

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND
ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AMONGST HIGH SCHOOL
TEACHERS IN DISADVANTAGED AREAS IN THE WESTERN CAPE**

IAN HOWARD FREDERICK BULL

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the degree of Magister Artium, in the Department of Industrial Psychology,
Faculty of Economic and Management Science,
University of the Western Cape**

Supervisor: Mr K. A. Heslop



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DECLARATION

I declare that “The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment amongst High School Teachers in Disadvantaged Areas in the Western Cape is my own work, that has not been submitted before for any degree or any other examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete reference. It is submitted for the degree of Magister Artium at the University of the Western Cape.

Full Name: Ian Howard Frederick Bull

Date: 15 November 2005



Signed....I.Bull.....

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This thesis is dedicated to my wife, **Sydey** and two sons, **Lindsay and Lucian** for the many sacrifices they have made. Their love, understanding, patience and encouragement they have given me.

To my **mom (Cornelia)** and my late father (**Peter**) who always had me in their prayers and who supported me in completion of my thesis. To my family and friends who encouraged me to complete my thesis.

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*"It is the supreme art
of the teacher
to awaken joy
in creative expression
and knowledge."*

Albert Einstein

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 Introduction

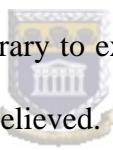
In recent years, there has been a proliferation in publications pertaining to organisational commitment and job satisfaction amongst various occupational groups. Evidence attesting to this is the vast array of literature available related to antecedents and consequences of both organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Aamodt, 2004; Bagraim, 2003; Buitendach & de Witte, 2005).

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment have been found to both be inversely related to such withdrawal behaviours as tardiness, absenteeism and turnover (Yousef, 2000). Moreover, they have also been linked to increased productivity and organisational effectiveness (Buitendach & de Witte, 2005). This is furthermore postulated to have an influence on whether employees will have a propensity to remain with the organisation and to perform at higher levels.

According to Bishay (1996), the teaching profession ranks high on the success list of a society. In conjunction with this, “teachers' organisational commitment and general job satisfaction” (Howell & Dorfman, 1986, p. 37) have been identified as important to understanding the work behaviour of employees in organisations.

Job satisfaction amongst teachers is a multifaceted construct that is critical to teacher retention and has been shown to be a significant determinant of teacher commitment, and in turn, a contributor to school effectiveness. Research, however, reveals wide-ranging differences in what contributes to job satisfaction and group differences according to demographic factors (Shan, 1998).

Evans (1998b) mentions that factors such as teachers' low salaries and low status, growing class sizes and changes in the education system have all contributed as causes of what has been interpreted as endemic of dissatisfaction within the profession. From research undertaken by Duke (1988), Richford and Fortune (1984) and Mercer and Evans (1991), there is a worldwide tendency towards job dissatisfaction in education. However, Hillebrand (1989), Steyn and van Wyk (1999), Theunissen and Calitz (1994), and van Wyk (2000) contend that contrary to expectations, teachers experience greater work satisfaction than was previously believed.



1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The South African educational system is in a transitional stage. The lack of discipline in schools, abolition of corporal punishment, unmotivated learners, redeployment, retrenchments and retirement packages for teachers (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002), large pupil-teacher ratios and a new curriculum approach all contribute to raising the stress levels of teachers. Furthermore, the new education approach of outcomes based education, the management style of principals, new governing bodies for schools, the high crime rate in the country, coping with current political change and corruption in state departments are causing stress for teachers (Marais, 1992).

According to Steyn and van Wyk (1999), the level of media attention that focuses on education in South Africa as a result of poor school results and the inferior quality of education in general, raises concerns regarding the attitudes of teachers towards their jobs. Teachers are seen as people who are not truly committed to their profession.

Steyn and van Wyk (1999), contend there is a perception that teachers are lazy, unprofessional, uncommitted who only come to school to receive their salaries at the end of the month. Conley, Bacharach and Bauer (1989, p. 59) maintain that “if teacher performance in schools is to be improved, it is necessary to pay attention to the kind of work environment that enhances teachers’ sense of professionalism and decreases their job dissatisfaction.”



Teachers often complain that they are not adequately consulted regarding policy changes and that their rights are violated. This leads to frustration and dissatisfaction, and in turn effects the commitment and productivity of teachers. Teacher satisfaction is attached to the freedom to try new ideas, intrinsic work elements and responsible levels. Sylvia and Hutchinson (1985) concluded that job satisfaction is based on the gratification of higher order needs. However, Greenwood and Soars (1973) purport that teachers are motivated if they teach less and learners participate more frequently in class.

Researchers (Maehr, 1989; Rosenholtz, 1989) suggest that the personal investment of employees at all levels is necessary for any effective organisation. Recent research on school effectiveness emphasizes the importance of personal investment and

commitment of teachers (Rosenholtz, 1989). Other researchers (Csikzentmihalyi & McCormack, 1986) along with Rosenholtz (1989) indicate that if teachers are dissatisfied with their work lives and lack commitment to their organisations, not only will teachers suffer, but their students will suffer as well.

Bishay (1996) postulates that if employees are satisfied with their work they will show greater commitment. Conversely, dissatisfied workers with negative attitudes will ultimately leave the organisation. Research reveals inadequacies in working conditions, resources and support, limited decision-making latitude and restricted opportunities, require improvement in the teaching profession (Carnegie Forum,1986; Darling-Hammond, 1984; Rosenholtz ,1989; Sergiovanni & Moore ,1989).

Research in Canada (Ball & Stenlund, 1990) reveals that teachers indicate that success in their work was a major reason for being satisfied in their choice of profession. Canadian teachers also expressed satisfaction with their salaries, colleagues who were said to be helpful and cooperative, and the respect accorded to teachers. Among Albanian teachers, job satisfaction was associated with job security and respect accorded teachers (Kloep & Tarifa, 1994). In both Albania and South Africa, teachers experience job satisfaction despite some of the unfavourable working conditions that prevail, such as shortage of learning resources. Sim (1990) reports that teacher-pupil relations served as a source of job satisfaction among teachers in Singapore.

South African research (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002) indicates that conditions under which Black teachers work are demoralizing, as the Black teacher in particular has to cope with poor physical conditions such as overcrowding, inadequate equipment and lack of

adequate facilities. This, they maintain, is a consequence of disparities in financial provisions during the apartheid era in South Africa. Poor physical conditions such as overcrowding may exacerbate problems such as teachers having to cover the syllabus in little time available, as well as a lack of time for marking and less preparation (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002).

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives include:

- To determine the level of job satisfaction amongst teachers from disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape.
- To determine the level of organisational commitment amongst teachers from disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape.
- To determine if there is a relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment amongst teachers from disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape.
- To determine if there are significant relationships between the biographical characteristics and job satisfaction of teachers from disadvantaged areas in the Western cape based on their biographical characteristics.

- To determine if there are significant relationships between the biographical characteristics and organisational commitment of teachers from disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape based on their biographical characteristics.
- To determine if the biographical characteristics significantly explain the variance in job satisfaction amongst teachers from disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape.
- To determine if the biographical characteristics significantly explain the variance in organisational commitment amongst teachers from disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape.

1.4 HYPOTHESES



- There is no statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment amongst teachers from disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape.
- There is no statistically significant relationship between the biographical characteristics and job satisfaction amongst teachers from disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape.
- There is no statistically significant relationship between the biographical characteristics and organisational commitment of teachers from disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape.

- The biographical characteristics will not significantly explain the variance in job satisfaction amongst teachers from disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape.
- The biographical characteristics will not significantly explain the variance in organisational commitment amongst teachers from disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape.

1.5 DEFINITIONS AND TERMS

Organisational change refers to a planned change "the deliberate design and implementation of a structural innovation, a new policy or goal, or a change in operating philosophy, climate or style" (Stoner, Freeman & Gilbert, 1995, p. 412).



Downsizing is "a version of organisational restructuring which results in decreasing the size of the organisation and often results in a flatter organisational structure; one way organisations convert to leaner, more flexible structures that can respond more readily to the pace in global markets" (Stoner et al., 1995, p. 328).

Job satisfaction is "the measurement of one's total feelings and attitudes towards one's job" (Graham, 1982, p. 68).

Organisational commitment is "the degree to which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation" (Robbins, 1998, p. 142).

Disadvantaged communities is “ historically, socio-economic impediments were legislated and resulted in sub-economic housing, poor infrastructure, and oppressive statutory discrimination against the politically disadvantaged “black” communities on the basis of skin colour” (Bulham, 1985; PRC Annual Report, 1997 cited in Giese, 2004, p. 14).

1.6 LIMITATIONS

A primary limitation of the study relates to the use of a non-probability research design. This implies that the results emanating from the research cannot be confidently extrapolated to the population of teachers, as circumstances in other environments may differ from the sample that was selected. The limitations of the study also include the relatively small sample size, unmatched gender ratio and the fact that the sample was not randomly selected.

It is possible that data collected from the questionnaires do not capture the complexity of teachers’ perceptions of their workplace conditions. Since a quantitative design was used, qualitative data could add value to the research. Alternatively, a triangulation method could have been employed to gather richer data to establish the levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In conjunction with this, Ma and Macmillan (1999) maintain that qualitative studies on common research questions could also form part of an investigation into job satisfaction and organisation amongst teachers.

1.7 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter two provides a comprehensive discussion of job satisfaction and organisational commitment with reference being made to the paucity of research on the relationship between these two variables in the teaching profession. Definitions of job satisfaction and organisational commitment are provided, as well as theories of job satisfaction and determinants of organisational commitment and job satisfaction are discussed.

Chapter three provides an overview of the research design utilised to execute the research. In particular, the selection of the sample, data collection methods, psychometric properties of the instruments and statistical techniques are delineated.

Chapter four addresses the results arising from the empirical analysis of the data obtained.



Chapter five discusses the most salient results emanating from the results obtained in the study. Conclusions are drawn based on the obtained results and integrated with existing literature. Moreover, practical implications of the research findings are highlighted and recommendations for future research are outlined.

CHAPTER 2

JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AMONGST TEACHERS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction is one of the most researched areas of organisational behaviour and education. It is perceived as an attitudinal variable measuring the degree to which employees like their jobs and the various aspects of their jobs (Spector, 1996; Stamps, 1997). This is an important area of research because job satisfaction is correlated to enhanced job performance, positive work values, high levels of employee motivation, and lower rates of absenteeism, turnover and burnout (Begley & Czajka, 1993; Chiu, 2000; Tharenou, 1993).



Job satisfaction, according to McCormick and Ilgen (1985), is an association of attitudes held by an organisation's members. The way each employee responds towards their work is an indication of the commitment towards their employers. Many employees are of the opinion that downsizing; rightsizing and reengineering give employers an opportunity to dispose of those workers who are a liability to the organisation.

Similar to professionals in other occupations, job satisfaction in educators has been related to a number of factors. Researchers have linked job satisfaction to teacher attrition (Bobbitt, Leich, Whitener & Lynch, 1994; Russ, Chiang, Rylance & Bongers,

2001); demographic variables including age, education and gender (Castillo, Conklin & Cano, 1999; Eichinger, 2000; Ganser & Wham, 1998; Peterson & Custer, 1994); practice related variables such as salaries, credentialing, opportunities for promotion, supervision, recognition, student behaviour, working conditions, and sense of autonomy (Evans, 1998 (b); Prelip, 2001).

Wisniewski and Gargiulo (1997) maintain that high attrition rates amongst teachers can be attributed to job dissatisfaction. They concluded that a lack of recognition, few opportunities for promotion, excessive paperwork, loss of autonomy, lack of supplies, low pay, and stressful interpersonal interactions all contributed to teachers' decisions to leave schools. Satisfaction within teaching is associated with teacher effectiveness, which ultimately affects student achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Carnegie Forum, 1986).



Darling-Hammond (1995) states that rigid, bureaucratically administered schools have not succeeded in implementing change in education reform, while schools using collective or collaborative problem-solving strategies based on an underlying sense of commitment have succeeded. Senge (1990) found that without commitment, substantive change becomes problematic. Hence, job satisfaction appears to be one aspect of commitment.

2.2 JOB SATISFACTION

According to Kovack (1977), job satisfaction is a component of organisational commitment. Spector (1996 p. 2) states that job satisfaction “can be considered as a

global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job.”

Research (Strumpfer, Danana, Gouws & Viviers, 1998) indicates an encouraging but complex correlation between positive or negative dispositions and the various components of job satisfaction. When satisfaction is measured at a broader level, research has shown those organisations with more satisfied workers are more effective than those with less satisfied workers (Robbins, 1998).

Buitendach and de Witte (2005) proffer the view that job satisfaction relates to an individual's perceptions and evaluations of a job, and this perception is in turn influenced by their circumstances, including needs, values and expectations. Individuals therefore evaluate their jobs on the basis of factors which they regard as being important to them (Sempene, Rieger & Roodt, 2002).

According to Neuman, Reichel and Saad (1988), job satisfaction among teachers can be expressed as their willingness and preparedness to stay in the teaching profession irrespective of the discomfort and the desire to leave teaching for a better job.

Mwamwenda's (1995) research indicates that nearly 50% of rural teachers are dissatisfied with their working conditions. The latter research revealed that teachers in these areas indicated that they would not choose teaching again as a career if given a second chance.

Blood, Ridenour, Thomas, Qualls and Hammer (2002) found in their research on speech language pathologists working in public schools, that the longer they remained in their

jobs, the more likely they were to report higher levels of job satisfaction. Similarly, Rice and Schneider (1994) state that in Australia, teachers reported that the level of participation in decision-making and autonomy are contributory factors in their levels of job satisfaction. Anderman, Belzer and Smith (1991) posit the view that a school culture that emphasises accomplishment, recognition, and affiliation is related to teacher satisfaction and commitment and that principals' actions create distinct working environments within schools that are highly predictive of teacher satisfaction and commitment.

According to Shan (1998), teacher job satisfaction is a predictor of teacher retention, a determinant of teacher commitment, and in turn a contributor to school effectiveness. Kim and Loadman (1994) list seven predictors of job satisfaction, namely: interaction with students, interaction with colleagues, professional challenges, and professional autonomy, working conditions, salary and opportunity for advancement. However, there are also other factors that need to be considered, for example, class sizes, workload of teachers, changes in the school curriculum and labour policies which teachers have little or no control over.

2.2.1 DEFINITION OF JOB SATISFACTION

Locke (cited in Sempane et al., 2002, p. 23) defines job satisfaction "a pleasurable or a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience." Job satisfaction can be viewed as an employee's observation of how well their work presents those things which are important to them. Simply put, "job satisfaction is an attitude people have about their jobs" (Chelladurai, 1999, p. 230). Balzer, (1997, p. 10)

define job satisfaction as “... the feelings a worker has about his or her job or job experiences in relation to previous experiences, current expectations, or available alternatives.”

Beers (1964 in Visser, Breed & van Breda, 1997, p. 19) defines job satisfaction as “...the attitude of workers toward the company, their jobs, their fellow workers and other psychological objects in the work environment.” Isen and Baron (1991, p. 35) surmise: “As an attitude, job satisfaction involves several basic components: specific beliefs about one’s job, behaviour tendencies (intentions) with respect to it, and feelings about it.”

Elaborating on this, Camp (1994) defines job satisfaction with reference to the needs and values of individuals and the extent to which these needs and values are satisfied in the workplace. In conjunction with this, Robbins (1998, p. 25) surmises that job satisfaction is based on “the difference between the amount of rewards workers receive and the amount they believe they should receive.”

Because job satisfaction may be an indicator of whether individuals (a) will be affectively connected to an institution, (b) will merely comply with directives, or (c) will quit (Ma & Macmillan, 1999), principals ought to have some understanding of the factors that influence teachers’ satisfaction with their work lives and the impact this satisfaction has on teachers’ involvement in their schools, especially when changes are implemented.

Farruga (1986) demonstrated that teachers experience job satisfaction as a result of teaching a group of pupils or standard they feel comfortable with; appreciation expressed by parents, authority and pupils; passing on knowledge and values to others; teaching their favourite subjects; working with colleagues and exercising autonomy.

Participation in decision-making and exercising autonomy have been reported to contribute to job satisfaction among Australian teachers (Rice & Schneider, 1994), while in Japan, Ninomiya and Okato (1990 cited in Mwamwenda, 1995) indicate that job satisfaction among teachers was associated with freedom to do their work as they saw fit, a sufficient supply of learning material and equipment, a good salary, a reasonable class size as well as the support and cooperation of colleagues.

Wisniewski and Gargioli (1997) demonstrated that teachers' job satisfaction in Poland was associated with freedom to do what they wanted, encouragement received from those in authority, participation in decision and policy making, adequate supply of teaching and learning resources, good salary, cooperation from pupils, parents and teachers, and participation in school management.

Van der Westhuizen and Smit (2001) report that there is a tendency worldwide towards job dissatisfaction in education. Their research indicates that educators display dissatisfaction with the introduction of a new education policy, new post structures and unfair appointments. In a study of Black female teachers (van der Westhuizen & du Toit, 1994), job satisfaction was observed to be a function of pupils' behaviour, job security, relationships with colleagues and pupils, and teaching as a task. However, other research (Kirsten, 2000) and van Wyk (2000) indicates that as an occupational

group teachers report relatively high levels of satisfaction. Kirsten (2000) and van Wyk's (2000) research indicates that both male and female educators, school principals, Black and White, experience greater job satisfaction than was previously believed.

