberships. The converse relationship could be a result of the fact that many of these trainees would see the organisation as a means to an end in order to gain their professional memberships and gain skills in order to make themselves more marketable once they have completed their formal training.

Due to this it would be suggested that the organisation conduct two separate research projects in order to establish whether there is a differentiation between the job satisfaction levels and intention to quit amongst permanent staff and the trainees.

Lastly, the unequal proportion of questionnaire received, with majority coming from the Centurion office, could possibly be influencing majority of the results. Therefore, for future research it would be suggested that the researcher conduct the research per office in order to establish the feelings amongst the employees per branch in order to gain a better understanding of whether different regions (offices) experience different levels of job satisfaction and intention to quit.
5.4.2. ORGANISATIONAL ISSUES

The following recommendations was made to the organisation in an attempt to assist in alleviating the issues associated with job satisfaction and the intention to quit.

5.4.2.1. TALENT MANAGEMENT

Talent management is a set of integrated organisational HR processes designed to attract, develop, motivate and retain, productive and engaged employees (“Talent Management,” 2015). The goal of talent management is to create a high performance sustainable organisation that meets both the needs of the organisation and its employees through various operational and strategic plans. Capelli (2008) stated that simply put, talent management is the anticipating of human capital needs and then implementing ways to meet that need.

These organisation strategies are outline below:

5.4.2.1.1 WORKFORCE PLANNING AND RECRUITMENT

Workforce planning and recruitment are one of the most critical issues any HR professional will be involved in, it is also the most daunting in terms of planning (Nel et al., 2008 & Grobler et al., 2002). Workforce planning is the intentional and strategic projection and planning of access to talent (either via internal or external resources). Recruitment focuses on the organisations ability to attract and hire key talent for both current and future organisational needs, through well-developed recruitment practices.

According to Nel et al. (2008) a successful planning and recruitment process focusses on:

- Forecasting – which is made up of factors such as recruitment, retention, re-deployment and leadership, this all leads to employee development, and
- Integrated organisational processes, commonly known as HR and organisational policies and procedures – this areas main focus is to look at HR Objectives, future supply, talent surplus and the talent pool. Functional objectives which are forecast demand, gaps and talent shortages and action plans to fill gaps.

These are looked at in conjunction with the organisations goals. According to Grobler et al. (2002) and Nel et al. (2008) a well-developed workforce will allow the organisation to quickly and effectively replace lost talent as individuals with the skill have already been
identified, which results in fewer delays in production and meeting of deadlines, it reduces staff turnover, layoffs and labours costs and improves the image of the HR department.

5.4.2.1.2 ON-BOARDING

Bauer (2015) stated that after recruitment and selection, on-boarding is one of the most important factors to ensure the effectiveness of an organisation's talent management process. Talent Management (2015) defines on-boarding as the process of acclimatising new employees to the organisation, in order for them to feel welcomed and valued by the organisation. The process enables newly hired staff to become productive members of the organisation. Talent Management (2015) suggest that on-boarding refers to more than just the plain old induction programme new employees receive on their first day in office. It is a complex process through which new employees learn attitudes, skills, knowledge and behaviours will allow them to become fully functional and effective quickly. However, Bauer (2015) stated that regardless of the process the bottom line is to make employees feel wanted and learn fast because the faster they adapt the quicker they feel like part of the organisation, which will result in them being satisfied. It is often the feeling of helplessness that causes new employees to leave the organisation.

5.4.2.1.3 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

Luthans (2008), Nel et al. (2008) and Grobler et al. (2002) stated that performance management is a broader term used for performance appraisals. They defined performance management as a holistic continuous approach and process of communicating and defining job responsibilities, priorities, performance expectation, and development in line with the organisational strategies of the firm as well as its employees.

Bennet and Minty (1999) stated that the purpose for a performance management process it to plan strategically, is used as a vehicle for change and it provides HR with important information regarding development and recruitment. Grobler et al. (2002) further stated that performance management processes allows the organisation to manage and plan in terms of the business strategy, a unit’s performance, individual performance and to manage consequences.

Net et al. (2008) stressed the importance of performance management in the managing of staff turnover and ensuring satisfaction as it focusses on aspects of employee needs. The performance management process includes – setting direction and defining expectations,
defining employees goals and objectives, identifying the evaluator and the assessment method, development of an action plan, conducting checks, exploring reasons for poor performance, measuring the performance and ultimately rewarding the performance.

