

**THE INFLUENCE OF PERCEIVED SUPERVISOR SUPPORT, PSYCHOLOGICAL
EMPOWERMENT AND AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT ON TURNOVER INTENTION
AMONG SUPPORT STAFF AT A SELECTED TERTIARY INSTITUTION IN THE
WESTERN CAPE**

by

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

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KEYWORDS

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Support Staff

Perceived Organizational Support



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ABSTRACT

Literature on turnover intentions revealed that various factors predict employee turnover intention. For higher education, the ongoing transformation that has been taking place has posed many challenges, one of them being the recruitment and retention of staff in academia. However, there is the notion that employees who experience sufficient support and acknowledgement from their supervisors are more likely to develop a sense of empowerment, thus helping in either creating or increasing feelings of commitment which could decrease turnover intentions.

Therefore, the main aim of this research is to establish whether perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment have an influence on supporting staff members' turnover intentions at a selected tertiary institution in the Western Cape. The study was conducted on support staff employed at a selected tertiary institution in the Western Cape of South Africa.

For this study, three factors were selected namely perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment. Although turnover intention has been studied by many researchers, not many studies have used the variables perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment, affective commitment and turnover intention collectively. Additionally, a conceptual framework highlighting the linkages between the factors mentioned above was also formulated for this study. Finally, various hypotheses were formulated and tested.

Quantitative data was collected from support staff from different departments within the selected tertiary institution (n= 160) in the Western Cape by employing a nonprobability sampling technique used in the form of convenience sampling. Participation in the survey was voluntary in nature, confidential, and anonymous. Valid and reliable measuring instruments were used to collect self-reported data, including the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support, the Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire, along with the Affective Commitment Subscale, which was derived from the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire and finally the Turnover Intention Questionnaire. Respondents were also asked to provide demographic and employment information.

The overall findings of this research study revealed that there are relationships between perceived supervisor support and turnover intention, perceived supervisor support and psychological empowerment, psychological empowerment and turnover intention as well as affective commitment and turnover intention. The relationships consisted of positive and negative relationships however all were found to be significant in nature. It has been recommended that future researchers investigate adding more latent variables such as perceived organizational support, employee performance and engagement into their study in order to expand the conceptual model. This could add value for further research within the tertiary education sector. The study concluded with an outline of the limitations of the research and recommendations for future studies.



DECLARATION

I declare that *The influence of perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and effective commitment on turnover intention amongst support staff at a selected tertiary institution in the Western Cape* is my own work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have, to the best of my knowledge, been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.

Ashley Geldenhuys

July 2020



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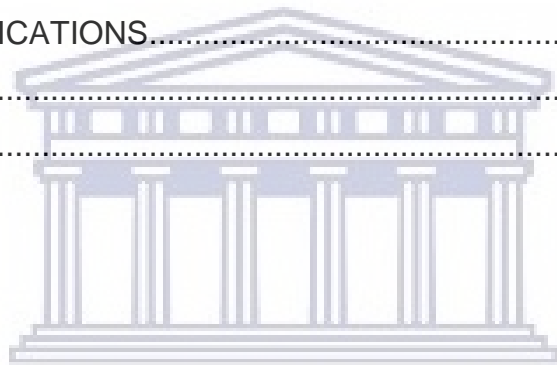
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Organizations are striving to be the employer of choice especially in attracting and retaining talented employees. Talented employees have assumed a greater role in the achievement of organizational competitive advantage. Organizations are therefore taking careful consideration of the way they treat and retain their employees, as it would directly affect the success of the organization. Arshad and Puteh (2015) stated that a high turnover rate among employees indicates a weakness in the organizations success. This is due to the reality that skilled and talented employees are valuable and indispensable assets, instrumental for an organization's performance and survival. The turnover issue, at both an organizational and individual level, is a major concern in the human resource management field and therefore needs to be consistently monitored (Yin-Fah, Foon, Chee-Leong & Osman, 2010). The high cost of replacing employees in terms of recruiting, selecting and training new hires puts extra pressure on human resources to hire the right individuals. In addition, the productivity, which is lost during the replacement period and the loss of high performers or skilled workers, can be detrimental to many organizations (Arshad & Puteh, 2015).

Identifying the predictors of turnover, especially in areas where turnover is high, has been a focus area for many researchers. Out of a number of predictors, turnover intention was found to be the strongest predictor of turnover (Hussain & Asif, 2012). According to Saeed, Waseem, Sikander and Rizwan (2014), turnover intention can be defined as an employee's intent to leave their jobs within the organization they work for, or an organization's plan to dismiss employees. It can therefore be voluntary or involuntary turnover. Voluntary turnover intention can be defined as when an employee eagerly decides to leave an organization, while involuntary turnover intention occurs when the organization notices that an employee's performance has been unsatisfactory for some time and makes decisions to dismiss the individual (Saeed et al., 2014). Therefore, voluntary turnover is more likely to be a threat to an organization than involuntary

turnover, due to the fact that voluntary turnover is usually a result of unhappy employees leaving for other opportunities.

Employees leave organizations for many different reasons. According to Allen (2008), employees leave organizations for different roles and career aspirations, to continue with their studies or to follow a partner who may have been transferred to a different city. Some employees retire or quit their job on impulse; however, there are incidents where the employees are fired and leave the organization based on the employer's decision (involuntary turnover). All of those examples are classified as turnover however; they do not have the same organizational repercussions (Allen, 2008). This brings about the need to identify and control the precipitating factors behind turnover intentions. If the antecedents of turnover intentions can be identified well in advance, organizations can implement appropriate interventions that will help organizations avoid unnecessary costs and develop a form of competitive advantage (Chang, Wang & Huang, 2013). In return, if fewer employees have the intent to leave an organization, turnover rates within the organization would decrease thereby promoting stability within the organization (Chang, et al., 2013).

In order to prevent turnover issues as whole, industries need to be analyzed consistently as this will assist industries in identifying potential areas, which impact turnover. This is due to turnover reasons being different in each country and each industry (Joarder, Sharif & Ahmmed, 2011). Transformation within the higher education sector has been a topic of discussion in the past few years. The reason for this is that transformation could bring about many challenges, of which one of the main problems is the recruitment and retention of staff within academia (Mabelebele, 2015). According to Ryttberg and Geschwind (2017), higher education without a well-functioning administration department/function is hard to imagine. Being proactive in terms of attracting and supporting students, getting research funding, and working towards organizational objectives is deemed to be an important role in higher education; this is known to be the supporting staff of the organization. Supporting staff are the individuals that assist universities with the day-to-day operations; therefore, the role carries a huge amount of

significance in that it affects the success of how academic institutions operate (Ryttberg & Geschwind, 2017). For that reason attracting and retaining talented supporting staff could bring about a competitive advantage in the industry of higher education.

1.2. BACKGROUND

An organization is only as successful, sustainable and competitive as their workforce is. When organizations show support to their employees, participation and commitment of employees will develop effortlessly and could help in building a good foundation for the success of an organization (Oliver, 2011). Therefore, a highly committed, highly motivated, productive and innovative workforce is important factors in keeping an organization sustainable in the labour market (Joo & Park, 2010; Oliver, 2011). According to Kalidass and Bahron (2015), organizations that demonstrate support to their employees improve their loyalty within the organization and reduce negative feelings towards the organization. A copious amount of research has been done on the social exchange theory which identified the importance of social encouragements in turnover decisions; such as occupational support from the business, supervisor and other members (Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell & Allen, 2007 as cited in Newman, Thanacoody & Hul, 2011). Therefore, perceived supervisor support is a valuable factor that could potentially create a strategic way for turnover management (Kalidass & Bahron, 2015).

Perceived supervisor support is the level to which a supervisor cares about their employees' well-being in addition to valuing their contributions towards the organization (Maertz, et al., 2007 as cited in Newman et al., 2011). The correlation between the supervisor and their employees directly affects the employees turnover decision (Kalidass & Bahron, 2015). According to Newman et al. (2011), some literature presented results which shows a direct correlation among perceived supervisor support and turnover intentions whereas other literature has shown a relationship which has been mediated by either, perceived organizational support or organizational commitment. If supervisors demonstrate more support towards their employees by showing appreciation and recognition for their contributions, this could potentially reduce intentions to leave the organization. Kirkman and Rosen (1999, as cited in Steinberg, 2012), conducted a study

which reported that supervisors who supported the ideas of their employees resulted in employees feeling like they had an impact on their work environment and felt more empowered. This brings about the notion that if supervisors show more support towards their employees, it could increase feelings of psychological empowerment within them.

Psychological empowerment can be described as a person's experience of empowerment based on the perception of the person in relation to the person's work role (Klerk & Stander, 2014). Based on a study done by de Villiers and Stander (2011), a mediated correlation between psychological empowerment and turnover intention exists through engagement and affective commitment. When an employee feels a sense of empowerment in terms of attaching meaning to his/her job and feels that their job has an impact on the organization, it could potentially lead to an employee feeling more engaged and committed to the organization as a whole. Therefore, psychological empowerment within an individual's job could intensify the feelings of commitment towards an organization, especially the affective component of commitment (de Villiers & Stander, 2011).

Affective commitment is viewed as an employee's emotional attachment, loyalty and connection to an organization (Joarder, et al., 2011). According to Allen and Meyer (1990, as cited in Joarder et al., 2011), affective commitment is the most acknowledged dimension of organizational commitment and has been found to be the highest predictor of positive work-related outcomes and high organizational commitment leads to decreased turnover intentions. Hence, if organizations can find ways to improve the level of loyalty and commitment employees experience towards the organization as a whole, it could help prevent or decrease turnover within the organization.

Therefore, great levels of perceived supervisor support can create a sense of psychological empowerment within an employee, which will result in the employee feeling more engaged and committed to the organization. This could potentially help prevent and reduce turnover intentions within organizations as they all have direct or mediated relationships with turnover intention specifically. Employees are likely to remain loyal and

committed to their organization when they have positive experiences and attitudes, which results in lower turnover intention (Joarder et al., 2011).

Literature has shown that many variables are linked to turnover intentions (de Villiers & Stander, 2011; Hussain & Asif, 2012; Kalidass & Bahron, 2015; Tnay, Othman, Siong & Lim, 2013). However, there has been a minimal amount of research that has focused on perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment collectively in the same study and how these variables influence one another in a tertiary institution setting. Therefore, the overarching research question is: What is the effect of perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment on turnover intentions among employees at a selected tertiary institution in the Western Cape?

1.3. RESEARCH PURPOSE

The main aim of the research is to establish whether perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment have an influence on supporting staff members' turnover intentions at a selected tertiary institution in the Western Cape. The secondary goal is to validate the four variable theoretical model exploring the structural relationships between these variables in a selected tertiary institution in Western Cape.

The sub-questions are:

1. What is the influence of PSS on turnover intention?
2. What is the influence of PSS on psychological empowerment?
3. What is the influence of PSS on affective commitment?
4. What is the influence of psychological empowerment on turnover intention?
5. What is the influence of psychological empowerment on affective commitment?
6. What is the influence of affective commitment on turnover intention?
7. PSS, psychological empowerment or affective commitment predict turnover intention?

1.4. OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The research aims to answer the question, what is the influence of perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment on turnover intentions amongst supporting staff at a selected tertiary institution? Developing and testing an exploratory model is necessary in answering this question. Based on the purpose of the study, the following objectives were developed:

1. To develop and test a theoretical structural model explaining the way in which perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment affects turnover intention
2. To test the model's goodness of fit
3. To assess the significance of the hypothesized paths in the model
4. To determine whether perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment or affective commitment is the best predictor of turnover intention.

1.5. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Field and Buitendach (2011) noted that tertiary institutions present an interesting context in which to conduct research as the higher education sector has not only been going through transformation but also plays a key role in the ongoing transformation of our country. This ongoing transformation has posed many challenges within higher education, one of them being the recruitment and retention of staff in academia (Mabelebele, 2015). Therefore, it is key for institutions to attend to their staff through academic research. Even though academic staff form part of an institution's most important team in bringing about learning; most studies are focused on academic staff, and thus the value of support staff is overlooked (Field & Buitendach, 2011). The support staff members' functionality lies in the daily operations of tertiary institutions, which can become stressful as it carries significance in the success of how an institution operates (Ryttberg & Geschwind, 2017). In addition to this, Field and Buitendach (2011) noted that support staff members are faced with monotonous workloads and play a variety of supportive roles to ensure that the operations of tertiary institutions run smoothly. Majority of the human capital consists of support staff at these institutions (Field & Buitendach, 2011), which is why it is important

to ensure that they experience positive outcomes within their jobs to reduce turnover intentions.

Furthermore, Arshad and Puteh (2015) found perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment to be determinants of turnover intention. Although turnover intention has been studied by many researchers, not many studies have used the variables perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment, affective commitment and turnover intention collectively. The notion that employees who experience sufficient support and acknowledgement from their supervisor is more likely to develop a sense of empowerment, thus helping in either creating or increasing feelings of commitment (de Villiers & Stander, 2011; Joarder et al., 2011; Steinberg, 2012), could decrease turnover intentions. This is believed to indirectly assist with retention especially amongst support staff within tertiary institutions. These variables collectively could bring about interventions that could be used to help prevent employees from getting to the point of wanting to leave the organization.

1.6. DEFINITIONS OF IMPORTANT CONSTRUCTS

For this study's purpose, the following key definitions have been operationalized:

1.6.1. Supporting Staff

The supporting staff is referred to as the well-functioning and required administration in higher education institutions that supports the universities day-to-day operations (Ryttberg & Geschwind, 2017). Support staff is also referred to as non-academic or professional staff at some higher education institutions (Ryttberg & Geschwind, 2017).

1.6.2. Perceived supervisor support

Perceptions of how a supervisor cares for employees' wellbeing and demonstrates appreciation towards employees' contributions to the organization is known as perceived supervisor support (Burns, 2016).

1.6.3. Psychological Empowerment

According to Hanaysha (2016), psychological empowerment exists to increase performance through the increase in opportunities of participation and involvement in making decisions. This can be referred to as a motivational domain.

1.6.4. Affective Commitment

Commitment consists of three dimensions; however, affective commitment has been shown to be the best predictor of commitment within an organization (Joarder et al, 2011; Mahembe & Engelbrecht, 2013). According to Ramogale (2016), when an employee is attached to the organization due to being involved and embodied by the organization, it is known as affective commitment.

1.6.5. Turnover Intentions

Turnover is a recurring problem in organizations and is present in every type and size of organization and also occurs at every organizational level (Foon, Chee-Leong & Osman, 2010). According to Chang et al. (2013), turnover intentions have been defined as the purposeful willingness to leave an organization.

1.7. OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS

Chapter one consists of the introduction and background to the study, the purpose of the research, the objectives of the research, the significance of the study, the operationalized definitions and lastly an overview of the chapters.

Chapter two represents an outline of the theoretical information regarding the variables under study. Each construct is discussed in more detail, which includes the theoretical definitions. In addition, the theory behind how perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment have an influence on turnover intention is examined.

Chapter three specifies an overview of the methodology used to conduct the research. The research methodology includes the theoretical model underpinned for this research,

the research design, participants, data collection procedure, the measuring instruments utilized, the data analysis techniques as well as the ethical considerations that are considered for the study.

Chapter four represents the findings of the study based on the data collected.

Chapter five provides a discussion of the results based on the findings obtained in the study. Based on the findings, conclusions are made in collaboration with literature already established. In addition, it reports on the theoretical and practical implications as well as the limitations of the study.

1.8. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined the background and significance of the study. The purpose of the research with the specific research questions that the study aims to address have also been provided. In addition, the chapter identified the objectives of the research. Finally, the structural composition of the five chapters contained in the study have been described and provided. The following chapter will focus on the literature of the search variables in the study.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

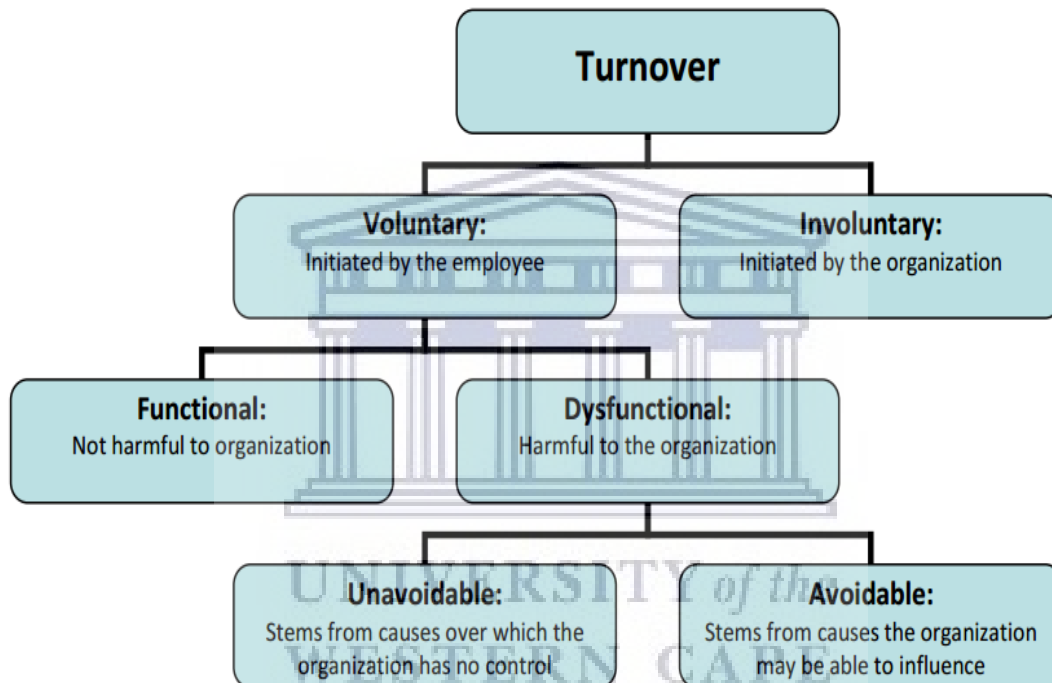
With thousands of studies being published on voluntary turnover, it still remains a significant and interesting topic of study for many scholars (Gardner, Wright & Moynihan, 2011). The human resource management field, in which turnover is a major issue (Yin-Fah et al., 2010), continues to search for ways in which turnover can be managed or reduced to help the organization be more efficient and successful. It is for this very reason that research has focused on the predictors of turnover, especially in industries or professional groups with high turnover rates (Hussain & Asif, 2012). Due to employees directly affecting the performance of an organization, retaining the best employees is as equally important as keeping abreast with technological advances (Arshad & Puteh, 2015) which is why, organizations prioritize the recruitment of qualified employees and the retention of knowledgeable workers (Dawley, Houghton & Bucklew, 2010). According to Iqbal (2017), employees who leave at the organizations request or those who choose to leave can cause disturbances in the functionality of the organization, work team dynamics and departmental performance. Regardless of the type of turnover, when turnover occurs it incurs a cost for the organization (Iqbal, 2017) and therefore needs to be investigated.

