

**THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON ORGANISATIONAL
COMMITMENT AND INTENTION TO QUIT AMONG EMPLOYEES AT
SELECTED RETAIL ORGANISATIONS IN THE WESTERN CAPE PROVINCE
OF SOUTH AFRICA**

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**Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master
of Arts in Industrial Psychology at the University of Western Cape**

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DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Talent Zhou

Date: 07 January 2017



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ABSTRACT

The economies of many countries in the world have been characterised by exponential growth in the past few decades. The rapid and continuous growth has brought about numerous changes in the business world which have demanded a high level of management practices as organisations fight for the required resources. Amongst the resources being sought after is human capital, employees have become one of the major resources that an organisation would want to retain. The turnover of employees to other organisations results in decreased production and a spike in the costs, through continuous, recruitment and training.

Effective adaptation to change has become increasingly indispensable in order to survive, attract, maintain and retain vital resources in the highly competitive nature of the business industries. In the process of change and continuous adaptation, a skilled workforce has become the prime attraction to every employer. As a way of retaining the workforce and maintaining the competitive edge, it has become a primary obligation for organisations to build a well desired and conducive environment for the employees to ensure commitment and high levels of productivity. It is apparent that the understanding and research of the views, perspectives and opinions of employees about their organisations will be a value add in the further development of organisations, their environment, their culture and practices.

The present study sought to establish and understand whether turnover intentions are influenced by organisational culture and organisational commitment. The study focused on the retail industry. The rationale for the choice of the retail industry was the fact that the retail is considered to be one of the fastest growing industry (Gauteng Province Quarterly Bulletin, 2012) it is therefore important to understand how organisations that are expanding on a fast paced rate are viewed by their employees. The hypothesised relationships that were proposed for the study focused on the relationship between organisational culture and commitment, the relationship

between commitment and intention to quit (turnover intentions) and the relationship between organisational culture and intention to quit.

157 participants took part in the study. The sample was made up of employees from four selected retail organisations in the Western Cape. The organisational culture was assessed using the Denison culture model, organisational commitment was assessed using the Meyer and Allen commitment scale and the intention to quit was assessed using Roodt's turnover intention questionnaire. Item and dimensional analyses were conducted on the scales to identify poor items and ensure the uni-dimensionality of the subscales before calculating item parcels. The hypotheses were analysed through structural equation model using the Partial Least Squares (PLS-SEM) technique.

In the analysis process, a significant positive relationship was found to exist between organisational culture and commitment and a negative relationship between organisational commitment and turnover. The relationship between organisational culture and commitment was not supported in the study. The limitations of the research study and suggestions for future studies have been highlighted. The results of the study provide useful information in the further development of the environment within organisations in order to be able to retain and increase productivity amongst employees.

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DEDICATION

Dedicated to those who are mentally stimulated to learn, thrive for success, and above all believing in the powerful hand of our sovereign God.



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Table of Contents

DECLARATION.....	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
DEDICATION	vi
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION, RESEARCH INITIATING QUESTION AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVE	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF STUDY	1
1.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY	4
1.3 AIMS OF THE STUDY	4
1.3.1 Research Objectives	5
1.4 OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS.....	5
1.4.1 Chapter 1: Introduction.....	5
1.4.2 Chapter 2: Literature Review	5
1.4.3 Chapter 3: Research Methodology	5
1.4.4 Chapter 4: Reporting of results	5
1.4.5 Chapter 5: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations.....	6
1.5 CONCLUSION.....	6
CHAPTER TWO.....	7
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	7
2.1 INTRODUCTION	7
2.2.1 TURNOVER INTENTION	7
2.2.2 Definitions of turnover	8
2.2.3 Turnover Intention theories and models.....	8
2.2.3.1 March and Simon’s Model.....	9
2.2.3.2 Mobley’s Model.....	9
2.2.4 Factors leading to Turnover Intentions	11
2.3.1 DEFINING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE.....	12
2.3.2 Models of organisational culture.....	15
2.3.2.1 Harrison model.....	15

2.3.2.2	Denison model.....	18
2.3.2.3	Edgar Schein Model.....	24
2.4.	A COMPARISON OF THE DIFFERENT ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE APPROACHES.....	27
2.5	FUNCTIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE.....	28
2.6.1	ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT.....	29
2.6.2	Organisational Commitment defined.....	29
2.6.3	Meyer and Allen's three-component commitment model.....	31
2.7	RESEARCH HYPOTHESES.....	34
2.7.1	The relationship between organisational culture, organisational commitment and turnover intention.....	34
2.7.2	The relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment.....	34
2.7.3	The relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions.....	35
2.7.4	The relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions.....	36
2.8	CONCLUSION.....	37
CHAPTER THREE	38
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	38
3.1	INTRODUCTION.....	38
3.2	RESEARCH APPROACH AND DESIGN.....	38
3.3	RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS.....	39
3.3.1	Population.....	39
3.3.2	Sample size.....	40
3.3.3	Sampling Procedure.....	41
3.4	DATA COLLECTION AND PROCEDURE.....	42
3.5	MEASURING INSTRUMENTS.....	43
3.5.1	Biographical Information Section.....	44
3.5.2	Organisational Culture questionnaire.....	44
3.5.3	Organisational Commitment Scale.....	45
3.5.4	Turnover Intention Questionnaire.....	46
3.6	STATISTICAL ANALYSIS.....	46

3.6.1	Missing Values	47
3.6.2	Item Analysis.....	48
3.6.3	Dimensional Analysis.....	49
3.6.4	Structural equation modelling (SEM): Partial Least Squares (PLS)	50
3.6.5	Evaluation of PLS path model results	51
3.7	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	52
3.7.1	Confidentiality and Anonymity	52
3.7.2	Informed consent	53
3.7.3	Voluntary participation.....	53
3.7.4	Deception	53
3.8	CONCLUSION	54
CHAPTER 4		55
ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS		55
4.1	INTRODUCTION	55
4.2	MISSING VALUES	55
4.3	ITEM ANALYSIS	56
4.3.1	Item analysis of The Denison Organisational Culture Survey.....	56
4.3.1.2	Involvement: Team Orientation.....	57
4.3.1.3	Involvement: Capability development	58
4.3.1.4	Consistency: Core Values.....	59
4.3.1.5	Consistency: Agreement.....	60
4.3.1.6	Consistency: Coordination and Integration	61
4.3.1.7	Adaptability: Creating change	62
4.3.1.8	Adaptability: Customer Focus.....	63
4.3.1.9	Adaptability: Organisational Learning	64
4.3.1.10	Mission: Strategic Direction and Intent	65
4.3.1.11	Mission: Goals and objectives	66
4.3.1.12	Mission: Vision	67
4.3.2	Item analysis of the Meyer and Allen three component organisational commitment scale	68
4.3.2.1	Affective commitment.....	68

4.3.2.2	Continuance commitment	69
4.3.2.3	Normative commitment.....	70
4.3.3	Item analysis of the Turnover Intention Questionnaire	71
4.4	DIMENSIONALITY ANALYSIS	72
4.4.1	Dimensional Analysis of affective and continuance commitment	73
4.4.1.1	The dimensionality analysis of the affective commitment subscale	73
4.4.1.2	The dimensionality analysis of the Continuance commitment.....	74
4.4.2	Dimensional Analysis of the Turnover Questionnaire.....	75
4.4.3	Dimensional Analysis of the Organisational culture survey.....	76
4.4.3.1	Dimensionality analysis output of the Involvement: Empowerment index	76
4.4.3.2	The dimensional analysis output for the Involvement: Team orientation index.....	77
4.4.3.3	Dimensional analysis output of Capability Development.....	78
4.4.3.4	Dimensionality analysis output of Consistency: Core values index	79
4.4.3.5	Dimensional analysis output of Consistency: Agreement.....	80
4.4.3.6	Dimensional analysis output of Consistency: Coordination and integration	81
4.4.3.7	Dimensional analysis output of Adaptability: Creating Change.....	82
4.4.3.8	Dimensional analysis output of Adaptability: Customer focus.....	83
4.4.3.9	Dimensional analysis output of Organisational Learning.....	84
4.4.3.10	Dimensional Analysis output of Mission: Strategic Direction and Intent	85
4.4.3.11	Dimensional Analysis Output of Mission: Goals and Objectives.....	86
4.4.3.12	Dimensional Analysis output of Mission: Vision.....	87
4.5	RESULTS OF THE MEASUREMENT AND STRUCTURAL MODELS	88
4.5.1	Goodness of fit.....	91
4.5.2	Analysis of the VIF values for multicollinearity diagnostics.....	91
4.5.2.1	Multicollinearity diagnostic of Organisational culture and Turnover intentions.....	91
4.5.2.2	Multicollinearity diagnostic of Organisational culture and Commitment	92

4.5.2.3 Multicollinearity diagnostic of Commitment and Turnover.....	93
4.6 HYPOTHESES TESTING.....	94
4.6.1 Hypothesis Testing 1: To determine if organisational culture has an influence on organisational commitment.....	95
4.6.2 Hypothesis testing 2: To determine if organisational commitment has an influence on turnover intention.....	95
4.6.3 Hypothesis testing 3: To determine if organisational culture has an influence on turnover intentions.....	95
4.7 Conclusion.....	95
CHAPTER 5.....	97
DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH.....	97
5.1 INTRODUCTION.....	97
5.2 Analysis of Missing Values.....	98
5.3 Discussion of the Item analysis.....	98
5.4 Discussion of the Exploratory Factor analysis.....	99
5.5 Goodness of fit of the structural models.....	100
5.6 Discussion of results of the measurement and structural models.....	100
5.7 Discussion of hypotheses.....	101
5.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	103
5.9 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH.....	106
5.10 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS.....	108
5.11 CONCLUSION.....	108
REFERENCES.....	109

List of Figures

Figure 2.1 Mobley's Decision Process Model.....	10
Figure 2.2 Harrison Model.....	16
Figure 2.3 Denison Model.....	19
Figure 2.4 Presentation of factors in the Denison model	24
Figure 2.5 Edgar Schein Model	25
Figure 3.1 Proposed PLS Path Model.....	51
Figure 4.1 PLS Path model.....	89
Figure 4.2 Path Coefficient graph	90
Figure 4.3 Multicollinearity graph of Organisational culture and Turnover	92
Figure 4.4 Multicollinearity graph of Organisational culture and Commitment	93
Figure 4.5 Multicollinearity graph of Commitment and Turnover	94



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List of Tables

Table 2.1 Denison model versus other models	28
Table 3.1 Sample Profile	43
Table 3.2 General guidelines for interpreting reliability coefficients	48
Table 4.1 The reliability analysis output for the Involvement: Empowerment index	57
Table 4.2 The reliability analysis output for the Involvement: Team Orientation index	58
Table 4.3 The reliability analysis output for the Involvement: Capability Development index.....	59
Table 4.4 The reliability analysis output for the Consistency: Core Values index	60
Table 4.5 The reliability analysis output for the Consistency: Agreement index	61
Table 4.6 The reliability analysis output for the Consistency: Coordination and Integration index	62
Table 4.7 The reliability analysis output for the Adaptability: Creating Change index	63
Table 4.8 The reliability analysis output for the Adaptability: Customer Focus index	64
Table 4.9 The reliability analysis output for the Adaptability: Organisational Learning index.....	65
Table 4.10 The reliability analysis output for the Mission: Strategic Intent and Direction index	66
Table 4.11 The reliability analysis output for the Mission: Goals and Objectives index	67
Table 4.12 The reliability analysis output for the Mission: Vision index.....	68
Table 4.13 The reliability analysis output for the affective commitment subscale.....	69
Table 4.14 The reliability analysis output for the affective continuance commitment subscale.....	70
Table 4.15 The reliability analysis output for the normative commitment subscale ..	71
Table 4.16 The reliability analysis output for the turnover intention questionnaire ..	72
Table 4.1 Factor matrix for the affective commitment subscale	74
Table 4.18 Factor matrix for the continuance commitment subscale	75
Table 4.19 Factor matrix for the Turnover Intention Questionnaire	76
Table 4.20 Factor matrix for the Involvement: Empowerment index	77
Table 4.21 Factor matrix for the Involvement: Team Orientation index.....	78
Table 4.22 Factor matrix for the Involvement: Capability Development index	79
Table 4.23 Factor matrix for the Consistency: Core Values index	80
Table 4.24 Factor matrix for the Consistency: Agreement index	81
Table 4.25 Factor matrix for the Adaptability: Creating Change index	82

Table 4.26 Factor matrix for the Adaptability: Creating Change index	83
Table 4.27 Factor matrix for the Adaptability: Customer Focus index	84
Table 4.28 Factor matrix for the Adaptability: Organisational Learning index.....	84
Table 4.29 Factor matrix for the Mission: Strategic Intent index.....	85
Table 4.30 Factor matrix for the Mission: Goal and Objectives index.....	86
Table 4.31 Factor matrix for the Mission: Vision index	87



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION, RESEARCH INITIATING QUESTION AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF STUDY

The rapid changes in the business world have brought about innumerable challenges, at the same time crafting abundant opportunities for organisations. The changes that affect organisations in the business world range from changes in the economic trends in the global market to changes in technological advances (Menetje & Martins, 2009). The organisations' success in adapting to the new technological changes is somehow positioning these organisations for a better return on investment, business expansion and better survival. The ability to survive and expand appears to create a lot of opportunities for employees to move from one organisation to another especially from the less economically viable organisations to more stable organisations. Hence in the process of dealing with the innumerable changes that occur in the organisations, employers are faced with challenges relating to spiralling operational costs, loss of skilled employees, leaving the organisations to face problems of skills shortages within their organisations (Gauteng Province Quarterly Bulletin, 2012). This scenario makes turnover intention¹, intention to leave or intention to quit an important consideration for most organisation as they are required to ensure the stability of their human capital. Turnover intention refers to Intention to leave refers to an individual's reduced level of commitment that results in an increased desire to leave the organisation (Kennedy, 2006).

According to Medina (2012, p. 1), "For the past few decades, employee retention has been of interest to researchers and employers in various fields." The retention of skilled employees can be utilised to gain competitive advantage against others in the

¹ The terms intention to quit, turnover intentions and intention to leave are used interchangeably in the thesis to mean the same thing.

industry, hence human capital retention in organisation has become of much importance to employers across different industries. Employees play a crucial role in the transactions that occur between the organisation and their clientele (Goss-Turner, 2010). As such the competences, attitudes, commitment and high level of productivity are critical for the success of the organisations. For employees to perform at a maximum level, the conditions within the organisations must be conducive for the employees to deal with the numerous changes that are introduced from time to time. Medina (2012) proposes that, the issue surrounding the retention of employees has become of great importance to businesses and academic communities as it is one of the ways of staying competitive in the hastily expanding global market. It can then be put into perspective that organisational culture / climate may have an influence on the attitude that employees have towards their job as well as their willingness to stay within the organisation (Madu, 2012).

To date turnover intention has been documented to be negatively related to commitment, job satisfaction and leader member exchange (Saeed, Waseem, Sikander & Rizwan, 2014) and engagement in Organisational citizenship Behaviour (Fangguo, & Shuming, 2005). Some of the antecedents of turnover intentions are lack of job satisfaction (Saeed et al., 2014); poor interpersonal relationships with colleagues (Lee & Ok, 2011); better opportunities elsewhere (Long, Ajagbe & Kowang, 2013) or the changes in one's personal life circumstances especially in relation to the location of immediate family members. Although a significant number of studies have been conducted on turnover intentions little is known about the role of organisational culture in influencing turnover intentions.

Organisational culture has recently become an interesting topic of discussion. It is believed to be a way of gaining and maintaining a competitive advantage within an organisation. One of the main priorities and responsibility of a company is to ensure that people work within the same accord with a mutual understanding amongst all members of the organisation. The mutual understanding can be achieved through the

culture of the organisation. Organisational culture is defined by Arnold (2005, p. 625) as “the distinctive norms, beliefs, principles and ways of behaving that combine to give each organisation its distinct character”. It can be suggested that the culture in an organisation can be utilised to retain staff that is already in the organisation as well as attract potential candidates that can contribute vastly to the organisation. Martins and Martins (2003, p. 380) indicated that, “organisational cultures create high levels of commitment and performance”. In essence it is argued that organisational culture can be a determinant factor for the success or failure of an organisation (Sawner 2000, as cited in Aldhuwaihi 2013). Organisational culture contributes to the levels of productivity within an organisation. Thus, it can be suggested that the attitude of the employees towards their jobs is moulded by the culture that exists within the organisation. However, culture does not appear on its own it depends on a myriad of factors which include among others employee commitment.

The commitment of the employees is vital to the further development and success of the organisation. Cohen (2003) states, that the success of an organisation is determined by the commitment that the employees have to the organisation and to their jobs. Hence there is need to understand whether culture influences the commitment of the employees or their intention to exit the organisation.

Although numerous studies have been documented to explain turnover intention among employees (Robyn, 2013; Roxana, 2013; van Schalkwyk, 2010) paucity exists in literature on the influence of organisational culture on employees’ decisions to stay or quit the organisation. The present study therefore intends to cover this gap by studying the influence of organisational culture on organisational commitment and turnover intentions among employees at selected organisations operating in the retail sector in the Western Cape Province of South Africa. The research initiating question is therefore, “What is the influence of organisational culture on organisational

commitment and intention to quit among employees in selected retail organisations in the Western Cape Province of South Africa?”

1.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

According to Martins and Martins (2003, p. 380) “organisational culture helps to provide stability to an organisation, the community and South Africa as a nation”. Organisational culture is a way of distinguishing one organisation from the other. South Africa has a very diverse workforce which requires proper management. Hence Manetje and Martins (2009, p. 95), suggest that, “organisational culture is a very useful tool for managers in managing a diverse workforce within the South African business environment.” The study will generate valuable information pertaining to how organisational culture can play a part in the behaviour and actions of the employees’ within an organisation. Manetje and Martins (2009, p. 88) further suggest that, “the role of organisational culture is crucial for understanding organisational behaviour.” It will also give the management an idea of the level of commitment that is within the organisation. A favourable climate can be cultivated from the results of the study to help in the retention of the employees. Interventions can be put in place to ensure the existence of a preferred organisational culture that is common for all employees, as well as dealing with any shortcomings that may reduce the levels of commitment from employees.

1.3 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The primary goal of the study is to conduct an analysis of the relationships between organisational culture, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. The secondary goal is to validate a theoretical model explicating the structural relationships between these variables at a selected retail organisation in the Western Cape Province of South Africa. The research further seeks to implore different viewpoints of retail industry employees, so as to get a better understanding of their workplace experiences as well as understanding the perceptions that they have developed about the organisation over time and their turnover intentions.

1.3.1 Research Objectives

The specific objectives of the study are:

- To determine the influence of organisational culture on organisational commitment
- To determine the influence of organisational culture has on turnover intention
- To determine the influence of organisational commitment on turnover intention

1.4 OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

1.4.1 Chapter 1: Introduction

The introduction to the research paper is covered in Chapter one. The chapter is aimed at giving an idea to what the research is about and the process it will take. The chapter has highlighted the argument why the research study is being conducted.

1.4.2 Chapter 2: Literature Review

In this chapter, the concept of organisational culture, organisational culture and intention to leave are introduced. The terms will be discussed and put into perspective in the chapter. Various models will be discussed and applied to the areas of study.

1.4.3 Chapter 3: Research Methodology

The chapter will outline the research methodology used to gather the data for the study. The chapter will include the explanation of the measuring instrument, its psychometric properties, the method and techniques that were used in the data analysis

1.4.4 Chapter 4: Reporting of results

The results obtained from the data collection will be analysed and presented by means of inferential statistics. Graphs and tables will be used to display the data.

1.4.5 Chapter 5: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

This chapter puts into discussion the results of the data analysis. It has the recommendations and conclusions that will be drawn. The chapter will make recommendations for the retail industry and Industrial Psychology field. In conclusion the chapter will make suggestions for possible future research.

1.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter puts into perspective the overview of the study. It discussed the background of the research, problem statement, and significance of study, aims and the chapter outline. The following chapter will discuss a literature review on organisational culture, organisational commitment and intention to leave.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Turnover has become a painful issue of discussion in organisations. As organisations fight for survival in the competitive economic global situation, they are also battling to minimise the turnover ratio and save costs (Saeed, Waseem, Sikander & Rizwaan, 2014). Turnover intentions are believed to have a direct connection with turnover. Tett and Meyer (1993, p. 262) defined turnover intention as: '... the conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation'. There are many antecedents that have been discussed in literature which are thought to cultivate the consideration of turnover intentions within the organisation. In the current study, a closer scope is drawn to organisational culture and organisational commitment as the antecedents of turnover intention.

2.2.1 TURNOVER INTENTION

It is of critical importance to ensure that there is a workforce stability that ensures development of a unified workplace culture that encourage effective work groups and contributes fulfilment of the commitment and performance of the interconnected concepts of organisational culture (Goss-Turner, 2010). Turnover intention has become a serious issue in the development of today's organisation. Depending on the environment within the organisation turnover can be voluntary or involuntary. In the world today of tough competition organisations are trying to minimise their turnover ratio and save their costs of hiring recruiting and selecting employees (Saeed, Waseem, Sikander & Rizwan, 2014). Sun, Aryee, and Law (2007) suggest that individuals who are treated well within an organisation are more likely to become affectively committed to the organisation. They will display more organisational citizenship behaviours and lower intentions to leave the organisation. Age, education,

years of employment, case load complexity, organisational culture and job satisfaction has been positively correlated to intention to leave an organisation (Jones & Cho, 2006). Therefore, it is important to understand the term turnover intentions as well as explore the factors that relate to turn over intentions.