2.3 JOB SATISFACTION THEORIES

In order to understand job satisfaction, it is important to understand what motivates people at work. Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weik (1970 cited in Smucker & Kent, 2004) categorized job satisfaction theories into either content theories or process theories. Content theories are based on various factors which influence job satisfaction. Process theories, in contrast, take into account the process by which variables such as expectations, needs and values, and comparisons interact with the job to produce job satisfaction.



In terms of content theorists, there is an emphasis on the type of goals and incentives that people endeavour to achieve in order to be satisfied and succeed on the job. Scientific management believed at first that money was the only incentive, later other incentives also became prevalent for example; working conditions, security and a more democratic style of supervision. Maslow, Herzberg, Alderfer and McClelland focused on the needs of employees with respect to job satisfaction and performance (Luthans 1998; Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2003; Smith & Cronje, 1992).

2.3.1 MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS THEORY

Maslow believed that people who come out of an environment which does not meet their basic needs, tend to experience psychological complaints later in life. Based on the application of this theory to organisational settings, it can be argued that people who do not meet their needs at work will not function efficiently. Maslow's theory is based on two assumptions; that is: people always want more and people arranged their needs in order of importance (Smith & Cronje, 1992).

Maslow (1970) and Schultz, Bagraim, Potgieter, Viedge and Werner (2003)

summarised these needs as:

- a) Physiological needs. This is the basic need known as the biological needs such as the need for water, food, rest, exercise and sex. Once these needs are met they no longer influence behaviour. An example of this would be trade unions ensuring that their member's basic needs are met because they negotiate for better wages for their members (Smith & Cronje, 1992).
- b) Safety needs. Once the first need is satisfied then the security needs assume precedence. These include the need for job security, insurance and medical aid and the need to feel protected against physical and emotional harm (Smith & Cronje, 1992).
- c) Social needs. This third level of needs is activated once the second level of needs has been adequately met. People have a need for love, friendship, acceptance and understanding from other people. Employees have a tendency to

join groups that fulfil their social needs. Managers can play an important part by encouraging people to interact with one another and make sure that the social needs of subordinates are met (Smith & Cronje, 1992).

- d) Ego and esteem needs. The fourth level of needs is the need for self-respect, recognition by others, confidence and achievement. Supervisors can play an active role in satisfying the needs of their employees by recognizing and rewarding high achievers for good performance (Smith & Cronje, 1992).
- e) Self-actualisation needs. This is the highest level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, and leads to the full development of a person's potential. It is a need where individuals reach full potential and what they want to be become, to utilize all talents well, and to be creative (Glueck, 1974).



Practicing managers have given Maslow's need theory wide recognition, which they ascribe to the theory's intuitive logic and ease of understanding. However, Robbins et al. (2003), argue that research does not validate the theory, since Maslow does not provide any empirical substantiation, and a number of studies that were seeking validation for the theories have similarly not found support for it.

2.3.2 HERZBERG 'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY

In terms of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, factors that make employees feel good about their work, are different from factors that make them feel bad about their work. According to Herzberg (cited in Schulz et al., 2003), employees who are satisfied at work attribute their satisfaction to internal factors, while dissatisfied employees

ascribe their behaviour to external factors. Factors that play a role in contributing to the satisfaction of employees are called motivators, while hygiene factors contribute to job dissatisfaction. These two factors are also called the intrinsic (internal) and extrinsic (external) factors.

Fig 2.1 gives a schematic representation of the two-factor theory.

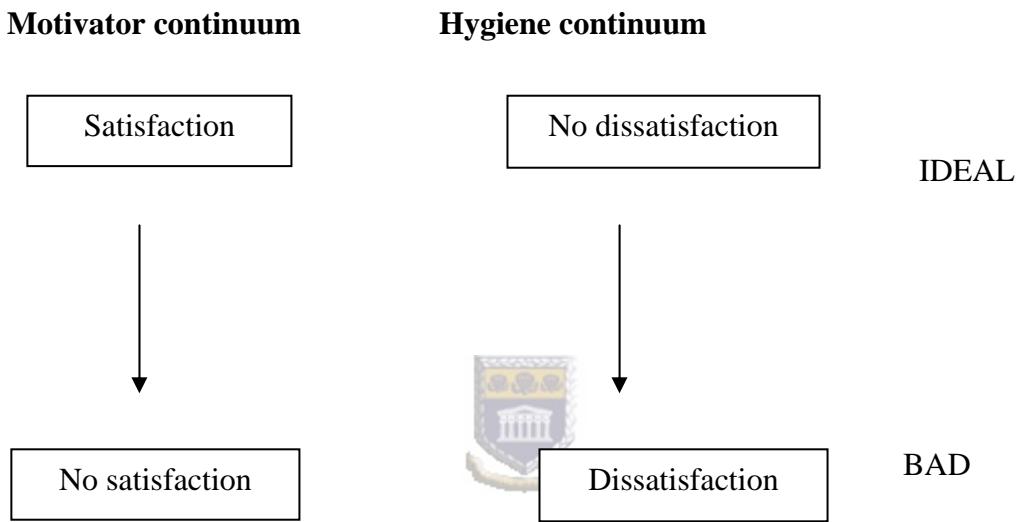


Figure. 2.1 Herzberg's two factor theory (Schultz et al., 2003, p. 60)

It can be argued that if the hygiene factors are removed, that it is unlikely workers will be satisfied. Both the hygiene factors and motivators play an important role in the performance of the individual. Criticism against Herzberg's theory is that the relationship between motivation and dissatisfaction is too simplistic as well as the relationship between sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Smith et al. 1992).

2.3.3 ALDERFER'S ERG THEORY

Alderfer revised Maslow's theory to align work with more empirical research (Robbins et al., 2003). Alderfer's theory is referred to as ERG theory and is based on the following three needs; existence, relatedness and growth. Existence is involved with providing individuals with their basic existence requirements and it subsumes the individual's physiological and safety needs. Relatedness is the desire to keep good interpersonal relationships, which Maslow labeled social and esteem needs. Growth needs are an intrinsic desire for personal development based on the self-actualisation needs of Maslow.

The ERG theory pivots around the axial point that more than one need is in operation at the same time. When the aspiration to satisfy a higher need is subdued, the desire to satisfy a lower order level need increases. Alderfer (1972) mentions two forms of movement which will become important to a person. The first one is referred to as satisfaction-progression. The second movement is the frustration-regression, which provides additional insight about motivation and human behaviour. According to Alderfer (1972), when a person's needs are frustrated at higher level, it leads to movement down the hierarchy.

2.3.4 MCCLELLAND'S THEORY OF NEEDS

McClelland's needs theory focuses on the need for achievement, power and affiliation Luthans (1998). It can be briefly described as follows:

- Need for achievement: it is a drive to excel to meet standards and try to be successful,
- Need for power: to let others behave in such a way that they do not behave otherwise, and
- Need for affiliation: to have a friendly disposition and good interpersonal relationships Luthans (1998).

Notwithstanding the various theories relating to job satisfaction, there are several dimensions of job satisfaction addressed by Luthans (1998). Luthans (1998) indicates there are several dimensions that influence job satisfaction, *inter alia* the work itself, pay, supervision, promotion and the workgroup, each of which is briefly addressed.

2.4 DIMENSIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION



The idea of a job satisfaction is very complicated (McCormick & Ilgen, 1985). Locke (1976, cited in Sempane et al., 2002) presented a summary of job dimensions that have been established to contribute significantly to employees' job satisfaction. The particular dimensions represent characteristics associated with job satisfaction. The dimensions are work itself, pay, promotions, recognition, working conditions, benefits, supervision and co-workers. This is postulated to influence employees' opinion of "how interesting the work is, how routine, how well they are doing, and, in general, how much they enjoy doing it" (McCormick & Ilgen, 1985, p. 309).

2.4.1 THE WORK ITSELF

The nature of the work performed by employees has a significant impact on their level of job satisfaction (Landy, 1989; Larwood, 1984; Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992). According to Luthans (1992), employees derive satisfaction from work that is interesting and challenging, and a job that provides them with status.

Landy (1989) advocates that work that is personally interesting to employees is likely to contribute to job satisfaction. Similarly, research suggests that task variety may facilitate job satisfaction (Eby, Freeman, Rush & Lance, 1999). This is based on the view that skill variety has strong effects on job satisfaction, implying that the greater the variety of skills that employees are able to utilize in their jobs, the higher their level of satisfaction (Ting, 1997).



Sharma and Bhaskar (1991) postulate that the single most important influence on a person's job satisfaction experience comes from the nature of the work assigned to him/her by the organisation. They purport that if the job entails adequate variety, challenge, discretion and scope for using one's own abilities and skills, the employee doing the job is likely to experience job satisfaction. Khaleque and Choudhary (1984) found in their study of Indian managers, that the nature of work was the most important factor in determining job satisfaction for top managers, and job security as the most important factor in job satisfaction for managers at the bottom.

Similarly, Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe's (2000) research involving 337 employees and their supervisors found that desirable job characteristics increased work satisfaction.

Using a sample of medical technologists, Blau (1999) concluded that increased task responsibilities are related to overall job satisfaction. Similarly, Culpin and Wright (2002) found in their study of job satisfaction amongst expatriate women managers, that they enjoyed the expansion of their job responsibilities. These women's job satisfaction increased as they saw the significant impact of their job on their employees. Reskin and Padavic (1994, p. 95) claim that "workers value authority in its own right and having authority increases workers' job satisfaction".

Aamodt (1999) posits the view that job satisfaction is influenced by opportunities for challenge and growth as well as by the opportunity to accept responsibility. Mentally challenging work that the individual can successfully accomplish, is satisfying and that employees prefer jobs that provide them with opportunities to use their skills and abilities that offer a variety of tasks, freedom, and feedback regarding performance, is valued by most employees (Larwood, 1984; Luthans, 1992; Robbins, 1998, Tziner & Latham, 1989). Accordingly, Robbins (1998, p. 152) argues that "under conditions of moderate challenge, most employees will experience pleasure and satisfaction."

2.4.2 PAY

Pay refers to the amount of financial compensation that an individual receives as well as the extent to which such compensation is perceived to be equitable. Remuneration and earnings are a cognitively complex and multidimensional factor in job satisfaction. According to Luthans (1998), salaries not only assist people to attain their basic needs, but are also instrumental in satisfying the higher level needs of people.

Previous research (Voydanoff, 1980) has shown that monetary compensation is one of the most significant variables in explaining job satisfaction. In their study of public sector managers, Taylor and West (1992) found that pay levels affect job satisfaction, reporting that those public employees that compared their salaries with those of private sector employees experienced lower levels of job satisfaction.

According to Boone and Kuntz (1992), offering employees fair and reasonable compensation, which relates to the input the employee offers the organisation, should be the main objective of any compensation system. Included in the category of compensation are such items as medical aid schemes, pension schemes, bonuses, paid leave and travel allowances.

Lambert, Hogan, Barton and Lubbock (2001) found financial rewards to have a significant impact on job satisfaction. Such findings are largely consistent with the idea that most employees are socialized in a society where money, benefits, and security are generally sought after and are often used to gauge the importance or the worth of a person. Thus, the greater the financial reward, the less worry employees have concerning their financial state, thereby enhancing their impression of their self-worth to the organisation.

Groot and Maassen van den Brink (1999; 2000) provide contradictory evidence for the relationship between pay and job satisfaction. In their earlier research they did not find evidence for a relationship between compensation and job satisfaction, however, their subsequent research revealed the opposite. However, Hamermesh (2001) found that

changes in compensation (increases or decreases) have concomitant impact on job satisfaction levels of employees.

Several other authors maintain that the key in linking pay to satisfaction is not the absolute amount that is paid, but rather, the perception of fairness (Aamodt, 1999; Landy, 1989; Robbins, 1998). According to Robbins et al. (2003), employees seek pay systems that are perceived as just, unambiguous, and in line with their expectations. When pay is perceived as equitable, is commensurate with job demands, individual skill level, and community pay standards, satisfaction is likely to be the result.

Gunter and Furnham (1996) found employee perceptions concerning the equity with which the organisation rewards its employees to be better predictors of job satisfaction than is the case with gender, age, or actual salary. Similarly, Miceli, Jung, Near and Greenberger (1991 cited in Hendrix, Robbins, Miller & Summers, 1998), validated a causal pathway leading from fairness of the pay system to improved job satisfaction. Sousa-Poza's (2000) research indicates that perceived income, that is, whether the respondent considered his income high or not, was found to have the third largest effect on the job satisfaction of male employees.

2.4.3 SUPERVISION

Research indicates that the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship will have a significant, positive influence on the employee's overall level of job satisfaction

(Aamodt, 1999; Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Robbins, 1998).

Research appears to be equivocal since most research indicates that individuals are likely to have high levels of job satisfaction if supervisors provide them with support and co-operation in completing their tasks (Ting, 1997). Similar results were reported by Billingsley and Cross (1992) as well as Cramer (1993). These researchers generally hold that dissatisfaction with management supervision is a significant predictor of job dissatisfaction. The above findings are corroborated by Staudt's (1997) research based on social workers in which it was found that respondents who reported satisfaction with supervision, were also more likely to be satisfied with their jobs in general. Chieffo (1991) maintains that supervisors who allow their employees to participate in decisions that affect their own jobs will, in doing so, stimulate higher levels of employee satisfaction.



Researchers (Knoll, 1987; Pfeiffer & Dunlap, 1982; Rettig, 2000) have written extensively about the importance of supervision in schools. Their research indicates that supervisory activities foster motivation, inspiration, and trust and thus help to improve teaching performance. Research indicates that principals play a vital role in the care for the personal welfare and emotional support of teachers. Isherwood (1973) found that principals that demonstrated excellent human relations skills heightened teachers loyalty and improved teacher satisfaction, whilst the lack in participatory management, lack of sensitivity to school and teacher-related problems and lack of support was reliably associated with teacher stress and burnout (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986).

Morris (2004) postulates that teacher job satisfaction is affected by the work environment and strong principal leadership. Corroborating this, Nelson (1980) found that leadership styles of school administrators are related to job satisfaction. He maintains that the quality of teacher-administrator relationship generates higher teacher job satisfaction, and greater teacher participation in decision making contributes to job satisfaction (Mohrman, Cooke & Mohrman, 1978). Conversely, lack of participation in decision making is advocated to be the greatest sources of teacher dissatisfaction (Holdaway, 1978).

Abbey and Esposito (1985) report that teachers who perceive greater social support from their principals report less stress than those who do not receive any social support. Setting up shared decision-making processes in schools, such as governance councils, allows teachers to participate in school processes rather than feel subordinate to their principals and coerced into participating in school and teacher responsibilities (Nagel & Brown, 2003).

2.4.4 PROMOTION

An employee's opportunities for promotion are also likely to exert an influence on job satisfaction (Landy, 1989; Larwood, 1984; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Vecchio, 1988). Robbins (1998) maintains that promotions provide opportunities for personal growth, increased responsibility, and increased social status (Robbins, 1998).

Drafke and Kossen (2002) postulate that many people experience satisfaction when they believe that their future prospects are good. This may translate into opportunities for

advancement and growth in their current workplace, or enhance the chance of finding alternative employment. They maintain that if people feel they have limited opportunities for career advancement, their job satisfaction may decrease. According to McCormick and Ilgen (1985), employees' satisfaction with promotional opportunities will depend on a number of factors, including the probability that employees will be promoted, as well as the basis and the fairness of such promotions.

Visser (1990) indicates that such an individual's standards for promotion is contingent on personal and career aspirations. Moreover, not all employees wish to be promoted. The reason therefore is related to the fact that promotion entails greater responsibility and tasks of a more complex nature, for which the individuals may consider themselves unprepared. If employees perceive the promotion policy as unfair, but do not desire to be promoted, they may still be satisfied.



Nonetheless, opportunities for promotion appear to have a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction (Tolbert & Moen, 1998). In a study by Jayaratne and Chess (1984 cited in Staudt, 1997), the opportunity for promotion was found to be the best and only common predictor of job satisfaction in child welfare, community mental health, and family services agencies.

Luthans (1992) further maintains that promotions may take a variety of different forms and are generally accompanied by different rewards. Promotional opportunities therefore have differential effects on job satisfaction, and it is essential that this be taken into account in cases where promotion policies are designed to enhance employee satisfaction.

2.4.5 WORK GROUP

There is empirical evidence that co-worker relations are an antecedent of job satisfaction (Morrison, 2004). Research (Mowday & Sutton, 1993), suggests that job satisfaction is related to employees' opportunities for interaction with others on the job. An individual's level of job satisfaction might be a function of personal characteristics and the characteristics of the group to which he or she belongs. The social context of work is also likely to have a significant impact on a worker's attitude and behaviour (Marks, 1994). Relationships with both co-workers and supervisors are important. Some studies have shown that the better the relationship, the greater the level of job satisfaction (Wharton & Baron, 1991).