2.2. THE CONCEPT OF TURNOVER

The concept of turnover has attracted the attention of many scholars, the first study can be backdated as far back as 1925 (Ngo-Henha, 2017). A reason for this is that turnover within an organization was and has remained quite harmful; and is most likely a result or symptom of other shortcomings experienced by the organization and the employees within it (Iqbal, 2017). Furthermore, Masemola (2011) has indicated that turnover is costly and hurts the organization when it occurs. Hence, managing turnover successfully is required in order to achieve high productivity, reduced turnover and increased profits (Arokiasamy, 2013).

Considering the importance of turnover, it is thus vital to define what turnover is. Ngo-Henha (2017) refers to employee turnover as a situation where an employee is no longer a member of an organization. Asimah (2018) refers to employee turnover as the movement of employees in and out of the organization and is mainly used to refer to the number of employees leaving the organization.

Figure 2.1
Types of turnover



Source: Extracted from Allen, D. G. (2008, p.2). *Retaining Talent: a guide to analyzing and managing employee turnover*. SHRM Foundation: United States of America.

According to Fleisher (2011) turnover can be classified as voluntary or involuntary, functional or dysfunctional, and avoidable or unavoidable. Voluntary turnover refers to employees willingly leaving an organization, for example when an employee leaves their current job for another, whereas involuntary turnover refers to employees leaving an organization due to a decision made by the employer, for example when an organization

dismisses an employee due to poor performance or restructuring within the organization (Allen, 2008; Zhang, 2016). Involuntary turnover can be predicted and controlled and is most likely good for an organization while voluntary turnover is likely to be unpredictable and could be detrimental (Kaur, Mohindru & Pankaj, 2013; Zhang, 2016). These different types of turnover require different types of management techniques and interventions (Allen, 2008). However, scholars pay more attention to voluntary turnover as frequent exits made by the employee are shown to have more negative consequences for the organizations (Zhang, 2016).

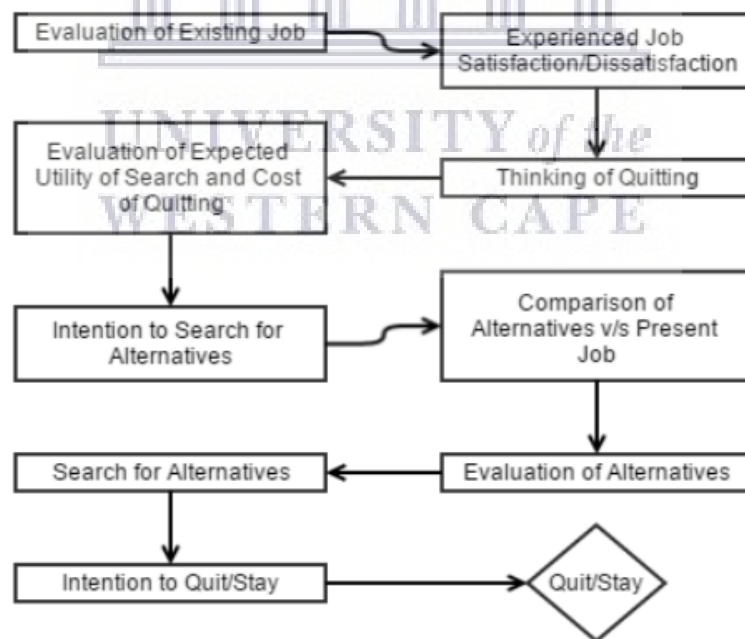
Voluntary turnover can be divided into functional and dysfunctional voluntary turnover (Allen, 2008). Functional turnover improves the functioning of the organization and is most likely desirable while dysfunctional turnover is disruptive to the organization and is most likely undesirable and costly (Fleisher, 2011). High performers and employees with scarce skills exiting the organization are examples of dysfunctional turnover and in contrast, poor performers leaving the organization are an example of functional turnover (Allen, 2008).

Turnover can also be avoidable and unavoidable. As stated by Fleisher (2011) avoidable and unavoidable turnover refers to the practicality of preventing the turnover by the organization. Avoidable turnover relates to causes that the organization can possibly influence (for example, if the employee leaves the organization due to job dissatisfaction, the organization could redesign the job to improve the employee's satisfaction) whereas in unavoidable turnover, the organization has little or no control over (for example, employees leaving the organization due to health problems) (Allen, 2008). Due to the different types of turnover branching out from voluntary turnover, organizations should get a deeper understanding of why employees choose to leave or stay with the organization, in addition to developing strategies that will help manage turnover amongst skilled and knowledgeable employees within the organization (Allen, 2008).

2.3. THE CONCEPT OF TURNOVER INTENTION

Apart from incurring additional costs to the organization, voluntary turnover is one of the most harmful withdrawal behaviours to organizational effectiveness (Shapira-Lishchinsky & Even-Zohar, 2011). The intention to resign from an organization will most likely induce job searching behaviour and when an alternative job presents itself, will lead to actual turnover (Wen, Zhang, Wang & Tang, 2018). Albaqami (2016) states that job dissatisfaction is one of the key factors that cause employees to have the intent to leave or actually leave the organization. Albaqami (2016) adds that factors such as employee values, the perception an individual has of the job market as well as occupation perceptions, influence employees' intent to leave an organization. Mobley (1977, as cited in Liu, 2014) has shown within his research study about turnover, a diagram of the withdrawal decision process that employees are most likely to follow when deciding to stay or leave an organization.

Figure 2.2 - Employee turnover decision process



Source: Extracted from Liu, J. L. (2014). *Main causes of voluntary employee turnover: a study of factors and their relationship with expectations*. (Dissertation, University of Chile, Santiago, Chile).

Based on Figure 2.2, it is clear that, turnover intention is known to be the highest predictor of turnover itself (Masemola, 2011). For this reason, measuring turnover intentions could help identify the possibility of an employee wanting to leave the organization and can conclude ways to reduce overall turnover (Kaur et al., 2013). Researchers and practitioners continue to display interest in getting a deeper understanding of what makes employees leave their job (O'Connor, 2018) as organizations are more interested in what causes voluntary turnover, due to involuntary turnover being caused by actions thought through strategically by the organization (Lodewyk, 2011).

2.3.1. DEFINITIONS OF TURNOVER INTENTION

As maintained by Abid and Butt (2017) within literature, turnover intention is used interchangeably with intention to quit and leave. The theory of reasoned action suggests that when an individual has an intention, it is a psychological forerunner to a behavioural act, which is based on the idea that an individual who encourages the thought of leaving an organization, is likely to follow through if preferred conditions presents itself (Shapira-Lishchinsky & Even-Zohar, 2011).

Kaur et al., (2013) briefly describes turnover intention as the intent employees have to leave an organization. Sager, Griffeth and Hom (1998 as cited in Masemola, 2011) define turnover intention as the mental decisions, which occur between an employee's attitude regarding a job and the decision to stay or leave. Thus, the decision to stay or leave an organization makes turnover intention a key predictor of turnover and through this process the employee is able to re-evaluate whether they still feel the organization is a good fit for them (Lodewyk, 2011).

Wen et al. (2018) define turnover intention as a measurement of an employee's intention to resign from their current job, search for another position and eventually follow through with the resignation. Perez (2008) states that actual turnover increases when the intention to leave an organization increases.

2.3.2. ANTECEDENTS OF TURNOVER INTENTION

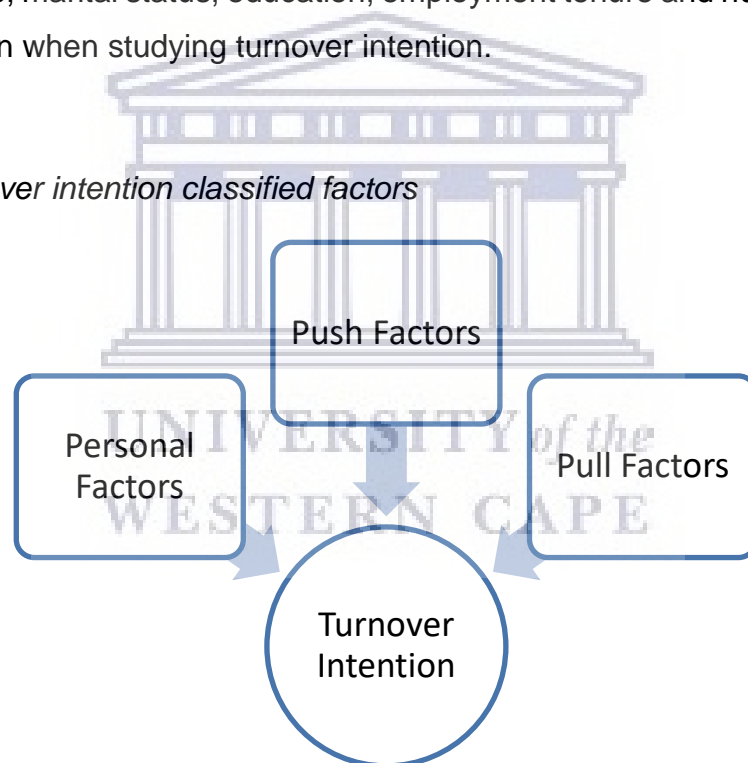
In the opinion of Allen (2008), many researchers that focused on talent retention have based their research on understanding the reasons why employees decide to leave an organization as well as the process by which they make their decision. Identifying the determinants behind why employees leave could help organizations create interventions that can enhance the competitive advantage of the organization (Chang et al., 2013).

Based on available literature, an employee's decision to leave an organization can be determined by various factors. A study by Tnay et al. (2013) investigated the impact of job satisfaction and organizational commitment on employees' turnover intention within the production industry. Tnay et al. (2013) found that job satisfaction had a low relationship on employee turnover intention however organizational commitment was found to have no relationship towards turnover intention among the employees within the organization. Emiroglu, Akova and Tanriverdi (2015) conducted a study to determine the relationship between demographic factors and turnover intention in the hotel industry. The demographic factors included age, education, gender, and marital status along with factors such as position, tenure, wage and working department. All these factors were shown to be determinants for turnover intention (Emiroglu, Akova & Tanriverdi, 2015). In addition, Jehanzeb, Rasheed and Rasheed (2013) investigated the impact of training on organizational commitment and turnover intention among employees in the private sector of Saudi Arabia. The results provided strong support that there was a negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention. Another study conducted by Kalidass and Bahron (2015) focused on investigating the influence of perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support and organizational commitment and its effect on turnover intention of employees within a three-star hotel in the Kota Kinabalu area. The results showed that there was a significant correlation between perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support and organizational commitment towards turnover intention. Psychological empowerment, leader-member exchange, role clarity and engagement were also investigated with turnover intention within a financial institution in South Africa (de Villiers & Stander, 2011).

The study showed that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between role clarity, work engagement and turnover intention (de Villiers & Stander, 2011).

The results of the studies were all different as they were conducted or carried out in different countries, different industries, different organizations, different departments and used different independent variables. This is a clear indication that turnover intention is a complex occurrence that is dependent on several factors (Fortuin, 2018). However, Alishah, Fakhr, Ahmad and Zaman (2010) state that the review of various studies has shown that the reasons for employees leaving an organization can be categorized into three factors (figure 2.3). In addition to these factors, demographic factors such as age, gender, experience, marital status, education, employment tenure and number of children are also focused on when studying turnover intention.

Figure 2.3 - *Turnover intention classified factors*



Source: Extracted from Alishah, I., Fakhr, Z., Ahmad, M. S., & Zaman, K. (2010, p.173). Measuring push, pull and personal factors affecting turnover intention: a case of university teachers in Pakistan. Review of Economic & Business Studies, 3(1), 167–192.2.3.2.1. Personal Factors

Poor health, family-related issues, social rank and education of children are known to be personal factors that contribute to turnover intention decisions (Alishah et al., 2010). As stated by Hongvichit (2015) personal factors include demographic factors as well as personal characteristics. The demographic factors include age, gender, experience, marital status, education, tenure and number of children, which are all taken into consideration when viewing personal factors that could influence turnover intention. Furthermore, job-hopping, unrealistic expectations and geographic location are also classified as personal factors that could influence turnover intention (Alishah et al., 2010). The concept “job-hopping” refers to employees who change jobs regularly with no valid reason for leaving. For example, an employee leaves their workplace because they did not get the promotion they thought they would get. Unrealistic expectations of an employee are also an important personal factor (Alishah et al., 2010). Many individuals have unrealistic expectations when entering an organization and when these unrealistic expectations are not met, they become disappointed and are likely to quit. Lastly, the geographical location could also result in employees leaving an organization especially when the location of the organization is far from their families, for example, a family that is separated by working in different countries, could choose to leave their job to a place situated closer to home (Alishah et al., 2010).

2.3.2.2. Push Factors

Push factors are also known as controlled factors. These are the factors that push employees towards leaving the organization however, are considered to be internal factors that can be controlled by the organization (Alishah et al., 2010). Employees are less likely to leave an organization when they are satisfied and happy within their job. Therefore, employees who leave organizations are usually dissatisfied and have been faced with the intent to leave for some time (Tnay et al., 2013). Push factors are narrowed down to organizational factors, attitude factors and organizational commitment, which will be further, explained.

Organizational Factors: According Alishah et al. (2010) salary, benefits received from the organization, the culture and environment of the organization, stability of the organization,

communication systems in the organization, the management styles, practices and policies within the organization, as well as the empowerment employees experience within the organization are all aspects that could potentially push an employee to either stay with or leave an organization.

Attitude Factors: Attitude factors are mostly attached to an employee's behaviour and are classified into job satisfaction and job stress. Job satisfaction refers to the degree of pleasure an employee experiences in his/her job (Dhladhla, 2011). It is divided into extrinsic and intrinsic factors. On the one hand, extrinsic factors include bonus rewards, the working environment and pay and on the other, intrinsic factors include recognition, promotion, learning and development and job security (Tnay et al., 2013). According to Dhladhla (2011) when job satisfaction is low, the employee will experience behavioural intentions to leave the organization. Moreover, Job stress is existent in every organization and affects everyone differently. Due to individuals being different by nature, job stress could either impact them positively or negatively. When job stress affect employees negatively it could cause a decrease in performance, dissatisfaction, lower commitment to the organization and the job itself and lastly turnover intention (Sewwandi & Perere, 2016).

Organizational Commitment: This refers to the organizations effort to gain the commitment of talented employees. Organizational commitment is known to strengthen the employment relationship and in return lower turnover intention and turnover itself (Lodewyk, 2011). A plethora of studies have shown that organizational commitment is one of the key predictors of turnover intention. This holds true especially in cases where the emotional identification with the organization is experienced is based on the strength of the bond between the organization and employee (Galletta, Portoghese & Battistelli, 2011).

2.3.2.3. Pull Factors

Pull factors are also known as uncontrolled factors and allude to the factors that attract employees to new employment interest (Alishah et al., 2010). Factors that are considered

to be pull factors are a better salary, promotion, new and challenging work interest, culture that is better aligned with individual values, work-life balance, more freedom and more benefits. When employees experience any one of these opportunities, they are more likely to experience feelings of wanting to leave their current organization (Alishah et al., 2010).

2.3.3. UNDERLYING THEORIES OF TURNOVER INTENTION BEHAVIOUR

2.3.3.1. The Theory of Organizational Equilibrium (TOE)

The theory of organizational equilibrium that was proposed by March and Simon in 1958, was one of the first psychological perspectives (Park, 2015). As stated by Mano (1994 as cited in Fortuin, 2018) the state of equilibrium within an organization implies that the organization has the capacity and ability to maintain its effectiveness. Essentially, the theory of organizational equilibrium is a motivational theory based on job satisfaction, which in itself directly affects turnover (Saeed et al., 2014; Tnay et al., 2013). The theory suggests that there is a need to ensure that there is a balance between what an employee contributes to an organization and what the organization provides as incentives (Ngo-Henha, 2017). In simple terms, it looks at the balance between the sacrifice of contribution and the satisfaction of incentives (Mano, 1994). If an employee begins to feel that their incentives are not worth the contributions made towards the organization, the employee is most likely going to feel dissatisfied within their job and could therefore, cause intentions to leave. Holtom, Mitchell, Lee and Eberly (2008 as cited in Ngo-Henha, 2017) considers the theory to be the first formal theory on turnover intention as it assumes that turnover is a decision taken only after weighing the perception of contribution to the organization against the incentives received from the organization.

2.3.3.2. The Social Exchange Theory

The social exchange theory is based on the idea that a social relationship between the organization and employee is fully dependent on the exchange of benefits (Park, 2015). Perez (2008) adds that it is an exchange process in which the purpose is to increase benefits and decrease costs. The key principle of the social exchange theory is whether two social entities are able to respect each other's agreement of social rules and norms

of exchange. These social rules and norms of exchange are based on the rule of reciprocity. The rule of reciprocity suggests that an individual should be treated according to how the individual treats others (Ngo-Henha, 2017). In addition, Ngo-Henha (2017) states that the attributes that define the quality of these social relationships are trust, loyalty and commitment and is dependent on factors such as love, information, status, money and goods and services that are invested into relationships by the individuals. Additionally, social relationships are usually characterized by the emotional attachments developed overtime.