2.2.2 Definitions of turnover

A number of turnover intentions definitions have been put forward. In this section we will explore the definitions of turnover and the factors that may foster turnover intentions.

- Tett and Meyer (1993) define turnover intentions as a conscious and deliberate willingness to leave an organisation.
- Intention to leave refers to an individual's reduced level of commitment that results in an increased desire to leave the organisation (Kennedy, 2006).
- Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu and Hu (2009, p.157) define turnover intentions as "an individual's subjective probability that he/she is permanently leaving the employer in the near future and captured the last in a series of withdrawal cognitions that also included thoughts about quitting and the search for alternative employment"

Turnover intentions cannot be attributed to one causing factor. It is due to a number of factors or effects that may cause dissatisfaction.

2.2.3 Turnover Intention theories and models

It is of importance to gain a comprehensive understanding of the complexity of turnover intention. The baseline of initiating the process of understanding turnover intention can be drawn from the turnover intention models that have proposed in literature. The pioneers in the formulation of the theories as suggested by Harpet (2012), include March and Simon (1958) and Mobley (1977).

2.2.3.1 March and Simon's Model

March and Simon created a model that has been considered to be influential in most of the studies around turnover (Perez, 2008). Their model is mainly based on the theory coined by Bernhard (1938), which looks into organisational equilibrium (Perez, 2008). Hapert (2012) argues that for an organisation to survive, it needs to sustain the equilibrium and efficiency. The model argues that the sustainability of the organisation is highly reliant on the contribution from its members. Hence, in order for employees to maintain the continuous contribution they have to be satisfied with the equitable incentives offered by the organisation (Hapert, 2012). Thus if the contributions of the employees are way more than the organisation's incentives, the equilibrium is not maintained. The basis of the model stems from the two variables, perceived desirability of movement and perceived ease of movement, which are directly affected by the interaction between incentives and contributions (Hapert, 2012). The perceived desirability of movement, refers to the "understanding that the more members are satisfied with their jobs, the less they will have the desire to leave" (Hapert, 2012, p. 12). The perceived ease of movement, refers to "the number of alternatives that member have perceived outside the organisation" (Hapert, 2012, p. 12). The model has, however, been criticised for its limitation in pointing out factors that influence the turnover process. The model is argued to present a static rather than a procedural view of turnover (Perez, 2008).

2.2.3.2 Mobley's Model

Mobley (1977) put together a turnover decision model which is described by a step by step process. The approach, is described "as a sequence of cognitive actions which start with the evaluation of one's existing job" (Hapert, 2012, p. 13). The decision making process is initiated by an evaluation of the current situation in the job by the member in the organisation. In the evaluation process, if a negative evaluation is made it has potential to lead to job dissatisfaction and encourage turnover intentions. The model by Mobley is argued to lack empirical evidence for the conceptual

distinction among the explanatory constructs that were advanced (Perez, 2008, p. 25).
The decision process of the model is depicted below:

Figure 2.1

Mobley's Decision Process Model



Mobley's Decision Process Model. Retrieved from:

<http://whatsyourjobattitude.weebly.com/mobleys-model.html>

From the discussion of the two models it can already be mustered that turnover intention is a complex factor that cannot be explained in simple terms. Hence a conclusion cannot be drawn on the existence of one universal framework that can be used to explain turnover and turnover intentions.

2.2.4 Factors leading to Turnover Intentions

Dissatisfaction in any way, directly or indirectly can cultivate ideas of wanting to exist an organisation with in employees. Hassan (2014), argues that unmet expectations may can lead to turnover intentions which might ultimately force the employee to quit. The factors that may influence turnover intentions will be discussed below:

Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment is the bond that an individual has with his/ her organisation. It is postulated that the commitment is usually conceptualised as an affective connection to the organisation for it to be considered significant by the individual for them to be willing to exert their efforts towards the organisation (Yucel, 2012). Hassan (2014), states that commitment is believed to be an important variable when discussing issues around intention to leave, since it is has become a popular belief that the more committed an employee is, the more likely they will be willing to stay loyal to the organisation. This is to say that employees who are highly connected to their job and the organisation would feel a sense of owing to the organisation, thereby reducing their intentions to leave. In previous studies commitment has been found to be negatively correlated to turnover intentions (Addae & Parboteeah, 2008), meaning that as commitment increases turnover intentions decreases, vice versa.

Organisational culture

In a study conducted by Dwivedi, Kaushik and Luxmi (2013), it is argues that organisational culture and its dimensions have a significant impact on turnover intentions. How employees view the organisation's culture may influence their intention on staying with the company or exiting the company. (Kim & Lee, 2009), proposed that organisational culture has a negative relationship with turnover intentions. Desselle (2005) argues that commitment is a powerful mediator between culture and turnover intentions.

2.3 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

2.3.1 Defining Organisational Culture

The current situation in organisations today is defined by continuous change in economic trends, advances in technology and the transformation of society from its norm. The continuous change in the world of business has been seen to pose challenges which affect the organisational structures as well as introducing opportunities that can enhance the running of the business. Manetje and Martins (2009), postulate that the changes in the world of business affect other aspects of the organisational operations such as organisational culture and organisational commitment. Organisations may need to develop new strategies to maintain stability within companies through a resilient organisational culture. Furthermore, “global research indicates that organisational cultures create high levels of commitment and performance” (Martins & Martins 2003, p. 380). Therefore, it is of importance to understand the role that is played by organisational culture and how it affects the people within the organisation. Referring to Wagner, 1995 cited in Manetje and Martins (2009, p. 88), organisational culture has been perceived to have a strong influence on employees’ behaviour and attitudes. In this chapter, the main focus is to put in to perspective the theoretical views of how organisational culture has an influence on organisational commitment and intention to leave.

The concept of culture has been suggested by academics and practitioners studying organisational culture, to be the climate and practices that organisations develop around the handling of their people (Schein, 2004, cited in O’Donnell & Boyle 2008, p. viii). The climate within an organisation has an impact on the productivity and job satisfaction of the employees. Leaders are believed to “influence the way cultures evolve, positioning their organisations for a sustained competitive advantage which cannot be easily copied by competitors” (Davidson, 2003, p. 30). It is the responsibility of the leadership within an organisation to establish a strong organisational culture

that is well suited for the climate within the organisation. A strong dynamic organisational culture can be an approach of effectively maintaining stability and accomplishing work. Schein (2004) suggests that culture and leadership are conceptually intertwined. Therefore, “it is the imperative of every organisation to understand its own dynamic culture so that managers can capitalise on the insights generated by the cultural perspective to wield greater control over their organisations” (Naicker 2008, p. 6).

There is a need to understand organisational culture as a construct. O’Donnell and Boyle (2008,p. viii) suggest that “organisational culture is a widely used term but one that seems to give rise to a degree of ambiguity in terms of assessing its effectiveness on change variables in an organisation.” Culture is believed to provide organisations with a sense of identity as well as determining the way things are done in the organisation through the use of the organisation’s legends, rituals, beliefs, meanings, values, norms and language (Mahembe & Engelbrecht, 2014; O’ Donnell & Boyle, 2008). The organisational culture is then passed on by the long serving members who are in the organisation and new employees learn and adopt the culture as their own. It is, however, important for the new employees to understand the culture in order for them to be able to take it as their own. Hence there is a need to under the various definitions of organisational culture that have been put forward in literature:

- Organisational culture refers to, “a system of shared meaning held by members, distinguishing the organisation from other organisations” (Martins & Martins 2003, p. 308).
- Arnold (2005, p. 625) indicates that organisational culture alludes to “the distinctive norms, beliefs, principles and ways of behaving that combine to give each organisation its distinct character.
- Werner (2007, p. 25) states that “organisational leaders need to determine what type of culture will reflect the organisational vision and values identify the

appropriate behaviour to shape such a culture and then develop strategies to instil these behaviours across the entire organisation”.

- Organisational culture is therefore to an organisation what personality is to an individual (Johnson, 1990).
- Schein (1985, p. 9) describes organisational culture as “a pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.
- Martins (2003, p. 380) define organisational culture as “a system of shared meaning held by members, distinguishing the organisation from other organisations”.
- Denison (1990, p. 2) defined organisational culture as "...the underlying values, beliefs and principles that serve as a foundation for an organisation's management system as well as the set of management practices and behaviours that both exemplify and reinforce those basic principles.
- Organisational culture in an organisation is used to shape the behaviour of the members in the organisation. “The pattern of values, norms, beliefs, attitudes, principles and assumptions that gives the organisation its unique character may be unwritten or non-verbalised behaviour that describes the way in which things get done” (Manetje & Martins 2009, p. 89).

In all the definitions above, it is apparent that a culture has to be unique to each organisation. Organisational culture is the personality of each organisation. Culture within an organisation is considered to be a very powerful force which is consciously and deliberately cultivated and passed on to the incoming employees (Naicker, 2008). It is that which binds everyone in the organisation together. Naicker (2008, p. 1) suggests that, “for employees, organisational culture is either the glue that bonds people to an organisation or what drives them away.”

The above definitions highlight that there is no clear agreement on a definition of organisational culture. However, there are common facets or traits that can be drawn out from the definitions of organisational culture (Liu, Kiley & Ballard, 2009). The facets include how culture is learnt by new members (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Wilson, 2001). Another facet that appears is based on visible aspects, which encompass the physical and social environment and values and basic assumptions that form the less visible aspects (Wilson, 2001). Thus there are commonalities in the way in which organisational culture is viewed by different authors in literature.

2.3.2 Models of organisational culture

Models of organisational culture are based on theoretical perspectives that have been continuously developed over the years. Theories of organisational culture are argued to have emerged from a combination of organisational psychology, social psychology and social anthropology (Scott, Mannion, Davies & Marshall, 2003, p. 924). The subject of organisational culture became popular from the 1980s and different perspectives, models and methods were drawn around the topic. In various studies that have been conducted researchers have drawn their arguments from different theories, models and methods to bring out the continuous development of the ideas around organisational culture. Several popular perspectives on organisational culture are reviewed in the following section.

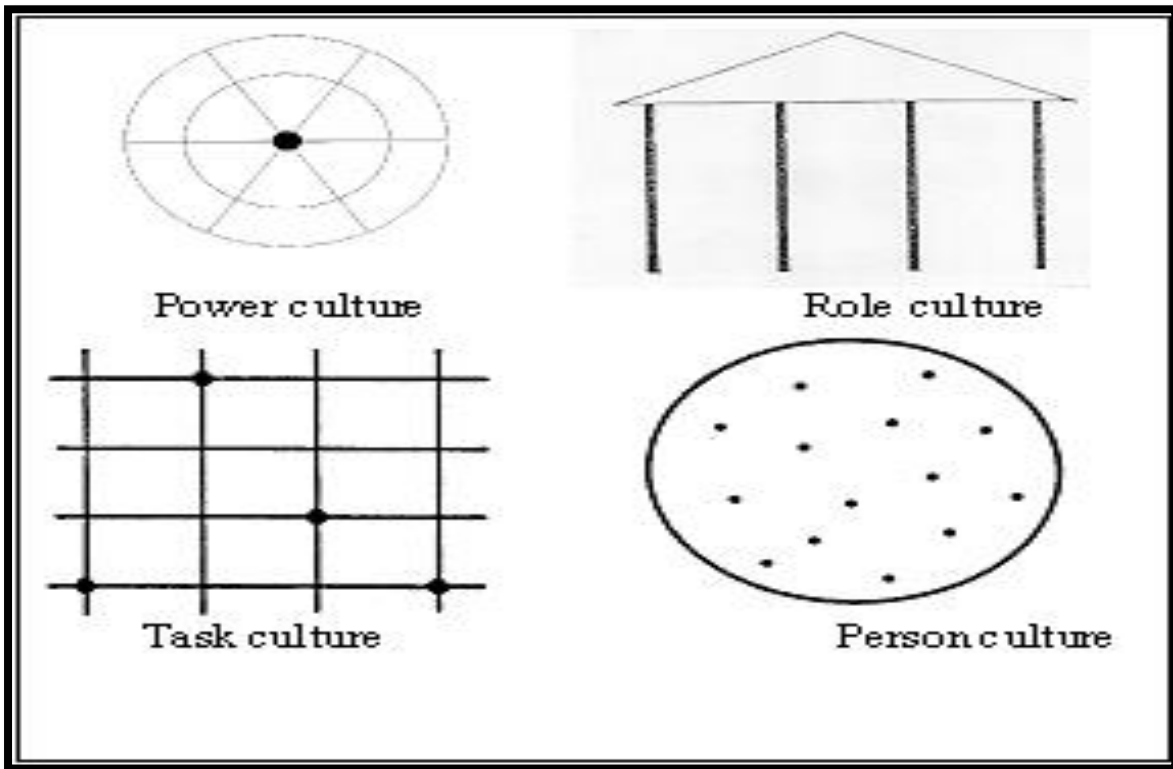
2.3.2.1 Harrison model

Harrison (1993, p. 11) defined organisational culture as, “the distinctive constellation of beliefs, values, work styles, and relationships that distinguish one organisation from another.” This is to say that the qualities of the organisation are encompassed within the culture. Harrison’s (1993) model has four dimensions or types of culture that it focuses on which include, power, role, achievement and support. The different

types of the cultures are each thought to represent different types of management styles. Naicker (2008, p. 20) suggests that “the cultures of these organisations are governed by how these companies are run or the beliefs of the founders of the organisation.”

Figure 2.2

Harrison Model



Source: Brown, A.D. (1998). *Organizational culture*. (2nd ed.) Harlow: Financial Times Prentice Hall

Power culture

In an organisation there is a need to use power as a way of influencing other people’s behaviour as well as gaining control in the running of the organisation. Harrison and Stokes (1992, p. 14) define power-oriented culture as “organisational culture that is based on inequality of access to resources”. Naicker (2008) suggests that, the people in power control others’ behaviour with the resources available as a way of satisfying or frustrating the needs of others. The power culture has a single source of power from

which rays of influence spread throughout the organisation (Manetje & Martins, 2009, p. 90). Within the power- oriented culture the dominant head sits in the centre surrounded by intimates and subordinates who are the dependants (Harrison, 1993). The head of the organisations makes the decisions and gives direction to where the organisation is heading. Menetje (2009, p. 17) states that “the organisational culture model indicates that a power-oriented culture organisation is characterised by high centralisation and low formalisation modes of operation.” At best, the power-orientated leader is believed to be firm, fair and generous and has loyal subordinates and at worst, the power - orientated leader leads by fear, with abuse of power for personal gains (Naicker, 2008).

The role culture

Harrison and Stokes (1992, p. 15) define role-oriented culture as “substituting a system of structures and procedures for the naked power of the leader”. The structures and systems are in place to protect the subordinates. In the role- oriented culture the employees’ duties are clearly defined and the rewards that come with the execution of the tasks are explicitly stated. The roles, duties and rewards of each employee are put in written form usually in the job description. Each individual performs a specific function that has been agreed upon by both the individual and the organisation and each party is expected to fulfil their end of the bargain.

Achievement culture

Harrison and Stoke (1992, p. 17) define achievement oriented culture as the “aligned culture which lines people up behind a common vision or purpose. It is often referred to as a task oriented culture. The focus of the culture is the organisation’s members realising the set goals of the organisation and aligning themselves with those goals. The task culture is seen as one in which “power is somewhat diffused, being based on the expertise rather than the position or charisma” (Brown, 1998, p. 67). Manetje

(2009), states that the mode of operation is high in formalisation and low in centralisation. Naicker (2008) postulates that there is an inner commitment that exists within the achievement-oriented individuals. Many people in this culture are dedicated to their work and aim to make great contributions to society. A voluntary community organisation would be an example of an organisation that represents an achievement oriented culture. In essence, power in the organisation is allocated in a short-term basis until the completion of the task then the power shifts to someone else.

Support culture

Support culture is referred to as person- oriented culture. Harrison and Stoke (1992, p. 20) define support culture as “an organisational climate that is based on mutual trust between the individual and the organisation. The central point in the organisation is the individual. Martins and Martins (2003, p. 381) describes the person-oriented culture, as “the degree to which management decisions take into consideration the effect of the outcomes on people.” The well-being of the employees is of much importance to the managers. Organisations of this nature are usually small in size in which people have much more contact with each other and have managed to build personal relationships. Communication in the organisation usually flows from all directions. Employees feel a sense of belonging within the organisation.

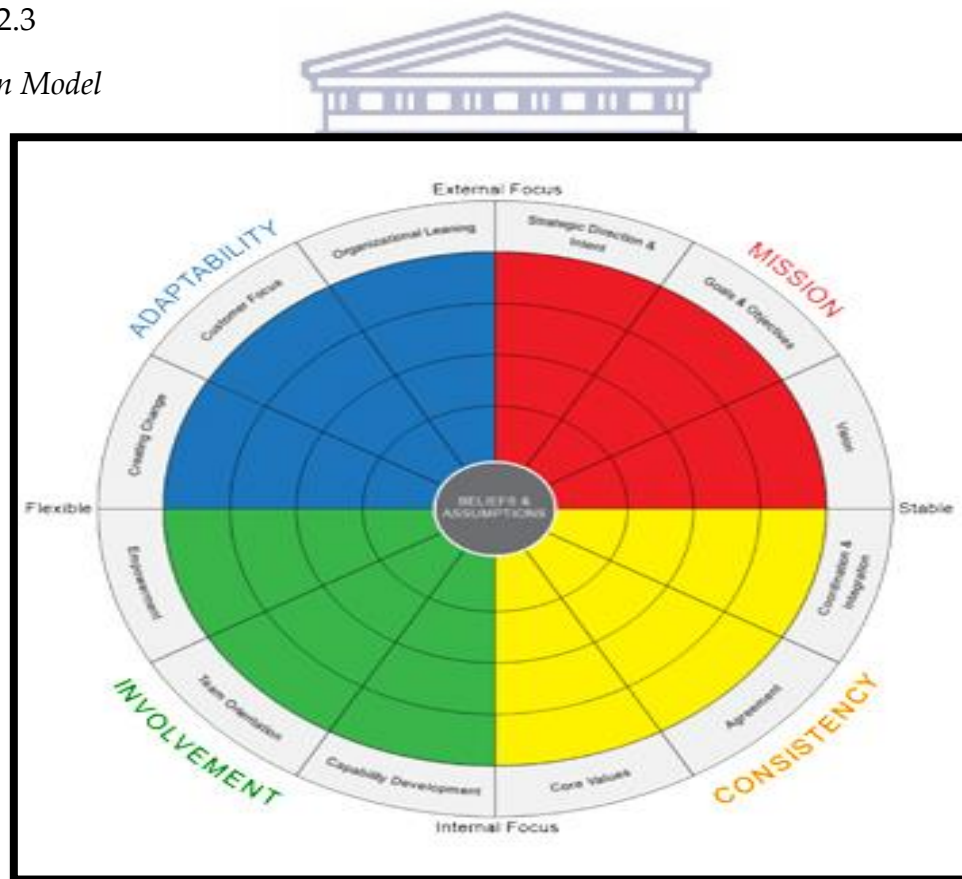
2.3.2.2 Denison model

Denison is a well know researcher in the organisational culture field. The Denison cultural model focuses on four cultural traits which are believed to have influence on organisational performance (Denison, 1990; Denison& Mishra, 1995). The emphasis of the model is on highlighting the importance of “linking management practices with underlying assumptions and beliefs when studying organisational culture and effectiveness (Davison, 2003, p. 47). The Denison model was developed with data from over 3000 organisations and more than a 100 000 respondents (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Denison & Neale, 1996). Generated results of the Denison Culture Survey are

thought to furnish senior management with valuable information which can be utilised to influence the company's prevailing strengths and detecting impending weaknesses (Denison, Lief & Ward, 2004). The model can be a tool which equips decision makers with first-hand information and options to consider in decision making. Denison Culture Model makes use of a two dimensional model which aims to highlight the crucial issues of internal versus external focus and flexibility versus stability, and how these factors impact on performance and feasibility (Denison, Lief & Ward, 2004). Decision making as thought out in the Denison model, is influenced by consideration of the internal and external focus, as well as the flexibility and stability which can have a direct influence on performance and how successful the organisation is.

Figure 2.3

Denison Model



Source: Fey, C., & Denison, D. R. (2003). Organizational culture and effectiveness: Can an American theory be applied in Russia? *Organization Science*, 14, 686-706.

The middle point that appears on the Denison culture model holds the organisation's basis beliefs and assumptions. The model comprises of four main cultural traits which include, involvement, adaptability, consistency and mission. Each of the trait is further divided into 3 indices contributing a sum of 12 indices to the model.