According to Hodson (1997), such social relations constitute an important part of the "social climate" within the workplace and provide a setting within which employees can experience meaning and identity. Luthans (1998) postulates that work groups characterized by co-operation and understanding amongst their members tend to influence the level of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. When cohesion is evident within a work group it usually leads to effectiveness within a group and the job becoming more enjoyable. However, if the opposite situation exists and colleagues are difficult to work with, this may have a negative impact on job satisfaction.

Markiewicz et al. (200) found that the quality of close friendships was associated with both career success and job satisfaction of employees. Riordan and Griffeth (1995) examined the impact of friendship on workplace outcomes; their results indicate that

friendship opportunities were associated with increases in job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment, and with a significant decrease in intention to turnover.

Luthans (1992), however, contends that satisfactory co-worker relations are not essential to job satisfaction, but that in the presence of extremely strained relationships, job satisfaction is more than likely to suffer. Nevertheless, the growing body of literature on the subject seems to indicate that co-worker relations are taking on an ever-increasing role, not just in the realms of productivity, but also in determining the experience of work and its meaning (Hodson, 1997).

Hillebrand (1989) found that the greatest need of educators centred around interpersonal needs. He maintains that healthy relationships with colleagues and school principals increase educational concerns and goal attainment. These findings strengthen the argument that organisations should engage in the integration of employees so as to create group cohesion among employees and departments within the organisation (Lambert et al., 2001).

2.4.6 WORKING CONDITIONS

Working conditions is another factor that have a moderate impact on the employee's job satisfaction (Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992). According to Luthans (1998), if people work in a clean, friendly environment they will find it easier to come to work. If the opposite should happen, they will find it difficult to accomplish tasks.

Vorster (1992) maintains that working conditions are only likely to have a significant impact on job satisfaction when, for example, the working conditions are either extremely good or extremely poor. Moreover, employee complaints regarding working conditions are frequently related to manifestations of underlying problems (Luthans, 1992; Visser, 1990; Vorster, 1992).

Teachers workload, changes in the education system and a lack of discipline amongst some of the learners may be some of the reasons why teachers want to exit the profession. The working environment of teachers also determines the attitude and behaviour of teachers towards their work (Bishay, 1996).

Bishay (1996) indicates that research has shown that improvement in teacher motivation has a positive effect on both teachers and learners. Moreover, within the teaching profession, for example, there are different working conditions based on the past allocation of resources to schools. In disadvantaged schools working conditions are often not conducive to teaching and learning (Mwamwenda, 1995; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002; Steyn & van Wyk, 1999).

2.5 PERSONAL DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

2.5.1 JOB SATISFACTION AND AGE

Research appears to be equivocal and has consistently found age to exert an influence on job satisfaction (Chambers, 1999; Cramer, 1993; Robbins, 2001; Staw, 1995; Tolbert

& Moen, 1998). Research suggests that older employees tend to experience higher levels of job satisfaction (Belcastro & Koeske, 1996; Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Cramer, 1993; Jones Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Larwood, 1984; Loscocco, 1990; Saal & Knight, 1988). This difference may be attributed to better adjustment at work, better conditions and greater rewards at work (Birdi, Warr & Oswald, 1995). Blood et al. (2002) espouse the view that older respondents were more likely to report higher levels of job satisfaction than younger respondents.

These results are consistent with the numerous studies with related school personnel, health care and business workers, which indicate that older workers are more satisfied than younger workers with their jobs (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2000; Begley & Czajka, 1993; Brush, Moch & Pooyan, 1987; Hodson, 1996; Lowther, Gill & Coppard, 1985; Schabracq, Winnubst & Cooper, 1998; Spector, 1996, all cited in Blood et al., 2002). Similarly, Siu, Spector, Cooper and Donald (2001) also found that age was positively related to job satisfaction and mental well-being in a sample of managers.

Blood et al. (2002) argue that job satisfaction increases with age and work experience. Older workers are more comfortable and tolerant of authority and may learn to lower expectations for their jobs (Spector, 1996). Brush et al. (1987 in Blood et al., 2002) postulate that older workers may have jobs that use their skills better, work under better job conditions, benefit from advancements and promotions, and appreciate fringe benefits more than younger, less experienced workers.

Based on a review of literature on age, Rhodes (1983) concluded that overall job satisfaction is related to age. Older workers appear to evince greater satisfaction with

their employment than younger workers; however, this relationship is not clear. While many suggest a linear relationship (Weaver, 1980; Mottaz, 1987), other studies (Kacmar, Carlson & Brymer 1989; Staw, 1995) report a U shaped relationship. Clark (1996) ascribes this to the fact that younger employees may feel satisfied because they have little experience about the labour market against which to judge their own work. Alternatively, older employees may have reduced aspirations as they realise that they face limited alternative choices as they get older.

2.5.2 JOB SATISFACTION AND GENDER

The literature with respect to the relationship between gender and job satisfaction is inconsistent. Some studies report that women have higher job satisfaction, whereas other studies find that men are more satisfied, yet other studies find no significant difference between the genders (Mortimer, Finch & Maruyama, 1988).

Souza-Poza (2003) found that women's satisfaction has declined substantially in the past decade, whereas men's job satisfaction has remained fairly constant.

According to Coward, Hogan, Duncan, Horne, Hiker and Felsen (1995 cited in Jinnett & Alexander, 1999), female employees demonstrate higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts across most work settings. A number of studies involving several different populations support this argument (Lambert et al., 2001; Loscocco, 1990; Ma & Macmillan, 1999).

However, research (Al-Mashaan, 2003) indicates that male employees in comparison to female employees report higher levels of job satisfaction. This, he attributes to the better chances for employment men are argued to have, and opportunities to advance in their jobs at a more rapid pace than females. Similarly, Zawacki, Shahan and Carey (1995) reported that male nurses tend to be somewhat more satisfied with their supervisors than female nurses and male nurses rated the characteristics of their work as more meaningful than female nurses.

Miller and Wheeler (1992 cited in Lim, Teo & Thayer, 1998) maintain that women are inclined to be less satisfied in their jobs because they tend to hold positions at lower levels in the organisational hierarchy where pay and promotion prospects are less attractive. Numerous studies across a variety of occupational settings have, however, 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 (Hull, 1999; Jones Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Rout, 1999).

Various theories have emerged to account for what has often been referred to as the paradox of the contented working woman (Tolbert & Moen, 1998). One of the most popular explanations is that men and women attach value to different aspects of the job. In addition to placing greater emphasis on co-worker relations, women are also more inclined to assign priority to work that provides them with a sense of accomplishment (Tolbert & Moen, 1998). Furthermore, women may compare themselves only with other women or with women who stay at home rather than with all other employees (Hull, 1999).

2.5.3 JOB SATISFACTION AND OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL

Butler and Ehrlich (1991) examined the proposition that the organisational position held by a job incumbent influences the attitudes, job satisfaction and performance levels of employees. They found that position largely determines the job demands and characteristics of the work environment experienced by workers. Rousseau (1978, p. 533) concludes “job satisfaction appears to link responses to positional characteristics.” In other words, the effect of organisational position on an employee’s attitudes and behaviour appears entirely attributable to the characteristics of the job he or she performs.

Gazioglu and Tanzel (2002) found that managers, professionals and clerical employees were more satisfied with the influence of their job, although this was less apparent in clerical grade staff, with the sense of achievement and with the respect they got from their supervisors, as compared to sales employees. However, they were less satisfied with the amount of their pay as compared to the sales employees. Clark (1996) also found that those at the higher end of the occupational scale reported higher satisfaction with various aspects of their work, but were less satisfied with their pay.

Burke (1996) found that men and women at more senior levels in an organisation reported higher levels of job satisfaction in relation to administrative, clerical and secretarial staff. Several other researchers have also found support for a positive association between job level and satisfaction. Results from a study by Robie, Ryan, Schmieder, Parra and Smith (1998) revealed a consistent and significant positive relationship between these two variables.

Robie et al. (1998) maintain that the positive correlation between rank and job satisfaction may be attributed to the fact that higher-level jobs tend to be more complex and have better working conditions, pay, promotion prospects, supervision, autonomy, and responsibility. Vorster (1992) presents a similar argument. The evidence from the literature seems to suggest, therefore, that job level is a reliable predictor of job satisfaction with employees at higher ranks being generally more satisfied with their jobs than employees at lower levels are.

2.5.4 JOB SATISFACTION AND TENURE

Tenure refers to the length of time for which the individual has worked for the organisation (Lim et al., 1998). Research (Jinnett & Alexander, 1999; Jones Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Staw, 1995; Vecchio, 1988) indicates that employees with longer tenure have a greater propensity to be satisfied with their jobs than employees with shorter tenure.

Moreover, a study by Chambers (1999) established that employees with longer tenure were more satisfied with their work itself as well as their level of pay. From this it might be concluded that satisfaction increases with time and that those benefits that increase in time, such as security and experience, are likely to have an important influence on employee satisfaction.

On the other hand, Lambert et al. (2001) argue that an inverse relationship exists between tenure and job satisfaction. 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 (Lambert et al., 2001).

2.5.5 JOB SATISFACTION AND EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Research is unequivocal with respect to the relationship between job satisfaction and educational level (Camp, 1994; Kuntz, Bora & Loftus, 1990; Loscocco, 1990; Ting, 1997; Vorster, 1992).

Some proponents (Larwood, 1984; Saal & Knight, 1988) maintain that the relationship between education and job satisfaction is positive in nature. For example, Quinn and Mandilovitch (1975) and Glenn and Weaver (1982) reveal a positive relationship between job satisfaction and education.

However, Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) found an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and education. Vorster (1992) states that the higher an individual's qualifications, the higher that individual's job level and, consequently, so too the employee's degree of satisfaction. Similarly, Hall (1994) and Clark and Oswald (1996) found a negative relationship between educational levels and job satisfaction.

Gazioglu and Tansel (2002) observed that those with degrees and postgraduate holders had lower levels of job satisfaction compared to individuals with lower levels of education. Clark and Oswald (1996) argued that due to expectation differentials

between different levels of education, the relationship between education and job satisfaction is unclear.

Conversely, Lambert et al. (2001) found education to have no significant effect on job satisfaction. Research (Ting, 1997) indicates that education has no effect on the satisfaction of federal government employees. Similarly, Rogers (1991) did not support for a link between the satisfaction and educational level of correctional service employees.

Recent studies suggest, however, that educational level is positively related to job satisfaction, subject to a successful match being made between the individual's work and qualifications (Battu, Belfield, & Sloane, 1999; Jones Johnson & Johnson, 2000).

This implies, therefore, that better educated employees are only likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction when the duties performed by them are in line with their level of education.

2.6 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organisational commitment has emerged as an important construct in organisational research owing to its relationship with work-related constructs such as absenteeism, turnover, job satisfaction, job-involvement and leader-subordinate relations (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004; Bagraim, 2003; Buck & Watson, 2002; Eby, et al., 1999; Farrell & Stamm, 1988; Lance, 1991; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Wasti, 2003).

According to Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982), people who are committed are more likely to stay in an organisation and work towards the organisation's goals. Steers (1975) indicates that organisational commitment is a useful tool to measure organisational effectiveness. According to Morrow (1993 in Meyer and Allen, 1997, p. 12) "organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct that has the potential to predict outcomes such as performance, turnover, absenteeism, tenure and organisational goals."

2.6.1 DEFINITION OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Construed as an individual's identification and involvement with a particular organisation, organisational commitment is represented by "(a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation" (Hart & Willower, 2001).

Buchanan (cited in Reyes, 2001, p. 328) defines commitment as "a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organisation, to one's role in relation to goals and values of an organisation, to one's roles in relation to goals and values, and to the organisation for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth."

Organisational commitment can be defined as the strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in the organisation (Levy, 2003). Organisational commitment is distinguished from job satisfaction in that organisational commitment is "an affective response to the whole organisation, while job satisfaction is an affective

response to specific aspects of the job" (Williams & Hazer, 1986, in Morrison, 2004, p. 116).

Researchers have also viewed commitment as involving an exchange of behaviour in return for valued rewards. According to Scarpello and Ledvinka (1987), for example, organisational commitment is the outcome of a matching process between the individual's job-related and vocational needs on the one hand and the organisation's ability to satisfy these needs on the other.

2.6.2 TYPES OF EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT

Bussing (2002) identifies three sources of commitment: the instrumental, affective and normative source. Affective commitment emphasizes attachment to the organisation; individuals put all their energy into their work, which is not expected of them. According to Bussing (2002), instrumental commitment focuses on the idea of exchange and continuance. Normative commitment focuses on an employee's feelings of obligation to stay with an organisation. Bagraim (2003) states that although various multidimensional models of organisational commitment exist, the three models, which are proposed by Allen and Meyer (1997) are widely accepted in organisational research.

Penly and Gould (1988 cited in Bussing, 2002) espouse the view that commitment may be perceived in terms of three facets: moral, calculative, and alienative commitment. Moral and alienative commitment represent affective commitment, while calculative commitment can be associated with instrumental commitment.

However, Bragg (2002) identifies four types of employee commitment:

1. The first type is the “want to” commitment. According to Bragg (2002) these workers are devoted and loyal to the employer. They are prepared to go the extra mile for the employer and take on extra responsibilities. These employees come to work with a positive state of mind and are prepared to go the extra mile for the company.
2. The “have to” commitment is the second type. They are workers who are trapped workers (Bragg, 2002). These types of employees remain with the company for many reasons. One of the reasons is that they cannot find employment elsewhere. According to Bragg, these employees have bad attitudes, poor habits and disobey instructions from management and supervisors.
3. The “ought to” commitment is the third type. These workers are the ones who feel obligated to stay with an organisation. They have a value system that says it is not the right time to leave the work (Bragg, 2002).
4. The fourth type is the disconnected or uncommitted group of employees. They have no reason to stay with the company and at every opportunity are on the lookout for new employment. They are basically halfway on their way out. Bragg (2002) stated that 20-30% of today’s workforce is in this situation. These workers have no intention to stay or they have no loyalty to the company.

2.6.2.1 AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

Affective organisational commitment is conceptualised as “an individual’s attitude towards the organisation, consisting of a strong belief in, and acceptance of, an organisation’s goals, willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation” (Mowday et al., 1982 cited in Eby et al., 1999, p. 464).

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



Affective commitment results in employees staying within an organisation because they want to, and according to Romzek (1990), these employees will generally act in the organisation’s best interest and are less likely to leave the company.

Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson and Sowa (1986) conclude that individuals will expend different degrees of effort and maintain differing affective responses to an organisation depending upon perceived commitment of an organisation to an employee within the organisation. Therefore, employees will exhibit organisational commitment in exchange for organisational support and rewards.

2.6.2.2 CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT

Buitendach and de Witte (2005) posit the view that continuance commitment can be conceptualised as the propensity for employees to feel committed to their organisation based on their perceptions of the associated costs of leaving the organisation.

Meyer and Allen (1984, p. 373) maintain that continuance commitment can be used to refer to anything of value that an individual may have “invested (e.g. time, effort, money) that would be lost to be deemed worthless at some perceived cost to the individual if he or she were to leave the organisation. Such investments might include contributions to non-vested pension plans, development of organisation specific skills or status, use of organisational benefits such as reduced mortgage rates and so on. The perceived cost of leaving may be exacerbated by a perceived lack of alternatives to replace or make up for the foregone investments.”

2.6.2.3 NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

Normative commitment can be conceptualised as the belief that “employees have a responsibility to their organisation” (Bagraim, 2003, p. 14). Wiener (1982, p. 471) defines commitment as the “totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals.” According to Bagraim (2003), employees experience normative commitment due to their internal belief that it is their duty to do so. Sparrow and Cooper (2003) suggest that normative commitment encompasses an

employee's felt obligation and responsibility towards an organisation and is based on feelings of loyalty and obligation.

2.7 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT IN TEACHING

Fruth, Bresdon and Kaston (1982) analysed commitment to teaching and found that intrinsic motivation was the most powerful link to teacher performance. Kaufman (1984) also reviewed teachers commitment to the profession and concluded that teachers characterised as motivation seekers were more committed to the teaching profession than were non-motivation seekers.

Snyder and Spreitzer (1984) analysed the identity and commitment to the teaching role. They found that the elements of commitment included intrinsic and extrinsic satisfactions, as well as self-identity, invested in the teaching role.

2.8 THE ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

A number of personal determinants have been associated with organisational commitment.

2.8.1 PERSONAL DETERMINANTS

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

2.8.1.1 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND AGE

As employees age their level of commitment towards their employing organisations increases. Research (Dunham, Grube & Castaneda, 1994) indicates a significant relationship between organisational commitment and age. Similarly, researchers (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Cramer, 1993; Lok & Crawford, 1999; Loscocco, 1990; Luthans, 1992; Mowday et al., 1982; Sekaran; 2000) support the findings that the relationship between organisational commitment and age, is significant.

Some theorists postulate that, as individuals age, alternative employment opportunities become limited, thereby making their current jobs more attractive (Kacmar et al., 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). Other proponents hypothesise that older individuals may be more committed to their organisations because they have a stronger investment and a greater history with the organisation than do younger employees (Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Kacmar et al., 1999).

Therefore, younger employees are generally likely to be more mobile and to have lower psychological investments in the organisation. The older employees become, the less willing they are to sacrifice the benefits and idiosyncratic credits that are associated with seniority in the organisation (Hellman, 1997).