### 5.4.2.1.4 CAREER PATHING/DEVELOPMENT

Capelli (2008) indicated that talent is expensive, so it is essential for organisations to realise the need to estimate staffing needs. This could be done via internal or external sources. One of the ways used by organisation is the process of career pathing and development. This according to Talent Management (2015) involves the process of identifying the needs of the organisation, the talent within the organisation and the development of those individuals to fulfil the staff requirements of the organisation in the future. This process also relies on the individual to identify positions that they are suitable for or would like to occupy and then working towards obtaining the skills, knowledge and qualifications to fulfil the requirements of that position. In organisations where employees career ambitions are acknowledge and where they are given the opportunities to progress are organisations where employees stay longer as they know that the organisation has their best interest at heart as well.

### 5.4.2.1.5 SUCCESSION PLANNING

Succession planning is a tool used by the HR department to manage core positions within the organisation by training successors or specific employees to take over once the current employee in that position exists the organisation. Nel et al. (2008) indicated that it is a system used to balance the needs of employees in the organisation by ensuring a suitable supply of successors for current upper level positions. The process involves the identification of key position within the organisation and then identifying specific employees through their skills, qualification and ambitions within the organisation to be trained to take over the core position when required (Grobler et al., 2002).

### 5.4.2.1.6 RECOGNITION PROGRAMMES

Talent Management (2015) defines recognition programmes as a method of acknowledging, honouring, encouraging, and supporting employees and teams that contribute to the success of the organisation. Larsen (2014) further indicated that it is important to recognise and reward employees for their achievements more often than punishing them for failures or mistakes. Those reward and recognition programmes do not have to be expensive trip or holidays away, simple meaning gestures are enough, such as an email or card to say – thank
you. Organise honour programmes or award events where employees are public recognised and appreciated for their contributions to the organisation.

### 5.4.2.2 BRANDING

According to Robbins and Judge (2009) organisations should realise that branding does not only focus and include clients and outside stakeholders, but that the most important branding an organisation will do is to the employees themselves. Employees want to work for organisations who have a high regard in certain industries, who have vision and mission statements that appeal to their mission and values in life. Therefore it is of great importance for any organisation to align itself with the ambitions of the people who work for them as well as their outside stakeholders.

Capelli (2008) stated that organisations should clearly define their purpose to both clients and employees, specify specifically what the organisation does and what it excels at. Show care and consideration to both the clients and employee’s needs. Include the employee in branding strategies, live the mission, vision and culture of the organisation. When employees feel that they are a part of the organisation contributing to their ultimate success they are more likely to stay longer, as well as when they feel that the organisations values are aligned to their own personal beliefs and morals. Employees who work for companies with a well-established public image are proud to announce where they work and will often stay with the organisation longer.

### 5.4.2.3 COMMUNICATION

Larsen (2014) indicated that communication is an essential part of keeping employees happy. Larsen (2014) indicated that when organisations withhold information from employees they create the impression that these employees are not important. Therefore it is essential for organisation to clearly and openly communicate with their staff in order to keep them informed and feeling wanted. Nel et al. (2008) encourages communication, in the form of getting employees involved in problem solving. Inform staff of issues or the objectives of the company and invite them to bring their ideas forward.
5.5 CONCLUSION

Job Satisfaction and the intention to quit, are one of the most studied factors when determining employee behaviour and are the two factors most commonly associated with each other.

A large amount of previous research was conducted over the years that has indicated that there was a direct relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit. It made specific reference stating that when job satisfaction was high, employee’s intention to quit was lower than when job satisfaction was low. This suggested that when employees were dissatisfied their intention to quit was higher.

The aim of the research was primarily to examine the relationship between job satisfaction levels and intention to quit amongst employees in an audit, assurance and consulting firm. The results emanating from this research study was used to further investigate the differences between the two constructs, job satisfaction and intention to quit, and certain extrinsic factors (pay) and biographical factors (tenure, age, gender, dependents, marital status and qualification). The literature explored the theoretical evidence and the findings from the study deduced that:

a) There is a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit.

b) There is a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit in relation to pay.

c) There is a no statistically significant difference between job satisfaction and the biographical variables of tenure, age, gender, dependents, marital status and qualification.

d) There is a statistically significant difference between intention to quit and the biographical factor, tenure.

e) There is a no statistically significant difference between intention to quit and the biographical factors of age, gender, dependents, marital status and qualification.
Finally, the research conducted and recommendations provided were made to the organisation in order for them to consider and implement these strategies to improve satisfaction in the organisation in an attempt to build a strong organisation where employees are considered as the most valuable asset. Employees who feel that they are valued and are important to the organisation often remain in the employ of the organisation over a longer period.
REFERENCES


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APPENDIX A

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions: Kindly complete the following questions, marking a cross (X) in the appropriate block.