Involvement

The involvement trait has four indices that it measures which include, empowerment, team orientation, and capability development. The involvement trait seeks to obtain perceptions of their company's existing culture (Denison et al., 2004). Its main focus is to measure if people in the organisation are aligned and engaged within the organisation. Davidson (2003), postulates that this trait consists of building human capability, ownership as well as responsibility. This is to say that companies who have a highly strong involved culture would actively encourage employees to have high autonomy. The Involvement trait is subdivided into indices which include:

- *Empowerment*

The employees have the authority, initiative and ability to manage their own work, which enables them to create a sense of ownership and responsibility toward their organisation in high level empowerment organisations (Denison, 2001, p.353 cited in Liu et al., 2009, p. 25).

- *Team orientation*

Organisational values are placed on working cooperatively to get the work done and all employees feel mutually accountable. A team-oriented organisation depends on team effort to deal with everyday tasks (Denison, 2001, p.353 cited in Liu et al., 2009, p. 25).

- *Capability development*

An organisation with a good plan for capability development will continue to invest resources in the development of employees' skills, which enable organisations to

maintain their competitive advantage and meet ongoing business needs (Denison, 2001, p.353 cited in Liu et al., 2009, p. 25).

Consistency

Denison et al., (2004, p 65), describes the consistency trait as a unified approach to goal achievement and problem resolution that can provide internal resonance essential to deal with outside challenges and unexpected situations. The trait is measured by 3 indices, core values, agreement, coordination and integration. Consistent organisations are believed to develop a mind-set of organisational systems that are aimed at creating an internal system of governance that is based on consensual support (Denison, 1990).

- *Core values*

A clear set of expectations and core values are shared which creates an organisation's identity in a high performing organisation. (Denison, 2001, p. 353 cited in Liu et al., 2009, p. 25).

- *Agreement*

This reflects how easily the members in the organisation are able to reach an agreement on crucial matters. Such agreement contains both the underlying level of agreement and the ability to resolve differences when they occur (Denison, 2001, p. 353 cited in Liu et al., 2009, p. 25).

- *Coordination and integration*

An organisation with good coordination and integration skills is capable of bringing people from different functions and units to work together well to achieve common goals. The organisation's functional boundaries do not get in the way of getting work done (Denison, 2001, p. 353 cited in Liu et al., 2009, p. 25).



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Adaptability

Adaptability measures three indices, creating change, customer focus and organisational learning. Adaptability refers to the ability to decode the demands of the business environment into actions (Davison, 2003). It puts into focus the external marketplace. Denison et al., (2004, p. 65) states that, “adaptability acknowledges Schein’s idea of an organisation’s struggle to continually balance internal identity with external events and impetus change”. High performing organisations will have the ability to form perceptions and respond to the business environment and set up processes that would help them to adapt.

- *Creating change*

An organisation with a strong ability to create change is able to find adaptive ways to meet changing needs. It indicates the organisation's abilities to understand their business environment, react rapidly to current movements, and forecast future changes (Denison, 2001, p.354 cited in Liu et al., 2009, p. 26).

- *Customer focus*

The more effort an organisation puts into getting to know its customers, the quicker and better its reaction to the customer's current needs and the better its anticipation of their future needs. It reveals the degree to which the organisation is driven by the concern to satisfy its customers (Denison, 2001, p.354 cited in Liu et al., 2009, p. 26).

- *Organisational learning*

If an organisation is willing to take risks, learn from mistakes, encourage innovation and continue to invest in training employees towards gaining new knowledge and developing capabilities, the organisation will be able to get, interpret, and convert signals from the business environment into opportunities (Denison, 2001, p.354 cited in Liu et al., 2009, p. 26).

Mission

The mission trait is measured by strategic direction and intent, goals and objectives and vision. It focuses on where the organisation is heading. High performing organisations have a mission that tells their employees why they are doing the work they are doing and how to contribute to the bigger picture (Denison, 1990).

- *Vision*

This index is defined as the shared view of a desired future state in the organisation. It represents the organisation's core values and provides guidance and direction to the organisation and its people (Denison, 2001, p. 354 cited in Liu et al., 2009, p. 27).

- *Strategic direction and intent*

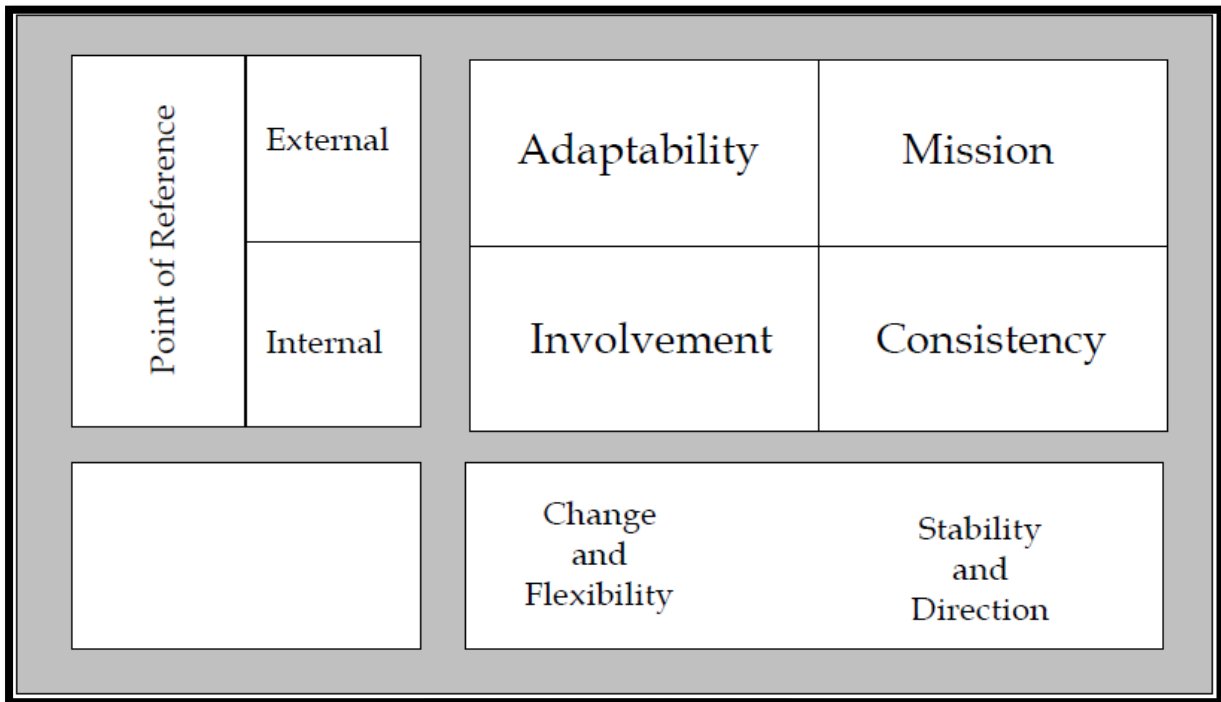
An organisation's purpose can be conveyed by a clear strategic direction and statement of intent. This will help members in the organisation to clearly understand and state how they can contribute and plan to 'make their mark' in their industry (Denison, 2001, p. 354 cited in Liu et al., 2009, p. 27).

- *Goals and objectives*

An organisation needs to establish a clear set of goals and objectives that are linked with the mission, vision and strategy. This will provide everyone with clear direction in their work (Denison, 2001, p.354 cited in Liu et al., 2009, p. 26). Consistency and involvement primarily address the internal dynamics of an organisation (Davidson, 2003). This is to say that it does not focus on addressing the external environment and the interaction of the organisation with the business environment at large. Adaptability and mission in contrast, have their main focus on the relationship between the external environment and the organisation. The four traits can be seen in a four way scope, consistency and involvement as the internal traits versus adaptability and mission as the external traits, involvement and adaptability emphasis flexibility and change, which is in contrast to the mission and consistency which emphasise focus on stability and direction. This is depicted below

Figure 2.4

Presentation of factors in the Denison model



Source: Denison, D. R. (1990). *Corporate culture and organizational effectiveness*. New York: Wiley.

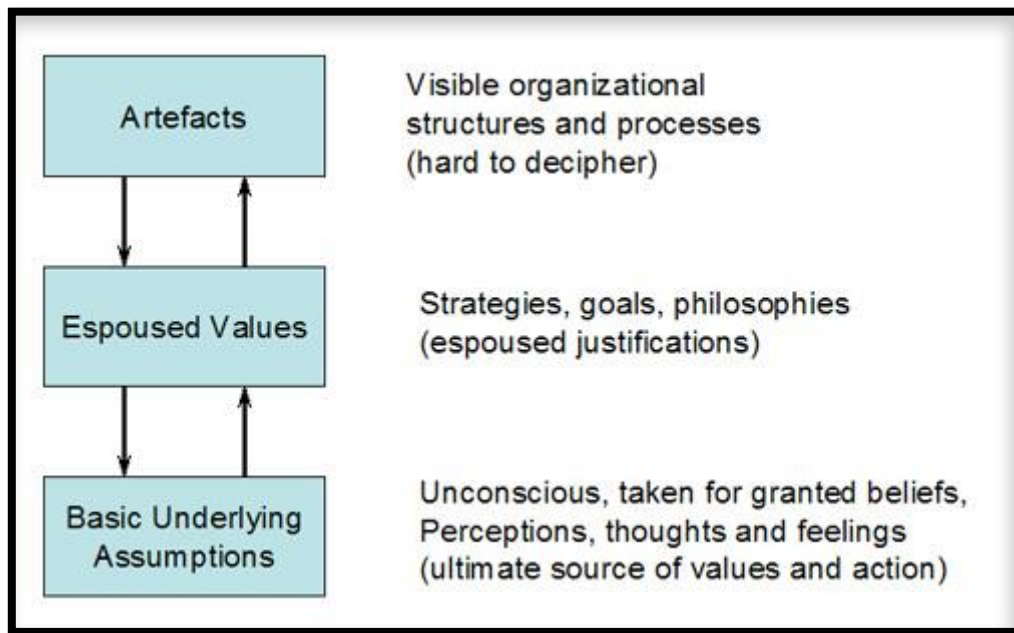


2.3.2.3 Edgar Schein Model

Schein contributes to the field of organisational culture with his three layered organisational culture model. Schein proposes that organisational culture can be analysed on three separate levels which include, artefacts, espoused values and basic underlying assumptions (Schein, 1992). It is argued that there is a separation on the level based on the degree to which the culture phenomenon would be visible to the observer (Schein 1992, p. 16). Schein (1985) contends that a clear distinction must be made of what each level specifically entails, to avoid confusion. The three layer model is displayed in figure 2.4 below:

Figure 2.5

Edgar Schein Model



Source: Schein, E. (1992). *Organizational culture and leadership* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey- Bass.

Schein (1990) opens up his argument of organisational culture by stating that, it is of importance to first specify that a given set of people, have had adequate time to acquire stability and shared a common history to allow a culture to develop. A strong culture according to Schein must have been shared over many years. The early definition of culture defined it as what is learnt by a group over a period of time, how the group solves its problems of survival in an external environment, as well as the problems of internal integration (Schein, 1990, p. 111). The refined definition that Schein put forwards describes culture as the, “patterns of basic assumptions (b) invented, discovered or developed by given groups (c) as it learns to cope with its problem of external adaption and integration (d) that has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore, (e) is to be taught to its new members as the (f) way to perceive, think , feel in relation to those problems (Schein , 1990, p. 111). The description of culture in the organisation bring us to the point of departure to look

into the three level that have been proposed. The section below is going to put into perspective the 3 layers of the Schein organisational culture model.

Level 1: Artefacts

Liu et al., (2009) proposed that artefact in organisational culture is the most visible aspects. It is something that can be observed and felt by people within organisation. The artefacts attribute to the physical layout, the dress code, the manner in which people address each other within the organisation, the smell and feel of the place, the emotional intensity and it extends to the records of the company, its products, philosophy and annual report (Schein 1990, p. 111). The challenge with the artefacts is that they are easy to see but difficult to make accurate sense of.

Level 2: Espoused Values

Values are a representative of the things that are important to people, they tap into their conscious sentimental wants and desires (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1996). The espoused values are shared with in the organisation by its members. The values are developed in the everyday interactions and process of the organisation. It is proposed by Davidson and Coetzee (2003), that all of the cultural learnings tend to reflect, usually the founder of the organisation original values and norms. These values further develop when an organisation is faced with a challenged, if a perceived shared working solution to the challenge is found it is gradually adopted into a belief. The values serve as a moral function and can be explicitly articulated and taught to the newcomers within the organisations (Schein 1985).

Level 3: Assumption and Beliefs

Liu et al., (2009), states that the deepest level of organisational culture lies in the basic assumptions. Schein (1992, p. 17), formulated this view by suggesting that the underlying assumptions and premises on which an organisation is formed. They include how members of the organisation think and how they view the external environment, the relationships within the organisation and the nature of the

organisation itself. The basic underlying assumptions can be used as a guide to behaviour in an organisation.

Schein's model has been viewed as a process oriented approach (Lim, 1995). Liu et al., (2009, p. 21) views Schein's perspective of culture as a framework for researchers to identify the specific culture characteristics which range from behavioural norms to underlying beliefs within the organisations.

2.4. A COMPARISON OF THE DIFFERENT ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE APPROACHES

The foregoing discussion of the different models that have been advanced by different scholars clearly indicate that there is no consensus or commonly agreed on framework that guides the nature in which culture is defined.

Harrison (1993) views culture under four different organisational ideologies. The main focus of the Harrison model is on how daily procedures are conducted in the organisational and decision making is reached. On the other hand the Schein model has its primary focus on the person, their engagement with the culture and not so much about what the person has accomplished. It is based on external adaptation and internal integration (Schein, 1985).

The Denison model is more of a behaviour-oriented model in which four traits of organisational culture are identified. The Denison culture is argued to be inclusive of both the internal and external factors that may affect an organisation. The Denison model has its central focus on the business environment and it speaks a business language. Liu et al., (2009, p.28) makes a clear comparison of the Denison model versus other models of organisational culture (see Table 2.1):

Table 2.1

Denison model versus other models

DENISON MODEL	OTHER CULTURAL MODELS
• Behaviourally based	• Often psychologically based or personality based
• Designed and created within the business environment	• Often designed and created within the academic environment
• Business language used to explore business-level issues	• Often non-business language which must be converted through interpretation to the business context
Linked to bottom-line business results	• Often unclear about specific links to business results; little if any research conducted in placing cultural elements in relation to performance
• Fast and easy to implement	• Often requires extended time to implement assessment and/or interpret results in the business context
• Applicable to all levels of the organisation	• Specifically designed for either top level or front lines implementation

Source: Denison consulting. (2007). *The Denison Advantage*. Retrieved from: <http://www.denisonconsulting.com/dc/DenisonAdvantage/ResearchbasedModeltabid/1241Default.aspx>

The striking differences in the organisational culture conceptualisation shows how each organisation can bring across a different culture and how culture cannot be simplified into simple terminology.

2.5 FUNCTIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

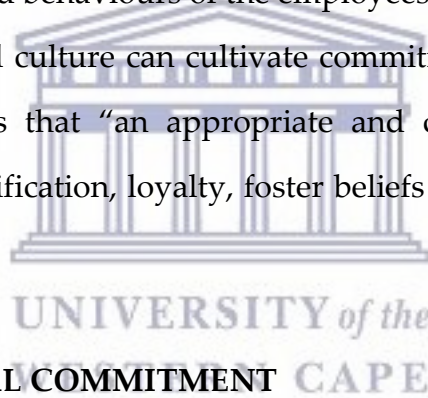
Arnold (2005) suggests that the main function of organisational culture is to define how things will be done in order to give meaning to organisational life. Organisational culture is aimed at determining and moulding the behaviour of the employees within

the organisation. Matenje and Martins (2009, p. 89) suggest that, organisational culture determines organisational behaviour, by “identify principle goals, work methods, how members should interact and address each other and how to conduct personal relationships. Brown (1998, p. 89-91) proposed a number of organisational culture functions:

Conflict reduction – A collective culture is believed to bring about consistency in the way in which problems are identified, defined, evaluated as well as preferences for action. Organisational culture brings about shared perceptions and opinions.

Coordination and control - Culture brings about consistency in how things are viewed within the organisation. In support of this view, Martins and Martins (2003) suggest that “organisational culture serves as a meaningful control mechanism that guides and shapes the attitudes and behaviours of the employees.

Motivation – Organisational culture can cultivate commitment amongst individuals. Brown (1998, p. 90) states that “an appropriate and cohesive culture can offer employees a focus of identification, loyalty, foster beliefs and values that encourage employees to perform.



2.6 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organisational commitment has become an important area of interest in organisations as it has potential to directly affect production within an organisation. Martin and Roodt (2008) suggest that, in spite of the growing interest the concept of organisational commitment, there has been a lack of consensus on its various definitions.

2.6.1 Organisational Commitment defined

Commitment is said to be displayed through the individual’s attitude, behaviour and beliefs that they have towards the organisation. Newstrom and Davies (2002, p. 211) define employee commitment as the degree to which an employee identifies with the organisation and desire to continue actively participating in it. Commitment is like a measure of employees’ willingness to stay in the organisation in the future (Naicker,

2008). Commitment can be said to be a reflection of the employees' beliefs and goals within the organisation and whether that employees identifies themselves with the culture of the organisation or not. Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) proposed that, commitment can be regarded as a psychological state that characterises an employee's bond with the organisation and the implications this has for his intention to stay or leave. Commitment is usually stronger in employees who have served the organisation for a longer period of time and those who have experienced success within the organisation.

Organisational commitment has been defined from an attitudinal, behavioural or motivational perspective in literature. Meyer, Allen and Gellatly (1990, p. 711) suggest that organisational commitment as an attitude is "characterised by favourable positive cognitive and affective components about the organisation". Luthans (1995, p. 130) adds on to say that organisational culture as an attitude is defined as, "a strong desire to remain a member of a particular organisation, a willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organisation, and a definite belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organisation." This type of commitment displays the individual's loyalty to the organisation. Naicker (2008, p.31) describes attitudinal commitment an on-going process through which organisational participants express their concern for the organisation and its continued success and well-being.

Organisational commitment can be regarded as behaviour since individuals in the organisation are specifically committed to a course of action rather than the entity (Van Dyk, 2011). Best (1994, p. 69) states that, organisational commitment as behaviour is apparent when "committed individuals enact specific behaviours due to the belief that it is morally correct rather than personally beneficial". In this type of commitment individuals are bound by their beliefs which determine their actions.

In terms of the motivational perspective, commitment involves “an individual’s psychological bond to the organisation, including a sense of job involvement, loyalty and belief in the values of the organisation (O’Reilly, 1989, p. 17). The employee accepts the organisational goals and they are willing to put in more effort on behalf of the organisation. Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) argue that commitment should be related to an intrinsic motivational force, since highly committed individuals may be motivated to exert a high level of energy on behalf of the organisation (cited in Van Dyk, 2011, p. 21). Motivational commitment can then be viewed as a way in which the individual contributes their loyalty and energies to the organisation.

2.6.2 Meyer and Allen’s three-component commitment model

Meyer and Allen’s three-component model of organisational commitment has become the dominant model for the study of workplace commitment (Jaros, 2007, p. 7). The model of commitment is being widely used to demonstrate the multi-dimensional aspects of commitment. The model is said to have three mind sets that may portray the commitment of an employee to the organisation. The mind-sets encompass affective, normative and continuance organisational commitment. Jaros (2007, p. 7) defined the 3 mind sets as,

- “Affective Commitment reflects commitment based on emotional ties the employee develops with the organisation primarily via positive work experiences.”
- “Normative Commitment reflects commitment based on perceived obligation towards the organisation, for example rooted in the norms of reciprocity.”
- “Continuance Commitment reflects commitment based on the perceived costs, both economic and social, of leaving the organisation.”

Each component of the commitment model is assumed to develop as a result of the differences in experience and this leads to difference in the effects for on- the-job behaviours (Van Dyk, 2011).

Affective Commitment

Affective commitment is argued to have three subcomponents, “(1) the emotional attachment to the organisation; (2) the identification with the organisation and (3) the involvement in the organisation” (Kaptijn, 2009, p. 2). Affective commitment occurs when an individual is intensely attached to the organisation and to the duties that they perform. Jaros (2007) proposes that the affective commitment is primarily based on the emotional ties that develop due to the positive experiences in the organisation. An employee who is affectively committed to the organisation aligns his goals with the organisational goals and wishes to remain with the organisation. Therefore, affective commitment has relevance to this study as it may assist in getting an employee’s view on their attachment to the organisation.

Continuance Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1984) postulate that Continuance commitment is the degree to which employees feel committed to their organisation by virtue of the costs that they feel are associated with leaving (cited in Van Dyk, 2011, p. 25). The employees fears the loss of any benefits or advantages that they have or that they organisation may offer, hence they choose to stay. Employees remain in their work because they feel they need to stay with the organisation.

Normative Commitment

Normative commitment is based on the perceived obligation to stay with the organisation (Kaptijn 2009). Normative commitment is said to develops as a result of the employees’ beliefs that have been internalised through thee socialisation processes (Van Dyk, 2011, p. 25). One may feel that they need to stay because of the investments the company has made on them; hence they stay even when they are unhappy.

Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 67) state that organisational commitment “is a psychological state that characterises the employee’s relationship with the organisation, and has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organisation”. This can be argued to be an influence for the employees to have an intention to quit if they do not relate well to the culture of the organisation and are not committed in any way. Kennedy (2006, p. 15) suggests that Meyer and Allen (1991), concluded that organisational commitment is a particular mind set or psychological state that binds an individual to an organisation, which may reduce the likelihood of turnover.

Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that, common to the three dimensions of organisational commitment is the view that organisational commitment is a psychological state that characterises organisational members’ relationship with the organisation and has implications for their decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organisation.

It has been suggested by Blau and Holladay (2006), that occupational commitment can be supported by a four dimensional measure. The four dimensions are inclusive of affective commitment, normative commitment and the other two dimensions are drawn from the continuance commitment, namely accumulated costs and limited alternatives. It is believed that the affective commitment has proved to have a strong relationship with professional withdrawal intentions and to a lesser extent, with professional development activities (Mahembe, 2010). Continuance commitment with specific reference to accumulated costs related to normative commitment in such a way that a significant relationship of normative commitment and turnover intentions for low accumulated costs was observed. In a comparable way, a significant negative relationship between normative commitment and withdrawal intentions for low limited alternatives has been observed. Mahembe (2010), postulates that, even though similarities in the interactive results when combined with the equivalent correlation results of accumulated of accumulated costs and limited alternatives to other study

variables, it can lead to the alternative speculation that a one-factor measure for continuance occupational commitment may be sufficient.

2.7 THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

2.7.1 The relationship between organisational culture, organisational commitment and turnover intention

Organisational culture and commitment have been argued to have a theoretical link in literature. Manetje and Martin (2009, p. 94), argue that, “it appears as if organisational culture tends to influence employees’ work effort and commitment directly through cultural values, and indirectly through human resources practices.” Jones and Cho (2006) suggest that both organisational culture and organisational commitment are determinants of having intentions to quit. Ünsar and Karahan (2010) investigated the relationships between organisational environment factors, alienation and intention to leave. That study was executed in the confectionary sector and the results revealed that there was a significant relationship between the two variables. A study by Habib, Aslam, Hussain, Yasmeen and Ibrahim (2014) conducted on employees working in different organisations in Pakistan also concluded that positive relationships exist between organisational culture, employee commitment and employees retention. These findings were also consistent with the findings in various other studies that examined the link between corporate culture and various individual outcomes; such as organisational commitment (Karia & Ahmad, 2000; Lau & Idris, 2001; Ooi & Arumugam, 2006; Saeed & Hassan, 2000; Silverthorne, 2004).

2.7.2 The relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment

Deal and Kennedy (1982) suggested that organisational culture could potentially exert a large amount of influence on commitment and performance. The popular

assumptions forwarded in research studies is that there is a significant correlation between organisational culture and commitment (Karia & Ahmad; Lok & Crawford, 1999; Manetje & Martins, 2009; Silverthorne, 2004). Contrary to the popular assumption, that organisational culture and commitment are interrelated positively, research by Lahiry (1994), found the existence of a weak relationship between organisational culture and commitment. The results of this research were, however, not conclusive. In assessing the relationship between organisational culture and commitment, some researchers have drawn various aspects of organisational culture that may have an effect on commitment such as leadership styles and management strategies (Brewer, 1993; Trice & Beyer, 1993). In the study by Lok and Crawford (1999) a conclusion that organisational culture is correlated to commitment was recorded. It was, however, found that the organisation subcultures had a greater effect on commitment than the global organisational culture. Nongo and Ikyanyon (2012), suggests that the culture in the organisation influences how people behave in the organisation and by developing a well-accepted culture, organisations can encourage loyalty and commitment. The strength of the culture in an organisation was found to correlate with the strength of the employee commitment (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Therefore, organisational culture is of importance in developing and sustaining the commitment of employees (Deal & Kennedy 1982; Nongo & Ikyanyon, 2012; Silverthorne, 2004). The following is therefore postulated:

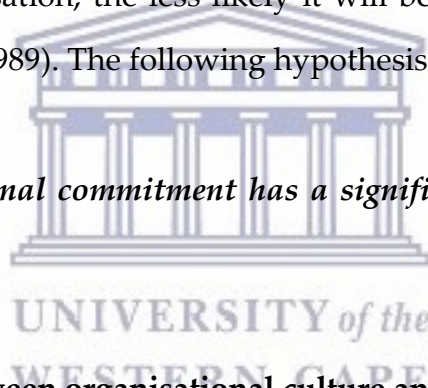
Hypothesis 1: *Organisational culture has a significant influence on organisational commitment*

2.7.3 The relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions

The bivariate relationship between commitment and turnover intention is suggested to be based on the view that employees feel an obligation to help those who helped them (Gouldner, 1960; cited in Allen et al., 2003). A conducive organisational culture

is thought to foster a feeling of obligation to the organisation (normative commitment) at the same time increasing the costs of leaving the organisation (continuance commitment). O'Reilly et al., (1991) supports this notion as the author proposes that employees might have a feeling of gratitude to show their greater commitment and in turn have less encouragement to leave the organisation. Organisational commitment and turnover intention are then considered to have a significantly negative association with each other (Arkoubi et al., 2007; Susskind et al., 2000). This is to say that if employees are fully engaged in their work environment and devoted to their work, the chances of them thinking of exiting the organisation will be significantly reduced. Tumwesigye (2010) argues that organisational commitment is one of the antecedent factors of turnover intentions. This is to say that, if there is a strong employee commitment to the organisation, the less likely it will be for the person to think of quitting (Shore & Martin, 1989). The following hypothesis is postulated:

Hypothesis 2: *Organisational commitment has a significant negative influence on turnover intention*



2.7.4 The relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions

The reviews of the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions expose how limited research there is around the topic (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008; Kessler, 2014). It is, however, suggested that organisational culture and turnover have a significant negative interaction with turnover intentions. Habib et al., (2014) are of the notion that organisational culture impacts on employee retention, if the culture is positive employees do not leave their jobs. Organisational culture is thought to create a perception about the organisation amongst the employees. The perception created has a potential effect on behaviour. Madaus, Zhoa and Ruban (2008) proposes that, organisational culture has been found to have an effect on organisational behaviour and it can be proposed to be a potential moderator of voluntary turnover. Kessler (2014, p. 1020), argues that, in the studies carried out by Keppel and Zedeck

(1989), the dimensions of culture that were put in consideration, partially met the initial requirement for a variable for it to be defined as a moderator and where the variable was linearly uncorrelated to the predictor variables, it proved to be also uncorrelated to the criterion variable. Chang, Rosen and Levy (2009) conducted a research study and gathered evidence that certain aspects of organisational culture such as organisational politics, showed a significant positive relationship with turnover. The following hypothesis is therefore postulated:

Hypothesis 3: *Organisational culture has a significant negative influence on turnover intention*

2.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the theoretical conceptualisation of organisational culture, organisational commitment and intention to leave. The intention of the literature review was to highlight the importance of these aspects within an organisation. The organisational culture model by Harrison (1993) and the organisational commitment model by Meyer and Allen (1991) which are used to this study to conceptualise both commitment and organisational culture have been put into perspective. Each organisation has its own personalised organisational culture which may fall in one of the categories suggested by Harrison (1993). The sense of belonging in any type of the cultures suggested will then in turn bring about organisational commitment or intention to leave the organisation.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary goal of the present study is to conduct an analysis of the relationships between organisational culture, organisational commitment and intention to quit. In order to achieve this goal the methodology used to test the theoretical hypotheses developed in chapter two in line with the goal of the study is outlined. The methodology entails explaining and justifying the research strategies, design and approaches that have been chosen and how the scientific objectivity and rigour has been ensured throughout the study. The section will address the research approach used, the subject matter around the research design, the instruments used, limitations and the statistical techniques that were employed in the study. The ethical considerations are also outlined.

3.2 RESEARCH APPROACH AND DESIGN

A research design is defined by Burns and Groove (2003, p.195) as, “a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings” In conducting a research study, a quantitative or qualitative research design can be utilised, or the two can be used together as mixed method research. In this present research a quantitative research design was employed with the use of multiple measures. Quantitative research refers to the systematic empirical investigation of social phenomena via statistical, mathematical or computational techniques (Given, 2008). It is based on numerical methods that are used to analyse the data. The questionnaires used were aimed at inquiring about the views and opinions of employees which were then rated against a scale. Creswell (1994, p. 1-2) asserts that, qualitative research is “an inquiry process of understanding based on

distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyse words, report detailed views of informants and conducts the study in a natural setting (as cited in Klenke, 2008, p. 7).

A correlative *ex post facto* research design was utilised. An *ex post facto* design is a Babbie and Mouton (2001) argues that the correlative *ex post facto* design included the observation of the independent and dependent variables across individuals to establish the extent to which the variables co-vary. Kerlinger, (as cited in Roux, 2010, p. 37) postulates that the approach offers a solid sustenance to the structural equations model theory that is used to (a) test the validity of theories about sequential relationships between two or more variables that have been studied in a correlational research design and (b) determine the combination of variables that predict a particular variable. Mahembe (2010), defines a correlational analysis as involving the measurement of two or more variables in the existence of their natural order as a way of establishing relationships between the variables that can be used for prediction. A correlational study was employed in this research because the purpose of the research was to investigate if there is a relationship between organisational culture, commitment and turnover intentions.

A research design that allows for an empirical collection of large data sample had to be selected for the particular research. A research design that is able to cater for the statistical evaluations and modelling had to be selected. Hence the correlative *ex post facto* design was selected for the research.

3.3 RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

3.3.1 Population

The initiating stage of a research is to identify an appropriate population in which a sample of inquiry of the variables under investigation will be drawn out from. Population refers to the entire group of people, events, or things of interest the

researcher wishes to investigate (Sekaran, 2001, p. 266). It is further defined as a large collection of individuals or objects that is the main focus of a scientific query (Castillo, 2009). The present research sought to gain a deeper understanding of organisational culture and how it influences behaviour of people in different organisations. The targeted population were employees in the retail industry. The retail industry is defined by the Gauteng Province Quarterly Bulletin (2012, p. 3) as including, “the reselling (sale without transformation) of new and used goods to the general public for personal or household consumption or use by shops, department stores, stalls, mail-order houses, hawkers and peddlers, consumer co-operatives, etc.” The retail industry was a population of choice due to the rapid growth that the industry goes through. The Gauteng Province Quarterly Bulletin (2012) argues that the retail industry has proved to be one of the fastest growing industries in South Africa over the past 8 or so years. With such a rapid growth, in the industry a competitive urge comes along as companies fight for survival. This then became an area of interest to look at the structure of the organisations with reference to the culture and the wellbeing of the employees within the organisation as they experience innumerable changes to stay in the competitive industry.

In terms of population, it was practically impossible to collect data from all the retail organisations in the Western Cape. It was therefore decided to concentrate only on five retail organisations with a total population of approximately 500 employees.

3.3.2 Sample size

Bless et al., (2006) suggests that one of the main objectives of sampling is to draw inferences from the data collected about the population. From the population stated above a sample was drawn. A sample is defined as a subset or segment of the population which can be used as a representative of the bigger population (Sekaran, 2001, p. 267). A sample can be further defined as a small part or quantity intended to show what the whole is like. Bless et al., (2006) argues that the main factor to consider when

deciding on a sample size is whether the sample will be representative of the whole population. The study aimed at a sample size of 200 individuals. The sample was drawn from four selected retail outlets within the Western Cape Province.

3.3.3 Sampling Procedure

Sampling is the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population so that by studying the sample, and understanding the properties or the characteristics of the sample subjects, it would be more possible to generalise the properties or characteristics of the population elements (Sekaran, 2001, p267). This research study employed a non-probability sampling. Non-probability sampling does not involve *random* selection. Random selection means that every element in the population has an equal chance of being selected. This, however, is not true to this research study, the elements of the population did not have an equal chance of being selected due to the use of convenience sampling. It is the type of non-probability sampling which involves the sample being drawn from the part of the population which will be close at hand or that which is readily available (Boxill et. al., 1997). The main limitation of this approach is that it is difficult to generalise to the whole population, it therefore affects the external validity of the results.

A total of 420 questionnaire were distributed to the four companies, there was a challenge in getting the questionnaires back from the respondents. A decision was then taken to put the questionnaire online, for it to become easily accessible to the employees. However, this did not yield favourable results hence, the researcher reverted back to the paper based questionnaire method which were personally delivered to participants. The participants were given time to complete and the collection was after three days. A total of 157 completed questionnaires were returned. Table 3.1 summaries the demographic statistics of the respondents.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION AND PROCEDURE

The questionnaire were administered by personally delivering them to the selected outlets within the Cape Town area after permission was granted by the organisations and the University's Ethical Clearance Committee. The questionnaire comprised of a covering letter, a biographical section, and three measuring instruments. The cover letter explained the reason for the research study being conducted, the informed consent and instructions on completing the questionnaire. The advantage of using a self-administered questionnaire was that participants could complete it in their own free time and the questionnaire could be distributed to a large number of participants at the same time. The store supervisors were left in charge of distributing the questionnaires to the participants, and as a way of maintaining confidentiality, the questionnaires were personally collected from the participants or placed in a sealed box. From the total of 420 questionnaire that were distributed to the participants a total of 157 were returned which was indicative of a 37.38% response rate. The desired target of 200 questionnaires was not reached. Some participants stated that they were not comfortable completing the questionnaire as it tapped into some sensitive issues within the organisation. A decision was taken to continue with the analysis as it had become a challenge to access more respondents.

Table 3.1

Sample Profile

Variable	Frequency	(%)
Gender		
Male	51	32.9
Female	103	66.5
Age of participants		
Below 20	17	11
21 – 30	87	56.1
31 – 40	40	25.8
41 – 50	8	5.2
Above 50	2	1.3
Ethnic group		
African	84	54.2
Coloured	58	37.4
White	9	5.8
Indian	2	1.3
Education		
Secondary School	20	12.9
Standard 10 or equivalent	32	20.6
Post school certificate	33	21.3
Diploma/ Degree	52	33.5
Honours Degree	8	5.2
Master's Degree	1	.6
Experience		
Less than 1 year	33	21.3
1-5 years	88	56.8
6 - 10 years	25	16.1
11 – 15 years	1	.6
Above 15 years	3	1.9

3.5 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

Three measuring instruments were utilised in this present research. In the selection process of the instruments, reliability and the validity of the instruments played a big role. Validity refers to the degree to which it measures what it is supposed to measure, whereas reliability refers to the extent to which a measurement gives results that are

consistent (Foxcroft et. al., 2004). The compiled questionnaire was divided into 4 sections which consisted of a, biographical information section, organisational culture section, and organisational commitment section and, employee turnover section. The instruments are discussed below.

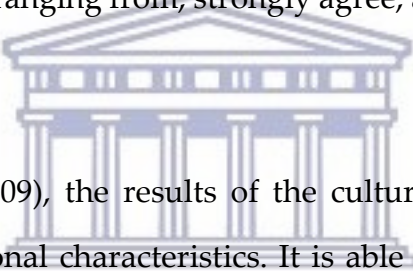
3.5.1 Biographical Information Section

The biographical information of the respondents was collected in order to establish a profile of the sample. It was aimed at understanding the scope of the sample in relation to gender, age ethnic group, qualifications, and time served in the current employment position. The demographic conclusion collected from the research have been presented in Table 3.1. In the biographical information gathered of the sample 51 males responded contributing a 32.9% to the total number of respondents and 103 females responded contributing a percentage of 66.5 to the total number collected. Majority of the respondents were within the 21-30 years of age range and with the least is the above 50 years range. The data collected also showed that majority of the respondents were in the African ethnic group and least in the Indian group. The education qualifications of the respondents were spread across Standard 10 and Master's Degree with the highest percentage of respondents holding a diploma or degree. The data furthermore showed that majority of the respondents had some of work experience ranging from 1 to 5 years.

3.5.2 Organisational Culture questionnaire

The Denison Organisational Culture Survey was used to determine and understand the culture in the selected organisations. Denison, Lief and Ward (2004, p. 65) state that the Denison organisational culture model is "linked to company performance". The questionnaire taps into the strengths and weaknesses of the culture within the

organisation and the understanding of the impact of culture in the organisation is stimulated. It is designed to measure specific aspects of the organisational culture which includes, involvement, adaptability, mission and consistency. The questionnaire places its focus on the perceptions and opinions of each employee in their line of work. An indication of the areas of improvement is also highlighted by the instrument. The questionnaire is focused on measuring the four existing critical organisational culture traits (Liu, Kiley & Balland, 2009), adaptability, mission, involvement and consistency. Each one of the cultural traits is further broken down into 3 indices, which are described by Liu (2009), as demonstrating that particular cultural trait. Each of the indices is assessed by five questions. The questionnaire is made up of 60 questions. The questions are measured against a five-point Likert scale and the response categories ranging from, strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree.



According to Liu et al., (2009), the results of the culture survey, can give a basic indication of the organisational characteristics. It is able to give an overview of the employees' satisfaction and involvement with the culture of the organisation. These results can then be related to whether the employees, can remain committed to the organisation if they are adopting the culture as their own, or whether they have dissociated themselves with the culture which might in turn cultivate turnover intentions. The reliability of the Denison Culture Survey is said to have been measured through an analysis of each item in the indices. Jacobus (2005) tested the internal consistency reliability of the survey, and the reliability coefficient and the item total correlations ranged between .62 and .90.

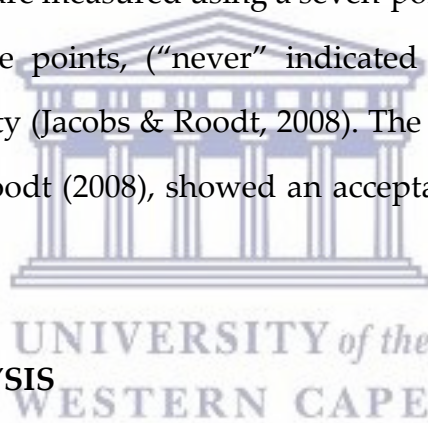
3.5.3 Organisational Commitment Scale

The Organisational Commitment Scale is based on the 3 component model suggested by Meyer and Allen (1997). The scale consists of 15 structured questions which are

aimed at measuring the affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. A 5 point Likert scale was used to rate the responses from the respondents. Meyer and Allen (1997, p. 120) state that “the internal consistencies of the OCS dimensions vary between .73 for normative; .79 for continuance and .85 for affective,” and the overall reliability is estimated to exceed .70.

3.5.4 Turnover Intention Questionnaire

The turnover intention questionnaire which was used in this study was a questionnaire which was developed by Roodt (2004, p. 1), which was extracted from an article by Jacobs and Roodt (2008). The questionnaire consists of 14 questions. The items on the questionnaire are measured using a seven-point response anchored scale which range from extreme points, (“never” indicated by 1- lowest intensity to “always” 7- highest intensity (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). The instrument, when tested in the study by Jacobs and Roodt (2008), showed an acceptable reliability of Cronbach Alpha .91.



3.6 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Cooper and Emory (1995, p. 67) suggests that data analysis usually involves reducing accumulated data to a manageable size, developing summaries, looking for patterns, and applying statistical techniques. There are various methods that can be made use of when analysing the data that will have been collected. Descriptive statistics and inferential statistics are well known methods for data analysis. For this particular research inferential statistics were utilised. Myers and Well (2003) states that inferential statistics are techniques that allows us to use the sample of a large population to make generalizations about the populations from which the samples were drawn. Sekaran further explains this notion by stating that one may use inferential statistics when interested in knowing or inferring from the data analysis,

the relationship between two variables, difference in a variable among different subgroups and how several independent variables might explain the variance in a dependent variable (2001, p. 401).

Quantitative techniques were used to analyse the data of the present study. Item analysis and exploratory factor analysis were used to determine the reliability and uni-dimensionality of the instruments. The Item and exploratory factor analyses were performed using SPSS Version 23.

The hypothesised relationships were tested and determined using structural equation modelling (SEM). SEM helps determine the psychometric properties of the measures by way of checking the compatibility between the latent variables and their manifest variables before testing the structural relationships in a model in order to answer the study hypotheses. (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000). The SEM analysis of this study was done through the Least Partial Squares (PLS) analysis software (SmartPLS3).

3.6.1 Missing Values

Before the process of analysing the data, the issue surrounding missing values had to be addressed. The issue of missing values is believed to be a common occurrence in self-reporting instruments (Mahembe, 2014). In addressing the problem a method that does not result in a significant sample reduction had to be selected. Missing values in statistics occur when no data has been entered under a variable that is being observed. The missing data can have a significant effect on the conclusions that might be drawn from the data. Royston postulates that, “statisticians have become increasingly aware of the inadequacy of “complete-case analysis of data sets with missing observation (2004, p. 227). There are several ways of dealing with missing values such as multiple imputation (MI), single imputation methods, case wise methods and full information maximum likelihood estimation (FIML).

The LISREL 8.80 program was utilised to analyse the missing values. To avoid the reduction of the cases by a large margin, a multiple imputation method was used to replace the missing values. The advantage of making use of the multiple imputation procedures is that estimates of missing values are replaced with averages derived for all cases in the variable concerned (Du Toit & Du Toit, 2001; Mels, 2003).