2.8.1.2 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND TENURE

Tenure or the length of service of employees contributes towards increasing the employees' levels of commitment towards the organisation. Research corroborates the

view that a positive relationship exists between organisational commitment and tenure (Allen & Mowday, 1990; Dunham et al., 1994; Gerhart, 1990; Larkey & Morrill; 1995; Malan, 2002; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday, et al., 1982).

Research overwhelmingly indicates that tenure has a positive influence on organisational commitment (Loscocco, 1990; Luthans, 1992; Luthans, Baack & Taylor 1987; Mowday et al., 1982). One possible reason for the positive relationship between tenure and commitment may be sought in the reduction of employment opportunities and the increase in the personal investments that the individual has in the organisation. This is likely to lead to an increase in the individual's psychological attachment to the organisation (Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Lim et al., 1998; Luthans, 1992; Mowday et al., 1982). Sekaran (1992) maintains that tenure is associated with some status and prestige, and that this induces greater commitment and loyalty to the employing organisation.



However, researchers such as Luthans, McCaul and Dodd (1985 cited in Vorster, 1992) failed to find support for the relationship between tenure and organisational commitment. Kinnear and Sutherland's (2000) research did not find support for the relationship between organisational commitment and tenure. This is further substantiated by Cramer (1993) who contends that longer tenure is not associated with greater commitment when age, rather than age at joining the organisation, is controlled. Nevertheless, it is possible that tenure carries an element of status and prestige, and this induces greater commitment and loyalty to the employing organisation.

2.8.1.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Research generally indicates an inverse relationship between organisational commitment and an individual's level of education, however, the results are not unequivocal (Luthans et al., 1987; Mowday et al., 1982; Vorster, 1992).

A number of researchers maintain that the higher an employee's level of education, the lower that individual's level of organisational commitment (Luthans et al., 1987; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). The negative relationship may result from the fact that highly qualified employees have higher expectations that the organisation may be unable to fulfil.

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

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

More educated individuals may also be more committed to their profession. As a result, it would become difficult for an organisation to compete successfully for the psychological involvement of these employees (Mowday et al., 1982). This is because, according Mathieu and Zajac (1990), more highly qualified individuals have a greater number of alternative work opportunities. However, Billingsley and Cross (1992) failed to find support for a relationship between education and commitment.

2.8.1.4 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND GENDER

As is the case with education, the influence of gender on organisational commitment remains unclear.

The general contention appears to be that women as a group tend to be more committed to their employing organisation than are their male counterparts (Cramer, 1993; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). Loscocco (1990) found that women were more likely to report that they are proud to work for their organisation, that their values and the company's values are similar, and that they would accept almost any job offered to them in order to remain with their current employer.

Several explanations have been offered to account for the greater commitment of female employees. Mowday et al. (1982) maintain that women generally have to overcome more barriers to attain their positions within the organisation. They concur that the effort required to enter the organisation translates into higher commitment of female

employees. Harrison and Hubbard (1998) similarly argue that women display greater commitment because they encounter fewer options for employment.

Numerous researchers have, however, failed to find support for a relationship between gender and organisational commitment (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Ngo & Tsang, 1998; Wahn, 1998). It may, thus, be concluded that a growing body of evidence appears to support either no gender differences in organisational commitment or the greater commitment of women (Wahn, 1998).

2.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided an overview of the variables, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Where corresponding research based on the teaching profession was obtained, it was integrated into the literature review. The next chapter focuses on the research methodology and design used to execute the research.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The present chapter provides an outline of the research methodology employed in the investigation of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment amongst teachers in previously disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape. The selection of the sample, measuring instruments, procedure for data collection and the statistical techniques utilised relating to the research are delineated.



3.2 SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE

Huysamen (1994, p. 38) defines a population as encompassing “the total collection of all members, cases or elements about which the researcher wishes to draw conclusions.” The population for this research includes teachers from 16 high schools in disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape including areas such as: Bridgetown, Hanover Park, Gugulethu, Weltevreden Park and Mitchell’s Plain (all classified as previously disadvantaged).

According to Sekaran (2003, p. 266), sampling is “the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population, so that a study of the sample and an understanding of its properties or characteristics would make it possible for us to

generalise such properties or characteristics to the population elements.” Accordingly, the sample consists of all the educators at the schools conveniently available to participate.

3.2.1 CONVENIENCE SAMPLING

A non-probability sampling design was used, based on the method of convenience. Non-probability sampling does not involve elements of randomisation and not each potential respondent has an equal chance of participating in the research. Some of the advantages of utilising a non-probability sample lie in the fact that it is cost-effective, and less time consuming. However, its associated shortcomings relate to its restricted generalisability, particularly in lieu of the higher chances of sampling errors (Sekaran, 2003). However, to overcome restrictions with respect to generalisability, Sekaran (2003) maintains that it is advisable to use larger samples. Accordingly, since multivariate data analysis, in the form of multiple regression analysis, was to be conducted, it was necessary that the sample be several times as large as the number of variables involved (Sekaran, 2003).

3.2.2 PROCEDURE

A cross-sectional research method, based on the survey approach was utilized. Four hundred and fifty (450) teachers were targeted in areas which have been classified as disadvantaged.

Cover letters, affixed to the questionnaire, explained the nature of the study, as well as assuring respondents of the confidentiality of any information provided. Respondents were also provided with detailed instructions as to how the questionnaires were to be completed and returned. The rationale behind providing clear instructions and assuring confidentiality of information is based on the fact that this significantly reduces the likelihood of obtaining biased responses (Sekaran, 2003).

Self-administered questionnaires were returned after one week to designated contact persons at the schools. This method was considered the most efficient means of data collection since the sample was widely dispersed geographically.

A total of 450 questionnaires were administered, with 237 fully completed questionnaires being returned, thereby constituting a 52.6% return rate. This is higher than the 30% anticipated in most research (Sekaran, 2003). Moreover, Sekaran (2003) maintains that sample sizes of between thirty and five hundred subjects are appropriate for most research.

3.3 BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

A biographical questionnaire soliciting information on respondent gender, race, age, income, tenure, salary, position and education level was compiled. The data with respect to these biographical questions were subsequently graphically presented and discussed to provide an indication of the most salient findings with respect to these variables.

3.4 JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (JDI)

3.4.1 NATURE AND COMPOSITION OF THE JDI

The most used method to measure job satisfaction is the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969). The scale provides a faceted approach to the measurement of satisfaction in terms of specific identifiable characteristics related to the job (Luthans, 1998). It measures five aspects of an employee's satisfaction: in respect of satisfaction with work itself, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with opportunities for promotion, satisfaction with supervision, and satisfaction with co-workers (Smith et al., 1969).

The JDI consists of 72 items: 9 items each for the facets of promotions and pay; and 18 items each for work, supervision and co-workers (Smucker & Kent, 2004). According to McCormick and Ilgen (1985), the questionnaire has a series of statements for each of the categories, each one of which respondents are required to mark with a yes (Y), no (N) or cannot decide (?) as it relates to the person's job. However, it is also possible to combine the five facet measures to obtain a global measure (Saal & Knight, 1988).

For those facets which only contain 9 items as compared to 18, the score is doubled to allow each facet to have the same possible range of scores. All of the facets are then summated separately which allows for comparison amongst the facets. The JDI provides a measure of facet satisfaction and allows for an understanding of five discreet parts of the job (Smucker & Kent, 2004).

3.4.2 RELIABILITY OF THE JDI

According to Sekaran (2003), reliability refers to whether an instrument is consistent, stable and free from error, despite fluctuations in test taker, administrator or conditions under which the test is administered.

The Job Descriptive Index's internal consistency reliability for 80 men ranged from .80 to .88 for the five separate scales. Schreider and Dachler (1978) found that the reliabilities of the subscales were good ($r = .57$) in a larger utility company over a period of sixteen months. Nagy (2002) reports the internal consistency of the JDI for the five facets as ranging from .83 to .90. The minimum reliability estimates for the single-item measures ranged from .52 to .76, with a mean minimum reliability estimate of .63 (Nagy, 2002).



Johnson, Smith and Tucker (1982 cited in Saal & Knight, 1988) reported test-retest coefficients ranging between 0.68 and 0.88. Smith et al. (1969) indicate that the split-half reliability coefficients range from 0.8 to 0.87, all of which are indicative of the reliability of the JDI and attest to its appropriateness to be used in the current research.

3.4.3 VALIDITY OF THE JDI

Validity, according to Sekaran (2003), attests to whether an instrument measures what it is supposed to and is justified by the evidence. Essentially, it entails the extent to which an instrument actually measures the aspects that it was intended to measure.

Smith et al. (1969), have provided evidence for the convergent and discriminant validity of the JDI, consistently recording validity coefficients for the JDI that vary between 0.5 and 0.7.

3.4.4 RATIONALE FOR INCLUSION

The JDI has demonstrated reliability, validity and is based on a facet as well as global rating of job satisfaction. Moreover, Vorster (1992) cites the work of Conradie (1990), in which it is reported that the JDI has been standardized and found suitable for use in the South African context.

3.5 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (OCQ)



3.5.1 NATURE AND COMPOSITION OF THE OCQ

The OCQ was developed on the basis of Mowday, et al.'s (1982, p. 27) definition of organisational commitment. That is, “(a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation.”

It identifies 15 items that tap an employee's belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values, their willingness to be part of the organisation and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation.

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

3.5.2 RELIABILITY OF THE OCQ

The OCQ has been correlated with other affective measures, with an average of $r = 0.70$. Its reliability has ranged from 0.82 to 0.93, with a median value of 0.90. This instrument has been tested with several groups such as public employees and university employees and appears to yield consistent results across different types of organisations (Reyes & Pounder, 1993).



Homogeneity correlates range between .36 to .72 with a median of .64. Furthermore, test-retest reliabilities demonstrated acceptable levels (from $r = .53$ to $r = .75$) over periods ranging from two months to four months (Mowday et al., 1982).

3.5.3 VALIDITY OF THE OCQ

Mowday et al.'s (1982) research indicates that the OCQ is correlated with the Organisational Attachment Questionnaire, with convergent validities across six diverse samples ranging from 0.63 to 0.70.

In addition, Mowday et al. (1982) demonstrated convergent validity by indicating that OCQ scores were positively correlated with work-oriented life interest and supervisor ratings of subordinates' commitment. They also demonstrated evidence of discriminant validity, reporting low correlations between scores on the OCQ and measures of job involvement, career satisfaction, and job satisfaction. Finally, they indicated that the OCQ has predictive validity based on its correlates with voluntary turnover, absenteeism, and job performance.

3.5.4 RATIONALE FOR INCLUSION

The rationale for the use of the OCQ is that it is a reliable and valid instrument for the measurement of organisational commitment, and it is standardized for the South African situation (Kacmar et al., 1999; Mowday et al., 1982).



3.6 STATISTICAL METHODS

For the purposes of testing the research hypotheses, a number of statistical techniques were employed. These included both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques.

3.6.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics describe the phenomena of interest (Sekaran, 2003) and is used to analyse data for classifying and summarising numerical data. It includes the analysis of data using frequencies, dispersions of dependent and independent variables and measures of central tendency and variability and to obtain a feel for the data (Sekaran,

2003). The mean and standard deviation will primarily be used to describe the data obtained from the JDI and the OCQ. The results of the biographical questionnaire will be based on the frequencies and percentages obtained based on the sample characteristics.

3.6.2 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

Inferential statistics allow the researcher to present the data obtained in research in statistical format to facilitate the identification of important patterns and to make data analysis more meaningful. According to Sekaran (2003), inferential statistics is employed when generalisations from a sample to population are made. The statistical methods used in this research include the Pearson Product Moment Correlation as well as multiple regression analysis.



3.6.2.1 THE PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION

For the purposes of determining whether a statistically significant relationship exists between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used.

It provides an index of the strength, magnitude and direction of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Sekaran, 2003). The Product Moment Correlation Coefficient is, therefore, suitable for the purposes of the present study since the study attempted to describe the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

3.6.2.2 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Multiple regression is a multivariate statistical technique that is used for studying the relationship between a single dependent variable and several independent variables. It provides a method to predict the changes in the dependent variable in response to changes in more than one independent variable. Hence, it allows the researcher to determine the relative importance of each predictor as well as to ascertain the collective contribution of the independent variables (Sekaran, 2003). The categorical variables (gender) was used in the regression analyses through dummy coding (Pedhazur, 1982).

In determining the extent to which the biographical variables explain the variance in job satisfaction, multiple regression analysis was employed. The same process was followed in determining the extent to which these variables explain the variance in organisational commitment.

3.7 CONCLUSION

The research methodology utilized in the present study was addressed in this chapter. More specifically, the selection of the sample, the measuring instruments used and the rationale for their inclusion, as well as the statistical methods employed in testing the research hypotheses were discussed.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the results obtained based on the empirical analyses conducted to test the hypotheses. The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. That is, the data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the three measuring instruments employed, are summarised by means of calculation of descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data clearly emerge and an overall picture thereof is obtained. The descriptive and inferential statistics generated for the conjectured relationships are presented and discussed.



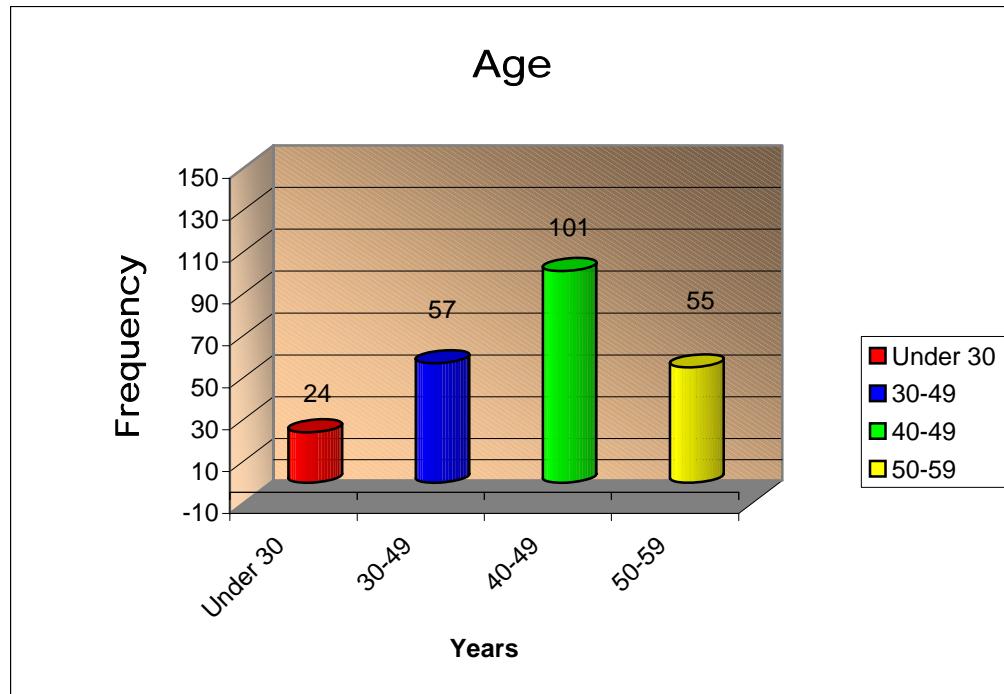
4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

4.2.1 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

The biographical information of 237 (52.6%) of the 450 teachers who completed the questionnaires in the research is graphically illustrated.

The age distribution of respondents that participated in the research is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Age distribution of respondents



The majority of the respondents (43%, n = 101) are in the age group 40-49 years, while 24% (n=57) are in the age group 30-49 years. Fifty-five respondents (23%) fall in the age category 50-59 years, and a further 10% (n = 24) of the respondents are in the age group under 30 years old.

Figure 4.2: Gender of the respondents

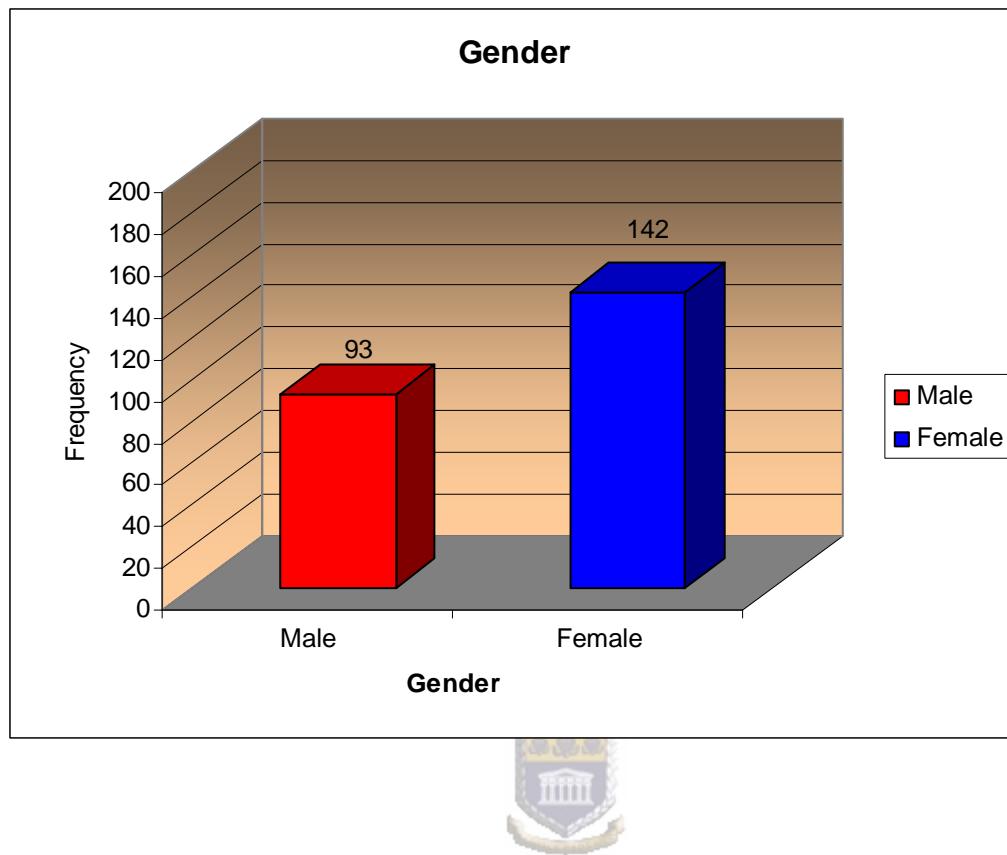


Figure 4.2 depicts the gender of respondents. The majority of the respondents (60%, n = 142) are female teachers, while male teachers comprised 40% of the respondents (n = 95).