Sierra and McLeavety (2005 as cited on Albaqami, 2016) and Ngo-Henha (2017) suggest that turnover intentions are brought about through the belief that social relationships develop into trust, loyalty and commitment between the organization and employee, however, when the relationship agreements are disrespected, the consequence of turnover intention will occur. Therefore, the investment of money and time in employees could create positive attitudes and feelings of commitment towards the organization. A positive and conducive environment within the organization reflects positively in the emotions of the employees and in return reduces turnover intention (Albaqami, 2016).

2.3.3.3. The Job Embeddedness Theory

The Job Embeddedness Theory is based on the notion that all employees have connections and links not only within their organizations but in their communities as well (Young, 2012). These connections that employees have developed brings about the feeling of being fully unified in their professional and social environment which results in employees not wanting to lose or give up those connections and links for a new and unfamiliar environment (Ngo-Henha, 2017). As claimed by Young (2012), job embeddedness examines three points. Firstly, an individual's *link* to other people, groups or teams, secondly, an individual's perception of how they *fit* within the job, organization and community and lastly, an individual's belief about whether they would be *sacrificing* should they decide to leave their jobs. Lee, Burch and Mitchell (2014) label "links", "fit" and "sacrifice" as the three dimensions of job embeddedness as they are important on and off the job.

Links are defined as the connection between employees and organizations (Young, 2012). Individuals who experience high levels of job embeddedness have many connections in the workplace and/or community, for example, employees in the same age category tend to have stronger connections. Marital status, children, tenure, hobbies and membership in community organizations are all examples of links (Young, 2012).

Fit can be described as the perceived comfortability an individual has with an organization and/or community (Young, 2012). The more aligned an employee's beliefs, values and goals are to an organizations culture, the better the fit between the employer and employee, which increases the likelihood of the employee feeling, committed to the organization.

Sacrifice refers to the benefits (intrinsic and extrinsic) that the employee would lose when leaving the organization, for example, an employee giving up the corner office or health and retirement benefits (Young, 2012).

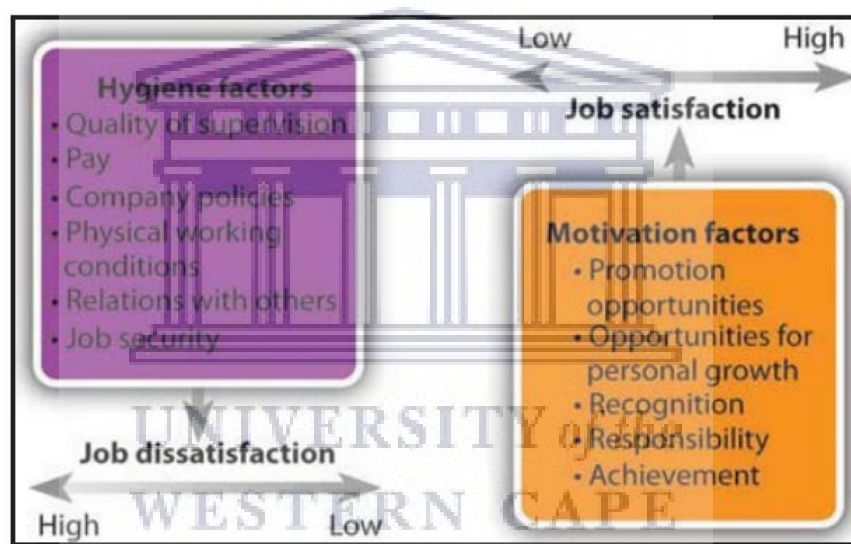
The perspective of the job embeddedness theory is that employees are more likely to stay in their jobs if they are feeling a sense of embeddedness towards their professional and social environment, if not, they are more receptive to turnover intention (Ngo-Henha, 2017).

2.3.3.4. Herzberg's Two-Factor Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg's Two Factor theory is divided into two factors within organizations. The one factor contributes to job satisfaction referred to as the motivation factors or the motivators and the other factor contributes to job dissatisfaction labelled as the hygiene factors. Motivators include factors such as recognition, increased responsibility, achievement, promotion and learning whereas hygiene factors include unfair workplace policies, poor working conditions, incompetent or unfair supervisors, unfair salary and job insecurity (Ngo-Henha, 2017).

According to Nanayakkara and Dayarathna (2016), motivation is identified as an effective tool used by managers to encourage employees and build their confidence. Motivation is the process of giving an individual purpose in what he or she is doing. Most often, when employees do not experience motivation within their job, they will experience feelings of dissatisfaction, which could affect turnover intention within the organization. Therefore, identifying ways to motivate employees and understanding the relationship between motivators and turnover intention is important for the success of an organization (Nanayakkara & Dayarathna, 2016).

Figure 2.4 - Two-Factor Theory



Source: Extracted from Ngo-Henha, P. E. (2017). A review of existing turnover intention theories. *International Journal of Economics and Management Engineering*, 11(11), 2760-2767.

2.3.3.5. The Equity Theory

The equity theory is also known as the justice theory and was developed by Stacy Adams in the year 1963 (Perez, 2008). According to Ngo-Henha (2017), the equity theory suggests that individuals feel motivated if they experience feelings of fairness and equity within their jobs. Fortuin (2018) adds that it is the fair balance between an employee's

efforts (for example, hard work and skills) and an employee's outcomes (e.g. salary and benefits). The equity theory is a job motivational theory in which the focus is on the exchange relationship where individuals give something (input) and expect something in return (output). Therefore, highly motivated employees will view their rewards to be equal to that of their contributions. Each employee is motivated in different ways and will therefore perceive the fairness of contribution to reward differently (Fortuin, 2018). Based on the equity theory, if an employee feels that the allocation of resources is unfair, the intention to leave the organization will arise (Ngo-Henha, 2017).

2.3.3.6. The Human Capital Theory

The human capital theory suggests that education, learning along with development have positive impacts on the productivity and pay of an employee (Ngo-Henha, 2017). Education is noted to be an important element to an employee's production capacity. Fortuin (2018) noted that education is closely linked to an employee's earning level and can therefore increase one's income. This makes it important for organizations to invest in employee's development as it enhances productivity levels. However, in the perspective of this theory, management's efforts to invest in employee learning and development can be harmful to the organization as employees who further their education become more valuable and employable which could lead to turnover as they leave for better job opportunities (Ngo-Henha, 2017). Therefore, management's investment in employees in terms of training and development could be measured as an important factor in turnover intention.

2.3.4. CONSEQUENCES OF TURNOVER INTENTION

Due to turnover intention being the highest predictor of actual turnover, organizations need to ensure that retention management is at the top of their priority list. If organizations are shortsighted in terms of tackling turnover before it becomes a problem, serious implications could occur. Employee turnover can have both direct and indirect consequences on an organization (Fortuin, 2018). In any organization, there are employees who help make the organization better (skilled and knowledgeable employees) which are known to be the assets of the organization. These employees could

cause a huge gap in the workplace when leaving. According to Allen (2008), when turnover occurs, it is costly and affects business performance, which could make retention more challenging. Turnover costs an organization time and money. The processes of having to recruit and select new individuals as well as train and develop new employees are examples of the direct implications of turnover (Fortuin, 2018). In addition, there are indirect implications, which include a decrease in the morale amongst remaining employees. Work overload has a huge impact, as remaining employees need to pick up the slack of those employees who have left the organization in addition to having a loss of networks (Fortuin, 2018). Organizations need to be aware of remaining employees and manage ways to retain them especially after turnover has occurred within the workplace (Allen, 2008). The workload usually increases thus employees are expected to achieve and meet the needs and objectives of the organization, this in turn could cause organizations to exert high expectations that are beyond their employees' capabilities (Arshad & Puteh, 2015). This could be detrimental to the remaining employees as the performance of the organization is likely to decrease during the period of recruiting, selecting and training new employees.

2.4. THE CONCEPT OF PERCEIVED SUPERVISOR SUPPORT (PSS)

The continuous effort to find efficient ways to retain talented employees remains a key factor in organizations. Numerous studies have shown that support in the workplace can lead to positive outcomes including career satisfaction, job performance, retention and organizational commitment (Baran, Shanock & Miller, 2012; Burns, 2016; Campbell, 2011). According to Burns (2016), positive work outcomes have been led by two types of support namely, perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived supervisor support (PSS). Perceived organizational support refers to the perceived support employees receive from the organization whereas perceived supervisor support refers to the perceived support employees receive from their supervisor.

Both concepts, perceived supervisor and organizational support, involve the perception employees have towards their supervisor and organization. Perception forms an important part of how an individual views their reality, and forms individual attitudes and

opinions based on the view of their reality (Elnaga, 2012; Otara, 2011). Otara (2011) noted that perception is the way individuals interpret their experiences. The concept of perception is not something a manager can directly access or fix in employees (Elnaga, 2012). It is a difficult part of human behaviour and managers need to apprehend that all employees have different perceptions (Otara, 2011). The individual differences are important for management to understand as it has a direct influence on employee behaviour. Individuals with different perceptions will have different characteristics, needs, interact differently and view the world differently (Elnaga, 2012). Perception is developed through communication within organizations and is an important tool in leadership (Otara, 2011). As a result, through communication, individual perceptions (leaders, managers and employees) influence organizational behaviour and shape the conditions and effectiveness of the working environment (Elnaga, 2012; Otara, 2011).

When an employee feels attached and acknowledged by the organization for which he or she works for, there is a high probability of the employee feeling more supported by their supervisor and organization as a whole (Eisenberger, Rhoades & Cameron, 1999). The same way that organizations strive and is concerned about having committed employees, employees are concerned about whether the organization they work for is committed to them (Seppänen, 2012). It is for this reason that organizations are putting more effort into supporting their employees by valuing their contributions and investing in them. Employees who feel valued and are rewarded by their organization, will not only be more relaxed and satisfied but will consider themselves more committed towards the organization and will perform at a higher level within their jobs (Mohamed & Ali, 2016).

2.4.1. PERCEIVED SUPERVISOR SUPPORT (PSS) AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT (POS)

Burns (2016) noted a debate regarding the relationship between perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support in saying that they are similar constructs where others have indicated that they are different. The reason for stating that it is similar is based on the premise that a higher level of perceived supervisor support will result in an

increase in perceived organizational support (Burns, 2016; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski & Rhoades, 2002). Based on definitions of perceived supervisor support, some literature has stated that because supervisors are seen as reflections of the organization itself, as supervisors are most likely to display the organizational values through the way they treat their employees, perceived supervisor support contributes to perceived organizational support (Levinson, 1965 as cited in Eisenberger et al., 2002).

Eisenberger et al., (2002) conducted a study, which explored the relationships among employee perception of supervisor support, organizational support and employee turnover. The research included a hypothesis that specifically looked at the relationship between perceived supervisor support and perceived organizational support. A sample of 314 employees across various organizations was used. The results of the study proved that perceived supervisor support was positively related to perceived organizational support. This posited that perceived supervisor support leads to perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 2002).

Beyond the perceived support received from the organization, employees develop direct views on the extent to which their supervisors value their contributions and care about their well-being. This acknowledgement and recognition received from supervisors/managers will lead to positive outcomes, which includes a decrease in turnover intention (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2013). Therefore, for the purpose of this study perceived supervisor support is chosen over perceived organizational support.

2.4.2. PERCEIVED SUPERVISOR SUPPORT

2.4.2.1. The role of the supportive supervisor

Organizations view human capital as a competitive resource in which effective supervision of employees have become a key aspect in organizational success (Paustian-Underdahl, Shanock, Rogelberg, Scott, Justice & Altman, 2013). Supervisors are categorized in the first level of management and are given main duties and responsibilities to create and lead teams in the workplace (Azman, Sieng, Ajis, Dollah & Boerhannoeddin,

2009). Traditionally, supervision refers to the leadership function of managing the productivity and progress of employees. However, Bernard (2005 as cited in Omisore, 2014) noted that supervision is the ability of managers to influence the behaviour of employees to take a specific path of action. It is having the ability to encourage employees to achieve organizational goals. Campbell (2011) refers to the supervisor as the individual to whom an employee would report directly to in the organization. This makes supervisors responsible for their direct employees productivity and performance in the organization.

The supervisor plays an important role in implementing the policies and practices of the organization. Due to supervisors being close to the operational level in the business, they are the individuals who bring the policies and practices to life and are key individuals in carrying out the organizational strategy (Kuvaas, Dysvik & Buch, 2014). The quality of the relationship between each individual employee and supervisor varies. A supervisor should approach each situation differently, based on individual differences and the relationship that exists between the employee and supervisor (Campbell, 2011).

Supervisory support has been an interest among researchers since the early studies conducted on leadership (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2013). Supportive supervision was noted in the transformational leadership theory in which personalized consideration is one of the transformational leader behaviours. Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2013) states that personalized consideration include a supervisor's efforts in developing their employees' potential and in being attentive to their employees needs for success and development. Although supportive supervisory is classified as a dimension of personalized consideration, it can also reflect leadership, social support and mentoring. According to House (1981 as cited in Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2013) a supportive leader is one who provides employees with emotional, instrumental, informational and appraisal support. A supportive supervisor is relationship orientated in which the supervisor shows concern with improving relationships, working together as a team, helping employees and developing connections with the organization. A supportive leader is a type of social support within the workplace and helps to cushion the negative effects of stress and strain

employees may feel that could lead to turnover intention (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2013).

2.4.2.2. Definitions of perceived supervisor support

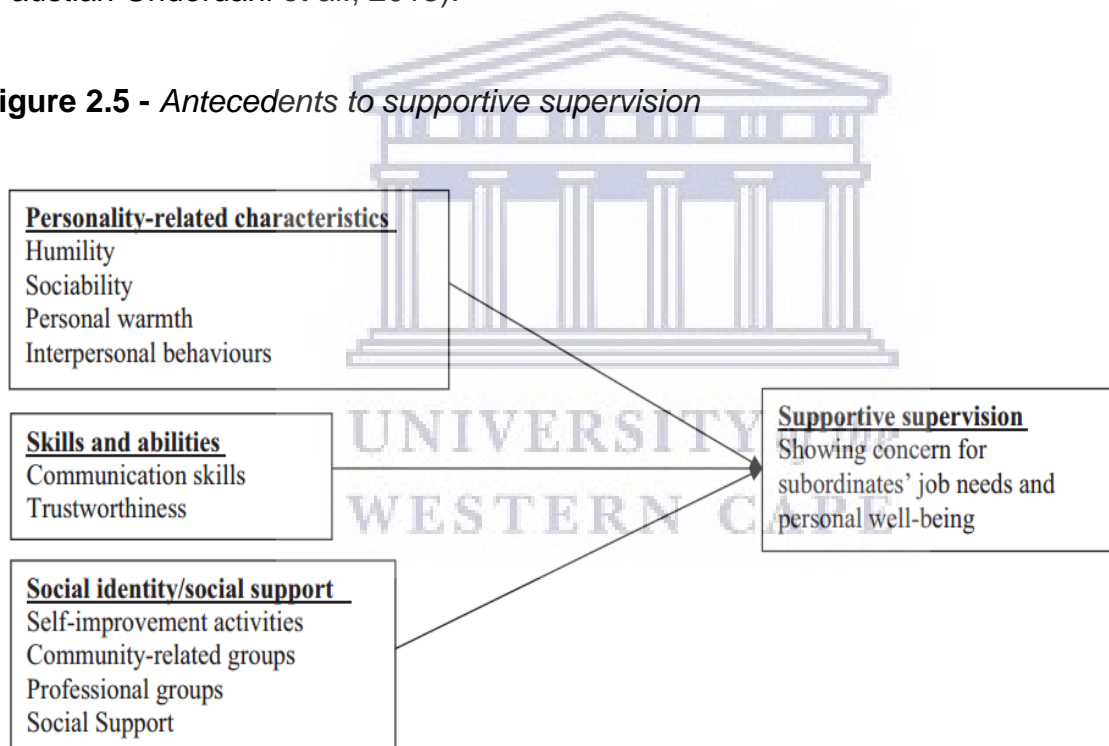
Supervision is a serious and often misunderstood function that can result in many negative employee effects (Omisore, 2014). Newman et al. (2011) claims that perceived supervisor support has been a focus area in literature as it has shown to be significantly related to key workplace issues and outcomes such as turnover intention and employee turnover. Perceived supervisor support was based on the perspective of the social exchange theory. Eisenberger used the theory to develop the two constructs in an attempt to understand the employee-employer exchange relationships (Tuzun & Kalemci, 2017). Perceived supervisor support is described as the extent to which an employee feels that he/she is supported and respected by his/her supervisor as well as the willingness a supervisor has to help the employee (Gok, Karatuna & Karaca, 2015). Kumar, Duggirala, Hayatnagarkar and Balaraman (2017) defines supervisory support as the perception an employee has of the extent to which supervisors value their contributions as well as care for their wellbeing.

The support received from the supervisor has been shown to increase employee's levels of trust in the organization as supervisors embody the organizations goals, mission and values that lead to a positive influence in the employee-employer relationship (Kumar et al., 2017). It has been found to be one of the highest predictors of employee performance (Cheng, Jiang, Cheng, Riley & Jen, 2014). In addition, supervisory support promotes individual level outcomes such as career satisfaction, low exhaustion and lower turnover intention (Kumar et al., 2017). When supervisors combine the role of bridging the gap between upper management and employees, while meeting organizational goals, it will result in positive outcomes for the overall organization as well as employee performance and behaviour (Omisore, 2014).

2.4.3. ANTECEDENTS OF SUPERVISOR SUPPORT

A study conducted by Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2013) explored aspects of a supervisors biographical data to develop the understanding of the factors that influence supervisor supportiveness. The study made use of an ecology model, which suggests that individuals choose life paths that are self-supporting and this can be used to predict future behaviours and performance. The results are useful because when employees and organizations understand the potential antecedents, they are able to influence, improve or modify supportive workplace behaviour. Figure 2.5 shows the findings of the study in which organizations can use to recruit and develop more supportive supervisors (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2013).