1. Present Designation

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<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Chief Executive Officer</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Director/Associate Director</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Manager/Assistant Manager</td>
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<td>Supervisor</td>
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<td>Senior/Senior out of Articles</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Trainee Accountant</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>EBS Clerk (incl. Cosec, Liquidations &amp; Tax)</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Consultant</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Administration (Support Staff, Finance, HR &amp; IT)</td>
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Other: Please specify: ________________________________

2. Highest level of education

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<td>Grade 12 (Matric)</td>
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<td>National Higher Certificate NHC</td>
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### Other: Please Specify: ______________________

#### 3. Age

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<tr>
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<td>31-39 yrs</td>
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<td>40 – 49 yrs</td>
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#### 4. Race

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Other: Please Specify: ______________________
5. Gender

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6. First Language

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<td>10</td>
<td>Xhosa</td>
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<td>11</td>
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Other, Please Specify: _____________________

7. Number of years in the organization

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<td>11-14 years</td>
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<td>15 years +</td>
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8. No of dependents

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<td>6+</td>
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9. Marital Status

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<td>Single</td>
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<td>Married</td>
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<td>Divorced</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Widowed</td>
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APPENDIX B

WORK SATISFACTION AND MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

CONFIDENTIAL

1. INTRODUCTION
It is fairly obvious that people differ from one another in what they need and expect to get from different areas of their lives. Please think about the work you do and because most jobs are not perfect, consider what would make it better from your point of view.

2. METHOD
With each question, you have a choice of three answers. Choose one of the following:

TRUE   =   T
NOT SURE =   NS
UNTRUE   =   U

Mark your answer with a cross.

3. WORK CONTENT

3.1 I am interested in my work  T   NS   U
3.2 My work consists of a variety of work  T   NS   U
3.3 I receive training daily which teaches me something new  T   NS   U
3.4 My work is easy  T   NS   U
3.5 The amount of work is easy to handle  T   NS   U
3.6 I control the amount of work I do myself  T   NS   U
3.7 I am completely independent of others  T   NS   U
3.8 I regard the content of my work as responsible  T   NS   U
3.9 I know exactly what my tasks are  T   NS   U
3.10 I am allowed to decide on the methods for doing the work  T   NS   U
3.11 I am proud to say what kind of work I do  T   NS   U
3.12 My work is the way to future success  T   NS   U
3.13 I will not be dismissed without good reason  T   NS   U
3.14 I have the opportunity to take part when decisions are made  T   NS   U
3.15 I feel that my work is of value in my department  T   NS   U
3.16 There is not time for idleness  T   NS   U
3.17 I have a certain degree of authority in my work  T   NS   U
4. **PAYMENT**
4.1 My salary is satisfactory in relation to what I do  
4.2 I earn the same as or more than other people in a similar job  
4.3 The basis of payment, for example overtime payment, is reasonable  
4.4 Salary increases are decided on a fair manner  

5. **PROMOTION**
5.1 I will be promoted within the next two years  
5.2 Everyone has an equal chance to be promoted  
5.3 Staff are promoted in a fair and honest way  

6. **RECOGNITION**
6.1 I am praised regularly for my work  
6.2 I receive constructive criticism about my work  
6.3 I get credit for what I do  
6.4 I am told that I am making progress  

7. **WORKING CONDITIONS**
7.1 My working hours are reasonable  
7.2 I am never overworked  
8.3 I get the opportunity to mix with my colleagues and to communicate on aspects of our work  

8. **BENEFITS**
8.1 My pension benefits are good  
8.2 My medical scheme is satisfactory  
8.3 I never have problems with my arrangements for leave  

9. **PERSONAL**
9.1 I am given work in accordance with my qualifications and skills  
9.2 I work in the department of my choice  

10. **MY LEADER / SUPERVISOR**
10.1 Is satisfied easily  
10.2 Will support me if there are problems  
10.3 Can be convinced and persuaded  
10.4 Is a warm-hearted person
11. GENERAL
11.1 I have considered changing jobs 1 2 3
11.2 I have been looking out for another job 1 2 3
11.3 I am thinking of resigning 1 2 3

THANK YOU

Please check to make sure that you have not missed any questions.
1. **INTRODUCTION**  
Here are some statements about you and your job. How much do you agree or disagree with each statement.

2. **METHOD**  
Answer each question by circling the statement you most agree with on a scale from 1 to 7. 1 being Strongly Disagree and 7 being Strongly Agree.

**Q1. I will probably look for a new job in the next year.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Code</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither Disagree or Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately Agree</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Q2. I often think about quitting**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Moderately Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither Disagree or Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately Agree</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q3. How likely is it that you could find a job with another employer with about the same pay and benefits you have now?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
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