Figure 4.3: Race of the respondents

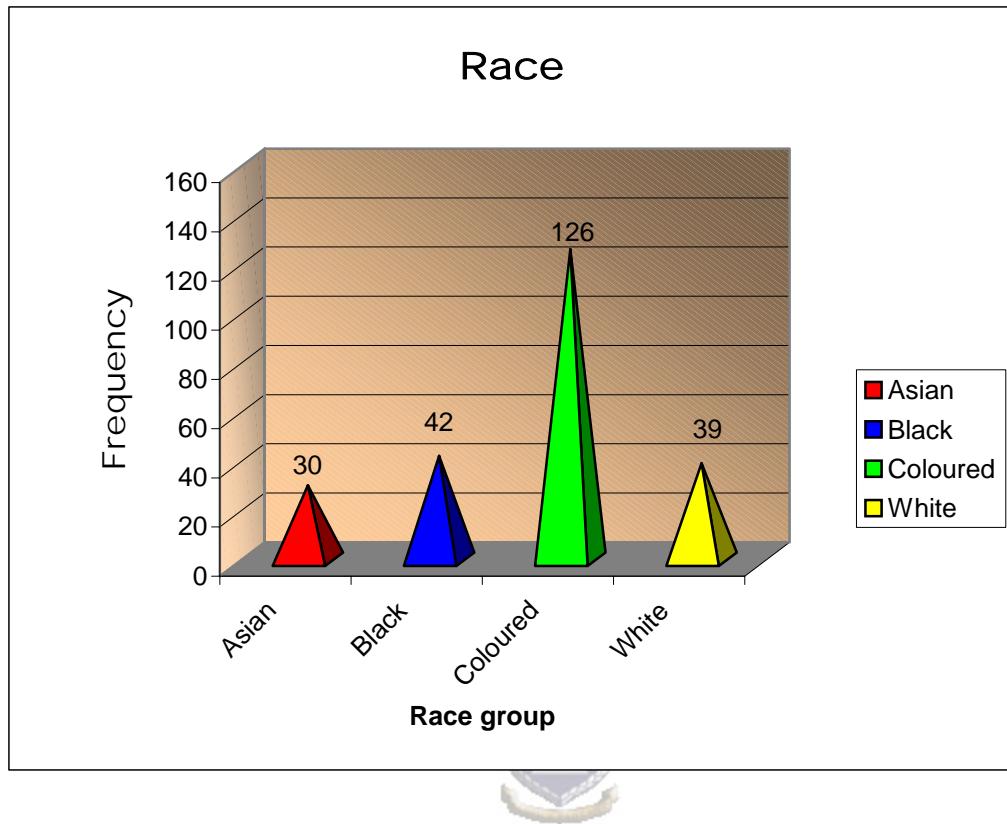
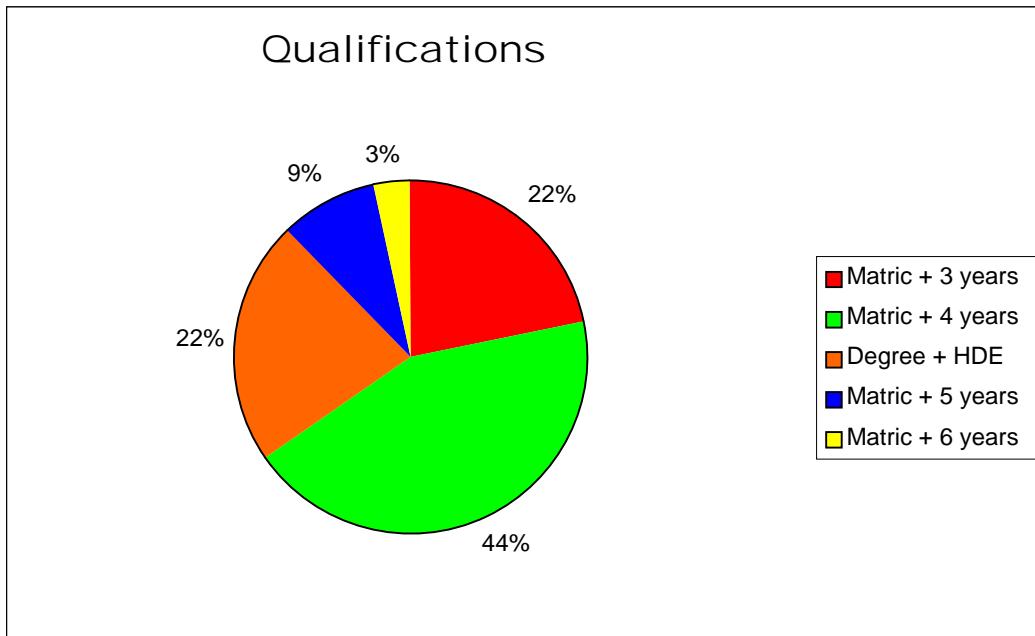


Figure 4.3 illustrates that the majority of the teachers, ($n = 126$) or 53% are Coloured, while a further 18% ($n = 42$) are Black teachers refer as African. Thirteen percent (13%) or 30 respondents are Asians and 16% ($n = 39$) are White teachers.

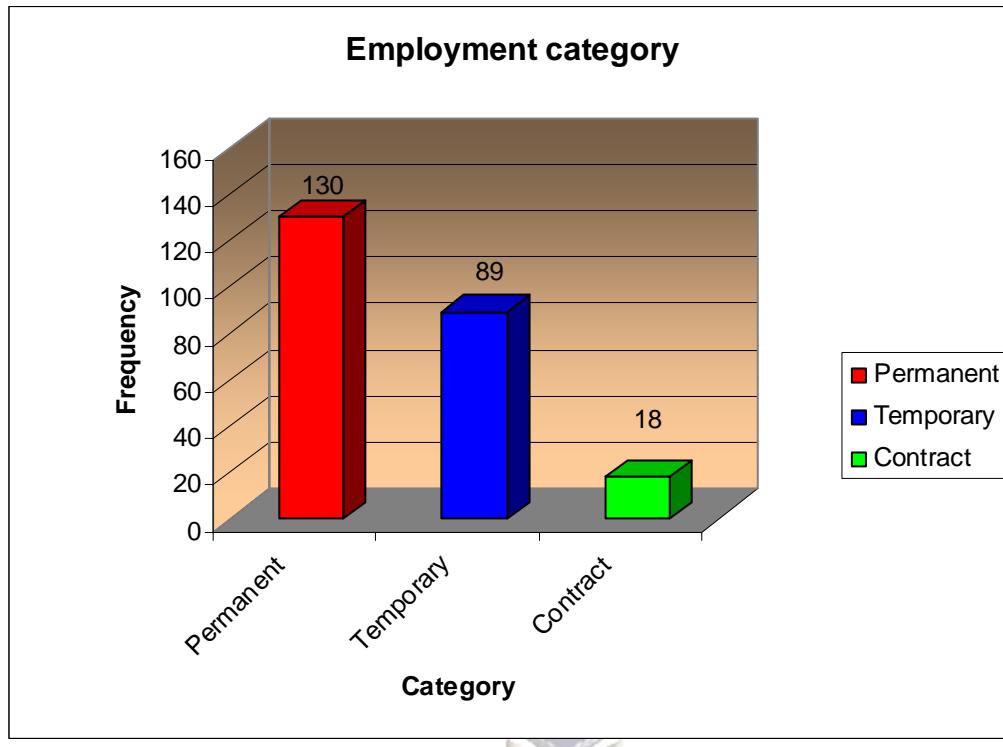
Figure 4.4: Qualifications category of the respondents



The table indicates that matric plus three years is a teacher's diploma at a college or lower teacher's diploma at a university. Matric plus 4 years is a four diploma at a college or Higher Diploma in Education at a university. Degree plus HDE is a Matric plus 5years is a degree or HDE plus Bachelor of Education or any other Honours qualification. Matric plus 6years is a Bachelor of Education plus a Master of Education qualification or any other Masters Degree.

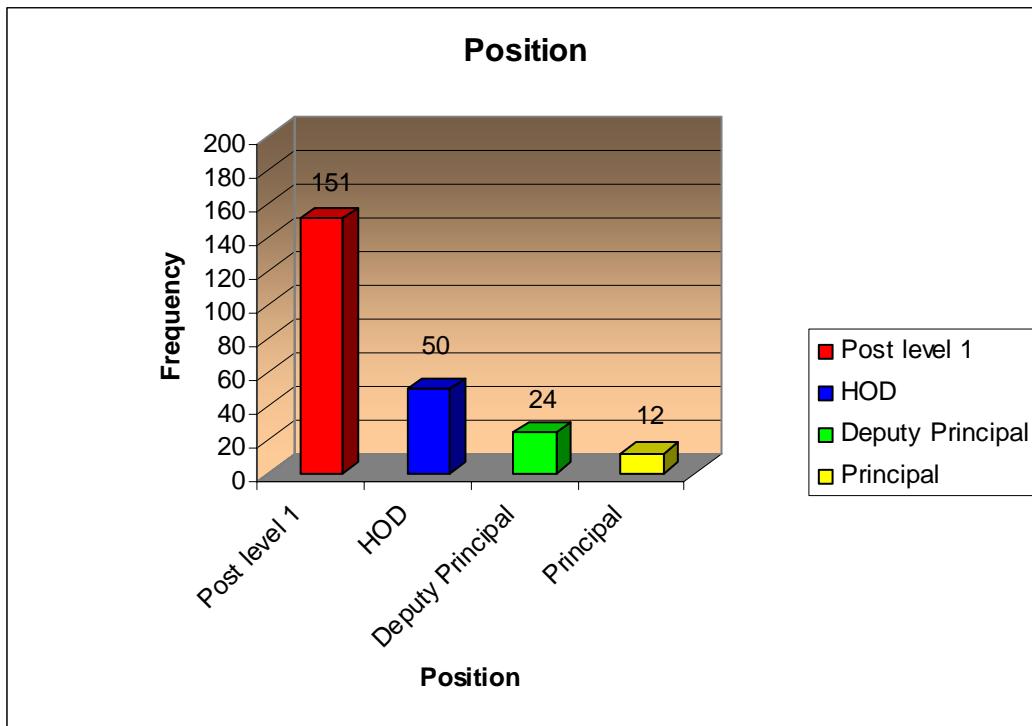
Figure 4.4 illustrates that 44% of the respondents has a matric plus 4 years qualification. Only 3% of the respondents have a matric plus 6 years, 22% has a degree plus Higher Diploma in Education, 22% Matric and three years, while 9% have a matric and five years.

Figure 4.5: Employment category of respondents



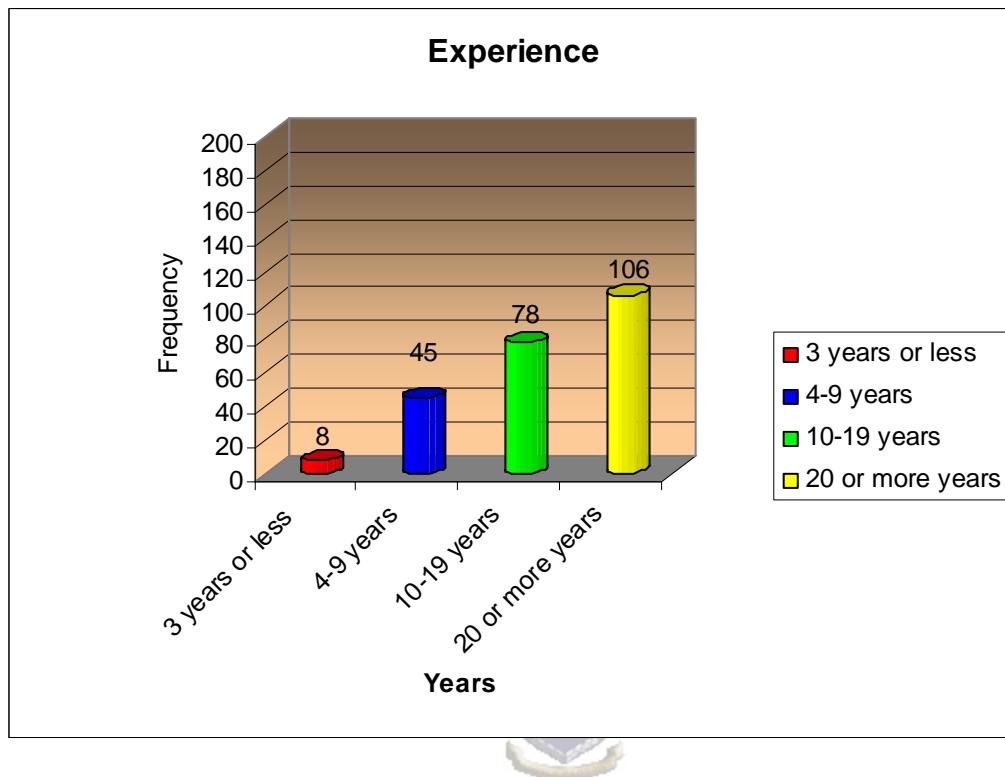
With respect to the employment category, the majority of teachers, 54.85% ($n = 130$) are permanently employed. Only, 7.6% ($n = 18$) of teachers are employed on a contract basis, and a further 37.55% ($n = 89$) are employed on a temporary basis.

Figure 4.6: Job level of respondents



Most of the respondents, (64%, n = 151) are Post level 1 teachers. Twenty-one percent (21%, n = 50) of the respondents are Heads of Departments. Ten percent (10%, n = 24) of the respondents are Deputy Principals and 5% (n = 12), are principals.

Figure 4.7: Years of experience of educators



The majority of the teachers (45%, n = 106) have 20 or more years experience in teaching. The second biggest group of respondents, 33% (n = 78) have 10-19 years teaching experience. A further 45 respondents (19%) have 4-9 years teaching experience. Only 3% of the respondents (n = 8) have less than three years of experience.

Figure 4.8: Number of classes

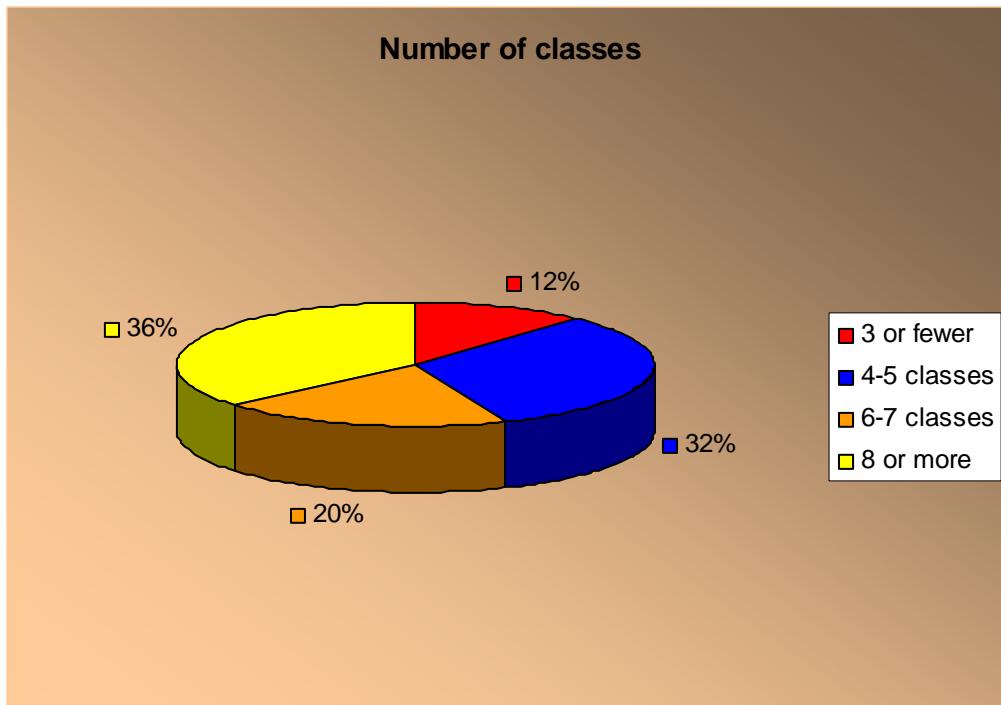


Figure 4.8 depicts the number of classes teachers are assigned. The majority of the respondents (36%) have 8 or more classes to teach. While thirty-two percent (32%) of the respondents have to teach 4-5 classes, 19% of the respondents have to teach 6-7 classes. Only 11% of the respondents have to teach 3 or fewer classes.