Figure 2.5 - Antecedents to supportive supervision



Source: Extracted from Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., Shanock, L. R., Rogelberg, S. G., Scott, C. W., Justice, L., & Altman, D. G. (2013). Antecedents to supportive supervision: an examination of biographical data. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 86(1), 288-309. doi:10.1111/joop.12019

2.4.3.1. Personality-related characteristics

Based on the results of the study conducted by Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2013) the strength of highly supportive supervisors stems from their interpersonal skills as well as their personalities. Open relationships and interactions between the supervisor and employee as well as receiving encouragement and support from the supervisor will lead to enhanced employee creativity and contribute to innovative thinking within employees (Mazibuko, 2016). This will help employees understand that their input is valuable and as a result, employees will continue to look for ways to improve. Furthermore, supervisors are seen as more supportive when they view themselves as approachable and friendly in the workplace. These characteristics enable supervisors to give more support, whether it is personal or job-related, in order for employees to be successful (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2013). Hence, the personality related competencies could be factors that influence a supervisor's ability to be more or less supportive in the organization.

2.4.3.2. Skills and abilities

According to Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2013) there are important skills and abilities that differentiate between supportive supervisors and less supportive supervisors. Supervisors who were shown to be more supportive displayed characteristics of trustworthiness and showed strong communication skills. An example of this would be, inviting the participation of employees and delegating, which reduced levels of stress and burnout within employees. In some situations, supervisors could improve the overall productivity of employees, while in other situations; it could be a distraction to the effectiveness of the employees. This makes it important for organizations to have well trained supervisors who have the skills and abilities to provide appropriate guidance, structure and encouragement to their employees (Omisore, 2014). Thus, the findings show that the antecedents to supportive supervisors include communication and trust by which organizations could implement mentoring to improve supportive behaviours in the organization (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2013).

2.4.3.3. Social support

Highly supportive supervisors are more involved in community and professional groups as well as sports activities. The antecedents therefore, include social support and the ability the supervisor has to identify with community social groups and activities (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2013). Organizations may want to encourage supervisors to involve themselves in community activities as they would obtain diverse social experiences, which will improve their supportiveness within the workplace. Activities like exercising are also good to maintain an individual's wellbeing, which would positively influence a supervisor's relationship at work (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2013). Janssen (2005) noted that employees are highly dependent on supervisors for information, resources and more importantly, sociopolitical support for developing innovative ideas for change within the workplace. Which is why, support from supervisors are important factors in the contribution of innovative work behaviours through their impact in providing meaningfulness, safety and availability (Mazibuko, 2016).

The study by Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2013) provides organizations with the antecedents of supportive supervisors and can therefore, be used to help supervisors become more supportive to employees in the workplace as it will contribute to positive outcomes such as psychological empowerment, organizational commitment and reduced turnover and turnover intention.

2.5. THE CONCEPT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

The continuous advancement of technology and globalization has forced organizations to become more flexible and efficient in order to survive. Jobs have evolved into becoming more challenging, complex and empowering (Safari, Haghghi, Rastegar & Jamshidi, 2011). The reality of this has attracted the interest of theorists and academics who have argued that empowering employees is one of the main approaches that will enhance performance and provide survival in organizations (Allameh, Heydari & Davoodi, 2011; Dewettinck & Van Ameude, 2007). According to Allameh et al. (2011) the concept of psychological empowerment was first considered in the 1900s. It is an important concept due to its effect on outcomes that not only benefits individuals but the organization as well

(Allahyari, Shahbazi, Mirkamali & Kharazi, 2011). Empowerment has been shown to help increase productivity and efficiency of employees and can also contribute to job satisfaction and help retain talented employees (Nassar, 2017).

The psychological empowerment concept has two main perspectives namely relational and motivational (Nassar, 2017). The relational construct refers to the process in which managers share their power with employees. Dewettinck and Van Aemeude (2007) refer to this perspective as the macro or the structural view, which concentrates on managerial practices that are aimed at empowering employees in the lower level of the organization. The main focus is on the delegation of authority or decision making responsibilities (Dewettinck & Van Aemeude, 2007; Nassar, 2017). Based on the relational perspective, empowerment is defined as a set of approaches such as workplace policies and practices used by managers to allocate responsibilities, authority and power to employees (Nassar, 2017). The motivational construct on the other hand is linked to an inner need for self-determination and self-efficacy belief. It focuses on the individual experience of empowerment, for example, what an employee has to feel in order for interventions to be effective (Dewettinck & Van Aemeude, 2007).

Based on the motivational perspective; empowerment is defined as motivating employees through the enhancement of self-efficacy (Nassar, 2017). Self-efficacy refers to the belief an individual has in the ability to complete a task (Safari, Rastegar & Jahromi, 2010). Therefore, a group of psychological conditions is required for individuals to feel like they have control over their own destiny. The group of psychological conditions consist of four aspects namely competence, impact, meaning and self-determination (Dewettinck & Van Aemeude, 2007; Nassar, 2017). This study will, however, only be focusing on the motivational perspective of psychological empowerment.

2.5.1. Definitions of psychological empowerment

Recent studies conducted on empowerment are still based on Spreitzer's original work which operationalized and validated the construct (Fourie & van Eeden, 2010). Psychological empowerment is a multidimensional concept that is briefly defined as

“experienced psychological manners and cognition”. This definition focuses particularly on personal experience and includes an individual’s key psychological feelings to his workplace (Safari et al., 2010).

According to Spreitzer (1995 as cited in Allahyari et al., 2011) psychological empowerment is referred to as an inner stimulator that allow employees feel or perceive that they have the ability to complete tasks and activities. Similarly, Bester, Stander and van Zyl (2015), view psychological empowerment as an increase in feelings of self-efficacy experienced by employees through the identification of the working environment within the organization. This is why Hanaysha (2016) refers to psychological empowerment as a motivational domain that exists to increase performance through the increase in opportunities of participation and involvement in making decisions.

Bandura (1990 as cited in Safari et al., 2011) noted that empowerment is closely linked to an individual’s perception about themselves in comparison to their work environment. The environment in which the individual exists is important for increasing psychological empowerment due to empowerment being a group of perceptions influenced by the work environments.

Similar to Dewettinck and Van Ameude (2007) and Nassar (2017), Hancer and George (2003) conceptualized empowerment in terms of the changes in task assessments such as impact, competence, meaning and self-determination, which in return determined the motivation of individuals. These dimensions together reflect the way in which an employee desires to be, and experiences a feeling of being in control of his or her role and work context (Bester et al., 2015).

2.5.2. DIMENSIONS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

2.5.2.1. Meaning

With regards to empowerment, meaningfulness is based on an individual’s perception of the value placed on a goal or purpose within the workplace, which is judged in relation to his or her own personal expectations (Hamed, 2010). In simple terms, Allameh et al.,

(2011) describes meaning as an opportunity in which employees feel like they are working in an environment where their time and authority are considered valuable. Work is therefore meaningful when employees understand the value and importance of their job not only for themselves but for the organization as well (Van Der Hoven, 2017). When this happens, employees tend to not only be more attentive to their role and responsibilities but are also more likely to work better and be satisfied by the work they do (Najafi, Noruzy, KhezriAzar, Nazari-Shirkouhi & Dalvand, 2011).

2.5.2.2. Competence

To be competent is to be able to successfully complete an activity or task and doing so with confidence. Hamed (2010) defines competence as the capability an individual has to perform work tasks with the required skills and knowledge. This includes the belief that competent individuals can fully utilize the resources provided to them by the organization in order to perform their job to the best of their ability (Van Der Hoven, 2017). Empowered people therefore have a sense of competence, as they are confident about their ability to do their job well (Theron, 2010). Additionally, Hancer and George (2003) noted that competence in essence is self-efficacy and is stated to be the strongest control for empowerment. Hence, people who are likely to avoid situations in which they need to apply their skills have low levels of self-efficacy but individuals who are willing to take on challenging tasks are likely to have high levels of self-efficacy (Van Der Hoven, 2017).

2.5.2.3. Self-determination

Self-determination is also known as authority and is briefly described as the sense of authority an individual has to initiate and regulate actions (Hamed, 2010). As maintained by Allahyari et al. (2011) self-determination includes the practice control over the procedures used to perform work activities, scheduling those activities and the criteria used to rate performance. If this dimension is not felt by an employee, there is a high chance that the employee will feel a sense of helplessness. People who feel a higher sense of self-determination are more likely to be motivated to practice control over their environments due to their belief of having a more internal locus of causality (Hancer &

George, 2003). Therefore, it is having the choice to choose a task that makes sense to the employee in order to perform the tasks in the best way they can (Theron, 2010).

2.5.2.4. Impact

Hancer and George (2003) briefly describe impact as the extent to which the behavior is shown to “make a difference.” Thus, the extent to which an individual can influence outcomes at work whether it is strategic, administrative or operative, is known as impact (Hamed, 2010). This dimension is based on the idea that employees have control over their jobs as well as have an impact on the organization (Theron, 2010). An employee that feels they can positively contribute towards his or her job in the form of meeting a goal or completing a task could increase feelings of job satisfaction (Spreitzer, 1995, as cited by Van der Hoven, 2016). Impact was found to be associated with an absence of withdrawal from situations and high performance. As a result, if individuals feel that they do not have an impact on their job, they are likely to experience withdrawal behaviours to avoid challenging tasks (Theron, 2010).

2.5.3. THE EMPOWERMENT PROCESS

Identifying factors within the organization that contribute to an employee's feeling of powerlessness has become important. When these factors are identified, organizations can use strategies to enhance empowerment within the organization and as a result removes any factors fostering a sense of powerlessness (Conger & Kanungo, 1988 as cited in Theron, 2010).

Conger and Kanungo (1988 as cited in Theron, 2010) views the process of empowerment in five stages (Figure 2.6) which are explained as follows:

Stage 1: The first stage consists of the identification of conditions within the organization, that foster feelings of powerlessness amongst employees. These conditions could exist in organizational factors, supervisor/management style, reward systems and or the design of the job.

Stage 2: Once the conditions that are responsible for powerlessness amongst employees are identified, empowerment strategies can be implemented. Participative management,

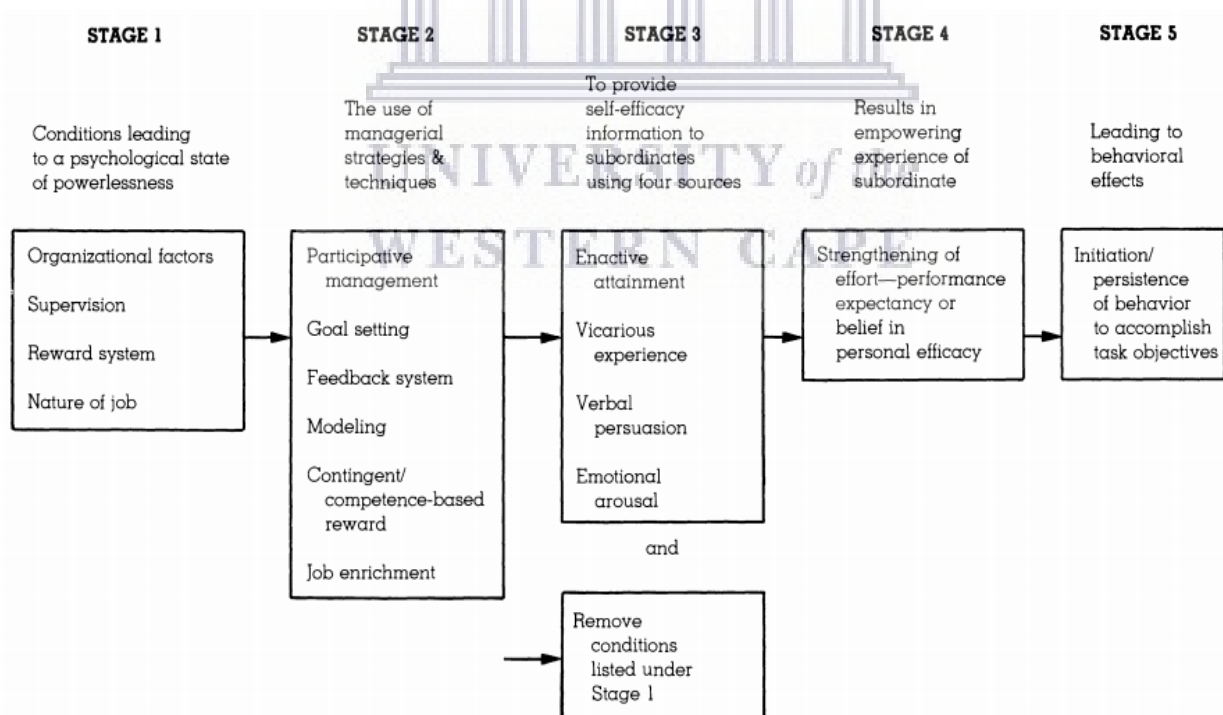
setting goals, consistent feedback, modeling, reward based on competence and job enrichment are examples of strategies to help enhance empowerment within employees.

Stage 3: After the empowerment strategies are implemented, removing external conditions that foster powerlessness as well as providing employees with self-efficacy information should be accomplished. Employees need to be reminded of their ability to be effective in their job.

Stage 4: Self-efficacy should increase within employees after stage 3 and should result in feelings of empowerment.

Stage 5: Lastly, feelings of empowerment now translates into positive workplace behaviour which includes, the increase in activity towards completing a task. Thus, helping employees realize their full potential to perform and produce quality work. Therefore, empowerment is likely to result in overall positive employee and organizational outcomes (Theron, 2010).

Figure 2.6 - The empowerment process



Source: Extracted from Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). The empowerment process: integrating theory and practice. *The Academy of Management Review*, 13(3), 471-482.

2.5.4. ANTECEDENTS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

In order to implement empowerment in education or institutes, it first requires particular antecedents to empowerment (Ghani, Hussin & Jusoff, 2009). In the past organizational structures and practices were viewed as displays of empowerment, however, current research view these factors as antecedents of psychological empowerment in contrast to viewing it as empowerment itself (Seibert, Wang & Courtright, 2011). Ghani et al. (2009) noted that factors that empower and enhance an employees power to perform within the workplace, is dependent on a working environment with factors such as providing resouces (information), organizational support and the opportunity to learn and develop. Tan (2007) supports the view that empowerment generally needs to be supported by the working environment that it operates in. However, Seibert et al. (2011) suggested one of four contextual antecedent categories of variables that portray employee perceptions of their work environment. This will be further discussed below.

2.5.4.1. High-Performance managerial practices

High performance managerial practices such as honest information sharing, decentralization, participation in decision making, training and development and bonus compensation are considered to improve employee performance and most likely help in increasing psychological empowerment (Seibert et al., 2011). Tan (2007) adds that information sharing, when used effectively can translate to effective psychological empowerment in employees. Employees are likely to develop a deeper understanding of how their job fits in with the larger organizational goals and for that reason view their jobs as meaningful. Enhancing employees' skills and knowledge through training and development could also enhance feelings of competence within employees work positions (Seibert et al., 2011; Tan, 2007).

2.5.4.2. Socio-political support

Socio-political support is the extent to which the organization provides their employees with resources (material, social and psychological). The support received from the organization and co-workers could increase feelings of self-determination as employees feel more accepted in the organization to determine individual work goals. In addition, the

support received will enhance an employees' feelings of task competence and the impact that they have within the organization because of the access to resources, power and influence needed to accomplish goals (Seibert et al., 2011).

2.5.4.3. Leadership

The support and trust an employee has with their leader is an important contextual antecedent of psychological empowerment (Seibert et al., 2011). Leadership positively affects psychological empowerment due to its important role in influencing an employee's work experience. Leaders/supervisors/managers can communicate to employees' directly about organizational goals and strategies, which allow the employee to see the value of the work they do and therefore, could enhance meaningfulness. Effective employee empowerment contributions need a strong employee-employer relationship (Tan, 2007).

2.5.4.4. Work Design Characteristics

Lastly, many of the components of psychological empowerment are directly linked to the characteristics of one's job. According to Seibert et al. (2011) the job characteristics theory supports and explains how the main job characteristics are correlated to aspects such as meaning and self-determination of psychological empowerment.

2.5.5. WORK OUTCOMES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

2.5.5.1. Organizational commitment as an outcome of empowerment

According to Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe (2004 as cited in Seibert et al. 2011) a strong correlation between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment exists, which signifies that the meaning dimension of psychological empowerment induces affective commitment due to it assessing the fit between the demands of the job and the individual needs and values. Janssen (2004 as cited in Tan, 2007) states organizational commitment is enhanced through psychological empowerment's four component model because:

- a) When an employee has a meaningful job, it presents an alignment between an employee's work role responsibilities and their personal values

- b) Impact facilitates employee possibilities
- c) Having self-determination gives an employee a sense of control over their job which leads to an increase in the involvement within the organization, and
- d) competence boosts employee confidence and belief in their ability to perform in their job

Thus, organizational commitment is an important outcome of psychological empowerment.

2.5.5.2. Turnover intention as an outcome of empowerment

Employees who experience empowerment within their work roles view empowerment as a valuable resource and in return show loyalty to the organization and continued employment (Seibert et al., 2011). Finding a job that allows employees to be and feel empowered within their role is hard to find and establish with another employer. Tan (2007) states that a good level of empowerment positively influences organizational commitment and thus negatively affects turnover intention.

2.6. THE CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organizational commitment has been a construct under study for more than a decade (Jena, 2015). According to Mester, Visser, Roodt and Kellerman (2003, as cited in Döckel, Basson & Coetzee, 2006) organizational commitment has brought about curiosity in understanding and simplifying the influence and steadiness of an employee's loyalty to an organization. In today's world, organizational commitment is referred to as an attitude as it relates to individuals mindsets about an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990 as cited in Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane & Ferreira, 2011). As a result, if the individual has positive feelings towards the organization, there will be a higher level of acceptance with regards to the organizations goals and also willingness to go the extra mile in the employees job (Lumley et al., 2011).

Similarly, organizational commitment can be defined as the strength of an individual's relationship with and involvement in an organization (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982 as cited in Martin, 2007). Meyer and Allen (1991, as cited in Jena, 2015, pg. 60) defined

organizational commitment as “a psychological state that characterizes an employee’s relationship with an organization and his implications for the decisions to continue membership of the organization”. It is also defined by Bargraim (2010 as cited in Satardien, 2014) as the felt obligation by the employee to stay with the organization. According to Jena (2015), organizational commitment has been linked to several organizational outcomes, which include performance, reduced turnover, withdrawal cognition, low absenteeism and increased organizational citizenship behavior.