3.6.2 Item Analysis

Item analysis is a technique that is a process that entails the elimination of items that appear to be unrelated to the subscale score or that has a low relationship with it (Mahembe, 2010; Pallant, 2010). Ghiselli, Campbell and Zedeck, (1981) suggests that aim of the item analysis is to measure the same trait such that the individual score of a subscale should be positively correlated. SPSS Version 23 was used to conduct the reliability analysis procedure. Pallant (2010), suggests that if an item has an item-total correlation value less than .30, a significant increase in the reliability coefficient will be recorded if the item is excluded. Therefore, an item with less than an item-correlation value of .30 was excluded from further analysis in the study. Nunnally's (1967) guidelines were used to determine levels of reliability for the scales and subscales in the study. The guidelines are depicted Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

General guidelines for interpreting reliability coefficients

Reliability coefficient value	Interpretation
0.9 and above	excellent
0.80 – 0.89	good
0.70 – 0.79	adequate
below 0.70	may have limited applicability

Source: Nunnally, J. C. (1967). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

3.6.3 Dimensional Analysis

The objective of dimensionality analysis involves confirming the uni-dimensionality of each sub-scale and removing items with inadequate factor loadings or splitting heterogeneous sub-scales into two or more homogeneous subsets of items (Mahembe, 2010; Pallant, 2010). The factor analysis is conducted to observe if variables have a similar pattern of responses. Yong and Pearce state that the main purpose of the exploratory factor analysis is to “summarize data so that relationships and patterns can be easily interpreted and understood” (2013, p. 79). Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) add on by saying that it identified the relatively independent and coherent subsets of data that are correlated with one another and denoted as factors. SPSS Version 23 was used to perform the analyses. It is important to note that the check for uni-dimensionality was only done per subscale not on the whole scale as conducting EFA on the whole scale would have tantamount to the re-exploration of the underlying factor structure of the scale.

In the analysis process, certain rules were followed to determine the number of factors to be extracted and the items to be included in each factor whilst conducting the exploratory analyses. The rule that was followed was based on the guidelines proposed in Mahembe, (2010, p.41-42) which suggest that:

- ✓ The number of factors to be extracted should not be more than the number of eigenvalues >1.00 , according to Kaiser’s (1961) criterion.
- ✓ An item not loading >0.30 on any factor will be excluded (Field, 2005; Pallant, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).
- ✓ An item loading >0.30 on more than one factor would be excluded if the difference between the higher and the lower loading was 0.25 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).
- ✓ A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO index) value closest to 1, indicating that patterns of correlations are

relatively compact and therefore factor analysis should present distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2005). The cut-off value utilised in this study was 0.70. Kaiser (as cited in Field, 2005) recommends accepting values greater than 0.5 as acceptable, values between 0.5 and 0.7 as mediocre, and values between 0.7 and 0.8 as good while values between 0.8 and 0.9 are great and values above 0.9 are superb.

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

The SEM technique was used to establish the relationship that exists amongst the variables. The SEM was the choice of analysis technique because it helps to explain the patterns of covariance researchers find amongst observed variables in terms of the relationships that the measurement and structural models hypothesises (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000). SEM contains a large number of models which can be utilised to evaluate consistency of theories and scales of data. The SEM is based on two approaches hard- based modelling and the soft modelling. In this particular research the soft-modeling approach was applied. The soft modelling approach is a variance based approach and the purpose of the approach is based on prediction. The Partial Least Squares (PLS) form part of the variance based approach. PLS-SEM is a causal modeling approach aimed at maximizing the explained variance of the dependent latent constructs (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, p.139). PLS allows for the analysis of smaller sample size and allows the detection of pathways between , hence it appealed to this study as the sample size was too small to be analysed by other sophisticated tools like LISREL and SPSS.

Roux (2010, p. 64) refers to the Partial least squares (PLS), as a family of alternating least squares algorithms, or “prescriptions” which extend principal component and canonical correlation analysis. PLS has been viewed with less favourable perception in literature as it is considered to be a less vigorous analytical to when examining

relationships of variables. Another view by researchers who have become more familiar with PLS consider it to be, a “silver bullet” or panacea for dealing with empirical research challenges such as smaller sample sizes (Marcoulides & Saunders 2006; Sosik, Kahai, & Piovoso 2009 as cited in Hair et al., 2011). The motivation of make use of PLS included:

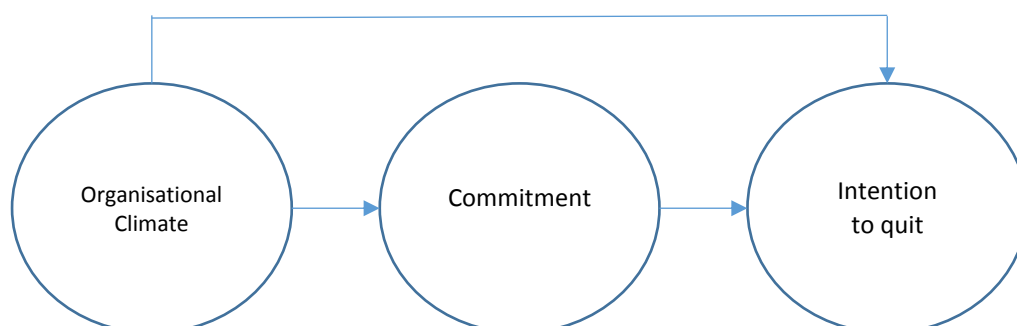
- Its ability to dealing with empirical research challenges such as smaller sample sizes (Marcoulides & Saunders 2006; Sosik, Kahai & Piovoso, 2009).
- PLS-SEM often provides more robust estimations of the structural model (e.g., Lohmöller 1989; Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009; Wold, 1982).
- PLS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

3.6.5 Evaluation of PLS path model results

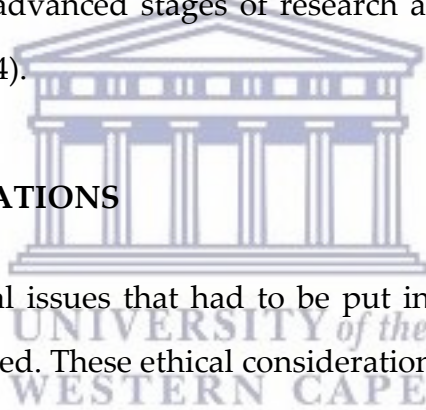
The proposed PLS path model is structured as presented in Figure 3.1

Figure 3.1

Proposed PLS Path Model



The PLS criteria is based on its two way process model, which is made up of the inner and the outer model. The inner model is seen to represent the context—which shows the relationships (paths) between the latent constructs (Hair, et al., 2011). The outer or measurement model on the other hand, includes the unidirectional predictive relationships between each latent construct and its associated observed indicators (Hair et al., 2011, p. 141). The PLS model can look into both the reflective and formative indicators which can reveal the estimated reliability and validity of variables. Hair et al., proposes that unlike Cronbach’s alpha, composite reliability does not assume that all indicators are equally reliable, making it more suitable for PLS-SEM, which prioritizes indicators according to their reliability during model estimation. (2011, p. 145). The Composite reliability values of .60 to .70 in exploratory research and values from 0.70 to 0.90 in more advanced stages of research are regarded as satisfactory (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).



3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

There are number of ethical issues that had to be put into consideration when the research was being conducted. These ethical considerations include:

3.7.1 Confidentiality and Anonymity

Confidentiality refers to the guarantee that the researcher gives to the respondent that no information given will be attributed back to them (Scott, 2005). When conducting research it is important to ensure that the information provided by participants is confidential and it is not given out to any other person without their permission. It is also important to make sure that the information given by the participants is only used for the intended research that they gave the information to. It was ensure in the process of the research that the information of the respondents was kept confidential. When the questionnaires were collected, they were collected directly from the participants or placed in a sealed box to ensure that their information was safe.

Anonymity refers to the state of an individual's personal identity not being publicly known. The research maintained confidentiality and anonymity by not requesting any personal information that will be linked back to the participants. The questionnaire did not ask for the names of the participants or any identification information thus maintaining their anonymity. The research was confidential as the information obtained was only used for this particular research and with people that the participants have been notified about.

3.7.2 Informed consent

It refers to getting permission from the participant to use their responses. A consent form was signed by the participants before they started filling out the questionnaire. The participant were explicitly told about the full intent of the research study and what their responses were to be used for and the aim or goals of the research conducted. The participant only proceeded to fill in the questionnaire after having understood the consent form.



3.7.3 Voluntary participation

No participant was forced into taking part in the research. They respondents were willing to take part in the research study without being coerced or being manipulated into participating. Participation was voluntary and participant were informed that it is their choice to take part in the research.

3.7.4 Deception

Participants must not be deceived when taking part in a research. Deception can be either omission or commission of some parts when communicating the intent of the

research to the participants. This means the researcher has not been honest with the participants, in turn being unethical. Research deception involves an intentional misrepresentation of facts related to the purpose, nature, or consequences of an investigation (Drew, 2007, p. 67). When omission deception takes place the investigator intentionally does not give participants explanatory information on the essential aspects of the study. A commission would be when the researcher gives false information to the participant. As a way of avoiding deception of the participant the research aims at supplying participants with accurate, well detailed information. To ensure that they have understood, a consent form was issued for the participants to sign confirming they understood the intent of the research and what is required of them.

3.8 CONCLUSION

The methodology that was employed in the study was highlighted in this study. The data that was collected in the research was analysed using a number of technical tools which were explained in detail, to determine if relationships exists amongst the variables. The results drawn will be discussed in Chapter 4 in detail.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The main objective of the research study was to assess the influence of organisational culture and organisational commitment on turnover intention in selected retail companies within the Western Cape Province. The main objective and research question was dissected into three objectives which were aligned to three research hypotheses postulated in the study. The purpose of the present chapter is to present the research findings. The analysis of the data begins with presenting results of the reliability of the survey on culture, commitment and turnover intentions instruments followed by a check for uni-dimensionality and the testing of the nature of the relationships under investigation using the Partial Least Squares structural equation modelling technique.

4.2 MISSING VALUES

Missing values in statistics occur when no data has been entered under a variable that is being observed. The missing data can have a significant effect on the conclusions that might be drawn from the data. In his research paper, Royston postulates that, “statisticians have become increasingly aware of the inadequacy of “complete-case analysis of data sets with missing observation (2004, p. 227). The missing values problem has become a common occurrence in some instruments especially self – reporting instruments (Mahembe, 2014). In order to ascertain that all the cases obtained from the data gathering process, are included in the analysis, the issues around missing values have to be addressed in order to ascertain if the values are missing at random or that there is a systematic pattern which requires further investigation In this study there were no systematic patterns in the missing values. A process known as multiple imputation was used to address the problem of missing

values. The idea behind the use of multiple imputation is to replace missing values using averages for the variables in question (Royston, 2004). The LISREL 8.80 software was used to perform the multiple imputation. After the multiple imputation was performed 155 of the 157 data cases analysed were reserved and used in the SPSS analysis and Partial Least Squares analysis (PLS).

4.3 ITEM ANALYSIS

Three questionnaires discussed in Chapter 3 were used to collect data from the sample group. An item analysis using SPSS version 23 was used to determine the reliability of the variables. The purpose of conducting the item analysis was to improve the reliability of the scales by identifying and eliminating items that did not contribute to the internal consistency of the variables measured by the scale.

4.3.1 Item analysis of The Denison Organisational Culture Survey

The Denison Organisational Culture model is made up of four cultural traits. Each trait is made up of 3 indices and each index has 5 items that are measured on a 5 point Likert scale. The survey has 60 questions in total and an item analysis was done for each index.

4.3.1.1 Involvement: Empowerment

The Cronbach alpha obtained for the empowerment index was .884. This reliability coefficient can be regarded as satisfactory as acceptable values for the Cronbach's alpha should be above .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Pallant, 2010). An inspection of the item-total correlations in the Corrected-Item total correlation column in Table 4.1 indicates that all the values are acceptable since they are all above the recommended 0.30 cut-off level (Pallant, 2010). The Item- Total statistics also shows what would happen to the total scale in an item is deleted. Obviously, deleting a poor item would result in a significant increase in the Cronbach's alpha while deleting a good item reduces the reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha). In this case none of

the items would result in a significant increase in alpha when deleted. Therefore all the items were retained.

Table 4.1

The reliability analysis output for the Involvement: Empowerment index

Reliability Statistics					
Cronbach's					
Alpha Based on					
Cronbach's	Standardized		N of Items		
Alpha	Items				
.884	.884				5

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if	Scale Variance if	Corrected Item-	Squared	Cronbach's
	Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item
			Correlation	Correlation	Deleted
IEMP1	15.72	12.347	.664	.471	.872
IEMP2	15.75	11.644	.741	.590	.855
IEMP3	15.70	10.888	.758	.602	.851
IEMP4	15.65	11.826	.720	.555	.860
IEMP5	15.77	11.608	.727	.557	.858

4.3.1.2 Involvement: Team Orientation

The teamwork index aims to draw out information on how people work within a team and the structures of teams within the organisation. A Cronbach alpha of .858 was obtained for the team orientation index. The corrected item-total correlation values that are presented in the Item-Total Statistics table gives an indication of the degree to which each item correlates with the total score (Mahembe, 2014; Pallant, 2010). If low values of less than 0.30 are obtained it indicates that an item is measuring something contrary from the scale as a whole (Pallant, 2010). The corrected item-total correlation -table for the team orientation index shows that all the corrected item-total correlations were larger than .30. The item-total statistics indicated that the reliability coefficient

would not increase if any items had to be deleted, meaning that the reliability coefficient is satisfactory.

Table 4.2

The reliability analysis output for the Involvement: Team Orientation index

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's		
Alpha Based on		
Cronbach's	Standardized	
Alpha	Items	N of Items
.858	.858	5

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if	Scale Variance if	Corrected Item-	Squared	Cronbach's
	Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item
			Correlation	Correlation	Deleted
ITEA6	15.83	9.495	.722	.563	.815
ITEA7	15.70	9.470	.704	.561	.820
ITEA8	15.57	9.805	.707	.509	.820
ITEA9	15.54	10.678	.616	.403	.843
ITEA10	15.78	10.107	.622	.404	.841

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4.3.1.3 Involvement: Capability development

The capability development index had an internal consistency coefficient of $\alpha = .704$ which is slightly above the cut off value of .70 considered satisfactory in this study. The corrected item- total correlation indicated that all items correlated were above .30 with the total score. (Pallant, 2010). Of the items in the index none of the items were flagged as being problematic. The item-total statistics indicated that the Cronbach alpha would increase to $\alpha = .823$ if item ICAP15R is to be deleted. The item was excluded from all the subsequent analyses since it is a poor item. This is depicted in the table 4.3.

Table 4.3

The reliability analysis output for the Involvement: Capability Development index

Reliability Statistics					
Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items					
	Cronbach's Alpha		Items		N of Items
	.704		.727		5

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
ICAP11	13.45	7.833	.482	.321	.646
ICAP12	13.14	7.806	.707	.576	.568
ICAP13	13.27	7.147	.672	.579	.560
ICAP14	13.09	8.148	.548	.410	.622
ICAP15R	14.41	10.283	.056	.017	.823

4.3.1.4 Consistency: Core Values

The consistency trait is formed by 3 indices with include, core values, agreement and coordination and integration. Cronbach alpha of .745 was obtained for the Core Values. The corrected item-total correlation values presented in the Item-Total Statistics table gives an indication of the extent to which each item correlates with the total score (Mahembe , 2014). If Low values, less than .30 are obtained, it indicates that the item is measuring something different from the scale as a whole (Pallant, 2010). As indicated in Table below, all the corrected item-total correlations were larger than .30 (Pallant, 2010). The item-total statistics indicated that the reliability coefficient would increase slightly if the item CCOR19 is to be deleted, to $\alpha = .755$. However, the item was not deleted, due to the fact that, the magnitude of the change in Cronbach alpha is not significant. The output is presented in the table 4.4.

Table 4.4

The reliability analysis output for the Consistency: Core Values index

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha Based on		
Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized Items	N of Items
.745	.750	5

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
CCOR16	15.41	7.218	.445	.349	.731
CCOR17	15.10	7.127	.564	.401	.679
CCOR18	14.84	6.591	.703	.515	.622
CCOR19	14.61	8.473	.344	.378	.755
CCOR20	14.44	8.105	.531	.461	.698

4.3.1.5 Consistency: Agreement

The main focus of the agreement index is on how people would reach agreement in difficult situations or when problems arise. The index had an internal consistency of $\alpha = .644$. This internal consistency index was below the critical cut off of 0.70. The corrected item-total correlation indicated that all the items correlated above .30 with the total score and formed part of the same construct with the exception of item CAGR24R (Pallant, 2010). This item was a negative item and it had to be reversed. After being reversed, item CAGR24R remained a poor item with its corrected item-total correlation at -0.05. A decision was taken to exclude the item as it decreased the internal consistency coefficient. With the item excluded an internal consistency coefficient of .785 was recorded. This is shown in the table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5

The reliability analysis output for the Consistency: Agreement index

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha Based on		
Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized Items	N of Items
.644	.670	5

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
CAGR21	13.72	6.698	.547	.470	.522
CAGR22	13.59	6.788	.564	.434	.519
CAGR23	14.17	6.482	.471	.261	.553
CAGR25	13.66	6.551	.562	.383	.512
CAGR24R	14.85	8.976	-.005	.023	.785

4.3.1.6 Consistency: Coordination and Integration

The coordination and integration index had an internal consistency coefficient of $\alpha = .748$. The Cronbach alpha was slightly above the cut off value of 0.70 for this study. The corrected item-total correlation indicated that all the items correlated above .30 with the total score and formed part of the same construct (Pallant, 2010). Item CCOO29 had a corrected item-total correlation of .129 which was way below the cut of point of .30. The Cronbach alpha increased to .845 when the item was excluded. This is depicted in table 4.6.

Table 4.6

The reliability analysis output for the Consistency: Coordination and Integration index

Reliability Statistics					
Cronbach's					
Alpha Based on					
Cronbach's	Standardized		N of Items		
Alpha	Items				
.748	.762				5

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if	Scale Variance if	Corrected Item-	Squared	Cronbach's
	Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item
			Correlation	Correlation	Deleted
CCOO26	13.74	8.702	.607	.382	.676
CCOO27	13.90	7.522	.694	.551	.631
CCOO28	14.15	7.634	.645	.513	.650
CCOO29	14.23	10.400	.129	.042	.845
CCOO30	13.77	8.465	.609	.476	.672

4.3.1.7 Adaptability: Creating change

Adaptability refers to how an organisation performs in relation to the business environment. The adaptability train has 3 indices inclusive of creating change, customer focus and organisational learning. A Cronbach alpha of .636 was obtained for the creating change index. This is below the acceptable cut off value of 0.70. The corrected item-total correlation indicated that all the items are correlating above .30 with the total score (Pallant, 2010). Item ACR34R was flagged as problematic, it was a negative item and went through a process of reversal. Its item-total correlation was below .30 recording a corrected item total correlation of -.147. The item was excluded and an internal consistency coefficient $\alpha = .806$ was recorded. The output is shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7

The reliability analysis output for the Adaptability: Creating Change index

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha Based on		
Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized Items	N of Items
.636	.643	5

Item-Total Statistics						
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	
ACR31	13.55	5.651	.504	.363	.520	
ACR32	13.27	5.446	.667	.493	.435	
ACR33	13.12	6.012	.634	.547	.474	
ACR35	13.25	6.199	.465	.385	.545	
ACR34R	14.55	9.275	-.147	.055	.806	

4.3.1.8 Adaptability: Customer Focus

The customer focus has an internal consistency coefficient of $\alpha = .581$ which fell below the acceptable cut off value of 0.70. The corrected item-total correlation indicated that the items all correlated satisfactorily above .30 with the total score with the exception of item ACST39R (Pallant, 2010). Item ACST39R was considered to be problematic as it was way below the item-total correlation of .30, it recorded an item-total correlation of -.012. The item was subsequently excluded and an internal consistency coefficient of .773 was recorded. This is illustrated in the table 4.8.

Table 4.8

The reliability analysis output for the Adaptability: Customer Focus index

Reliability Statistics					
Cronbach's					
Alpha Based on					
Cronbach's	Standardized		N of Items		
Alpha	Items				
.581	.659				5

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if	Scale Variance if	Corrected Item-	Squared	Cronbach's
	Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item
			Correlation	Correlation	Deleted
ACST36	15.64	5.947	.536	.578	.424
ACST37	15.59	6.126	.550	.593	.427
ACST38	15.81	5.742	.446	.274	.460
ACST40	15.50	6.771	.440	.298	.490
ACST39R	16.33	7.404	-.012	.012	.773

4.3.1.9 Adaptability: Organisational Learning

A Cronbach alpha of .684 was obtained from the organisational learning index. The Cronbach alpha was marginally below the cut off value of 0.70 which is viewed as satisfactory in this study. The corrected item-total correlation indicated that the items all correlated satisfactorily above .30 with the total score with the exception of item AORG43R (Pallant, 2010). The item was deleted and an internal consistency coefficient $\alpha = .848$ was obtained as show in the Table 4.9.