Figure 4.9: Class Sizes

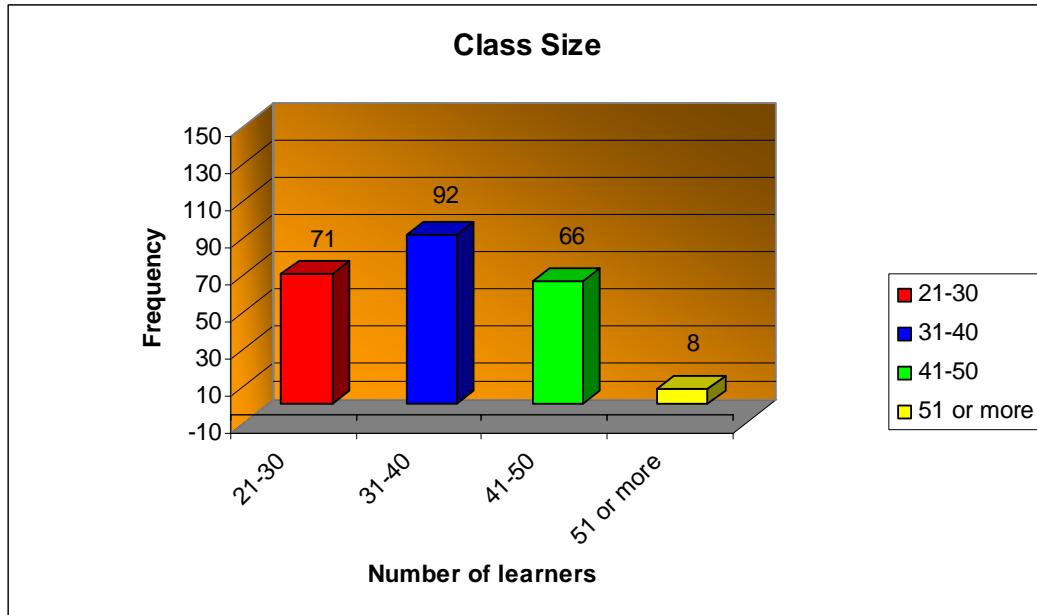


Figure 4.9 indicates that 39% ($n = 92$) of the teachers have a class size of 31-40 learners. The second largest group is ($n = 71$) or 30% of the teachers have a total number of between 21-30 learners, while 28% ($n = 66$) of the teachers have class sizes between 41-50 learners. Only a minority of teachers ($n = 8$) or 3% have a class size comprising 51 or more learners in a class.

Figure 4.10: Salary

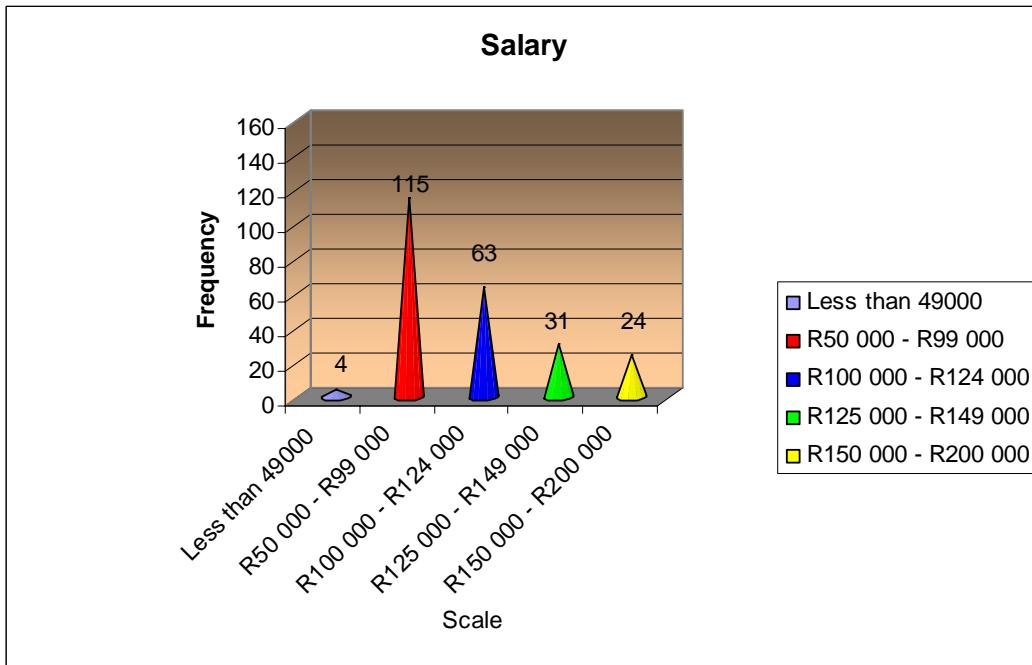
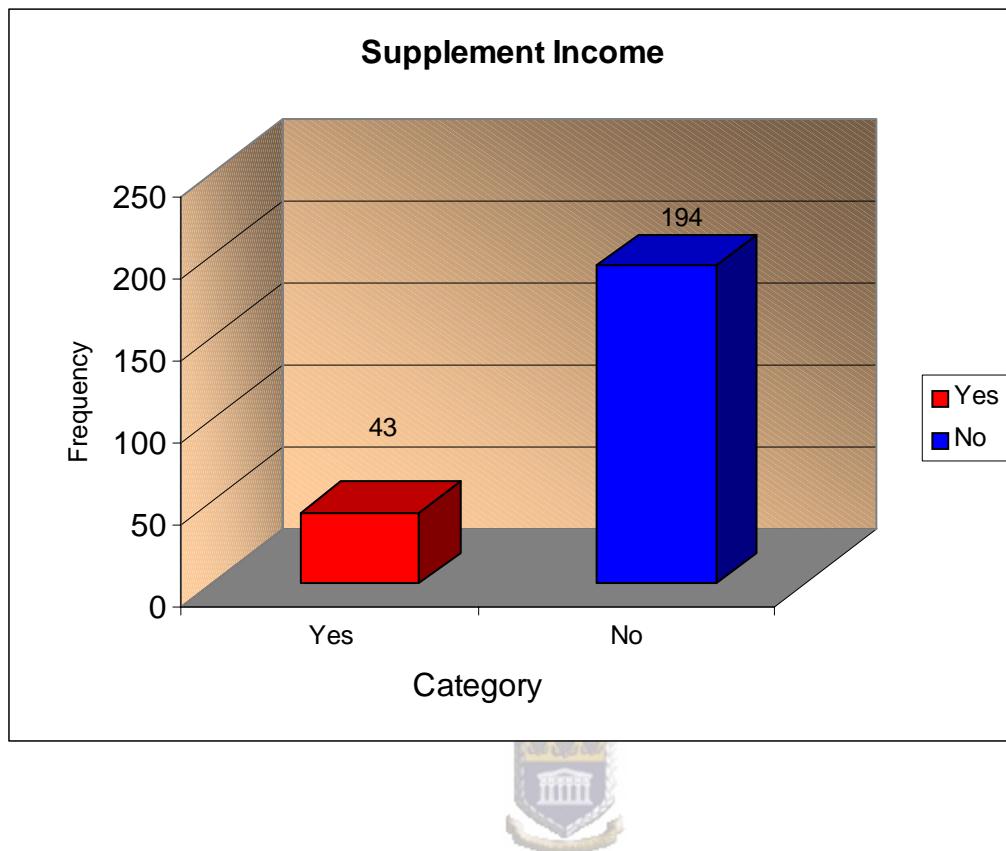


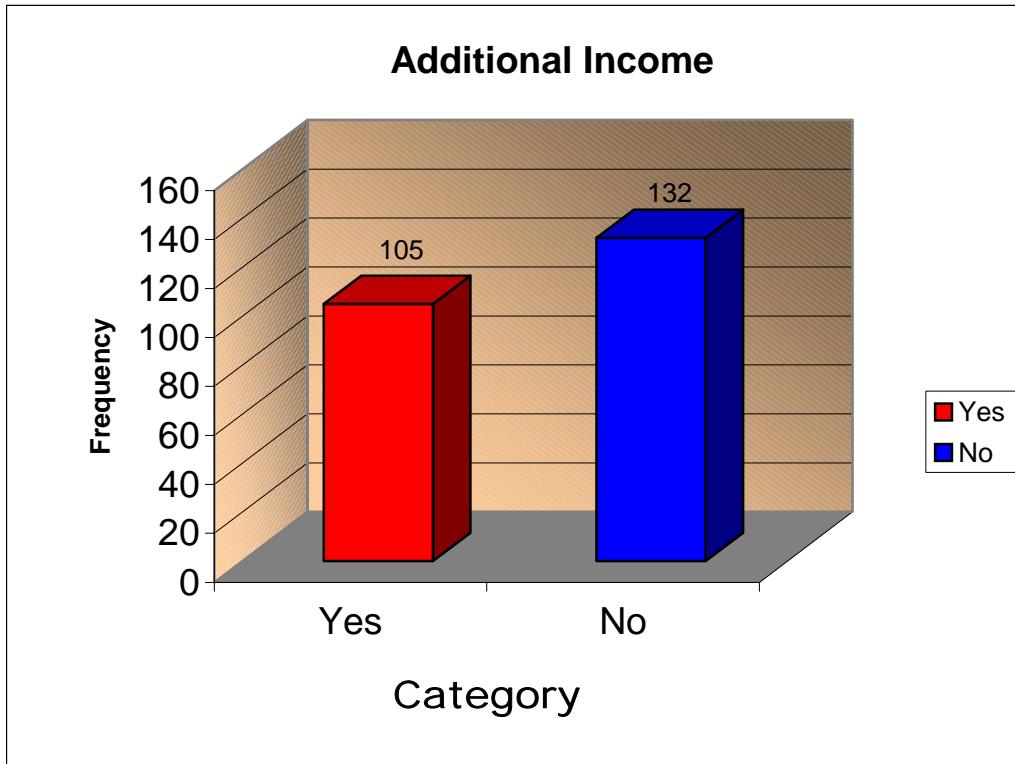
Figure 4.10 indicates that the majority ($n = 115$) of educators (48.54%) receive a salary between R50 000 and R99 000. While 26.58 % of the teachers ($n = 63$) receive a salary between R125 000- R149 000, 10.12% ($n = 24$) of the teachers receive a salary between R150 000 – R200 00, and 13.08% ($n = 31$) receive a salary between R100 000 – R124 000. Only 1.68% of the teachers ($n = 4$) receive a salary less than R49 000.

Figure 4.11: Supplement Income



The majority of the teachers, 82% ($n = 194$) of the teachers indicated that they do not have to supplement their income. Eighteen percent (18%, $n = 43$) of the respondents indicated that they have to supplement their income.

Figure 4.12: Additional Income



In figure 4.12, 44% of the respondents ($n = 105$) indicate that they earn additional salaries in order to supplement their income. The majority of teachers 56% ($n = 132$) indicate that they do not earn an additional income.

4.2.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations were computed for the various dimensions assessed by the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The results are presented in Tables 4.1 and 4.2.

4.2.2.1 RESULTS OF THE JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Table 4.1 Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of job satisfaction

	Mean	Standard deviation
Job satisfaction	113.234	14.320
Nature of the job	32.124	6.312
Pay	23.112	4.754
Supervision	27.203	5.322
Advancement	24.346	4.216
Co-workers	38.238	3.129

The level of job satisfaction amongst the sample of 237 teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape is depicted in Table 4.1. The results indicate the mean for the total job satisfaction of the sample is 113.234 with a standard deviation of 14.320.

In terms of the JDI, an average level of job satisfaction is indicated by approximately 144. Hence, it may be concluded that the overall job satisfaction of the sample is relatively low. The standard deviation for the overall level of job satisfaction is also not high, indicating that most teachers experience low levels of satisfaction.

Table 4.1 indicates the means and standard deviations for the dimensions of job satisfaction as assessed by the JDI. The arithmetic means for the work, supervision, pay and advancement are all lower than that for the co-worker dimension. Based on the fact that a mean of approximately 36 is indicative of an average level of satisfaction on these

scales, it appears as though the majority of the employees in the sample are not satisfied with the nature of their work, supervision, advancement and pay.

Respondents were most satisfied with their co-workers (Mean = 38.238, SD = 3.129), and less satisfied with the nature of their work (Mean = 32.124, SD = 6.312), supervision (Mean = 27.203, SD = 5.322), advancement (Mean = 24.346, SD = 4.216), and least satisfied with their pay (Mean = 23.112, SD = 4.754).

4.2.2.2 RESULTS OF THE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Table 4.2 depicts the arithmetic mean and standard deviation for the organisational commitment of the sample of 237 teachers.



Table 4.2 Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of organisational commitment

	Mean	Standard deviation
Affective commitment	19.215	3.232
Normative commitment	21.343	4.643
Continuance commitment	17.218	7.145
Total Organisational commitment	54.346	9.236

Table 4.2. depicts the results for the dimensions of organisational commitment as well as total organisational commitment as determined by the OCQ. The results in Table 4.2 indicate that the mean and standard deviation for the organisational commitment of the sample is 54.346 and 9.236, respectively.

Since a mean score of approximately 60 is indicative of an average level of organisational commitment, it may be concluded that the sample of teachers from disadvantaged schools evidence below average levels of organisational commitment.

Given that the teachers' levels of organisational commitment was lower than what constitutes an average level, it can be concluded that respondents display below average belief in the organisation's goals and values (Mean = 19.215, SD = 3.232), express below average willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation (Mean = 21.343, SD = 4.643), and have a below average desire to maintain membership of the organisation (Mean = 17.218, SD = 7.145).

4.3 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS



The following section addresses the results obtained for the inferential statistics to ascertain the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the relationship between biographical characteristics and job satisfaction, the relationship between biographical characteristics and organisational commitment, and to determine which factors explain the variance in both job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Table 4.3 Pearson correlation matrix for the dimensions of job satisfaction

	Job satisfaction	
	Pearson correlation	Sig (2-tailed)
Nature of the job	0.113	0.388
Pay	0.603	0.000**
Supervision	0.275	0.048*
Advancement	0.592	0.000**
Co-workers	0.378	0.023**

* p < 0.05

** p < 0.01

Table 4.3 illustrates the relationship between job satisfaction and the dimensions of the JDI.



The results indicate that there are significant correlations between pay and job satisfaction ($r = 0.603$, $p < 0.01$), advancement and job satisfaction ($r = 0.592$, $p < 0.01$), co-workers and job satisfaction ($r = 0.378$, $p < 0.01$) and between supervision and job satisfaction ($r = 0.275$, $p < 0.05$). There was no significant relationship between the nature of the job and job satisfaction ($r = 0.113$, $p > 0.05$). *Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.*

Table 4.4 Pearson correlation between job satisfaction and biographical variables

	Job satisfaction
Gender	0.63**
Age	0.49**
Tenure	0.43**
Education	0.26*
Job level	0.36**

* p < 0.05

** p < 0.01

Table 4.4 indicates the relationship between the respondents' biographical characteristics and job satisfaction. The results indicate that the strongest relationship exists between gender and job satisfaction ($r = 0.63$, $p < 0.01$). There was also a significant correlation between the age of respondents and job satisfaction ($r = 0.49$, $p < 0.01$).

There was also a significant relationship between tenure and job satisfaction ($r = 0.43$, $p < 0.01$), and job level and job satisfaction ($r = 0.36$, $p < 0.01$). Furthermore, there was a significant relationship between education and job satisfaction ($r = 0.26$, $p < 0.05$).

Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4.5 Pearson correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment

	Job satisfaction	
	Pearson Correlation	Sig (2-tailed)
Affective commitment	0.321	0.023*
Normative commitment	0.406	0.003**
Continuance commitment	0.682	0.000**
Total commitment	0.434	0.000**

* p < 0.05

** p < 0.01

Table 4.5 indicates the relationship between job satisfaction and the dimensions of organisational commitment.



The results indicate that there is a moderate relationship between affective commitment and job satisfaction amongst the sample of teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape ($r = 0.321$, $p < 0.01$). There was also a significant relationship between normative commitment and job satisfaction ($r = 0.406$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, there was a significant relationship between continuance commitment and job satisfaction ($r = 0.682$, $p < 0.01$). There was a significant relationship between total organisational commitment and job satisfaction ($r = 0.434$, $p < 0.01$). *Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.*

Table 4.6 Pearson correlation between organisational commitment and biographical variables

	Organisational commitment	
	Pearson correlation	Sig (2-tailed)
Gender	0.693	0.00**
Age	0.559	0.00**
Educational level	0.125	0.06
Tenure	0.406	0.00**
Job level	0.541	0.00**

** p < 0.01

Table 4.6 indicates the relationship between the respondents' biographical characteristics and organisational commitment. The results indicate that the strongest relationship exists between gender and organisational commitment ($r = 0.693, p < 0.01$). There was also a significant correlation between the age of respondents and organisational commitment ($r = 0.559, p < 0.01$).