Furthermore, Meyer and Allen (1991, as cited in Lodewyk, 2011) have provided researchers with a theory regarding organizational commitment which is defined within three forms of commitment namely affective commitment (the desire to remain in the organization), continuance commitment (the need to remain in the organization) and normative commitment (the perception of being obligated to remain in the organization). Even though these three forms of commitment are used to explain the multidimensional nature of organizational commitment, all three components were developed based on different antecedents and is likely to have different implications on workplace outcomes other than turnover (Wasti, 2002). In addition, Alniacik, Cigerim, Akcin and Bayram (2011) add that affective commitment was shown to be more effective in measuring organizational commitment. Consequently, many studies have used affective commitment as a single measurement of organizational commitment (Mahembe & Engelbrecht, 2013; Vandenberghe, Bentein & Stainglhamber, 2004). For the purpose of this research, affective commitment will be discussed.

2.7. THE CONCEPT OF AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

Affective commitment is defined as “the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement with the organization” (Alniacik et al., 2011). In simple terms, employees who identify with the organization at an affective level, are committed to the organization because they want to. Employees are committed to the organization because their values and goals are aligned with the organizations (Gota, 2017). Joo and Park (2010) noted that affective commitment has been shown to be correlated with positive workplace outcomes. Wasti (2004) adds that positive work experiences such as

job satisfaction and organizational justice as well as associations with positive work outcomes such as an increase in organizational citizenship behaviour are developed from affective commitment. As maintained by Galletta et al. (2011) literature has revealed that employees who are more emotionally involved are more satisfied are less likely to leave the organization. This is why, employees with high levels of affective commitment are likely to be motivated to perform at higher levels and make more meaningful contributions than employees who have continuance and normative commitment (Alniacik et al., 2011; Wasti, 2004).

Mercurio (2015) conducted a study, which proposed a conceptual framework in which affective commitment is a core essence of organizational commitment. Core essence of organizational commitment was described by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001 as cited in Mercurio, 2015) as the binding force that is supposed to drive future theory developments and modeling of the construct of organizational commitment. Mercurio (2015) states that studies conducted on the three components of organizational commitment resulted in showing that affective commitment is correlated more strongly with consequences such as turnover and performance. In addition, Wasti (2004) has also indicated that affective commitment developed a decrease in withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism, tardiness and turnover intention.

2.7.1. ANTECEDENTS OF AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

Mercurio (2015) noted that it has been well proven that the primary antecedents of affective commitment are demographic variables, individual differences, work experiences and investments. However, work experience has been revealed to be the strongest antecedent of affective commitment.

Work experience - Based on the construct affective commitment, socialization, highly committed human resource practices and interpersonal relationships have an important role in correlating positively with great levels of affective commitment (Morrow, 2011). The work experiences employees accumulate overtime has a great impact on the commitment an employee has towards the organization. Therefore, recruitment and selection,

socialization within the workplace (with supervisors and co-workers), mentoring and training and development affect levels of affective commitment (Mercurio, 2015).

2.8. RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CONSTRUCTS

2.8.1. Perceived supervisor support and turnover intention

As suggested by Tuzun and Kalemci (2011), work signifies a mutual relationship where employees provide effort in return for tangible and non-tangible rewards such as pay and benefits or appreciation and esteem. Kalidass and Bahron (2015) add that supervisors who are more encouraging and supportive towards their employees help with improving retention. Regardless of employees viewing their supervisors as agents of the organization they are able to separate the attachments and could therefore have different effects on turnover intentions (Kalidass & Bahron, 2015; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2011). A study conducted by Newman et al. (2011) on Chinese employees on multinational enterprises found that perceived supervisor support had a direct significant relationship with turnover intentions of employees. Employees who feel more supported and cared for by their supervisors will be more loyal and committed to them. This would lead to employees helping meet organizational goals and feeling more committed which results in reduced turnover intention (Tuzun & Kalemci, 2011).

In addition, a study conducted by Alshutwi (2017) aimed to review and critique published research on supervisor support as an approach to reduce turnover intention. The results of the study indicated that even though there are differences within literature regarding the relationship between supervisor support and turnover intention, evidence suggested that supervisor support could influence turnover intention and therefore actual turnover. According to Maertz et al. (2007, as cited in Newman et al., 2011) PSS demonstrates a direct relationship with turnover intention as well as a mediated the relationship through perceived organizational support.

2.8.2. Perceived supervisor support and psychological empowerment

Leaders (managers and supervisors) are an important factor in creating and managing workplace environments, work processes, workplace culture and strategies that generate

creative and innovative thinking in the organization (Ozaralli, 2015). Innovative thinking contributes to employees believing that they have influence and can contribute to other facets of empowerment such as competence, self-determination and self-esteem (Janssen, 2005). Empowerment occurs when high-involvement management processes are implemented within organizations (Boudrias, Gaudreau, Savoie & Morin, 2009). When supervisors support their employees through encouragement and appreciation of their contributions, employees are more likely to feel more empowered in their jobs (Steinberg, 2012). Farr-Wharton, Brunetto and Shacklock (2011) states that management practices significantly affect perceptions of empowerment within employees. This was based on a study conducted on a sample of nurses, which revealed that support from senior management was a factor that predicts empowerment (Farr-Wharton et al., 2011). Furthermore, a study done by Powka (2008, as cited in Steinberg, 2012) on Chinese service employees found that support from management resulted in employees feeling more self-determined and empowered. Kent and Rondeau (2005, as cited in Steinberg, 2012) also observed in their study of Canadian nursing homes, that PSS increased psychological empowerment amongst employees. The sharing of power to employees and providing autonomy in terms of decision-making is likely to increase employee self-efficacy. This is why Ozaralli (2015) argued that empowering leadership such as supportive supervisors might influence employees' perceptions of psychological empowerment.

2.8.3. Perceived supervisor support and affective commitment

Mohamed and Ali (2016) conducted a study to address the impact of perceived supervisor support on affective commitment among employees in Malaysian private Telecommunication companies. The results of the study suggested that perceived supervisor support has a significant relationship with affective commitment through a mediation of job satisfaction. Similarly, Li, Castano and Li (2018) conducted a study on perceived supervisor support as a mediator between organizational justice and affective commitment. The study found that receiving supervisor support fosters organizational support. It is for this reason that Soulen (2003) argued that an increase in how supportive a supervisor is perceived would increase the employees' affective commitment.

2.8.4. Psychological empowerment and turnover intention

As stated by de Klerk and Stander (2014), psychological empowerment has become fundamental in organizations due to its ability to improve employee performance and well-being. Empowered workers are more involved in decision-making and display positive effects on commitment and knowledge sharing (Steinberg, 2012). When employees feel more empowered in their jobs they become more engaged in what they do and would therefore reduce turnover intentions (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2010). Psychological empowerment is shown to have a mediated relationship with turnover intention through engagement and commitment (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2010). de Villiers and Stander (2011), further argue that psychological empowerment dimensions correlate positively with engagement and negatively with turnover intention. A study conducted by Tan (2007) based on the antecedents and outcomes of employee empowerment discovered that the dimensions of psychological empowerment (meaning, impact and self-determination) significantly impact turnover intention. In addition, Kang (2012) conducted a study on 342 social workers to examine the effects of empowerment on organizational commitment and turnover intentions. The results showed that the dimensions of empowerment (meaning, competence and self-determination) had a negative effect on turnover intention. Similarly, Wilutantri and Etikariena (2017) conducted a study on 103 employees to examine the influence of psychological empowerment on turnover intention. The results showed a significant negative relationship between the two variables.

2.8.4. Psychological empowerment and affective commitment

In a study conducted by Albrecht and Andreetta (2010), on community health service workers; found that psychological empowerment has an influence on both affective commitment and turnover intentions of employees. Empowered employees develop feelings of loyalty towards the organization and could reduce turnover intention. Bogler and Somech (2004) conducted a study on teachers, which revealed that the empowerment dimensions such as self-efficacy and status, significantly predict organizational commitment. Hanaysha (2016) similarly conducted a study, which investigated the relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment. The findings indicated that employee empowerment has a significant

positive effect on organizational commitment, which was in line with the researcher's previous research. When employees perceive their work to be meaningful, have an impact, are a good fit for the job, and provide autonomy in terms of decision-making, they are able to express themselves better through their work. This results in higher levels of job satisfaction and higher levels of commitment to the organization (Hill, Kang, Seo, 2014). Additionally, de Klerk and Stander (2014) conducted a study, which showed that employees experiencing empowerment are more engaged, more loyal and will most likely not have feelings of turnover intention. Farr-Wharton et al. (2011) agreed that perceptions of empowerment are important as it predicts affective commitment and as a result affects turnover intentions as well.

2.8.5. Affective commitment and turnover intention

Masemola (2011) noted that organizational commitment and job satisfaction are commonly perceived as variables that would influence the turnover process, and research has especially shown that there is a strong relationship between organizational commitment and turnover. Saeed et al., (2014) concurs that organizational commitment and turnover intentions are strongly related to one another and have a negative relationship. If organizational commitment with an organization is high, then employees will be more motivated to keep their jobs, however if commitment is low, employees have no interest towards the organizational goal and may feel discouraged and want to leave the organization (Saeed et al., 2014). Therefore, studies have shown that there is indeed a relationship between commitment and turnover intention (Masemola, 2011; Saeed et al., 2014; Satardien, 2014).

Affective commitment is the best predictor of commitment out of the three dimensions of organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990, as cited in Joarder et al., 2011). Additionally, it is the most consistent predictor of positive work outcomes, and high organizational commitment is linked with lower turnover intentions (Joarder et al., 2011). This coincides with a study conducted by Galletta et al. (2011) on employees in Italian healthcare, which found that affective commitment has an in fact an influence on turnover intention.

With the above theory, it is clear that perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment have strong relationships with turnover intention and mediated relationships with each other. Therefore, based on the theoretical framework it is important to consider the main aim of this research, which is to investigate the influence of perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment on turnover intentions amongst support staff at a selected tertiary institution. The following research hypotheses were postulated to guide the study:

- > **Hypothesis 1:** *PSS influences turnover intention*
- > **Hypothesis 2:** *PSS influences psychological empowerment*
- > **Hypothesis 3:** *PSS influences affective commitment*
- > **Hypothesis 4:** *Psychological empowerment influences turnover intention*
- > **Hypothesis 5:** *Psychological empowerment influences affective commitment*
- > **Hypothesis 6:** *Affective commitment influences turnover intention*
- > **Hypothesis 7:** *PSS, psychological empowerment or affective commitment predict turnover intention*

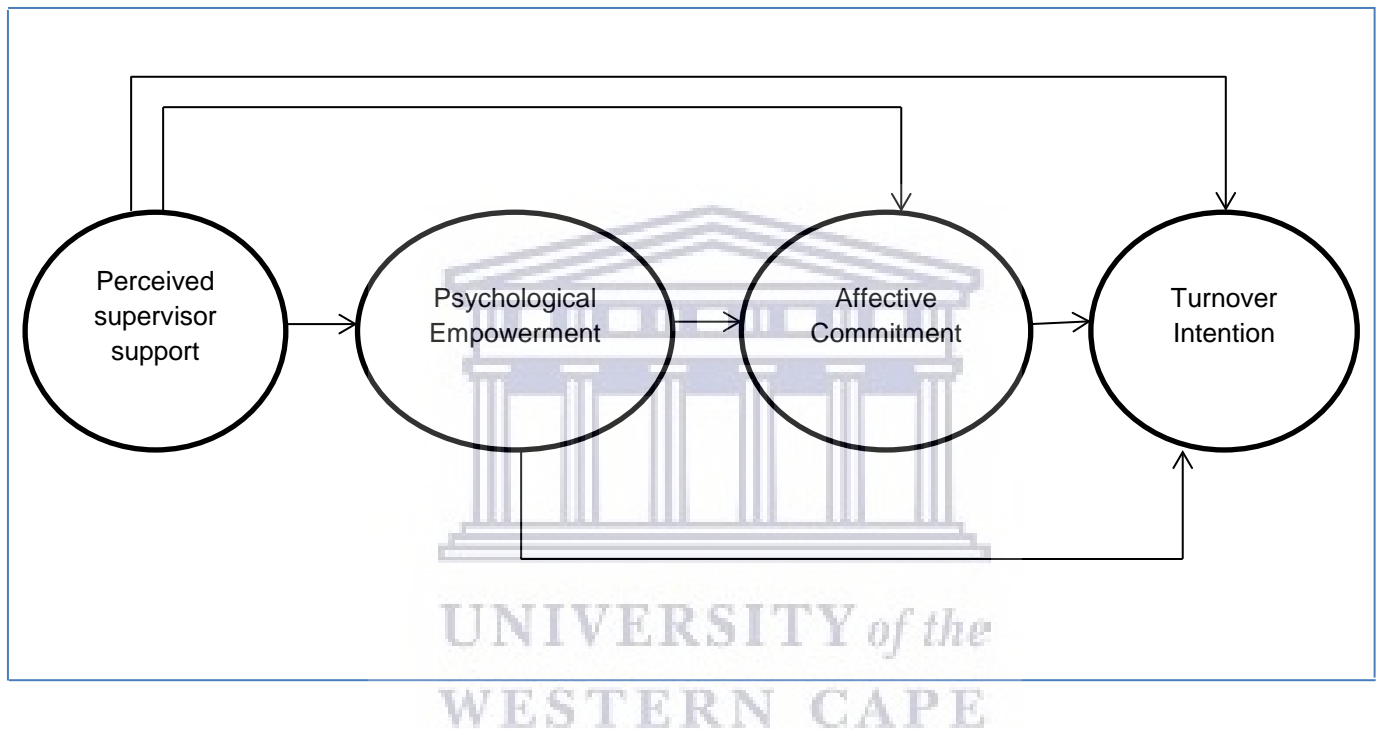


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2.9. CONCEPTUAL MODEL

A conceptual model (Figure 2.7) was developed after extensively reviewing the literature in order to illustrate the hypothesized causal linkages between perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment, affective commitment and turnover intention.

Figure 2.7- *Proposed conceptual model*



2.10. CHAPTER SUMMARY

An overview of the literature on perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment, affective commitment and turnover intentions was discussed within this chapter; this will assist in answering the research questions developed in the previous chapter. The formulation of the hypotheses will guide the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The present study aims to test an exploratory structural model developed in Chapter 2 that illustrates the manner in which perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment influence turnover intention of support staff at a selected tertiary institution. This chapter outlines the specific research methodology employed in answering the research question under investigation by focusing on the research design, participants and sampling procedure, data collection procedure, measuring instruments, statistical analysis and ethical considerations which collectively make up the research methodology of the study.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design provides an outline for how data was collected and analyzed (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The quality of the research design is dependent on how cautious the researcher is in choosing the appropriate design alternatives, considering the specific objectives, research questions and the constraints of the project such as time and access to data (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). According to Sekaran (2010), there are three different kinds of research designs for conducting research investigations, which are known as quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods. For this study, a quantitative research design was employed as it intends to test the research hypotheses illustrated in figure 3.1.

Quantitative research can be characterized as a research strategy that highlights quantification in collecting and analyzing data (Bryman, 2016). It centers on numeric values, which are obtained through statistical reporting such as correlations, comparisons of means and the statistical significance of findings (Sekaran, 2010). The quantitative research method is associated with the positivism meta-theoretical paradigm. Positivism depends on quantifiable observations that allow for statistical analysis and incorporates elements of the deductive theory in which the researcher draws on what is known about a particular domain in order to develop hypotheses that are subjected to empirical scrutiny (Bryman, 2016). The main advantage of a quantitative study is that it is time and cost

effective and large samples allow for a bigger generalizability. The disadvantage however, is that it does not gather in-depth information as the questionnaires are closed-ended.

3.3. STATISTICAL HYPOTHESES

Based on the literature review, figure 3.1 illustrates the conceptual model that depicts the specific hypothesized causal linkages between perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment, affective commitment and turnover intention.

To test the validity of the proposed relationships in the structural model, the following research hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1: PSS influences turnover intentions

Hypothesis 2: PSS influences psychological empowerment

Hypothesis 3: PSS influences affective commitment

Hypothesis 4: Psychological empowerment influences turnover intentions

Hypothesis 5: Psychological empowerment influences affective commitment

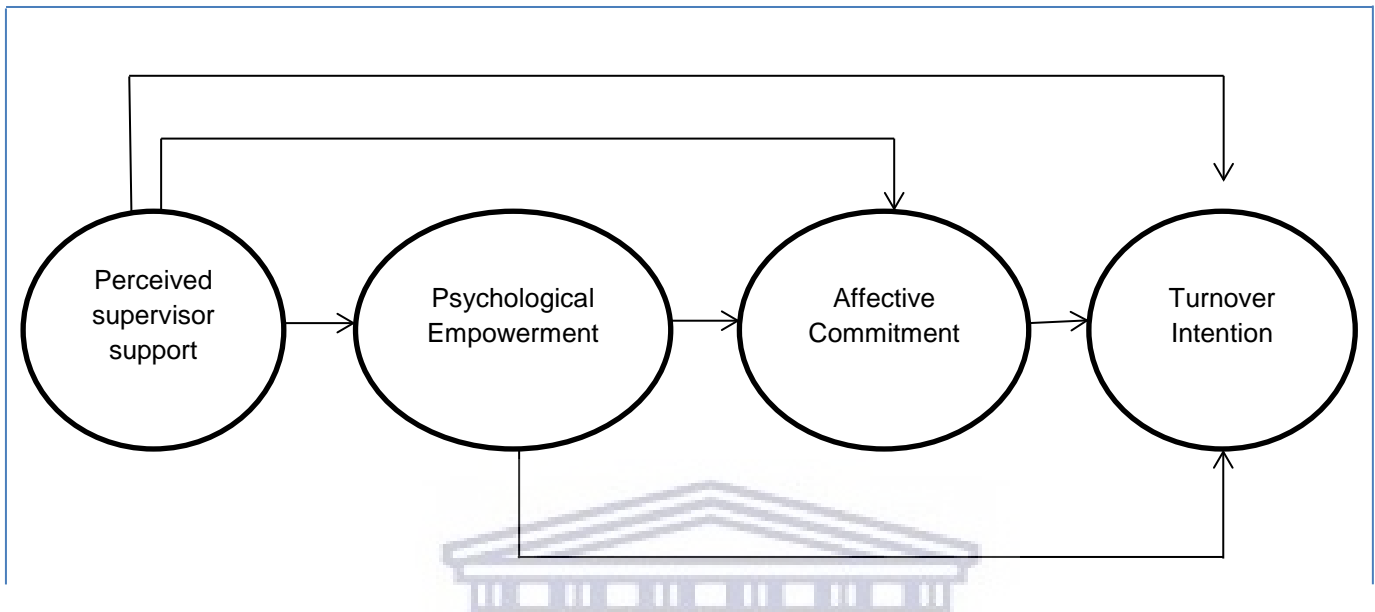
Hypothesis 6: Affective commitment influences turnover intentions

Hypothesis 7: PSS, psychological empowerment or affective commitment predict turnover intentions

3.4. SAMPLING AND RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

Sampling is defined as the selection of the correct individuals, objects or events as representatives for the whole population. The population refers to the total group of people, events or things of interest that the researcher intends to investigate (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). It needs to be accessible, quantifiable and related to the purpose of the research (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001). For the present study, the population consists of support staff within a selected tertiary institution in the Western Cape. Within the selected tertiary institution, the total population of support staff is 857.