Table 4.9

The reliability analysis output for the Adaptability: Organisational Learning index

Reliability Statistics					
Cronbach's					
Alpha Based on					
Cronbach's	Standardized				
Alpha	Items	N of Items			
.684	.715	5			

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if	Scale Variance if	Corrected Item-	Squared	Cronbach's
	Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item
			Correlation	Correlation	Deleted
AORG41	14.43	6.818	.629	.461	.564
AORG42	14.86	6.136	.572	.433	.569
AORG44	14.37	6.650	.633	.547	.557
AORG45	14.64	6.076	.652	.531	.533
AORG43R	15.65	9.399	-.062	.015	.848

4.3.1.10 Mission: Strategic Direction and Intent

The mission of an organisation stipulates the direction in which the organisation is going. The mission trait encompasses the strategic direction and intent, goals and objectives and vision. A Cronbach alpha of .817 was obtained for the strategic direction and intent index. None of the items were flagged as problematic. All the corrected item-total correlations were larger than .30 which is acceptable (Pallant, 2010). The item-total correlation indicated that Cronbach alpha would only increase to $\alpha = .880$ if item MSTR50R was deleted. All items were retained because the increase in alpha was not as substantial. The output is present in the table 4.10.

Table 4.10

The reliability analysis output for the Mission: Strategic Intent and Direction index

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha Based on		
Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized Items	N of Items
.817	.838	5

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
MSTR46	14.85	8.608	.729	.649	.745
MSTR47	15.05	9.615	.619	.525	.781
MSTR48	14.89	9.033	.752	.657	.745
MSTR49	14.99	8.552	.719	.551	.747
MSTR50R	15.55	9.470	.349	.183	.880

4.3.1.11 Mission: Goals and objectives

A Cronbach alpha of .904 was obtained for the goals and objectives index. All the corrected item-total correlations and squared multiple correlations were larger than .30. None of the items were flagged as problematic. The Cronbach alpha was significantly high above the critical cut off value of 0.70. This suggests quite a strong relationship amongst items (Pallant, 2010). The output is shown the table 4.11.

Table 4.11

The reliability analysis output for the Mission: Goals and Objectives index

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha Based on		
Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized Items	N of Items
.904	.905	5

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
MGOA51	15.03	11.486	.792	.634	.877
MGOA52	15.10	10.807	.819	.676	.870
MGOA53	15.18	11.006	.756	.616	.885
MGOA54	14.94	11.471	.782	.628	.879
MGOA55	14.94	11.925	.662	.467	.904

4.3.1.12 Mission: Vision

A Cronbach alpha of .843 was obtained for the vision index. All the corrected item-total correlations and squared multiple correlations were larger than .30. None of the items were flagged as problematic. The Cronbach alpha was significantly high above the critical cut off value of 0.70. The item-total statistics indicated that the reliability coefficient would increase slightly if the item MISV58 is to be deleted, to $\alpha = .881$ but the increase is not substantial to warrant the deletion of the item. This suggests quite a strong relationship amongst items (Pallant, 2010). The output is shown the table 4.12.

Table 4.12

The reliability analysis output for the Mission: Vision index

Reliability Statistics					
Cronbach's					
Alpha Based on					
Cronbach's	Standardized				
Alpha	Items	N of Items			
.843	.849	5			

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if	Scale Variance if	Corrected Item-	Squared	Cronbach's
	Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item
			Correlation	Correlation	Deleted
MVIS56	14.88	8.883	.716	.630	.793
MISV57	14.75	8.784	.749	.597	.785
MISV58	15.07	9.936	.406	.203	.881
MISV59	14.86	8.876	.726	.568	.791
MISV60	14.96	8.998	.695	.503	.799

4.3.2 Item analysis of the Meyer and Allen three component organisational commitment scale

The Meyer and Allen organisational commitment scale as outlined in Chapter 3 is composed of the affective commitment, normative commitment and the continuance commitment. Meyer and Allen organisational commitment is a self-reporting questionnaire with 15 items. Item analysis of the 3 subscales is presented in this section.

4.3.2.1. Affective commitment

The affective commitment subscale had an internal consistency coefficient of $\alpha = .871$ that falls within the critical cut off value of 0.70 considered satisfactory in this study. The corrected item-total correlation indicated that the items all correlated above .30. None of the items would result in a significant increase in Cronbach alpha when

deleted. None of the items were flagged as problematic. This suggested a strong relationship among items (Pallant, 2010). This is depicted in the table 4.13.

Table 4.13

The reliability analysis output for the affective commitment subscale

Reliability Statistics					
Cronbach's					
Alpha Based on					
Cronbach's	Standardized		N of Items		
Alpha	Items	N of Items			
.871	.872	5			

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if	Scale Variance if	Corrected Item-	Squared	Cronbach's
	Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item
			Correlation	Correlation	Deleted
AFF1	13.35	14.984	.654	.474	.856
AFF2	12.88	16.212	.585	.419	.870
AFF3R	12.76	15.508	.695	.616	.844
AFF4R	12.75	14.722	.802	.772	.819
AFF5R	12.95	14.810	.762	.673	.828

4.3.2.2 Continuance commitment

The continuance commitment has a slightly unsatisfactory internal consistency coefficient of $\alpha = .637$. The corrected item-total correlation indicated that the items all correlated above .30 with the total score with exception of CONT 4 which has a corrected item-total correlation of .104. If item CONT 4 is deleted it would in a significant increase in alpha of .739. This suggests there is somewhat weak relationship amongst the items (Pallant, 2010). Hence CONT 4 of the items was flagged as problematic and the item was therefore deleted. This is depicted in the Table 4.14.

Table 4.14

The reliability analysis output for the affective continuance commitment subscale

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha Based on		
Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized Items	N of Items
.637	.665	5

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
CONT1	13.38	9.198	.396	.348	.581
CONT2	13.20	8.681	.621	.485	.478
CONT3	13.14	9.053	.507	.353	.529
CONT4	13.68	10.776	.104	.020	.739
CONT5	13.18	9.513	.444	.310	.561

4.3.2.3 Normative commitment

The normative commitment subscale has an internal consistency coefficient of $\alpha = .444$ that falls significantly below the critical cut off value of 0.70 considered satisfactory in this study and which serious raises question whether the subscale can be used in this study (Nunnally, 1967). The corrected item-total correlation indicated that 2 of the items correlated above .30 with the total (Pallant, 2010). 2 of the items (NORM1 and NORM4R) had to be deleted. This increased the Cronbach's alpha coefficient to .59 which was below the acceptable level. The table 4.15 below represents the analysis of the normative commitment.

Table 4.15

The reliability analysis output for the normative commitment subscale

Reliability Statistics					
Cronbach's					
Alpha Based on					
Cronbach's	Standardized				
Alpha	Items	N of Items			
.444	.430	5			

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if	Scale Variance if	Corrected Item-	Squared	Cronbach's
	Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item
			Correlation	Correlation	Deleted
NORM1	12.96	9.141	.054	.012	.498
NORM2	13.37	6.327	.494	.276	.182
NORM3	13.61	7.369	.245	.227	.380
NORM5	13.25	6.836	.327	.128	.313
NORM4R	13.49	8.862	.071	.116	.494

4.3.3 Item analysis of the Turnover Intention Questionnaire

As outlined in Chapter 3, the turnover intention questionnaire which was used in this study was a questionnaire which was developed by Roodt (2004). The questionnaire consists of 14 questions. The items on the questionnaire are measured against seven-point response anchored scale which range at extreme points, ("never" indicated by 1- lowest intensity to "always" 7- highest intensity (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). The item analysis of the questionnaire is presented in this section.

The Turnover Intention questionnaire has an internal consistency coefficient of $\alpha = .895$. The corrected item-total correlation indicated that the items all correlated above .30 with the total score except for item TI8 (Pallant, 2010). Deleting the item TI8 would increase the Cronbach alpha to $\alpha = .903$. It was decided to exclude the item TI8 in further analyses. This is depicted in the table 4.16.

Table 4.16

The reliability analysis output for the turnover intention questionnaire

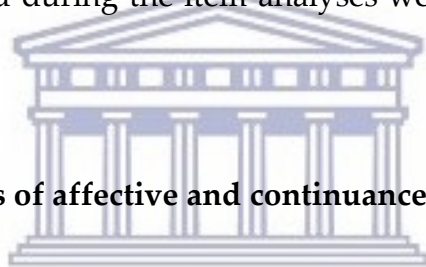
Reliability Statistics					
	Cronbach's Alpha		Based on Standardized Items		
	Alpha	Items	N of Items		
	.895	.893	14		

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
TI1	55.75	309.449	.769	.754	.879
TI2	56.14	307.585	.707	.661	.881
TI3	55.97	313.564	.734	.682	.881
TI4	56.57	313.376	.699	.660	.882
TI5	56.93	327.872	.544	.381	.889
TI6	55.59	314.412	.674	.634	.883
TI7	54.96	328.349	.603	.581	.887
TI8	55.90	367.309	-.003	.114	.908
TI9	55.91	335.005	.392	.260	.895
TI10	55.95	317.958	.575	.408	.888
TI11	56.95	329.049	.439	.311	.894
TI12	56.39	308.979	.776	.680	.879
TI13	56.43	310.986	.744	.648	.880
TI14	56.77	323.215	.483	.484	.892

4.4 DIMENSIONALITY ANALYSIS

In this section the main focus is drawn to the exploratory factor analysis results of the various instruments used in the study. The factor analysis is conducted to observe if variables have a similar pattern of responses. Yong and Pearce state that the main purpose of the exploratory factor analysis is to “summarize data so that relationships and patterns can be easily interpreted and understood” (2013, p. 79). It assists in the process of separating and isolating constructs and concepts. Exploratory factor analysis is believed to operate on the notion that the measurable and observable

variables can go through a reduction process in order to have fewer latent variables that share a common variance and are unobservable (Bartholomew, Knott & Moustaki, 2011). The EFA is used in this research study in order to confirm the uni-dimensionality of each of the subscales used in the study. It is important because in the creation of item parcels that will be used to determine the nature of the relationships under investigation – the item parcels should be based on subscales that are uni-dimensional. The factor analyses was also used as a way of identifying the items with insufficient loadings as well as to split the subscales into two or more homogenous subsets of the item if the uni-dimensionality is not achieved (Mahembe, 2010). The eigenvalue-greater than unity-rule of thumb was used to determine the number of factors to be extracted. SPSS Version 23 was used to perform the analyses. The items that were deleted during the item analyses were not included in the PLS analyses.



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4.4.1 Dimensional Analysis of affective and continuance commitment

4.4.1.1 The dimensionality analysis of the affective commitment subscale

The affective commitment scale obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of .788 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic value was 445.293 ($df = 10$; $p = 0.00$) which allowed for the identity matrix null hypothesis to be rejected. There was therefore strong evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable. "The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) is said to be a measure of sampling adequacy and reflects the ratio of the sum of the squared inter-item correlations to the sum of the squared inter-item correlations plus the sum of the squared partial inter-item correlations, summed across all correlations. When the KMO approaches unity, or at least achieves a value bigger than .60, the correlation matrix is deemed factor analysable" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007 as cited in Mahembe, 2014, p 112). Field (2005) recommends accepting KMO values greater than .5 as acceptable, values between .5

and .7 as mediocre, and values between .7 and .8 as good while values between .8 and .9 are great and values above .9 are superb. All the items of the affective commitment scale were included in the dimensionality analysis as none of the items were found to be poor item in the item analysis. One factor was extracted, since only that one factor obtained an eigenvalue greater than 1. A total variance of 59.12% was accounted for by the affective commitment factor. The factor matrix indicated that all the items loaded on one factor satisfactorily as all factor loadings were larger than .50 and they ranged between .60 and .85. This is depicted in the table 4.17.

Table 4.17

Factor matrix for the affective commitment subscale

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.788
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	445.293
	Df	10
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor
	1
AFF1	.681
AFF2	.604
AFF3R	.772
AFF4R	.905
AFF5R	.845

4.4.1.2 The dimensionality analysis of the Continuance commitment

During the item analysis process one of the items (CONT 4) was excluded from the analysis as it was a poor item, hence it was not included in the dimensional analysis. The continuance commitment scale obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of .671 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic

obtained a value of 166.111 ($df = 6$; $p = 0.00$) which allowed for the identity matrix null hypothesis to be rejected. There was therefore strong evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable.

Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained and a variance of 44.32% was accounted for. The factor matrix indicated that all the items loaded on one factor satisfactorily as all factor loadings were between .53 and .85. The results of the factor structure is shown in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18

Factor matrix for the continuance commitment subscale

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.671
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	161.111
	Df	6
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor 1
CONT1	.556
CONT2	.854
CONT3	.666
CONT5	.538

4.4.2 Dimensional Analysis of the Turnover Questionnaire

The Turnover Intention questionnaire could not be proven to be uni-dimensional in the initial round of the exploratory factor analysis. The first round of exploratory factor analysis had all items included and it reflected the existence of three factors. Four of the fourteen items performed as complex items, as they loaded on more than one factor. The items identified as complex included TI5, TI8, TI9 and TI14 as they loaded on more than one factor and the difference between them was less than .250. When the four items were removed uni-dimensionality was achieved. The factor

loadings were all substantially above .50 with the exception of item TI10 which was below .5. The variance accumulated with the 10 remaining items recorded a 52.71%. The results are shown in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19

Factor matrix for the Turnover Intention Questionnaire

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.908
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	947.291
	Df	45
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor
	1
TI1	.874
TI2	.790
TI3	.808
TI4	.739
TI6	.745
TI7	.673
TI10	.569
TI11	.399
TI12	.783
TI13	.761

4.4.3 Dimensional Analysis of the Organisational culture survey

4.4.3.1 Dimensionality analysis output of the Involvement: Empowerment index

The empowerment index obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of .842 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic achieved a value of 403.078 ($df = 10$; $p = 0.00$). This permitted for the identity matrix null hypothesis to be rejected. There was enough evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable (Kaiser as cited in Field, 2005). One factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained when the results were drawn. From the analyses it was suggested

that a single factor could be extracted by the screen plot. All factor loadings were greater than .50 and the factor matrix indicated that all items loaded adequately on one factor. The uni-dimensionality postulation was confirmed. The results are displayed in the table 4.20.

Table 4.20

Factor matrix for the Involvement: Empowerment index

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.842
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	403.078
	Df	10
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor 1
IEMP1	.712
IEMP2	.798
IEMP3	.822
IEMP4	.774
IEMP5	.784

4.4.3.2 The dimensional analysis output for the Involvement: Team orientation index

The Team orientation scale obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of .783 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic obtained a value of 253.235 ($df = 10$; $p = 0.00$) which allowed for the identity matrix null hypothesis to be rejected. There was therefore strong evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable (Kaiser as cited in Field, 2005). Initially when all items were analysed 2 factors with an eigenvalue of more than 1 were obtained. In order to obtain one factor from the index, item ITEA10 had to be excluded for the analysis as it proved to be the complex item.

After the exclusion of the complex item, only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained. The scree plot also suggested that a single factor should be

extracted. The factor matrix indicated that all the items loaded on one factor satisfactorily as all factor loadings were larger than .50. The resultant factor structure is shown in Table 4.21

Table 4.21

Factor matrix for the Involvement: Team Orientation index

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.783
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	253.235
	Df	6
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor
	1
ITEA6	.798
ITEA7	.813
ITEA8	.779
ITEA9	.629

4.4.3.3 Dimensional analysis output of Capability Development

During the item analysis procedure of the Capability Development index, item ICAP15 was excluded from the analysis as it proved to be a poor item, hence it was also excluded in the factor analysis. In the dimensional analysis, the capability development index achieved a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of .778 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic obtained a value of 242.533 ($df = 6$; $p = 0.00$). This allowed for the rejection of the identity matrix null hypothesis. Strong evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable was gathered (Kaiser as cited in Field, 2005). The index was proved to be uni-dimensional as it obtained only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1. The evidence that only one factor should be extracted was presented on the screen plot. The factor matrix indicated that the items loaded satisfactorily as all factor loadings were greater than

.50. The uni-dimensionality assumption was then validated. This is displayed in the output Table 4.22.

Table 4.22

Factor matrix for the Involvement: Capability Development index

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.778
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	242.533
	Df	6
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor
	1
ICAP11	.598
ICAP12	.845
ICAP13	.845
ICAP14	.684

4.4.3.4 Dimensionality analysis output of Consistency: Core values index

The Core Values index obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of .708 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic obtained a value of 168.266 ($df = 6$; $p = 0.00$) which allowed for the identity matrix null hypothesis to be rejected. With reference to Kaiser, (as cited in Field, 2005), it can be deduced that there is sufficient evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained and a total variance of 46.67%. In the item analysis one item of the Core value index was excluded from continuous analysis. The scree plot drawn from the analysis also suggested that a single factor should be extracted. All items loaded satisfactorily above .50 with the exception of one item (CCOR20) with loaded slightly below .50 as shown in the factor matrix table. Hence the uni-dimensionality assumption was validated. The results are displayed in the table 4.23.

Table 4.23

Factor matrix for the Consistency: Core Values index

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.708
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	168.266
	Df	6
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor
	1
CCOR16	.608
CCOR17	.714
CCOR18	.881
CCOR20	.461

4.4.3.5 Dimensional analysis output of Consistency: Agreement

The Agreement index obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of .768 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic obtained a value of 179.882 ($df = 6$; $p = 0.00$) which allowed for the identity matrix null hypothesis to be rejected. With reference to Kaiser, (as cited in Field, 2005), it can be deduced that there is sufficient evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained. In the item analysis one item of the Agreement, index was excluded from continuous analysis. The scree plot drawn from the analysis also suggested that a single factor should be extracted. A total variance of 49.49% was accounted for this factor. All items loaded satisfactorily above .50 as shown on the factor matrix table. Hence the uni-dimensionality assumption was validated. The results are displayed in the table 4.24.

Table 4.24

Factor matrix for the Consistency: Agreement index

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.768
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	179.882
	Df	6
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor
	1
CAGR21	.783
CAGR22	.758
CAGR23	.561
CAGR25	.690

4.4.3.6 Dimensional analysis output of Consistency: Coordination and integration

The Coordination and Integration index obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of .808 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic achieved a value of 255.101 ($df = 10$; $p = 0.00$). This permitted for the identity matrix null hypothesis to be rejected. There was enough evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable (Kaiser as cited in Field, 2005). One factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained when the results were drawn and a variance of 46.98% was recorded. From the analyses it was suggested that a single factor could be extracted by the scree plot. All factor loadings were satisfactorily loaded above .50 with the exception of one item (CCOO29) which poorly loaded at .140. The uni-dimensionality postulation was confirmed. The results are displayed in the table 4.25.

Table 4.25

Factor matrix for the Adaptability: Creating Change index

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.808
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	255.101
	Df	10
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix^a

	Factor
	1
CCOO26	.670
CCOO27	.833
CCOO28	.792
CCOO29	.140
CCOO30	.748

4.4.3.7 Dimensional analysis output of Adaptability: Creating Change

The Creating Change index obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of .763 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic achieved a value of 216.037 ($df = 6$; $p = 0.00$). This permitted for the identity matrix null hypothesis to be rejected. There was enough evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable (Kaiser as cited in Field, 2005). One factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained when the results were drawn and a total variance of 53.30%. From the analyses it was suggested that a single factor could be extracted by the scree plot. All factor loadings were satisfactorily loaded above .50. Hence the uni-dimensionality postulation was confirmed. The results are displayed in the table 4.26.

Table 4.26

Factor matrix for the Adaptability: Creating Change index

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.763
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	216.037
	Df	6
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor
	1
ACR31	.629
ACR32	.785
ACR33	.848
ACR35	.633

4.4.3.8 Dimensional analysis output of Adaptability: Customer focus

The Customer Focus index obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of .694 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic achieved a value of 208.935 ($df=6$; $p=0.00$). This permitted for the identity matrix null hypothesis to be rejected. There was enough evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable (Kaiser as cited in Field, 2005). One factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained when the results were drawn. A total variance of 49.61% was accounted for by the customer focus factor. From the analyses it was suggested that a single factor could be extracted by the scree plot. All factor loadings were satisfactorily loaded above .50. The uni-dimensionality postulation was confirmed. The results are displayed in the table 4.27.

Table 4.27

Factor matrix for the Adaptability: Customer Focus index

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.694
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	208.935
	Df	6
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor
	1
ACST36	.806
ACST37	.847
ACST38	.536
ACST40	.575

4.4.3.9 Dimensional analysis output of Organisational Learning

The Organisational Learning index obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of .84 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic achieved a value of 259.320 ($df = 6$; $p = 0.00$). This permitted for the identity matrix null hypothesis to be rejected. There was enough evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable (Kaiser as cited in Field, 2005). One factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained when the results were drawn. From the analyses it was suggested that a single factor could be extracted by the scree plot and a variance of 59.31% was recorded. All factor loadings were satisfactorily loaded above .50. The uni-dimensionality postulation was confirmed. The results are displayed in the table 4.28.