There was also a significant relationship between tenure and organisational commitment ($r = 0.406, p < 0.01$), and job level and organisational commitment ($r = 0.541, p < 0.01$). However, there was no significant relationship between the educational level of teachers and their organisational commitment ($r = 0.125, p > 0.05$). *Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.*

Table 4.7 Multiple regression: Biographical variables and job satisfaction

Multiple R	0.59243		
R Square	0.35097		
Adjusted R Square	0.32687		
Standard error	13.09434		
F	5.325214		
Sign F	0.00**		
Variable	Beta	T	Sig T
Age	- 0.227450	- 0.254	0.0408*
Job level	- 0.22052	- 1.112	0.0234*
Level of education	- 0.146630	- 1.325	0.0658
Tenure	- 0.322324	- 3.124	0.0032**
Gender	- 0.276734	- 2.372	0.0113*

* p < 0.05

** p < 0.01

Table 4.7 presents the results of the regression analysis, regressing the biographical variables against job satisfaction. Results indicate that the multiple R-value is 0.59243, as indicated by Multiple R. The R-Squared value of 0.35097 indicates that approximately 35% of the variance in job satisfaction can be accounted for by these five demographic variables.

The F-statistic of 5.325214 is statistically significant at the 0.01 level. Hence, it may be concluded that the five demographic variables of age, gender, level of education, job level and tenure significantly explain 35% of the variance in job satisfaction. *Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.*

With a Beta-value of -0.322324, tenure reaches statistical significance at the 0.01 level, and is the best predictor of job satisfaction. Moreover, gender, age and job level are

statistically significant at the 0.05 level and are hence significant predictors of job satisfaction. The negative Beta weight associated with job level, suggest that teachers occupying more senior positions derive lower job satisfaction. Similarly, the negative Beta weight for age, indicates that older teachers derive less job satisfaction.

Table 4.8 Multiple regression: Biographical variables and organisational commitment

Multiple R	0.62392		
R Square	0.38927		
Adjusted R Square	0.31225		
Standard error	0.41373		
F	5.528		
Sign F	0.00**		
Variable	Beta	T	Sig T
Age	- 0.282	- 2.768	0.004**
Gender	- 0.348	- 3.257	0.000**
Level of education	- 0.091	- 0.972	0.467
Job level	0.121	- 1.204	0.002**
Tenure	- 0.472	- 4.254	0.000**

* p < 0.05

** p < 0.01

Table 4.8 depicts the results regressing the five biographical variables against organisational commitment. Results in table 4.8 indicate that multiple R is 0.62392, with the R-squared being 0.38927. This indicates that approximately 39% of the variance in organisational commitment can be attributed to the independent variables entered into the regression. The F-statistic of 5.528 is significant at the 0.01 level.

Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Moreover, the highest Beta-value was for tenure, followed by gender, age and job level, all of which statistically explain the variance in organisational commitment amongst the sample of 237 teachers. The negative Beta weight for tenure indicates that those teachers who have been working for longer are less committed. Older teachers appear also to be less committed, based on the negative Beta weight.

4.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided an overview of the most salient findings obtained based on empirical analysis of the data. Chapter five presents a discussion of the findings obtained and contextualises the research findings based on previous research on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.



CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of salient research findings emanating from the research. In order to contextualise the research, comparisons are drawn with available literature on job satisfaction and organisational commitment amongst teachers. The chapter provides conclusions that can be drawn from the research and offers suggestions for future research into job satisfaction and organisational commitment amongst teachers.



5.2.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR JOB SATISFACTION AMONGST TEACHERS

The results indicate the mean for the total job satisfaction of the sample is 113.234 with a standard deviation of 14.320. In terms of the JDI, an average level of job satisfaction, is indicated by approximately 144. Hence, it may be concluded that the overall job satisfaction of the sample is relatively low.

Based on the fact that a mean of approximately 36 is indicative of an average level of satisfaction on these scales, it appears as though the majority of the employees in the sample are not satisfied with the nature of their work, supervision, advancement and pay. Respondents were most satisfied with their co-workers.

Results from the current study corroborate that of Richford and Fortune (1984), Duke (1988) and Mercer and Evans (1991), indicating job dissatisfaction in education. Similarly, Van der Westhuizen and Smit (2001) report that there is a tendency worldwide towards job dissatisfaction in education. Their research indicates that educators display dissatisfaction with the introduction of a new education policy, new post structures and unfair appointments. In a study of Black female teachers, (van der Westhuizen & du Toit, 1994), job satisfaction was observed to be a function of pupils' behaviour, job security, relationships with colleagues and pupils, and teaching as a task.

However, other research (Kirsten, 2000; and van Wyk 2000) indicates that as an occupational group, teachers report relatively high levels of satisfaction. Kirsten (2000) and van Wyk's (2000) research indicates that both male and female educators, school principals, Black and White, experience greater job satisfaction than was previously believed.

Hillebrand (1989), Steyn and van Wyk (1999), Theunissen and Calitz (1994) and van Wyk (2000) conducted research on job satisfaction among both White and Black educators, temporary educators and school principals. Their research revealed that both male and female educators, temporary educators and school principals experience greater work satisfaction than was previously believed.

Results from research based on 1 320 teachers (Blood et al., 2002) indicate that nearly half (42%) of teachers are satisfied with their jobs, while a further 34% report being highly satisfied with their jobs.

Research (Broiles, 1982) indicates that 82% of Canadian teachers reported being fairly to highly satisfied. Similar results were obtained by Galloway, Panckhurst, Boswell and Green (1985) in New Zealand, where 80% of teachers indicated they were satisfied with teaching. However, the discrepancies with the current research findings can either be attributed to differences in sampling design, but a more plausible explanation is that the conditions under which schools operate in developed countries differ significantly from those characterised by operating in environments in which teachers have to deal with abject poverty and inadequate resources.

5.2.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AMONGST TEACHERS



The results of the descriptive statistics for the sample of teachers indicate that teachers from disadvantaged schools evidence below average levels of organisational commitment. Given that the teachers' levels of organisational commitment was lower than what constitutes an average level, it can be concluded that respondents display below average belief in the organisation's goals and values, express below average willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and have a below average desire to maintain membership of the organisation. Hence their affective, normative, continuance and total commitment scores are below what constitutes average levels of commitment.

Taylor and Dale (1971) found that 17% of probationary teachers were considering leaving the teaching profession within five years. Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979) report

that 23,5% of teachers surveyed indicated they would very likely not remain within the teaching profession within the next ten years. Results from a study in Australia (Solman & Field, 1989) indicate that 27% of teachers would not remain with their profession, while Travers (1990) found that 66% of the sample surveyed in the United Kingdom had actively considered leaving the teaching profession in the previous five years. Given the low scores obtained for organisational commitment, it is possible that rates of attrition amongst teachers in the schools surveyed in the Western Cape may evidence similar or higher tendencies. This, however, may be countered by the high rate of unemployment and the perception that teaching offers a modicum of security (Steyn & van Wyk, 1999).

5.2.3 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS



5.2.3.1 DIMENSIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Table 4.3 illustrates the relationship between job satisfaction and the dimensions of the JDI. The results indicate that there are significant correlations between pay and job satisfaction, advancement and job satisfaction, co-workers and job satisfaction, and between supervision and job satisfaction. There was no significant relationship between the nature of the job and job satisfaction.

5.2.3.1.1 THE WORK ITSELF

Most research indicates that the work itself has an impact on their level of job satisfaction (Landy, 1989; Larwood, 1984; Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992).

Steyn and van Wyk (1999) report that teachers are often expected to fulfil multiple roles as a result of the wide range of responsibilities. They conclude that overcrowded classrooms, difficult students, a lack of psychological and guidance services, no social workers or support services to assist them with students, contribute to their low levels of satisfaction.

Mwamwenda's (1995) research amongst 123 teachers in the former Transkei region indicates that, in relation to pupils, teachers argue that they preferred pupils that were cooperative, motivated and confident. However, most teachers were concerned about the inadequate supply of teaching and learning materials and equipment, large classes which they consider an impediment to their desire to assist learners, school buildings being in a dilapidated state, a lack of discipline from learners and extensive teaching loads.



5.2.3.1.2 PAY

Previous research (Voydanoff, 1980) has shown that monetary compensation is one of the most significant variables in explaining job satisfaction.

Inadequate pay in relation to other occupations, is one of the most important factors related to job satisfaction among employees. Olivier and Venter's (2003) research amongst teachers revealed that teachers were most dissatisfied with their salaries, especially taking into account the after-hours input their jobs demand from them and

how negatively their salaries compare with those of people in the private sector and other government departments.

Steyn and van Wyk (1999) found in their research amongst urban black schools in South Africa, that the majority of teachers complained of poor salaries. Olivier and Venter (2003) surmise that this provides a feasible explanation why some teachers embark on second jobs, mostly to the detriment of the school and the learners. Others search for alternative propositions and change to completely new jobs for the sake of better incomes.

5.2.3.1.3 SUPERVISION

Research indicates that the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship will have a significant, positive influence on the employee's overall level of job satisfaction (Aamodt, 1999; Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Robbins, 1998).

Research (Knoll, 1987; Pfeiffer & Dunlap, 1982; Rettig, 2000) indicates that supervisory activities foster motivation, inspiration, and trust and thus help to improve teaching performance. Isherwood (1973 in Steyn & van Wyk, 1999) found that principals that demonstrated excellent human relations skills heightened teachers loyalty and improved teacher satisfaction, whilst the lack in participatory management, lack of sensitivity to school and teacher-related problems and lack of support was reliably associated with teacher stress and burnout (Jackson, Schwab & Schuler, 1986).

Farruga (1986) demonstrated that teachers experience job satisfaction as a result of teaching a group of pupils or standard they feel comfortable with, appreciation expressed by parents, authority and pupils; passing on knowledge and values to others; teaching their favourite subjects, working with colleagues and exercising autonomy.

Participation in decision-making and exercising autonomy have been reported to contribute to job satisfaction among Australian teachers (Rice & Schneider, 1994), while in Japan, Ninomiya and Okato (1990 cited in Mwamwenda, 1995) indicate that job satisfaction among teachers was associated with freedom to do their work as they saw fit, a sufficient supply of learning material and equipment; a good salary; a reasonable class size as well as the support and cooperation of colleagues.

Wisniewski and Gargioli (1997) demonstrated that teachers' job satisfaction in Poland was associated with freedom to do what they wanted; encouragement received from those in authority; participation in decision and policy making; adequate supply of teaching and learning resources; good salary; cooperation from pupils, parents and teachers; and participation in school management.

Morris (2004) postulates that teacher job satisfaction is affected by the work environment and strong principal leadership. Nelson (1980) maintains that the quality of teacher-administrator relationship generates higher teacher job satisfaction and greater teacher participation in decision making contributes to job satisfaction (Mohrman et al., 1978). Conversely, lack of participation in decision making is advocated to be the greatest sources of teacher dissatisfaction (Holdaway, 1978).

Abbey and Esposito (1985) maintain that teachers who perceive greater social support from their principals report less stress than those who do not receive any social support. Setting up shared decision-making processes in schools, such as governance councils, allows teachers to participate in school processes rather than feel subordinate to their principals and coerced into participating in school and teacher responsibilities (Nagel & Brown, 2003).

Van der Westhuizen and Smit's (2001) qualitative research among 16 school circuit managers revealed that they rated relationships with supervisors as being amongst the most crucial to increase job satisfaction. Rosenholtz (1989) maintains that teachers who experience high levels of principal support are more likely to be committed to their school and be more satisfied with their jobs than those receiving less support.

5.2.3.1.4 PROMOTION



An employee's opportunities for promotion are also likely to exert an influence on job satisfaction (Landy, 1989; Larwood, 1984; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Vecchio, 1988). Robbins (1998) maintains that promotions provide opportunities for personal growth, increased responsibility, and increased social status (Robbins, 1998).

Drafke and Kossen (2002) postulate that many people experience satisfaction when they believe that their future prospects are good. This may translate into opportunities for advancement and growth in their current workplace, or enhance the chance of finding alternative employment. They maintain that if people feel they have limited opportunities for career advancement, their job satisfaction may decrease.

According to McCormick and Ilgen (1985), employees' satisfaction with promotional opportunities will depend on a number of factors, including the probability that employees will be promoted, as well as the basis and the fairness of such promotions.

Visser (1990) indicates that such an individual's standards for promotion is contingent on personal and career aspirations. Moreover, not all employees wish to be promoted. The reason therefore is related to the fact that promotion entails greater responsibility and tasks of a more complex nature, for which the individuals may consider themselves unprepared. If employees perceive the promotion policy as unfair, but do not desire to be promoted, they may still be satisfied.

Travers and Cooper (1996) report on studies that were done by Moracco et al. (1983) and Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979) in which it was reported that there is a high level of dissatisfaction with teaching as a career. Some of the factors identified by teachers that caused this dissatisfaction were salary, career structure, promotion opportunities and occupational status.

Travers and Cooper (1996) cite research by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979) indicating that job satisfaction was significantly negatively correlated with the following job stressors: poor career structure, individual misbehaving pupils, inadequate salary, inadequate disciplinary policies of a school and too much work to do.

Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004, p. 357) postulate that "teacher dissatisfaction appears to be a main factor in teachers leaving the profession in many countries." They

also believe that teacher satisfaction is directly related to how they feel about their teaching role, that is, their levels of motivation. Zemblyas and Papenastasiou (2004, p. 360) found that some of the sources that would contribute to teacher satisfaction are “more administrative support and leadership, good student behaviour, a positive school atmosphere and teacher autonomy.”

5.2.3.1.5 THE WORK GROUP

There is empirical evidence that co-worker relations are an antecedent of job satisfaction (Morrison, 2004). Research (Mowday & Sutton, 1993) suggests that job satisfaction is related to employees’ opportunities for interaction with others on the job. An individual’s level of job satisfaction might be a function of personal characteristics and the characteristics of the group to which he or she belongs. The social context of work is also likely to have a significant impact on a worker’s attitude and behaviour (Marks, 1994). Relationships with both co-workers and supervisors are important. Some studies have shown that the better the relationship, the greater the level of job satisfaction (Wharton & Baron, 1991).

Markiewicz et al. (2000) found that the quality of close friendships was associated with both career success and job satisfaction of employees. Riordan and Griffeth (1995) examined the impact of friendship on workplace outcomes; their results indicate that friendship opportunities were associated with increases in job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment, and with a significant decrease in intention to turnover.

Hillebrand (1989) found that the greatest need of educators centred around interpersonal needs. He maintains that healthy relationships with colleagues and school principals increase educational concerns and goal attainment. These findings strengthen the argument that organisations should engage in the integration of employees so as to create group cohesion among employees and departments within the organisation (Lambert et al., 2001). Moreover, healthy relationships with colleagues were rated as important factors in job satisfaction based on Van der Westhuizen and Smit's (2001) research.

5.2.3.2 BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS AND JOB SATISFACTION

Table 4.4 indicates the relationship between the respondents' biographical characteristics and job satisfaction. The results indicate that the strongest relationship exists between gender and job satisfaction. There was also a significant correlation between the age of respondents and job satisfaction.

There was also a significant between tenure and job satisfaction, and job level and job satisfaction. Furthermore, there was a significant relationship between education and job satisfaction.

The results of the regression analysis, regressing the biographical variables against job satisfaction indicate that approximately 35% of the variance in job satisfaction can be accounted for by these five demographic variables.

Tenure was found to be the best predictor of job satisfaction. Gender, age and job level were also found to be significant predictors of job satisfaction. The negative Beta weights associated with job level suggest that teachers occupying more senior positions derive lower job satisfaction. Similarly, the negative Beta weight for age, indicates that older teachers derive less job satisfaction.

5.2.3.2.1 GENDER AND JOB SATISFACTION

The results of the current research indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between gender and job satisfaction amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape.

Bishay (1996) conducted research on teacher motivation and satisfaction amongst a sample of 120 teachers. Results from the research indicate female teachers were significantly less satisfied with their circumstances and, in particular, their income relative to male teachers.

Perie and Baker (1997) in a study conducted on job satisfaction among 36 000 elementary and secondary public school teachers, reported that female teachers reported higher levels of job satisfaction than male teachers and that teachers' job satisfaction showed weak correlations with salary and benefits.

Blood et al.'s (2002) research amongst a sample of 1320 teachers in public schools indicated that there was no relationship between gender and job satisfaction. Ma and Macmillan (1999) conducted research on the influences of workplace conditions on

teachers' job satisfaction using a sample of 2 202 teachers. They found that female teachers appear to be more satisfied with their professional role than are their male colleagues.

Ben-Peretz (1996) maintains that this implies that there is a difference in the focus of male and female teachers throughout their teaching careers, and this difference may lie, according to Huberman (1993) in the underlying reasons for selecting teaching as a career. Huberman (1993), found that women, more than men, would select teaching again if given the opportunity. Conversely, men saw teaching as an alternative rather than as the main focus of their career aspirations.

5.2.3.2.2 AGE AND JOB SATISFACTION



The results of the current research indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between age and job satisfaction amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape.