Figure 3.1 - The conceptual model



Due to it being practically impossible to study an entire population, it is best to study a sample of that population. A sample is defined as a small subgroup that is chosen from the larger population therefore including some, but not all, elements of the population (Bordens & Abbott, 2014; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). There are two main types of sampling designs namely: probability and nonprobability sampling. When elements in the population have a known chance of being chosen as subjects in the sample, it is known as probability sampling. When the elements in the population do not have any probabilities attached to being chosen as sample subjects, it is then known as nonprobability sampling (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). For the purpose of this study, nonprobability sampling was used in the form of convenience sampling. According to Bickman and Rog (2009), convenient sampling can be defined as a researcher selecting participants based on their availability to the study and ease of collecting data. Nonprobability convenience sampling was used due to the practical challenges assorted with getting support staff to complete questionnaires during working hours. It therefore was the best way of getting information quickly and efficiently (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). It is important that the sample is representative of the population in order to generalize

findings (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The study aimed at a sample size of $n = 214$ in order to gather a representative amount of data.

3.5. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Prior to distributing questionnaires and collecting data from participants, permission was obtained from the university's research committee in which ethical clearance was granted in order to ethically proceed with the study. After receiving permission to proceed, the questionnaires were personally delivered to support staff within the selected tertiary institution. With regards to collection, the questionnaires were personally collected from the support staff after one week. During the collection procedure, it was clearly stated that the participation for the study was completely voluntary and that all information received will be treated with confidentiality and anonymity. The researcher tried to ensure the removal of all possible fears from the respondents in terms of tracing it back to the participant and victimization.

The participants received a questionnaire that consisted of a cover letter, a biographical questionnaire and the four measuring instruments namely perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment, affective commitment and turnover intention. The cover letter explained the rationale of the study as well as instructions on how to complete the questionnaire successfully.

A total of 260 questionnaires were circulated to different departments within the selected tertiary institution. However, there was a challenge in getting the questionnaires back from the respondents as well as finding support staff members that were willing to participate. A total of 160 completed questionnaires were collected. Sekaran and Bougie (2016) states that sample sizes between 30 – 500 subjects are appropriate for most research studies.

The sample majorly consisted of female participants (107 participants, 66.9%) and only 53 male participants (33.1%). The predominant age groups within the sample were between 21 – 30 (31.9%) and 31 – 40 (32.5%). The ethnic groups in the sample were

black people (22.5%), coloured people (68.1%), White people (1.3%), Indian people (2.5%), and other (3.8%). In addition, 45.0% of the participants were single, 49.4% were married, 4.4% were divorced and 0.6% were widowed. The highest qualification obtained by most of the participants was a Diploma/Degree (42.5%) and an Honours degree (21.3%). In terms of how long participants have been in their current position, majority of the support staff have been working for 1 – 5 years (38.8%) and 6 -10 years (20.6%) at the selected tertiary institution.



Table 3.1*Sample Profile*

Variable	Value	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	53	33.1
	Female	107	66.9
Age	Below 20	2	1.3
	21 – 30	51	31.9
	31 – 40	52	32.5
	41 – 50	32	20.0
	Above 50	23	14.4
Ethnic group	Black (African)	36	22.5
	Coloured	109	68.1
	White	2	1.3
	Indian	4	2.5
	Other	6	3.8
Marital Status	Single	72	45.0
	Married	79	49.4
	Divorced	7	4.4
	Widow/ Widower	1	.6
Highest Qualification	Secondary School	14	8.8
	Standard 10 or 19 equivalent		11.9
	Post school certificate	12	7.5
	Diploma/Degree	68	42.5
	Honours Degree	34	21.3
	Master's Degree	6	3.8
Tenure in current position	Other	5	3.1
	Less than 1 year	37	23.1
	1 – 5 years	62	38.8
	6 – 10 years	33	20.6
	11 – 15 years	11	6.9
Above 15 years	17	10.6	

3.6. DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

For the purpose of this study, questionnaires were used as the data-gathering instrument. Questionnaires are an effective data collection instrument when the researcher is fully

aware of what is needed and how the variables under study should be measured (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). Questionnaires are relatively cost-effective and produce quick results, which are usually easy to analyze. The questionnaire used for this study, is a combination of four measuring instruments as well as a biographical section. The biographical section was the first section (section A) within the questionnaire, which consisted of demographic information and thereafter the remaining sections (sections B – E) consisted of the four measuring instruments. These measuring instruments are discussed below:

3.6.1. Perceived supervisor support

Burns (2016) conducted a study that was aimed at improving the current methods of measurement for both POS and PSS. The Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support measurement was adapted from the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support by replacing the word “organization” with the word “supervisor” and was developed by Kottke and Sharafinski (1988).

The perceived supervisor support measurement consists of 13 items on a five point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) which was previously used by Burns (2016). Higher scores indicate that participants perceived their supervisors to be more supportive (Burns, 2016). Examples of items included in the questionnaire (Burns, 2016) were: “My manager fosters genuine and trusting relationships on the team” and “My manager supports my overall success and achievement”. A Cronbach Alpha of 0.94 was achieved indicating a high reliability of the scale (Burns, 2016).

3.6.2. Psychological empowerment

The psychological empowerment scale developed by Spreitzer (1995) was used to measure the psychological empowerment levels experienced by support staff. The Measuring Empowerment Questionnaire consists of a 12-item scale on a seven point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The 12 item scale measures four dimensions of psychological empowerment namely meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. Each subscale has three items within the

overall questionnaire (Van der Hoven, 2016). Examples of the items for each of the dimensions are: “The work I do is meaningful to me” (meaning); “I have mastered the skills necessary for my job” (competence); “I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job” (self-determination) and “I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department” (impact). Stander and Rothmann (2009, as cited in de Villiers & Stander, 2011) reported Cronbach Alpha coefficients of 0.88 (meaning), 0.81 (competence), 0.85 (self-determination) and 0.77 (impact) from a sample of selected organizations. In addition, Spreitzer (1995) reported Alpha coefficients of 0.92 (meaning), 0.90 (competence), 0.85 (self-determination) and 0.84 (impact), with an overall Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.92 for the entire measuring empowerment questionnaire.

3.6.3. Affective commitment

The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire was developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) and consists of 24 items measuring three dimensions namely; affective, continuance and normative commitment. The affective commitment subscale consist of 5 items on a five point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Examples of the items include: “I really feel that this organization’s problems are my own” and “I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization”. The commonly used scale has been shown to produce high levels of reliability in organizational contexts (Allen & Meyer, 1996) and has a Cronbach Alpha of 0.84 (Thanacoody et al., 2014).

3.6.4. Turnover intention

The Turnover Intention Questionnaire developed by Roodt (2004) was used to measure turnover intention levels experienced by support staff. The questionnaire consisted of a 14 item scale on a seven intensity response Likert scale ranging from 1 being low intensity (never) to 7 being high intensity (always). Examples of the items include: “How often have you considered leaving your current job?” and “How frequently do you scan newspapers for job opportunities?” A Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.913 was reported based on a study conducted on a sample of 500 nurses (Satardien, 2014).

3.7. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The statistical techniques used in this study are outlined in this section. In order to statistically analyze the data collected, quantitative techniques were employed. The data was firstly analyzed for missing values, where the multiple imputation method was used. Thereafter, item analysis was completed in order to determine and exclude poor items and improve the internal consistency of the scales for each variable measured in the study. Item analysis was conducted using SPSS Reliability procedure available in SPSS Version 25. Exploratory factor analysis was utilized on each of the subscales in order to identify the number of factors in each of the subscales. This analysis was deemed important in the creation of item parcels, which were used as inputs for the measurement and structural models. In addition, structural equation modeling was utilized to determine the goodness of fit for both the models as well as the nature of the relationships hypothesized. Finally, LISREL was used to conduct confirmatory factor analysis.

3.7.1. Missing Values

Missing data is a common problem found in almost all research and can have a huge effect on the conclusions drawn from the data (Kang, 2013). Missing data arise when participants fail to reply to a question, this could be either by accident or because they do not want to answer the question (Bryman, 2016). There are many techniques used for handling missing data. A useful strategy that is employed is known as multiple imputation. This is the preferred method when tackling missing values as it does not result in a major decrease in sample size. The imputation approach begins by predicting the missing data which is done using the existing data from other variables. The missing values are then replaced with the predicted values and the full data set, which is called the imputed data set, which is then created (Kang, 2013). The advantage to using multiple imputation is that it restores the natural variability of the missing values and integrates the uncertainty due to the missing data, resulting in a valid statistical inference (Kang, 2013).

3.7.2. Item Analysis

The quality of a test is dependent on each of the items of the test. Item analysis is the process of examining a test after its administration (Siri & Freddano, 2011). It is the

identification and elimination of poor items, which do not contribute to the overall reliability of the scale. This process would enhance the overall content validity of the subscale. Internal consistency is defined as the extent to which all the items of a test, measure the same construct (Tang, Cui & Babenko, 2014). In simple terms it indicates whether items on a scale that are proposed to measure the same construct, yield consistent scores.

For the purpose of this study, item analysis was conducted to identify poor items contained in the questionnaires employed in the study using SPSS version 25. This calculated and generated the Cronbach Alpha value, item-total correlation statistics and the inter-item correlation statistics. An item would be excluded from analyses if it has an item-total correlation value that is less than 0.30 which would result in a substantial increase in the scale's internal consistency. The levels of reliability for the scales were determined using the guidelines stipulated by Nunnally (1967) which are indicated in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

General guidelines for interpreting reliability coefficients

Reliability coefficient value	Interpretation
0.90 and above	Excellent
0.80 – 0.89	Good
0.70 – 0.79	Adequate
Below 0.70	May have limited applicability

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

3.7.3. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Exploratory factor analysis was also performed on the subscales used in this study to determine the amount of factors in each of the subscales. Exploratory factor analysis attempts to uncover complex patterns by exploring the data set and testing predictions (Yong & Pearce, 2013). This technique is usually conducted in the early stages of research to identify the variables that cluster together from which research hypotheses

can be generated and tested (Bordens & Abbott, 2011). Large data sets that include several variables can be reduced through the observation of groups of variables. It is quite a useful technique when items from questionnaires can be reduced to a smaller set in order to get an underlying concept and to facilitate interpretations (Yong & Pearce, 2013). Therefore, EFA is applied to measure the underlying dimensionality of an item set. The reason for this is to examine if the subscales are unidimensional. Therefore, items with an insufficient factor loading are removed.

According to Mahembe (2010), there are rules that are used in order to determine the amount of factors to be extracted and the items to be included in each factor when performing exploratory factor analyses. The particular rules are as follows:

- Factors that have an eigenvalue of 1.0 or more are not extracted from the study but instead kept for further investigation (Kaiser, 1960, as cited in Mahembe, 2010).
- Items that have an outcome of item-total correlations of less than 0.30 on any factor will be excluded as it means that the item is measuring something different from the scale as a whole (Field, 2005; Pallant, 2016).
- Item loadings less than 0.30 on more than one factor would be extracted from the study if the difference amongst the maximum and minimum loading was 0.25 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).
- A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO index) cut off value, which was used in this research study was above 0.50. Kaiser (1960, as cited in Field, 2005) states that values greater than 0.50 is acceptable. Thus, values, which are between 0.50 and 0.70 are mediocre, and values which are between 0.70 and 0.80 are good. In addition, values between 0.80 and 0.90 are great and values of 0.90 and above are superb (Field, 2005).

3.7.4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory factor analysis is used in later stages of the research when the researcher can specify how variables might relate given some underlying psychological process (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013 as cited in Bordens & Abbott, 2011). The goal of CFA is to

clearly test the ability of the hypothesized measurement model to reproduce the observed correlation or covariance matrix. The CFA creates a series of fit indices, which shows how close the measurement model, with its parameter estimates, fits the data, which was collected. In simple terms, CFA can specify the number of factors required in the data and which measured variable is related to which unmeasurable variable. It is therefore a tool that is utilized to confirm or reject the measurement theory. The use of statistical tests is required in CFA in order to determine the adequacy of the model fit to the data (Moyo & Theron, 2011).

3.7.5. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Structural Equation Modeling was used to determine the goodness-of-fit of both the measurement and structural models and also the nature of the hypothesized relationships. Structural equation modeling consists of doing confirmatory factor analysis on the measures in order to determine the goodness of fit of the measurement model. Structural equation modeling was conducted using the LISREL software.

The technique of structural equation modeling combines confirmatory factor analysis and the structural model into a synchronized test. It is a methodology that represents, estimates and tests a network of relationships between measured and latent variables (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000). Structural equation modeling deals with the structural model whereas CFA deals with the measurement model. The two sound quite similar however, the measurement model deals with how the latent variable is operationalized by equivalent observed variables whereas the structural model describes the relationships between the latent variables themselves. The goals of structural equation modeling are to understand the patterns of correlation or covariance among a set of variables and to explain their variance in detail as captured by the structural model (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000). Therefore, the key purpose of structural equation modeling is to examine the model's overall goodness of fit in order to understand the degree to which the whole model is consistent with the empirical data.

3.7.6 ASSESSMENT OF GOODNESS OF FIT

Table 3.3

Criteria of goodness-of-fit indices to be used

Absolute fit measures	
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	Values of 0.08 or below indicate acceptable fit, those below 0.05 indicate good fit, and values below 0.01 indicate outstanding fit.
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA <0.05)	Values >0.05 indicate good fit.
90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA	This is a 90% confidence interval of RMSEA testing the closeness of fit* i.e., testing the hypothesis H0: RMSEA <0.05).
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	Lower values indicate better fit, with values below 0.08 indicative of good fit.
Standardised RMR	Lower values indicate better fit, with values less than 0.05 indicating good fit.
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	Values closer to 1 and > 0.90 represent good fit.
Incremental fit measures	
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	Values closer to 1 indicate better fit, with values > 0.90 indicative of good fit.
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	Higher values indicate better fit, with values > 0.90 indicative of good fit.
Adjusted Goodness of Fit (AGFI)	Values closer to 1 indicate better fit, with values > 0.90 indicative of good fit.
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	Values closer to 1 indicate better fit, with values > 0.90 indicative of good fit.
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	Values closer to 1 indicate better fit, with values > 0.90 indicative of good fit.
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	Values closer to 1 indicate better fit, with values > 0.90 indicative of good fit.
Parsimonious Fit Measures	
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	Values closer to 1 indicate better fit, with values > 0.90 indicative of good fit.
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI)	Values closer to 1 indicate better fit, with 0.90 indicative of good fit.

Source: Extracted from Diamantopoulos, A. & Sigauw, J. A. (2000). *Introducing LISREL*. London: Sage.; Kelloway, E. K. (1998). *Using LISREL for structural equation modelling: A researcher's guide*. United States of America: Sage.

3.7.6. Regression Analysis

According to Newman (2003, p. 355 as cited in Lodewyk, 2011), multiple regression shows two things; how well a pair of variables explains a dependent variable and; the direction and size of the influence of each variable on a dependent variable. Walliman (2011) explains it as a technique used to measure the effects of two or more independent variables on a single dependent variable. For the purpose of this study, multiple regression will be used to determine which of the three variables predict turnover intention.

3.8. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations form an important part of all research studies as they revolve around issues such as how we should treat participants and the activity boundaries during our engagement with participants. They focus on four main areas namely, whether there is harm to participants, whether there is a lack of informed consent, whether there is an invasion of privacy and lastly whether deception is involved (Bryman, 2016).

In conducting this study, participants were informed that they would not be forced to participate in the study as it was completely voluntary. The study was clearly explained to all participants by pursuing their informed consent before the collection of data. Participants received a cover letter explaining the study as well as instructions to assist them in successfully completing the questionnaire. They were asked to place a tick as an indication of their consent to partake in the research. Furthermore, confidentiality was maintained throughout the study to all participants who volunteered. All participants were ensured anonymity as they were only asked to state their biographical details and no participant was mentioned by name or referred to, but rather classified as a whole. No information was disclosed without prior permission from the participants and was only used for research purposes. In addition, no harm was intended on any of the participants involved both psychologically and physically. Lastly, the data collected for the purpose of this study was not misrepresented or distorted in any way.

The ethical principles of beneficence and non-maleficence were upheld and prioritized in this research study. This was to ensure the benefit of the study and the minimization of harm as well as seeking to enhance and promote human condition.

3.9. CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the research methodology and design employed for the purpose of this study was outlined and discussed. A comprehensive description was provided with regards to the particular process followed in this study by focusing on the research design, sample and collection procedures. In addition, the measuring instruments with their psychometric properties were discussed as well as the specific techniques used for data analysis in order to answer the research question effectively. The results from the findings are presented in Chapter 4 and will further be discussed in Chapter 5.



CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

After an in-depth review of literature, a theoretical model was formulated based on the influence of perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment on turnover intention amongst support staff at a selected tertiary institution. As presented in chapter two, the review of literature resulted in the formulation of the specific hypotheses that requires testing for the study. The aim of this chapter is to present and discuss the statistical analyses that were performed to test the hypotheses, as described in chapters two and three. The statistical programmes used for the data analyses and presentation of data in this research study are (1) the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 and (2) LISREL 8.80. This chapter begins with the discussion of the treatment of missing values, followed by the discussion of item analyses, which looks at the reliability of the questionnaires on perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment, affective commitment and turnover intention. Lastly, the results of the check for uni-dimensionality are presented, followed by the presentation of the overall measurement and structural models.

4.2 MISSING VALUES

The use of self-reporting instruments such as questionnaires can present issues in terms of missing data. Very often researchers would find that respondents fail to respond to all the questions in the questionnaires. Missing data can arise for various reasons including intentional or unintentional non-response, for example, the respondent stopped the questionnaire completion process midway or the respondent did not feel comfortable answering a question (Scherbaum & Shockley, 2015). The result of missing data can have a huge influence on how the data is interpreted. In addition, the level of missing data that can be tolerated is dependent on the size of the sample, the research design and whether the values are missing at random or systematically (Scherbaum & Shockley, 2015). For the purpose of this study, the multiple imputation technique available in the LISREL 8.80 programme was used to take care of data sets containing missing values.

The multiple imputation procedure replaces each missing value with the mean calculated from complete cases on a variable. The use of this method resulted in an effective sample size of 160.

4.3. ITEM ANALYSIS

The main objective of conducting an item analysis was to identify and exclude items that did not contribute to the internal consistency (reliability) of the total scale or subscale. For the purpose of this study, an item analysis was conducted using SPSS Reliability procedure (SPSS version 25) on the items and dimensions used to measure the particular variables under investigation.

4.3.1. ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED SUPERVISOR SUPPORT

Perceived supervisor support was measured using a 13-item instrument. The survey of perceived supervisor support was adapted from the survey of perceived organizational support in which the word “organization” was replaced with the word “supervisor” and was developed by Kottke and Sharafinski (1998). This scale was tested for reliability as a uni-dimensional scale.

The perceived supervisor support scale has a Cronbach alpha of $\alpha = .95$. Acceptable values for the Cronbach alpha should be equal or greater than .70 (Pallant, 2016). Thus, the reliability coefficient of the perceived supervisor support scale is satisfactory. The Item-Total Statistics table has a corrected item-total correlation column in which those values show an indication of the degree to which each item correlates with the total score. The corrected item-total correlation values should not be below .30 as this indicates that the item is measuring something different from the entire scale. The corrected item-total correlation and squared multiple correlations for the perceived supervisor support scale are greater than 0.30. The inter-item correlation matrix values ranged from .58 to .84 indicating a moderate to high relationship among the items (Cohen, 1988). With regards to the perceived supervisor support scale, no items were seen as problematic and therefore all items on the total scale were retained. The perceived supervisor support results are depicted in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1*The reliability analysis output for the Perceived Supervisor Support scale*

Reliability Statistics		
	Cronbach's	
	Alpha	
	Based on	
Cronbach's	Standardize	N of
Alpha	d Items	Items
.959	.960	13

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	PSS1	PSS2	PSS3	PSS4	PSS5	PSS6	PSS7	PSS8	PSS9	PSS10	PSS11	PSS12	PSS13
PSS1	1.000	.784	.741	.793	.742	.741	.721	.779	.704	.667	.707	.619	.500
PSS2	.784	1.000	.845	.773	.630	.717	.633	.770	.711	.717	.692	.596	.524
PSS3	.741	.845	1.000	.757	.663	.763	.634	.692	.713	.706	.687	.547	.488
PSS4	.793	.773	.757	1.000	.735	.715	.698	.753	.659	.626	.638	.613	.492
PSS5	.742	.630	.663	.735	1.000	.661	.584	.678	.645	.578	.541	.523	.478
PSS6	.741	.717	.763	.715	.661	1.000	.667	.713	.667	.619	.727	.565	.493
PSS7	.721	.633	.634	.698	.584	.667	1.000	.706	.644	.562	.654	.581	.550
PSS8	.779	.770	.692	.753	.678	.713	.706	1.000	.755	.740	.685	.578	.537
PSS9	.704	.711	.713	.659	.645	.667	.644	.755	1.000	.776	.621	.552	.470
PSS10	.667	.717	.706	.626	.578	.619	.562	.740	.776	1.000	.644	.549	.469
PSS11	.707	.692	.687	.638	.541	.727	.654	.685	.621	.644	1.000	.639	.538
PSS12	.619	.596	.547	.613	.523	.565	.581	.578	.552	.549	.639	1.000	.433
PSS13	.500	.524	.488	.492	.478	.493	.550	.537	.470	.469	.538	.433	1.000

4.3.2. ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE MEASURING EMPOWERMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Psychological empowerment was measured using the measurement empowerment questionnaire developed by Spreitzer (1995). The measurement empowerment questionnaire consisted of a 12-item instrument, measuring four dimensions of psychological empowerment (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact). The item analysis was performed for each of the four subscales separately.

4.3.2.1. Meaning

The meaning subscale has an internal consistency coefficient of $\alpha = .89$ which is good as it is above 0.70 (Nunnally, 1967). The corrected item-total correlation values should all load above 0.30 (Pallant, 2016). In terms of the meaning subscale, all the corrected item-total correlations and squared multiple correlations were above .30. The inter-item correlation matrix values range from .71 to .79, which indicated a strong relationship among items (Cohen, 1988). None of the items were viewed as problematic and therefore all the items were retained. The meaning subscale results are presented in table 4.2.

Table 4.2

The reliability analysis output for the Meaning subscale

Reliability Statistics						
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items		N of Items			
.893	.899					3
Item-Total Statistics						
	Scale Mean if Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	
PE1	11.71	5.300	.767	.591	.883	
PE2	12.18	3.894	.811	.663	.839	
PE3	11.99	4.138	.831	.691	.812	

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix			
	PE1	PE2	PE3
PE1	1.000	.713	.741
PE2	.713	1.000	.793
PE3	.741	.793	1.000

4.3.2.2. Competence

The competence subscale has an internal consistency coefficient of $\alpha = .74$ which is satisfactory as it is above 0.70. The corrected item-total correlation values should all correlate above 0.30 (Pallant, 2016). The corrected item-total correlations and squared

multiple correlations were above .30. The inter-item correlation matrix values range from .428 to .620 which indicated that the item correlations are ranging from moderate to large (Cohen, 1988; Pallant, 2016). None of the items were viewed as problematic and therefore all the items were retained. The competence subscale results are presented in table 4.3

Table 4.3

The reliability analysis output for the Competence subscale

Reliability Statistics						
Cronbach's Alpha Based on Cronbach's Standardized Items						
	Cronbach's Alpha	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	.744		.774		3	

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	
PE4	12.66	1.938	.571	.395	.677	
PE5	12.74	1.739	.678	.485	.563	
PE6	13.07	1.252	.546	.316	.765	

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix			
	PE4	PE5	PE6
PE4	1.000	.620	.428
PE5	.620	1.000	.552
PE6	.428	.552	1.000

4.3.2.3. Self-determination

The self-determination subscale has an internal consistency coefficient of $\alpha = .837$ which is good as it is above 0.70 (Nunnally, 1967). The corrected item-total correlation values

should all correlate above 0.30 (Pallant, 2016). The corrected item-total correlations and squared multiple correlations were above .30. The inter-item correlation matrix values range from .573 to .693 which indicated a large relationship among items (Cohen, 1988). None of the items were viewed as problematic and therefore all the items were retained. The self-determination subscale results are presented in table 4.4.

Table 4.4

The reliability analysis output for the Self-determination subscale

Reliability Statistics					
			Cronbach's Alpha	Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
			.837	.839	3

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected if Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PE7	11.44	5.531	.658	.441	.819
PE8	11.58	4.383	.753	.568	.718
PE9	11.68	4.347	.705	.510	.773

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix			
	PE7	PE8	PE9
PE7	1.000	.639	.573
PE8	.639	1.000	.693
PE9	.573	.693	1.000

4.3.2.4. Impact

The impact subscale has an internal consistency coefficient of $\alpha = .860$ which is good as it is above 0.70 (Nunnally, 1967). The corrected item-total correlation values should all

correlate above 0.30 (Pallant, 2016). The corrected item-total correlations and squared multiple correlations were above .30. The inter-item correlation matrix values range from .578 to .832, which indicated a large relationship among items (Cohen, 1988). None of the items were viewed as problematic and therefore all the items were retained. The impact subscale results are presented in table 4.5.

Table 4.5

The reliability analysis output for the Impact subscale

Reliability Statistics						
	Cronbach's Alpha Based on					
Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized Items	N of Items				
.860	.860	3				

Item-Total Statistics						
	Scale Mean if Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	
PE10	8.51	13.132	.617	.383	.908	
PE11	9.77	8.946	.821	.715	.721	
PE12	9.68	9.391	.804	.702	.738	

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix			
	PE10	PE11	PE12
PE10	1.000	.603	.578
PE11	.603	1.000	.832
PE12	.578	.832	1.000

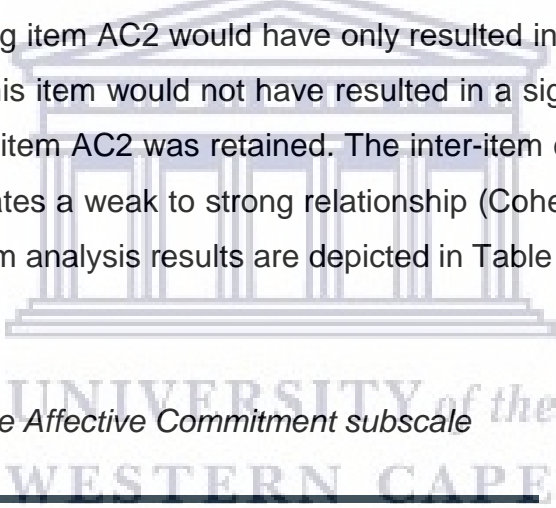
4.3.3. ITEM ANALYSIS OF AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire was developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). It is a 24-item instrument, measuring three dimensions namely affective, continuance and normative commitment. The affective commitment subscale consists of 5 items. Item analysis was only performed on the affective commitment subscale.

The affective commitment subscale had an initial internal consistency of $\alpha = .722$. However, the corrected item-total correlation shows that item AC1 correlated below 0.30 with a corrected item-total of .184. Item analysis therefore showed that removing this item would result in an increase in the Cronbach alpha if it were excluded ($\alpha = .791$). Therefore, item AC1 was excluded from the subscale. In addition, item AC2 correlated below 0.30 as well, however removing item AC2 would have only resulted in a Cronbach alpha of $\alpha = .746$. The removal of this item would not have resulted in a significant increase in the internal consistency thus item AC2 was retained. The inter-item correlation ranged from .271 to .723, which indicates a weak to strong relationship (Cohen, 1988). The affective commitment subscale item analysis results are depicted in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6

The reliability output of the Affective Commitment subscale



Reliability Statistics			
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items	of
.722	.724	5	

Item-Total Statistics						
	Scale if Deleted	Mean Item Variance	Scale Variance if Deleted	Corrected if Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
AC1	13.18		12.057	.184	.065	.791
ACR2	13.15		11.977	.277	.128	.746
ACR3	12.13		9.322	.636	.535	.610
ACR4	12.41		9.098	.665	.544	.597
ACR5	12.14		8.987	.728	.675	.573

4.3.4. ITEM ANALYSIS OF TURNOVER INTENTION QUESTIONNAIRE

The Turnover Intention Questionnaire was measured using a 14 item instrument and was developed by Roodt (2004). This scale was tested for reliability as a uni-dimensional scale.

The turnover intention scale had an initial internal consistency of $\alpha = .869$. However, the corrected item-total correlation shows that item TI8 correlated below 0.30 with a corrected item-total of -.201. Item analysis therefore showed that removing this item would result in an increase in the Cronbach alpha if it were excluded ($\alpha = .891$). Therefore, item TI8 was excluded from the subscale. The inter-item correlation shows that it may have a limited applicability among items due to values ranging from .172 to .633 which indicates a weak to moderate relationship (Cohen, 1988). The turnover intention scale item analysis results are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7*The reliability output for the Turnover Intention scale*

Reliability Statistics						
Cronbach's Alpha Based on						
Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized Items	N of Items				
.869	.865	14				

Item-Total Statistics						
	Scale Mean if Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	
TI1	49.13	236.366	.719	.645	.849	
TI2	49.38	239.758	.622	.542	.854	
TI3	49.13	248.186	.638	.527	.855	
TI4	49.44	249.782	.603	.584	.856	
TI5	49.68	252.307	.561	.504	.858	
TI6	48.92	235.056	.694	.577	.850	
TI7	47.98	243.936	.618	.576	.855	
TI8	48.40	296.028	-.201	.129	.891	
TI9	48.51	255.522	.413	.303	.866	
TI10	48.37	242.297	.560	.396	.858	
TI11	48.98	250.434	.483	.336	.862	
TI12	49.32	253.728	.526	.491	.860	
TI13	49.44	250.663	.564	.570	.858	
TI14	49.66	247.221	.551	.484	.859	

4.4. DIMENSIONALITY ANALYSIS

This section will report on the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) results of the measuring instruments used in this research study. The main objective for conducting exploratory factor analysis was to ascertain if the subscales are uni-dimensional. Uni-dimensionality is an important assumption when parcels are created for the overall measurement and

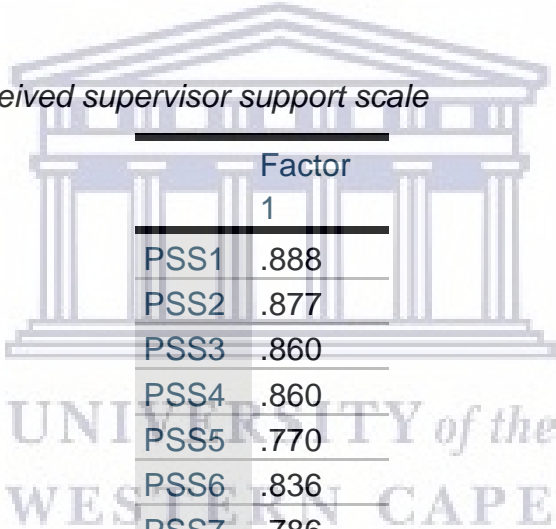
structural model (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998; Bagozzi & Heatherton, 1994). This is due to the many items in comparison to the sample size.

4.4.1. DIMENSIONAL ANALYSIS OF THE SURVEY FOR PERCIEVED SUPERVISOR SUPPORT

The perceived supervisor support scale achieved a KMO¹ index value of .950 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value was 1873.662 (df = 78; p< 0.000). This indicates that a factor analysis can be conducted. The perceived supervisor support scale was found to be uni-dimensional. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained. The dominant factor accounts for 67.9% of the variance. The factor loadings were all above .50 as depicted in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8

Factor Matrix for the perceived supervisor support scale



	Factor 1
PSS1	.888
PSS2	.877
PSS3	.860
PSS4	.860
PSS5	.770
PSS6	.836
PSS7	.786
PSS8	.874
PSS9	.821
PSS10	.792
PSS11	.802
PSS12	.694
PSS13	.605

¹Kaiser (1974, 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.

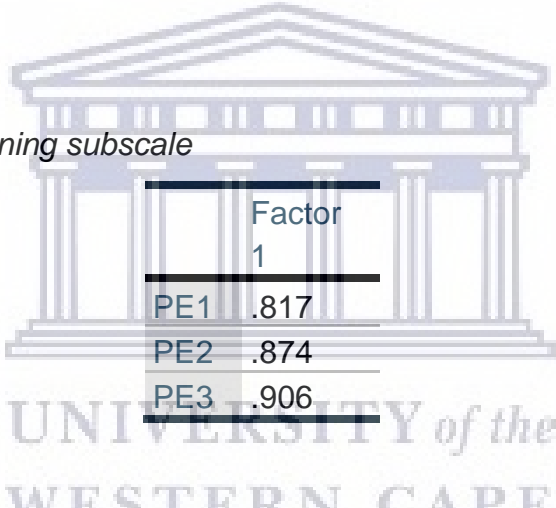
4.4.2. DIMENSIONAL ANALYSIS OF THE MEASURING EMPOWERMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

4.4.2.1. The dimensionality analysis output for the Meaning subscale

Exploratory factor analysis shows that the meaning subscale is factor analyzable as indicated by the KMO Index and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity values of .744 and 296.061 (df = 3; $p < 0.000$) respectively. Kaiser (as cited in Fields, 2005), suggests that these values are shown to be satisfactory and indicate the factor analyzability of the correlation matrix of the Meaning subscale. The meaning subscale was found to be uni-dimensional with only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1. This factor accounted for 83% of the variance. The factor loadings were all above .50 as shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9

Factor Matrix for the Meaning subscale



	Factor 1
PE1	.817
PE2	.874
PE3	.906

4.4.2.2. The dimensionality analysis output for the Competence subscale

Exploratory factor analysis shows that the meaning subscale is factor analyzable as indicated by the KMO Index and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity values of .665 and 136.033 (df = 3; $p < 0.000$) respectively. Kaiser (1974, as cited in Fields, 2005), suggests that these values are acceptable and shows that the correlation matrix of the competence subscale was factor analyzable. The Competence subscale was found to be uni-dimensional. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained and this factor accounted for 69% of the variance. The factor loadings were all above .50 as shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10

Factor Matrix for the Competence subscale

	Factor 1
PE4	.695
PE5	.892
PE6	.618

4.4.2.3. The dimensionality analysis output for the Self-determination subscale

Exploratory factor analysis shows that the self-determination subscale is factor analyzable as indicated by the KMO Index and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity values of .712 and 194.559 (df = 3; $p < 0.000$) respectively. Kaiser (1974, as cited in Fields, 2005), suggests that these values are satisfactory and shows that the correlation matrix of the competence subscale was factor analyzable. The self-determination subscale was found to be uni-dimensional. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained and this factor accounted for 76% of the variance. The factor loadings were all above .50 as shown in Table 4.11

Table 4.11

Factor Matrix for the Self-determination subscale

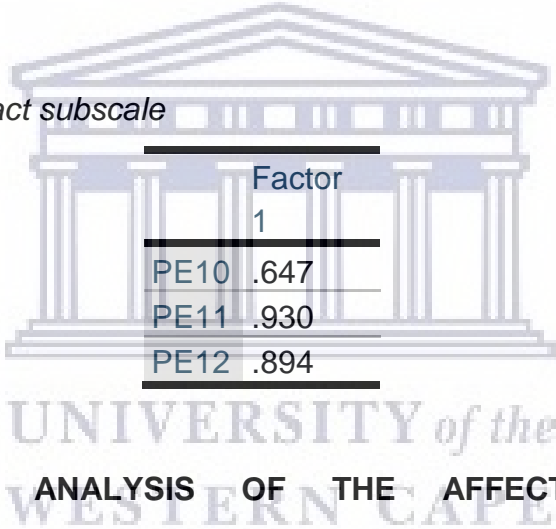
	Factor 1
PE7	.728
PE8	.878
PE9	.790

4.4.2.4. The dimensionality analysis output for the Impact subscale

Exploratory factor analysis shows that the impact subscale is factor analyzable as indicated by the KMO Index and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity values of .680 and 261.218 (df = 3; $p < 0.000$) respectively. Kaiser (1974, as cited in Fields, 2005), suggests that these values are acceptable and shows that the correlation matrix of the competence subscale was factor analyzable. The Competence subscale was found to be uni-dimensional. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained and this factor accounted for 78% of the variance. The factor loadings were all above .50 as shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12

Factor Matrix for the Impact subscale



	Factor 1
PE10	.647
PE11	.930
PE12	.894

4.4.3. DIMENSIONAL ANALYSIS OF THE AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

The affective commitment subscale achieved a KMO index value of .705 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value was 252.900 (df = 6; $p < 0.000$). This indicates that a factor analysis can be conducted. The affective commitment subscale was found to be uni-dimensional. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained. The dominant factor accounts for 62.6% of the variance. The factor matrix showed that all factor loadings were larger than .30 and all were significant ($p < .05$) except for ACR2 which was below .50 but within the acceptable range.