Table 28

Factor matrix for the Adaptability: Organisational Learning index

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.814
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	259.320
	Df	6
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor
	1
AORG41	.746
AORG42	.718
AORG44	.813
AORG45	.799

4.4.3.10 Dimensional Analysis output of Mission: Strategic Direction and Intent

The Strategic Direction and Intent index proved to be uni-dimensional. It obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of .800 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic achieved a value of 368.054 ($df = 10$; $p = 0.00$). This permitted for the identity matrix null hypothesis to be rejected. There was enough evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable (Kaiser as cited in Field, 2005). One factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained when the results were drawn. From the analyses it was suggested that a single factor could be extracted by the scree plot and a variance of 55.06% was recorded. All factor loadings were satisfactorily loaded above .50. The uni-dimensionality postulation was confirmed. The results are displayed in the table 4.29.

Table 4.29

Factor matrix for the Mission: Strategic Intent index

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.800
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	368.054
	Df	10
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor
	1
MSTR46	.852
MSTR47	.732
MSTR48	.871
MSTR49	.774

4.4.3.11 Dimensional Analysis Output of Mission: Goals and Objectives

The Goals and Objectives index obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of .877 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic achieved a value of 481.418 ($df = 10$; $p = 0.00$). This permitted for the identity matrix null hypothesis to be rejected. There was enough evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable (Kaiser as cited in Field, 2005). One factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained when the results were drawn. From the analyses it was suggested that a single factor could be extracted by the scree plot and a variance of 66.04% was recorded. All factor loadings were satisfactorily loaded above .50. The unidimensionality postulation was confirmed. The results are displayed in the table 4.30.

Table 4.30

Factor matrix for the Mission: Goal and Objectives index

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.877
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	481.418
	Df	10
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor
	1
MGOA51	.843
MGOA52	.874
MGOA53	.806
MGOA54	.831
MGOA55	.699

4.4.3.12 Dimensional Analysis output of Mission: Vision

The Vision index obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of .826 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic achieved a value of 356.177 ($df = 10$; $p = 0.00$). This permitted for the identity matrix null hypothesis to be rejected. There was enough evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable (Kaiser as cited in Field, 2005). One factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained when the results were drawn. From the analyses it was suggested that a single factor could be extracted by the scree plot and a variance of 55.75% was recorded. All factor loadings were satisfactorily loaded above .50 with the exception of one item (MISV58) which loaded slightly below acceptable level at .432. The uni-dimensionality postulation was confirmed. The results are displayed in the table 4.31.

Table 4.31

Factor matrix for the Mission: Vision index

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.826
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	356.177
	Df	10
	Sig.	.000

Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor
	1
MVIS56	.825
MISV57	.830
MISV58	.432
MISV59	.804
MISV60	.764

4.5 RESULTS OF THE MEASUREMENT AND STRUCTURAL MODELS

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

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

As a starting point in understanding the PLS a two way block model is used. The 2 way block refers to the situation where the researcher is able to partition indicators (i.e.) observed variables into 2 groups where each block of indicator is felt to capture some underlying issue of construct (Chin 1998, p. 298). The 2 process model is formed of a measurement model which looks at the relationship between the observed data and the latent variables, and the structural model which represents the relationship that exists between the latent variables. The SmartPLS 3 programme was utilised for

the analysis. When making use of this method, if zero is included in the confidence interval, then the corresponding coefficient is not significant (Roux, 2010).

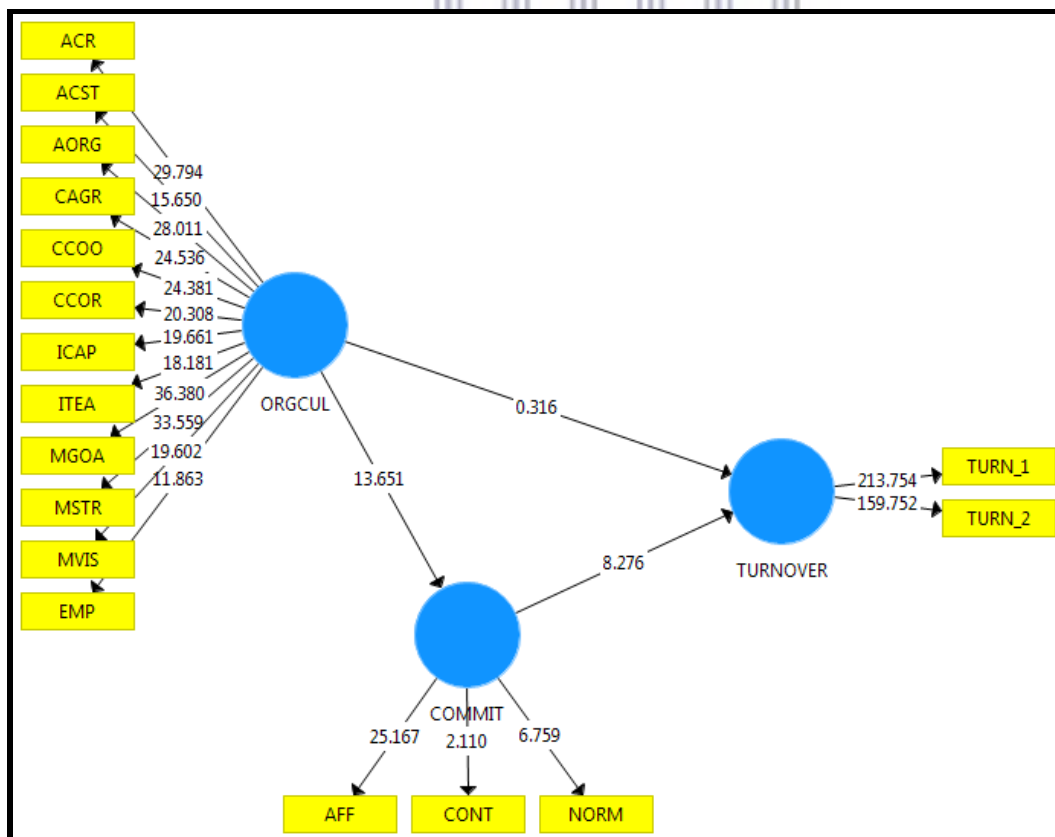
The analysis using the SmartPLS draws back to the research questions pointed out in Chapter 3. The hypothesized relationships that were put to test, included:

- To determine if organisational culture has an influence on organisational commitment
- To determine if organisational culture has an influence on turnover intentions
- To determine if organisational commitment has an influence on turnover intention

In line with the research objectives, the PLS Path Model which was built, is depicted in Figure 4.1 below. In this Figure, the path coefficients are indicated.

Figure 4.1

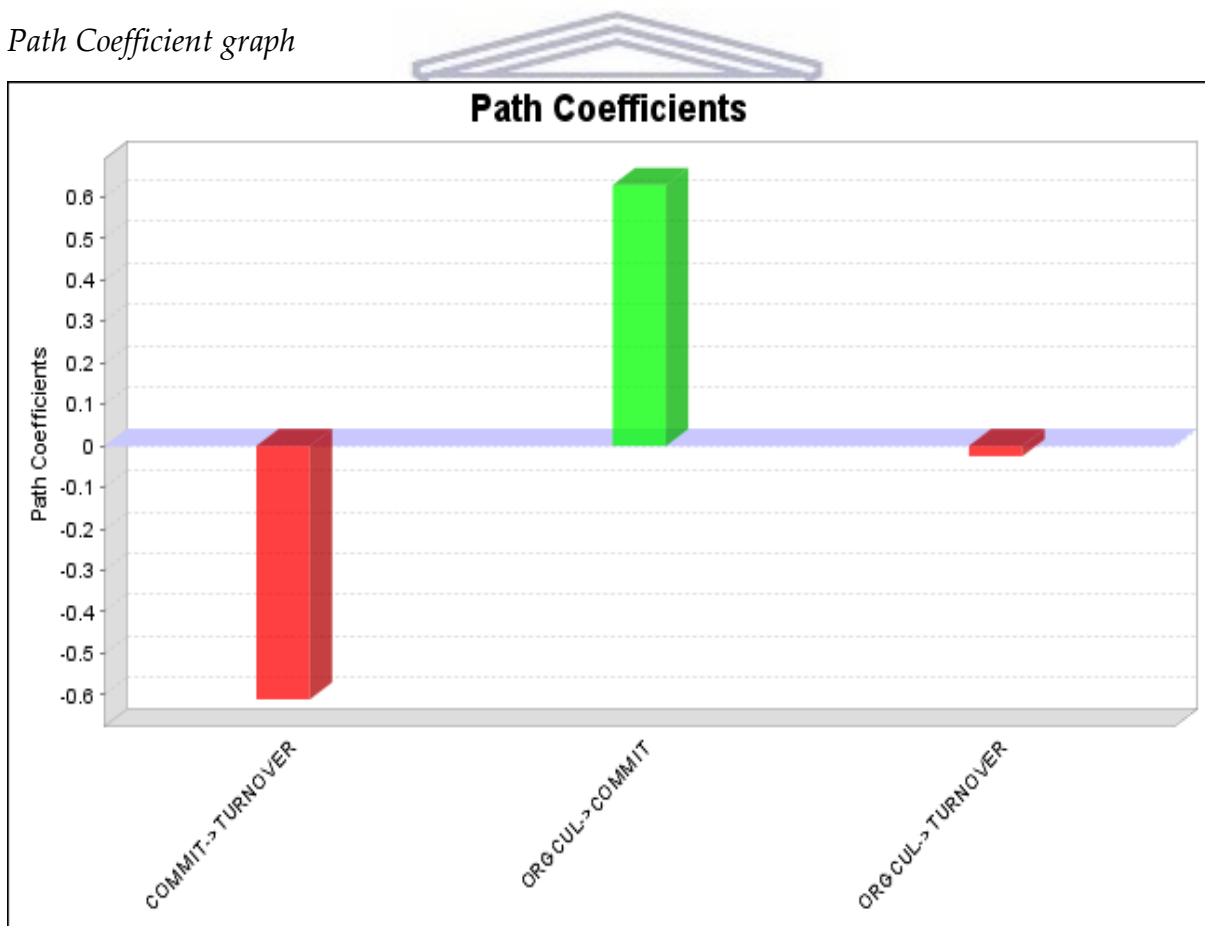
PLS Path model



In order to consider a path to be significant it must have obtained a T value that is greater than 1.96 (Chi, 2006). The PLS path model shows the structural model and the related hypotheses. The t-values for the path between organisational culture and commitment is greater than 1.96 and is significant at $p < 0.05$ (path coefficient = 0.60, t value = 13.651). The relationship between commitment and turnover intentions has a t-value greater 1.96 and the path coefficient is below the $p < 0.05$ interval (t value = 8.276, path coefficient = -0.60). The t-value between organisational culture and turnover has a t value that is significantly below 1.96 and the path coefficient is below the $p < 0.05$ (path coefficient = 0, t value = 0.316). The path coefficient values are displayed in the graph in Figure 4.2:

Figure 4.2

Path Coefficient graph



4.5.1 Goodness of fit

According to Roux (2010), the Goodness-of-fit indices, refer to numerical indices that are aimed at evaluating how well a model accounts for the data. The indices are comparable over a series of model which may increase the number of common factors. Fletcher, 2007 (as cited in Roux 2010, p 55) stipulates that “ the appropriate number of factors is determined by fitting a model in which a model with one less factor demonstrates substantially poorer fit and a model with one more factor provides little improvement in fit”.

4.5.2 Analysis of the VIF values for multicollinearity diagnostics

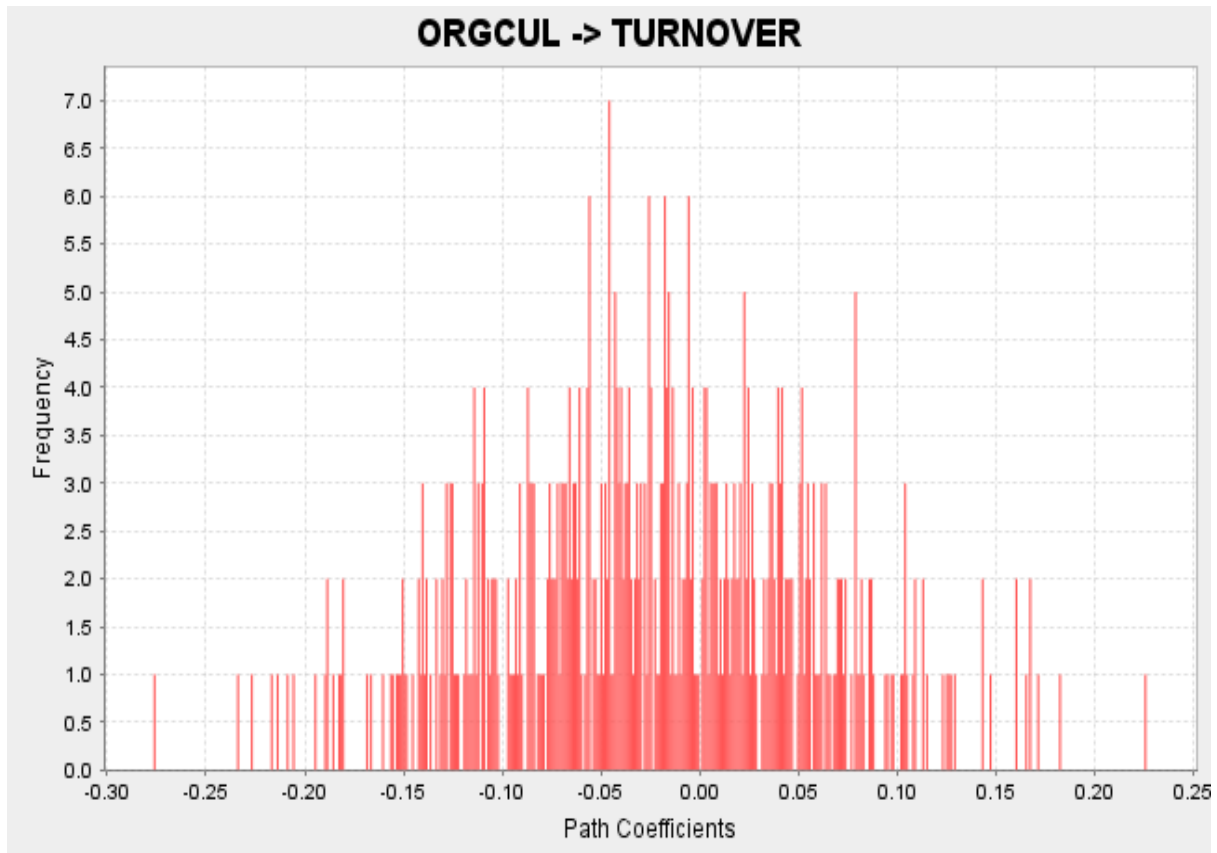
Multicollinearity refers to the statistical phenomenon in which there is an existence of a perfect or exact relationship between the predictor values (Joshi, 2012). When there is a perfect relationship it deems it difficult to come up with reliable estimates of their individual estimates. The multicollinearity can be analysed through the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) which is aimed at measuring the impact of collinearity among the variables in a regression model. Values of VIF that exceed 10 are often regarded as indicating multicollinearity, but in weaker models values above 2.5 may be a cause for concern(Pallant ,2010). The Variance Inflation Factor is equals to 1.

4.5.2.1 Multicollinearity diagnostic of Organisational culture and Turnover intentions

The frequency of the organisational culture and turnover intention show that there is a normal distribution curve amongst the variables. The VIF values are ranging from 1 to 7 and the Variance Inflation factor is below 1, ranging between (-0.30 and 0.25). Hence, there is no indication of a multicollinearity. This is displayed in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3

Multicollinearity graph of Organisational culture and Turnover

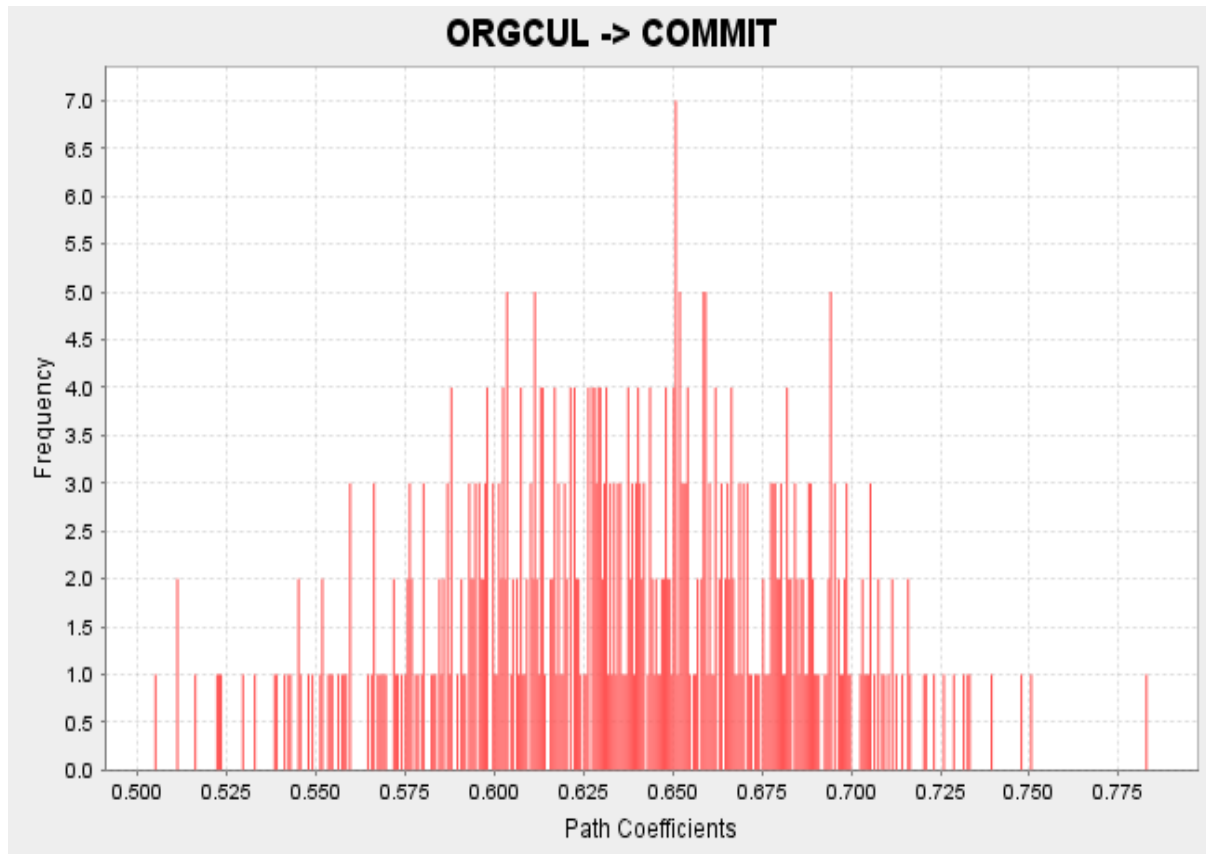


4.5.2.2 Multicollinearity diagnostic of Organisational culture and Commitment

The frequency of the organisational culture and commitment show that there is a normal distribution curve amongst the variables. The VIF values are ranging from 1 to 7 and the Variance Inflation factor is below 1, ranging between (0.50 and 0.775). Hence, there is no indication of a multicollinearity. This is displayed in Figure 4 below:

Figure 4.4

Multicollinearity graph of Organisational culture and Commitment

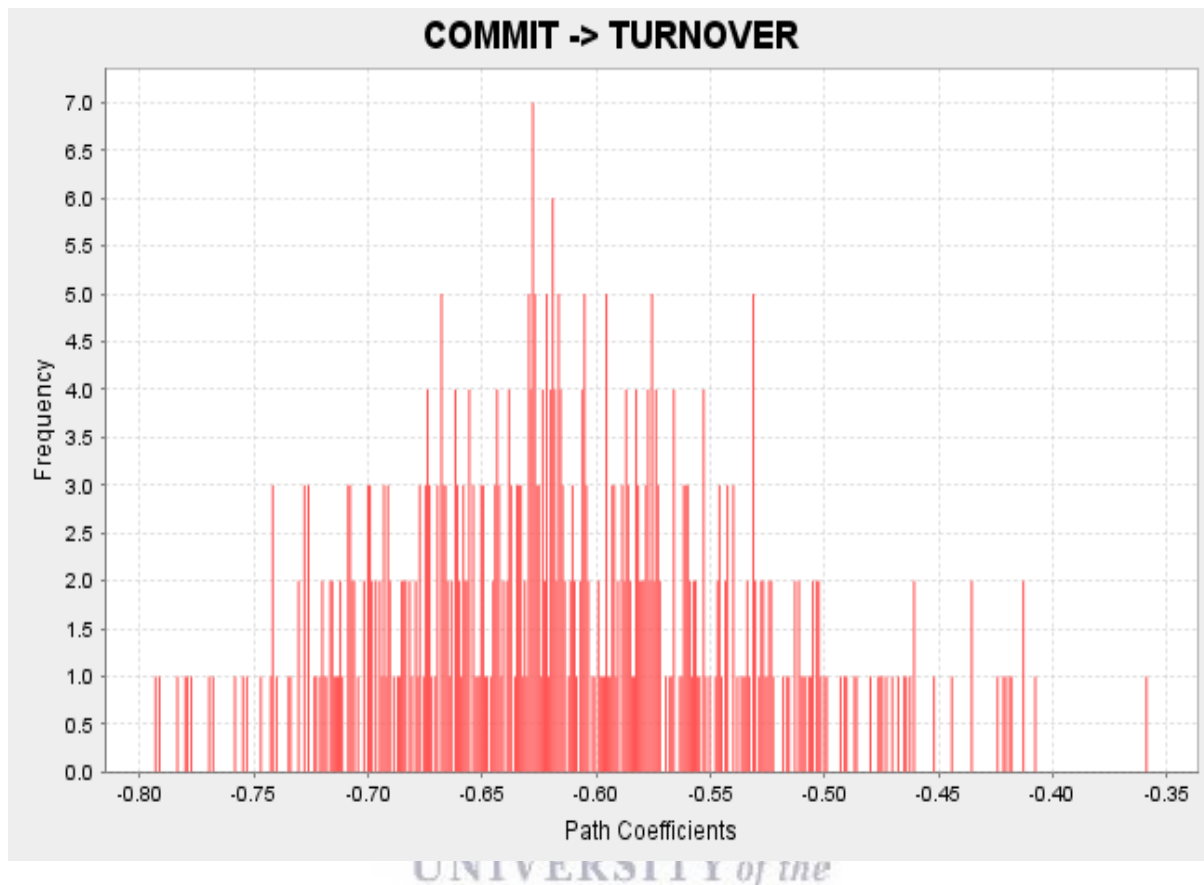


4.5.2.3 Multicollinearity diagnostic of Commitment and Turnover

The frequency of the commitment and turnover show that there is a normal distribution curve amongst the variables. The VIF values are ranging from 1 to 7 and the Variance Inflation factor path coefficient is below 1, ranging between (-0.80 and -0.35). Hence, there is no indication of a multicollinearity. This is displayed in Figure 4.5.