Based on a review of literature on age, Rhodes (1983) concluded that overall job satisfaction is related to age. Older workers appear to evidence greater satisfaction with their employment than younger workers; however, this relationship is not clear. While many suggest a linear relationship (Mottaz, 1987; Weaver, 1980), other studies (Kacmar et al., 1999) report a U shaped relationship. Clark (1996) provided explanations for the U-shaped relationship between job satisfaction and age. He suggested that younger workers may feel satisfied because they have little experience about the labour market against which to judge their own work. Clark (1996) purports that older workers may

have reduced aspirations as they realise that they face limited alternative choices as they get older.

Loscocco (1990) similarly suggests that job satisfaction increases until age 40, then levels off, and then finally increases again when employees reach their late fifties.

Bishay (1996) investigated teacher motivation and satisfaction amongst a sample of 120 teachers. Results from this study indicate that job satisfaction seems to increase with age and years of service. Blood et al.'s (2002 research amongst a sample of 1320 teachers in public schools indicated that older teachers were more likely to report higher levels of job satisfaction than younger teachers.

Blood et al. (2002) maintain that it is plausible that older workers are more comfortable and tolerant of authority and may learn to lower expectations for their jobs. Spector (1997) proffers the view that older workers may have jobs that use their skills better, work under better job conditions, benefit from advancements and promotions, and appreciate fringe benefits more than younger, less experienced employees.

However, the results of this study do not corroborate those of Reudavey (2001) in which it was determined that age and job satisfaction are not related based on a sample of employees in the aviation industry.

5.2.3.2.3 TENURE AND JOB SATISFACTION

The results of the current research indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between tenure and job satisfaction amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape.

Bishay (1996) indicates that in many professions, increased length of service may lead to boredom and dissatisfaction with an occupation. However, the results from the survey of 120 teachers conducted by Bishay (1996) indicate that if teachers are given enough freedom to vary their work and alter the level of challenge, job satisfaction will concomitantly increase. Knoop (1986) maintains that new courses, new curricula, adequate participation in decision making, experimentation with teaching methods, and learning experiences are plausible areas for teachers to explore for continuous improvement.

Based on sample of 1320 public school teachers Blood et al. (2002) demonstrated that there is a statistically significant relationship between tenure and job satisfaction. Their research indicated that the longer teachers remained in their jobs, the more likely they were to report higher levels of job satisfaction.

Reyes (2001) conducted research on 133 teachers to establish the relationship between individual work orientations and teacher outcomes. The results emanating from the research indicate that there was a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction based on tenure. Reyes (2001) maintains that this relationship is strong because dissatisfied teachers may leave the profession before spending several years on the job.

5.2.3.2.4 EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND JOB SATISFACTION

The results of the current research indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between education and job satisfaction amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape.

The results of this study correspond with that carried out by Quinn and Manilovitch (1975) as well as Glenn and Weaver (1982) which found that there is a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and education.

Studies investigating the nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and educational level have produced mixed results (Camp, 1994; Loscocco, 1990; Ting, 1997; Vorster, 1992). According to Ting (1997) and Rogers (1991), it is possible that no significant relationship exists between satisfaction and educational level, hence, the inability of education to predict satisfaction. Secondly, the fact that education was found to predict an insignificant amount of the variance in satisfaction may be due to the fact that an individual's qualifications are not directly associated with satisfaction but, as argued by Vorster (1992), influences this variable indirectly.

However, Campbell et al., (1976) and Gruneberg (1980) found an inverse relationship between education and job satisfaction. Hall (1994) and Clark and Oswald (1996) found a negative relationship between educational levels and job satisfaction. Groot and Maassen van den Brink (2000) showed no significant effect of education on job satisfaction. Similarly, Blood et al.'s (2002) research amongst a sample of 1320 teachers in public schools indicated that there was no significant relationship between education and job satisfaction.

5.2.3.2.5 JOB LEVEL AND JOB SATISFACTION

The results of the current research indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between job level and job satisfaction amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape.

The present study further supported the findings of Miles et al. (1996) that job level explains a significant amount of the variance in job satisfaction. The results, however, refute findings by researchers such as Robie et al. (1998) and Oshagbemi (1997) who maintain that job satisfaction increases progressively with job level. However, Lambert et al. (2001) purport that, even at higher job levels, younger employees are more inclined to be dissatisfied with their jobs since they are more likely to hold higher expectations that may remain unfulfilled, as jobs prove insufficiently challenging or meaningful.



5.2.3.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Table 4.5 indicates the relationship between job satisfaction and the dimensions of organisational commitment. The results indicate that there is a moderate relationship between affective commitment and job satisfaction amongst the sample of teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape. There was also a significant relationship between normative commitment and job satisfaction. Moreover, there was a significant relationship between continuance commitment and job satisfaction. There

was also a statically significant relationship between total organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

Although Kalleberg and Mastekaasa (2001) found that previous research on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has not shown any consistent and easily reconcilable findings, the majority of research investigating this relationship indicates that there is a significant relationship between satisfaction and commitment (Aranya, Lachman & Amernic, 1982; Boshoff & Mels, 1995; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Johnston, Parasuraman, Futrell and Black, 1990; Knoop, 1995; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992; Morrison, 1997; Norris & Niebuhr, 1984; Ting, 1997).

In line with the current findings, Buitendach and de Witte (2005) found evidence of the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction based on their research amongst 178 maintenance workers in a parastatal in South Africa.

5.2.3.4 BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Table 4.6 indicates the relationship between the respondents' biographical characteristics and organisational commitment. The results indicate that the strongest relationship exists between gender and organisational commitment. There was also a significant correlation between the age of respondents and organisational commitment.

There was also a significant relationship between tenure and organisational commitment, and job level and organisational commitment. However, there was no

significant relationship between the educational level of teachers and their organisational commitment.

Table 4.8 depicts the regression of the biographical variables against organisational commitment. Results indicate that approximately 39% of the variance in organisational commitment can be attributed to the independent variables entered into the regression.

Moreover, the highest Beta-value was for tenure, followed by gender, age and job level, all of which statistically explain the variance in organisational commitment amongst the sample of 237 teachers. The negative Beta weights for tenure indicate that those teachers who have been working for longer are less committed. Older teachers appear also to be less committed, based on the negative Beta weight.



5.2.3.4.1 GENDER AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The results of the current research indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between gender and organisational commitment amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape.

Research (Cramer, 1993; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Mowday et al., 1982) indicates that women as a group are more committed than men in their employing organisation.

Loscocco (1990) conducted research amongst 3 559 blue-collar workers in the manufacturing industry and reports that female employees are more committed than

male employees. Mowday et al. (1982) ascribe this to women having more barriers to overcome to attain their positions within an organisation and will more likely have to overcome similar barriers should they leave the organisation.

A number of studies have failed to find support for the relationship between commitment and gender (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Caruana & Calleya, 1998; Kinnear, 1999, Kinnear & Sutherland, 2000; Ngo & Tsan, 1998; Wahn, 1998). Meyer and Allen (1997) contend that the relationship between organisational commitment and gender is dependent on the work characteristics and experiences of the employees in question.

Reyes (2001) conducted research on 133 teachers to establish the relationship between individual work orientations and teacher outcomes. The results emanating from the research indicate that there was a statistically significant relationship between gender and organisational commitment, with female teachers in general being happier in their jobs. They attribute this, however, to the greater number of female teachers who participated in their research.

5.2.3.4.2 AGE AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The results of the current research indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between age and organisational commitment amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape.

The results of this study indicate higher levels of organisational commitment for the older respondents and lower levels of commitment for the younger respondents. This is consistent with international research findings (Cramer, 1993; Dunham, Grube & Castaneda, 1994; Lok & Crawford, 1999; Loscocco, 1990; Luthans, 1992; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1982; Sekaran; 2000) where organisational commitment increases significantly with age.

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

5.2.3.4.3 EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The results of the current research indicate there is no statistically significant relationship between education and organisational commitment amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape.

Research (Luthans et al., 1987; McClurg, 1999; Mowday et al., 1982; Voster, 1992) however, reveals that the more highly educated employees are, the lower their level of organisational commitment. They espouse the view that these differences are

attributable to the fact that highly educated employees have higher levels of expectations that are more difficult for an organisation to fulfil. These employees may also be more committed to their professions and are often more marketable in terms of having a large number of alternative work opportunities available (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982).

Higher levels of education are purported to provide greater latitude for employees to seek alternative employment which may reduce their levels of commitment. McClurg's (1999) research into organisational commitment amongst 200 temporary workers from 24 different agencies found that highly educated employees had lower levels of organisational commitment.



5.2.3.4.4 TENURE AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The results of the current research indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between tenure and organisational commitment amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape.

Robson (2000) compared the levels of organisational commitment amongst contract and permanent staff in an information technology arena and found a weak level of commitment for both contractors and permanent staff.

Reyes (2001) conducted research on 133 teachers to establish the relationship between individual work orientations and teacher outcomes. The results emanating from the

research indicate that there was a statistically significant, albeit inverse relationship, between tenure and organisational commitment. Reyes (2001) reports that the longer teachers have been working in a school setting, the less committed they become.

5.2.3.4.5 JOB LEVEL AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The results of the current research indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between age and organisational commitment amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape.

Research findings are not equivocal with regard to the impact that an employee's position within an organisation has on the level of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Circumstances within the organisation may play a large role in the level of commitment of supervisors within the organisation. Mowday et al.'s (1982) research provides evidence that occupational level is not related to organisational commitment. However, researchers such as Luthans et al. (1987) maintain that individuals employed in higher positions within an organisation are more committed towards the organisation.

Aryee and Heng (1990) and Luthans et al. (1987) concur with this view and proffer the view that the association between job level and commitment is due to higher level employees being more likely receiving larger economic rewards and being more likely to perceive the system of authority as legitimate and therefore support it. Mowday et al. (1982, p. 33) maintain that "although different organisations manifest different overall

levels of employee commitment, this commitment is equally strong up and down the organisational hierarchy.”

5.3 CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this research was to primarily determine the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape. The results emanating from the research indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment among the sample of teachers selected to participate in the research.

Moreover, there was a statistically significant relationship between the biographical characteristics, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, respectively, with the exception of the level of education of respondents. These biographical variables, significantly explained the variance in both job satisfaction and organisational commitment. However, the only variable not significantly predictive of both organisational commitment and job satisfaction was found to be educational levels of teachers.

Researchers have devoted considerable time and attention to the relationship between satisfaction and commitment. This is because these attitudes have concomitant individual and organisational outcomes. Both job satisfaction and organisational commitment have been shown to be positively related to performance (Benkhoff, 1997; Klein & Ritti, 1984), and negatively related to turnover (Clugston, 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) and turnover intent (Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid & Sirola, 1998).

Many researchers have suggested that job satisfaction is a predictor of organisational commitment (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulin, 1974; Price, 1977; Rose 1991).

The vast majority of research indicates a positive relationship between satisfaction and commitment (Aranya et al., 1982; Boshoff & Mels, 1995; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Johnston, et al., 1990; Knoop, 1995; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992; Morrison, 1997; Norris & Niebuhr, 1984; Ting, 1997).

While research generally supports a positive association between commitment and satisfaction, the causal ordering between these two variables remains both controversial and contradictory (Martin & Bennett, 1996). According to Mowday et al. (1982, p. 28), “although day-to-day events in the workplace may affect an employee’s level of job satisfaction, such transitory events should not cause an employee to reevaluate seriously his or her attachment to the overall organisation.”

However, Kalleberg and Mastekaasa (2001) found that previous research on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has not shown any consistent and easily reconcilable findings. Accordingly, Lincoln and Kalleberg (1990); Porter et al. (1974); Tett & Meyer (1993) maintain that a satisfaction-to-commitment model assumes that satisfaction is a cause of commitment. A second commitment-to-satisfaction model holds that commitment contributes to an overall positive attitude toward the job (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992).

Vandenberg and Lance (1992) argue that commitment and satisfaction are not causally related to each other, but are correlated because they are both determined by similar causal variables, such as organisational or task characteristics. Porter et al. (1974) maintain that commitment requires employees to think more universally and it takes longer to develop and is not sensitive to short-term variations in, for example, work conditions. Job satisfaction on the other hand, represents the employee's more current reactions to the specifics of the work situation and employment conditions. Porter et al. (1974) are of the opinion that commitment takes longer and is a more stable, less transitory work attitude than job satisfaction.

The findings of Curry, Wakefield, Price and Mueller (1986) however, refute the previously stated linkages between commitment and satisfaction. They did not find evidence for a relationship between commitment and satisfaction over time. However, their findings have been attributed to differences in commitment and satisfaction measures and to differences in focus between studies.

The results from the current research indicate that there is a strong, positive correlation between organisational commitment and job satisfaction amongst teachers from previously disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape. The level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment are, however, a cause for concern. Given the close link between organisational commitment and job satisfaction, it is possible that many teachers are possibly staying in the profession due to limited alternatives. As such their affective, normative and continuance commitment are likely to be low and concomitantly, their job satisfaction is likely to be low. Indeed, this was found to be the case in the current research. Chisholm and Vally (1996, p. 13) "purport that the morale

of teachers is influenced by the socio-economic environment in which they work."

According to Steyn (1988), physical conditions in schools have a negative impact on teachers' job satisfaction.

Ostroff (1992) maintains that affective commitment to a school and job satisfaction of teachers and staff may not always lead to a well functioning school, but it is unlikely that a school will function well when these are lacking.

In conjunction with this, Hoy and Miskel (1991, p. 392) mention " in educational settings, job satisfaction is a present-and past- orientated effective state of like or dislike that results when an educator evaluates her or his work role." Job satisfaction will show whether individuals are attached to an organisation; will only comply with the directives; or will quit the organisation (Hirschman, 1970; Randall, Fedor & Longenecker, 1990).



In many ways, teachers do not differ from employees in other organisations. They desire decent salaries and benefits, suitable working conditions, recognition and promotion opportunities (Steyn & van Wyk, 1999). The increasing media attention focused on education in South Africa as a result of poor school results, the poor conditions in many schools and the inferior quality of education in general raises concern regarding the attitudes of teachers towards their jobs. As a result, they may not be as committed, derive lower satisfaction from their jobs, display higher absenteeism rates and their performance may be impeded.

Dissatisfaction with pay and advancement opportunities, in particular, illuminate the areas that can potentially be accorded attention by the National Department of Education. Steyn and van Wyk (1999) argue that, while there is reason to question the salary system of teachers, other strategies should not be neglected in enhancing teacher satisfaction and commitment. They suggest one critical component is to ensure that the working environment in schools enhances job satisfaction and thereby increases commitment.

Mwamwenda (1995, p. 86) maintains that “the teaching profession is in serious jeopardy if the majority of its members are dissatisfied with the job of teaching and/or do not regard matters related to work as being of central concern. It would, therefore, be useful to ascertain which factors, especially as they pertain to perceived job characteristics, such as conditions of work, roles and responsibilities and classroom practices, are associated with job satisfaction and work centrality.” However, Taris, van Horn, Schaufeli and Scheurs (2004, p. 120) caution: “in order to prevent such undesirable outcomes, it may be insufficient to improve only one aspect of the work situation if other problematic aspects are not dealt with as well.”

Nxumalo (1993) warns that teachers should resist developing negative attitudes in response to the severe material deprivation in schools and the low financial rewards in teaching as this will only exacerbate the problem. Instead, they should develop a positive attitude towards their working situation which will make their problems easier to handle.

Conley, Bacharach and Bauer (1989 in Steyn and van Wyk, 1999, p. 37) maintain that “if teacher performance in schools is to be improved, it is necessary to pay attention to the kind of work environment that enhances teachers’ sense of professionalism and decreases their job dissatisfaction.”

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this research indicate that school authorities need to develop strategies to deal with the needs of those teachers who experience less job satisfaction and commitment. Proactive attention to this should demonstrate a preparedness on the side of school administrators to address teacher concerns and thereby reduce absenteeism and attrition rates amongst teachers.



Notwithstanding the limitations of the current research, a number of recommendations for future research are suggested.

Priorities for future research include controlling for extraneous and confounding variables which would simultaneously improve the internal validity of the research. A more rigorous research design could have facilitated this.

Ideally a larger sample based on a stratified random design could be drawn. This is because stratified random sampling is argued to minimise sampling errors and enhance the external validity of research findings (Sekaran, 2003). Consequently, it allows for results to be extrapolated from the sample to the population with greater confidence.

The differences between teacher job satisfaction and organisational commitment in urban, suburban and rural schools should be explored (Steyn & van Wyk, 1999). Haughey and Murphy (1983) found, for example that nearly 50% of rural teachers were somewhat dissatisfied with their working conditions compared to only 3.45% of those professionals in suburban schools.

Culver, Wolfe and Cross (1990) argue that it would be valuable to determine if the processes leading to teacher satisfaction are similar or different during the various stages of teachers' careers. Similarly, this could be applied to their organisational commitment levels. Kremer-Hayon and Goldstein (1990 cited in Mwamwenda, 1995, p. 86) succinctly maintain that "knowledge gained in this topic may guide educational decision-makers in nurturing the professional well-being of teachers and that in turn may lead to improving teaching practices."



Given the far-reaching changes in the South African education milieu, job satisfaction and organisational commitment should be explored further as well as their antecedents and consequences.

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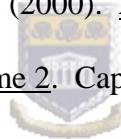
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