Figure 4.5

Multicollinearity graph of Commitment and Turnover



4.6 HYPOTHESES TESTING

The hypotheses testing corresponds with the results of the structural model as shown in the PLS path diagram. From the path diagram results can be drawn that the statistically significant coefficient of the hypothesized path between commitment and turnover and organisational culture and commitment are significantly supported by the data, whereas the hypothesized relationship between organisational culture and turnover is not significantly supported by the data. Each of the hypothesis will be discussed in detail below:

4.6.1 Hypothesis Testing 1: Organisational culture has a significant influence on organisational commitment

One of the hypothesis that was being aimed for testing by this research was to depict if there is a relationship between organisational culture and commitment. In the analysis a conclusion was drawn from the path diagram, which showed that there is a significant statistical relationship between organisational culture and commitment which was indicated by a t value of 13.651. Therefore we can conclude that there is a statistically significant relationship between organisational culture and commitment.

4.6.2 Hypothesis testing 2: Organisational commitment has a significant negative influence on turnover intention

The relationship between commitment and turnover intention was found to be significant in the data analysis. It had a significance of a t value of -8.276 in the PLS analysis. It can therefore, be said from the research, if employees are committed there is a higher chance that the turnover intentions will be low.

4.6.3 Hypothesis testing 3: Organisational culture has a significant negative influence on turnover intentions

In the analysis, the relationship between organisational culture and turnover was found to be insignificant. An indirect relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention was not found since the path from commitment to turnover intention proved to be insignificant.

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter explored and put into perspective the results of the statistical analysis of the research conducted in the retail sector in the Western Cape through the use of SPSS Version 23, LISREL 8.80 and the SMART PLS 3 structural equation modelling

software. Item and dimensionality analyses were conducted to establish the reliability and validity of the constructs under investigation. The PLS –SEM was conducted to establish the nature of the relationships amongst the variables under study. Chapter five paves way for the discussion of results and the suggestion of future areas of research.



CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters focus was drawn to the research problem, the literature on organisational culture, commitment and turnover intentions was brought into perspective. The analysis of the literature that was conducted in Chapter 2 showed that in some of the research studies that have been carried out organisational culture, commitment and turnover intentions have positive relationship that exists amongst them (Habib, Aslam, Hussain , Yasmeen & Ibrahim, 2014). The substantive research hypotheses presented in Chapter 3 were tested using the Least Partial Squares through the structural equation modeling. The main focus of the present research was to respond to the enquiry of whether a positive relationship exists between organisational culture based on the Denison model, organisational commitment which was based on Meyer and Allen three component model and the turnover intentions. The results were presented in Chapter four, are the point of discussion in this chapter. The particular objectives of this study consequently were to:

- To determine the influence of organisational culture on organisational commitment
- To determine the influence of organisational culture on turnover intentions
- To determine the influence of organisational commitment on turnover intention.

Hence the major findings of the research will be summarised and discussed. Recommendations for the practical application of the findings for future research with be discussed.

5.2 ANALYSIS OF MISSING VALUES

Before engaging into the analysis of the research objectives, an analysis on the missing values, an item and exploratory factor analysis were performed on the instruments utilised in the study. The analysis was accomplished through the use of (LISREL and SPSS version 23). Missing values refer to the items that would have been left out by the respondent when completing a questionnaire. The issue of the missing values had to be addressed since the sample size was small. In order to ascertain that all the cases obtained from the data gathering process, were included in the analysis, the issue around missing values had to be addressed. From the research conducted, 157 responses were received back and some questionnaires received had not been fully completed. The missing values problem has a potential negative impact on the results drawn and a process of replacing the missing values was conducted through LISREL. A process known as multiple imputation was used to address the issue of missing values. After performing the procedure through LISREL 155 cases were retained.

5.3 DISCUSSION OF THE ITEM ANALYSIS

The purpose of conducting the item analysis was to determine the reliability of the instruments as well as identifying the items that were not correlating very well with the other items in the instruments which may have a negative effect on the results drawn. This was performed through the reliability analysis procedure available in SPSS. In accordance to Pallant (2010) when conducting the reliability analysis procedure, the items correlating below 0.30 with the total score and the items that would increase the Cronbach alpha were excluded from the study. The items that would not significantly increase the Cronbach alpha after eliminating them, were retained for continuous analysis in the study. During the item analysis a number of items in the organisational culture questionnaire a number of items had to be eliminated as they were deemed to be poor items which had a negative effect on reliability. Items excluded in from the analysis (item 15, 19, 24, 34, 39, 43, and 50) were

the negative reporting questions. In literature it has been indicated that the negative reporting items usually have a poor reliability coefficient. After the analysis the reliability scales were ranging from (at least $\alpha = .70$) and to (above $\alpha = .90$). The reliability coefficient critical cut off was set at $\alpha = .70$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Pallant, 2010). In the analysis of the commitment scale based on the Meyer and Allen 3 component model, the affective commitment subscale is the only one that performed satisfactorily with an Cronbach alpha of $\alpha = .871$. The continuance commitment and the normative commitment performed poorly in the item analysis procedure. Continuance commitment was slightly below the critical cut off value of $\alpha = .70$ and had internal consistency coefficient of $\alpha = .637$. In order to acquire a satisfactory internal consistency reliability, item Cont 4 had to be eliminated which increased the Cronbach alpha to $\alpha = .739$. The normative subscale on the other hand performed poorly on all items with a Cronbach alpha of $\alpha = .444$. After excluding the poor items the reliability improved but was marginally below the 0.70 cut-off level. The turnover intention performed satisfactorily at an internal consistency of $\alpha = .895$.

5.4 DISCUSSION OF THE EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Subsequent to conducting the item analysis an exploratory factor analysis was conducted to determine whether the scales were uni – dimensional. The factor analysis was performed in order to determine is the constructs were measuring exactly what there were intended to measure. Mahembe (2014, p 289), states that , researchers have advised against randomly parceling items derived from scales which are not uni-dimensional (Bandalos, 2009; Little, Cunningham, Shahar & Widaman, 2009). In the current study, this recommendation was followed. All items that proved to be complex when ascertaining the uni-dimensionality scales were excluded from the analysis in order to improve the validity. In the turnover intention questionnaire, in the initial analysis procedure the scale proved not to be uni-dimensional as it was loading on 3 factors. A decision was taken to exclude four of the complex factors that

had been identified (TI5, TI8, TI9 and TI14). After the exclusion of the complex factors a uni-dimensional scale was obtained. The organisational commitment and the organisational culture scales were seen to be uni-dimensional because of elimination of the poor items that were discovered during the item analysis procedure.

5.5 GOODNESS OF FIT OF THE STRUCTURAL MODELS

The PLS does not provide the goodness of fit index of the model. However, it provided results on the factor loadings of items and the relationship amongst variables which will be discussed below.

5.6 Discussion of results of the measurement and structural models

A decision was taken to make use of PLS because of the sample size obtained which was less than 200, that is required to make meaningful analysis using the LISREL software. With the PLS a two way block model was used for the analysis which consist of a measurement construct and a structural construct. In the PLS analysis the reliability of each construct that formed part of the research was tested (organisational culture, commitment and turnover intentions), and the results were displayed on a path model. The results drawn from the pathway model indicated that, the structural model related to the hypotheses. The relationship amongst paths the constructs were tested and the t values were drawn. Two of paths (organisational culture and commitment, commitment and turnover) were found to have a significant correlation as they had a t value greater than 1.96 and significant at $p < 0.05$. The culture and commitment pathway recorded a t value greater than 1.96 and is significant at $p < 0.05$ (path coefficient = 0.60, t value = 13.651). The relationship between commitment and turnover intentions has a t value greater 1.96 and the path coefficient is below the $p < 0.05$ interval (t value = -8.276, path coefficient = -0.60). The t value between organisational culture and turnover was however significantly below 1.96 and the path coefficient is below $p < 0.05$ (path coefficient = 0, t value = 0.316). A test for

multicollinearity was conducted to test if there was an existence of a perfect or exact relationship between the predictor values (Joshi, 2012). In the analysis none of the factor indicated to have a multicollinearity. The relationships observed amongst the constructs will be discussed below.

5.7 Discussion of hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: *Organisational culture has a significant influence on organisational commitment*

The t value of the path between organisational culture and commitment is greater than 1.96 and is significant at $p < 0.05$ (path coefficient = 0.60, t value = 13.651). This is to say that a statistically significant positive correlation exists between organisational culture and commitment. The proposed relationship between organisational culture and commitment was supported. The relationship agrees with the literature proposed by Sun, Aryee and Law (2005) who suggests that if individuals are treated well are more likely to be committed. It can then be postulated that in reference to this particular study, commitment has a strong significant relationship with organisational culture. Black (1999) suggests that organisational culture has a direct or indirect influence which is facilitated through the values and beliefs that are enacted in the organisational practices and policies. The findings in this research study were consistent with previous studies in literature that were highlighted in chapter two. Martins and Manetje (2009) proposed that the link between organisational culture and organisational commitment suggests that organisational commitment is an outcome of organisational culture. In the literature analysis, Lok and Crawford (1999) concluded that organisational culture is correlated to commitment was recorded. They also found that the organisation subcultures had a greater effect on commitment than the global organisational culture, however, the sub culture factors cannot be commented on in this study as it was not a specific inquiry in this study. It can be observed that, like other studies, the results drawn are contrary to Lahiry (1994), who

proposed existence of a weak relationship between organisational culture and commitment. Hence, the results drawn from the current study are in agreement with the argument posed by (Deal & Kennedy 1982; Nongo & Ikyanyon, 2012; Silverthorne, 2004), which argues that, organisational culture is of importance in developing and sustaining the commitment of employees

Hypothesis 2: Organisational commitment has a significant negative influence on turnover intention

The relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions was supported as the t-value of the link between the two variables is greater than 1.96 (see Figure 4.1). The relationship between commitment and turnover intentions has a t value greater than 1.96 and the path coefficient is below the $p < 0.05$ interval (t value = -8.276, path coefficient = -0.60). The two variables proved to have an inverse relationship. This is to say, when one increases the other one decreases. Hence, it can be said that from the study, as organisational commitment increases, the turnover intentions decrease vice versa, as commitment decreases, turnover intentions increase. This study is supported in the study conducted by Jehanzeb, Rasheed and Rasheed (2013) who also found organisational commitment and turnover intentions to have a significant negative relationship. The results obtained have proved to be consistent with the finding of other researchers (Cheng & Stockdale, 2003; Newman, Thanacoody & Hui 2011) who also argued that commitment has an inverse relationship with turnover. It can then be argued that from this study commitment, has an influence on whether employees will stay in an organisation or whether they will consider exiting the organisation.

Hypothesis 3: Organisational culture has a significant negative influence on turnover intention

The t value link between organisational culture and turnover has a t value that is significantly below 1.96 and the path coefficient is below the $p < 0.05$ (path coefficient

= 0, t value = 0.316). This is an indication there is no significant relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions. Thus the proposed relationship between the two variables was not supported. Turnover and organisational culture are argued to have a difficult and problematic relationship (Goss-Turner, 2010). The results drawn can be considered as an indicator of how difficult it is to come to a common agreement of how the two variables related. The research went contrary to the popular finding that has been gathered in a previous study of the presence of a significant relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions which has been proposed by Emerson (2013) who found that there is a significant negative relationship between organisational culture and turnover. When a relationship is negative, which implies that when the one variable increases the other one acts inversely and decreases. Habib et al., (2014) is of the notion that organisational culture impacts on employee retention, if the culture is positive employees do not leave their jobs. This argument by Habib et al., does not hold water in this study as there was no link observed between culture and turnover intentions. Due to the fact that the study looked at the broad aspect of culture without considering other factors such as those proposed by Levy (2009) like organisational politics and management practices) the results drawn cannot be considered as a conclusive view on organisational culture and turnover intentions.

5.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

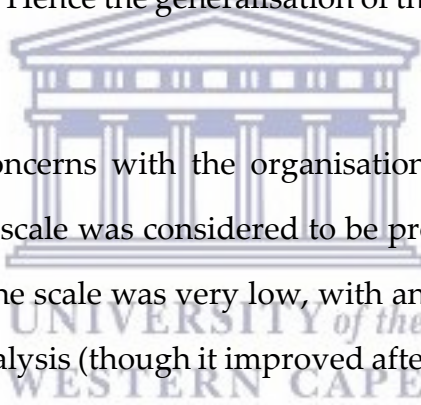
Some of the limitations in this current study have been highlighted throughout the text and some of the more crucial limitations will be discussed in depth in this section. The results of the current study was representative of a rather small sample in a different organisations. Due to the fact of the sample being small sophisticated tool for analysis such as LISREL could not be utilised as it requires a larger sample of data for the results drawn to being meaningful. Hence the use of Partial Least squares which has a tolerance for small sized samples. The sample utilised was drawn from four

different organisations in the retail sector in the Western Cape. Whilst it is of importance to test variables using a heterogeneous sample, the results cannot be generalised to any company within the retail sector. A convenient type of sampling was used in the gathering of the data, therefore, this prevents the drawing of conclusions that the sample is representative of the target population.

The skewness of the demographics also posed to be a limitation in the study. There was no even distribution of the respondents in terms of gender, ethnicity, education qualifications and age. In the study a total of 155 cases was used, of that total 51 respondents were males which occupied 32.9% of the total sample, whilst 104 females responded and occupying a percentage of 66.5. One respondent has a missing value. This shows that in the study, a lot of females completed the survey more than the males. Furthermore, the majority of respondents range between the ages of 21 to 30. This cannot be concluded as a representative sample of all age groups. With regards, to ethnicity, 54.2% of the respondents were African (Black), with 34.7% being Coloured, 5.8% being White and 1.3% being Indian. From the results drawn it is easy to see that the sample was not equally representative of all groups, which poses a loop hole within the research. The education qualification was not also indicative of an even distribution with most respondents being a holder of a diploma or degree. The demographic results also showed that the majority of the respondents have experience which ranged between one and five years. Hence, generalisation of results should be drawn with caution with regards, to the demographics as they are not representative of each group.

The measuring instrument can be considered to be a limitation in this study. Self-reporting instruments were utilised in the study and they are known to run the risk of social desirability. Mahembe (2014) describes social desirability as a risk that the respondents may be drawn to manipulate the answers as a way of creating a more favourable impression when completing the instrument. This has an impact on the

constructs under investigation and has an influence on the results that will be obtained. Moreover, this poses a question of whether the results obtained are connected to the respondents' real life experiences or their perceptual view of their environment. This runs the risk of recording perceptual views that may be contrary to what is in their environment. This limitation is especially a concern in this study as it touched on sensitive issues around organisational culture and turnover intentions. In the data collection process most of the employees were not comfortable completing the organisational culture survey as they felt they would be exposing their organisation, which could risk their current job, even though the confidentiality clause had been explained to them. They also expressed insecurities with the turnover intention questionnaire as they were afraid of being dismissed from the job if they gave their honest responses. Hence the generalisation of the results must be done with caution.



Furthermore there were concerns with the organisational commitment scale. The normative commitment subscale was considered to be problematic in the analysis of the data. The reliability of the scale was very low, with an internal consistency of $\alpha = .444$ recorded in the item analysis (though it improved after excluded some items) (see Table 4.15). Therefore, with a reliability score being that low it would be unjustifiable to drawn conclusive judgements on that scale.

The analysis of the finding were obtained from the 3 variables that were drawn in this study. In the gathering of data and analysis in has been observable that human behaviour is very complex. This means that human behaviour cannot only be explained by 3 variables. Therefore, a conclusive opinion cannot be drawn about human behaviour from the findings that were gathered in this research. They would need to be backed up by more literature and more research using various variables as a point of measure.

5.9 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research should continue looking into the aspect of culture within the organisation and how it impacts the commitment of the employees. The retail sector environment is a constantly evolving and fast paced environment which may have a huge impact on how the employees view the change and react to the change. The culture of the organisation need to remain on par with the fast paced environment. This view is supported by Parker and Wright (2009) who propose that, it is of importance to create an environment in which employees are truly engaged in their work and in their companies is imperative in today's working environment. In this research a clear strong link has been observed between organisational commitment of employees and the culture of the organisation. This is to say that favorable conditions within the working environment can increase the commitment of the employees. Researchers can continue with the studies of the influence of organisational culture and commitment, with focus on what is the preferred culture within organisations. This would be beneficial for employers to understand what is considered to be a conducive environment by the employees.

Furthermore, the understanding of the environment that the employers find ideal to work would decrease the commitment gap that may potentially grow within a company. Simpson (2006:04) states that, in many organisations there is a growing commitment gap between the expectations of employers and what workers are prepared to do. Hence a comprehensive research would be required to understand the ideal environment for employees. This would also be beneficial to the employers as it informs them of the action plan that they need to take in order to retain their current employees.

Chapter 2 highlights that in the current economic situation organisations need to continuously adapt their culture to new conditions in order to retain their employees and maintain productivity. Naicker (2008) points out that for an organisation to

succeed in the face of increasing competition, a business will require the enthusiastic commitment of all employees and that can only be achieved through better management practices. Failure for the organisations in creating an ideal organisational culture will have negative effects on the commitment of employees. Hence, continued research is required to identify the preferred cultures by the employees and management practices that would need to be activated by the employers.

The conclusions drawn from this study shows that it is a necessity to look into organisational commitment and organisational culture in order to understand turnover intentions. From the findings in the study it was seen that organisational culture influences turnover through organisational commitment. In this current study no direct relationship was picked up between organisational culture and turnover. In other studies organisational culture has been found to have an inverse relationship with turnover intentions. The issue surrounding culture and turnover intentions is still being regarded as complex and problematic. Due to the inconclusiveness of this study further exploration of the topic around organisational culture is posed to future researchers. Future research can focus on the different aspects of culture that may be used as predictors of turnover intentions. Different variables that affect turnover intentions may need to be looked into, as a way of observing if the roots are stemming off from organisational culture. Various culture models may need to be reviewed and tested to gauge which ones pose a problematic situation within the organisation.

Further understanding of the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions is warranted in this study. It is of importance to understand the various aspects of commitment that may influence the turnover intentions. In the current study much of the conclusions on commitment were drawn from the affective and continuance commitment scales which indicated a correlation between organisational commitment and turnover. It is important for future researchers to look into the normative scale and look into improving the models reliability. It might also prove to be valuable to understand how the normative commitment can contribute to

the turnover intentions. Hence a reliable model of normative commitment can be a focus of future research.

5.10 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS

From the results obtained in this current study it can be concluded that no relationship exists between organisational culture and turnover intentions, whilst a positive significant relationship exists between organisational culture and organisational commitment as well as a strong inverse relationship exists between organisational commitment and turnover intentions. The positive relationships are very edifying and will serve an informative purpose in future research. The variables that did not correlate create a starting point for the continuation of further research, hence should not be ignored. The results drawn can only be ascribed to the retail environment and cannot be generalised across other sectors, as retail was the only point of analysis in this research. The findings of the study place emphasize on the role that is played by organisational culture in understanding how employees feel and perform in the organisations. Commitment plays the central link between organisational culture and turnover intentions therefore organisations should come up with interventions that enhance organisational commitment in order to reduce turnover intentions.

5.11 CONCLUSION

Significant relationships were found between organisational culture and commitment, as well as commitment and turnover intentions. Support was not found for the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intentions. The limitations and suggestions for future research have been highlighted in this chapter. The results of this study provides valuable insights to retail companies of how organisational culture, commitment and turnover can relate to one another and this can be used as an influence in retaining talented employees. A departure point for future research has been suggested for the continuous improvement of the workplace environment.

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