Table 4.13

Factor Matrix for the affective commitment subscale

	Factor 1
ACR2	.351
ACR3	.764
ACR4	.765
ACR5	.929

4.4.4. DIMENSIONAL ANALYSIS OF THE TURNOVER INTENTION QUESTIONNAIRE

The turnover intention questionnaire was not proven to be uni-dimensional. Exploratory factor analysis showed that three factors loading with eigenvalues all greater than 1 existed. These factors explained 44%, 11% and 8% of the variance respectively. Item loadings less than 0.30 on more than one factor would be extracted from the study if the difference amongst the maximum and minimum loading is 0.25 (Mahembe, 2010). Based on the rule, item 10 was extracted from the current study. The factor matrix shown in Table 4.14 displays the distribution of the three factors underlying the turnover intention scale. Items loading on factor 1 (TI1, TI2, TI3, TI6, TI7, TI9) relate to the extent to which an individual holds thoughts of leaving their job if a realistic alternative opportunity arises. Items loading on factor 2 (TI11, TI13, TI14) relate to personal barriers individuals are faced with which prevents them from leaving their job. Items loading on factor 3 (TI4, TI5) relate to how often individual's personal goals are compromised by their job.

Table 4.14

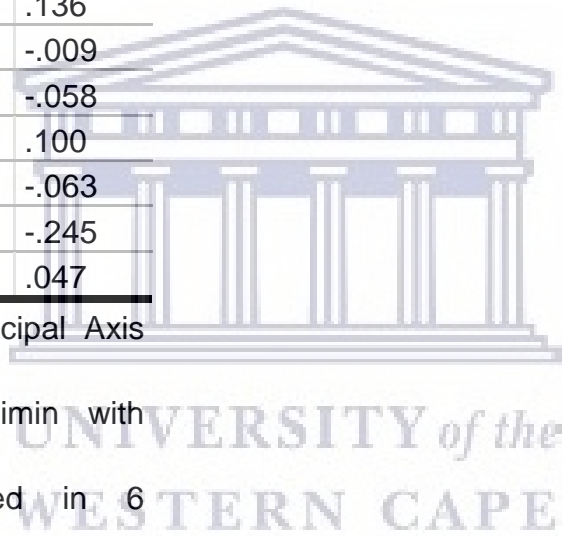
Pattern matrix for the turnover intention scale

Pattern Matrix^a			
	Factor		
	1	2	3
T11	.623	.071	-.230
T12	.772	-.045	-.041
T13	.506	.071	-.245
T14	.108	.032	-.738
T15	.050	.049	-.737
T16	.740	.008	-.096
T17	.890	-.013	.136
T19	.349	.126	-.009
T110	.201	.438	-.058
T111	.123	.560	.100
T112	-.020	.671	-.063
T113	-.081	.637	-.245
T114	-.044	.816	.047

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.^a

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.



4.5. THE OVERALL MEASUREMENT MODEL FIT

According to Diamantopoulus and Sigauw (2000), the main aim of checking a model's overall goodness of fit is to establish the extent to which the complete model is consistent with the empirical data. The measurement model shows the relationship between the latent constructs (perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment, affective commitment and turnover intention) and its corresponding manifest indicators while the structural model describes the relationships between the latent constructs themselves. Confirmatory factor analysis on the overall measurement model was conducted using the

statistical programme LISREL 8.80 in order to determine the goodness of fit. The estimates were produced using the Robust Maximum Likelihood estimation method.

The item parceling method was used in the research study based on the manifest variables for each of the latent constructs. Subsequently to the testing for uni-dimensionality, parcels were created in order to ensure the development of parcels on a scale that has a uni-dimensional factor structure. Items were randomly parceled together. However, due to the turnover intention scale loading on three separate factors, three separate parcels were created for each factor by parceling items representing similar facets of a construct.

Various statistical values were utilized when assessing the goodness of fit for the overall measurement model. A summary of the fit indices are shown in Table 4.15. The Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA) value is 0.0642 which indicates a reasonable model fit. RMSEA values below .05 indicate a good model fit, values between .05 and .08 indicates a reasonable fit and values above .08 indicate a poor model fit (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000).

The Root Mean Squared Residual (RMR) and the standardized RMR values are 0.964 and 0.098, which creates some doubts as to the closeness of fit of the model. The standardized RMR value misses the .05 level.

The values of the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) should range between 0 and 1 with values greater than .90 being interpreted as reflecting acceptable fit. The GFI value of 0.926 reflects acceptable fit while the AGFI value of 0.871 is marginally below the acceptable fit of .90. The following values NFI=0.939, NNFI=0.963, CFI=0.974, IFI=0.975 and RFI=0.912 are above the .90 indicative of acceptable to better fit (see Table 4.15). These indices generally indicate reasonable fit over the independent model, since values above 0.90 are acceptable. The measurement model path diagram is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Table 4.15*Goodness-of-Fit statistics for the overall measurement model*

Fit index	Value
Degrees of freedom	38
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	62.883 (p=0.00676)
Chi-Square corrected for Non-Normality	102.828 (p=0.000)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.0642
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	(0.0339;0.0916)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	0.195
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.939
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.963
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.649
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.974
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.975
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.912
Critical N (CN)	155.650
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	0.096462.883
Standardised RMR	0.0698
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.926
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	0.871
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI)	0.533

4.5.1. THE COMPLETELY STANDARDISED SOLUTION FACTOR LOADING MATRIX

Table 4.16 shows the completely standardized solution factor loading matrix. This is representative of the regression slopes of the regression of the standardized indicator variables on the standardized latent variables. The completely standardized factor loadings display the change expressed in the standard deviations in the manifested variable related with one standard deviation change in the latent variable

(Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). The results of this study revealed the standardized factor loadings to be above 0.50.

Figure 4.1

The Measurement Model

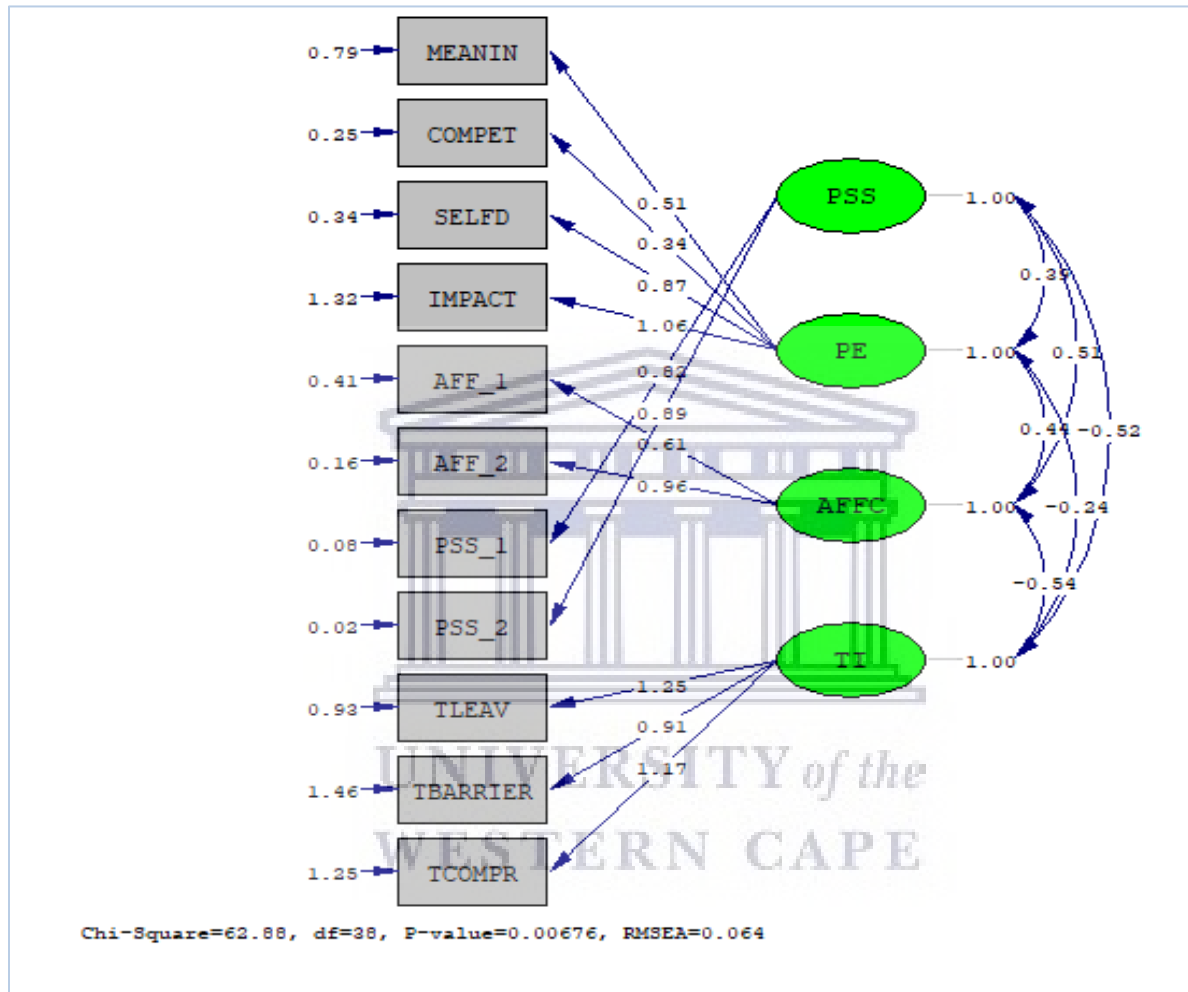


Table 4.16*Completely standardized lambda-X matrix for the item parcels*

	PSS	PE	AFFC	TI
MEANIN	--	0.501	--	--
COMPET	--	0.571	--	--
SELD	--	0.831	--	--
IMPACT	--	0.680	--	--
AFF_1	--	--	0.690	--
AFF_2	--	--	0.921	--
PSS_1	0.945	--	--	--
PSS_2	0.985	--	--	--
TLEAV	--	--	--	0.793
TBARRIER	--	--	--	0.604
TCOMPR	--	--	--	0.723

4.6 GOODNESS OF FIT FOR THE STRUCTURAL MODEL

The use of the structural model is to explain the relationships between the latent variables as well as specifying the amount of unexplained variance. During the assessment of the structural model, it is important to focus on the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. The purpose of this is to establish the fit between the proposed model and the existing data. The programme LISREL version 8.80, was used to determine the fit of the structural model. The Robust Maximum Likelihood estimation was used to provide the estimates. Table 4.17 shows a full spectrum of indices, with the path diagram of the fitted measurement model being depicted in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2

The structural model

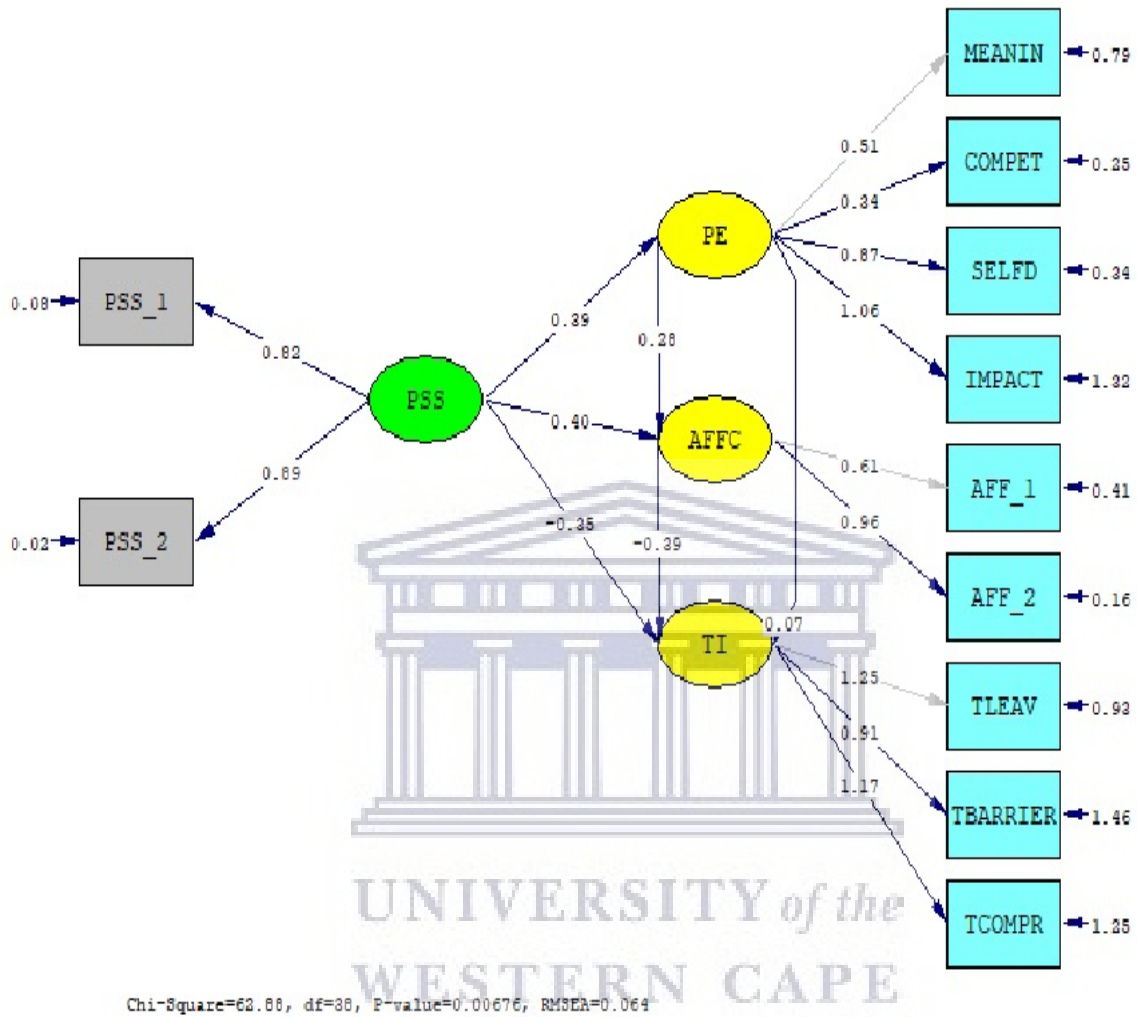


Table 4.17*Goodness-of-Fit statistics for the structural model*

Fit index	Value
Degrees of freedom	39
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	81.949 (p=0.000)
Chi-Square corrected for Non-Normality	115.220 (p=0.000)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.0832
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	(0.0578;0.108)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	0.0181
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.920
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.938
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.653
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.956
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.957
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.888
Critical N (CN)	122.127
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	0.111
Standardised RMR	0.0955
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.906
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	0.841
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI)	0.535

4.6.1. PARAMETER ESTIMATES

The aim of evaluating the structural model is to determine whether the theoretical relationships defined at the conceptualization stage are proven by the empirical data. The main objective at this stage is the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. A comprehensive analysis of the freed elements of the gamma (γ) and beta (β) matrices is done during the process of testing the structural model. Firstly, evaluating the signs of the parameters which indicate the paths between the latent variables is important. This is completed to determine the degree of consistency with the nature of the causal

effect hypothesized to exist between the latent variables. Secondly, it is important to determine whether the parameter estimates are significant ($p < 0.05$) as indicated by t-values greater than 1.96 (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000).

Table 4.18

The gamma matrix

	PSS
PE	0.394 (0.098) 4.038
AFFC	0.404 (0.109) 3.686
TI	-0.346 (0.105) -3.289



Hypothesis 1: PSS influences turnover intentions

A strong inverse significant relationship exists between perceived supervisor support and turnover intention ($t = - 3.29, p < 0.05$). This finding correlated the proposed relationship between the two variables.

Hypothesis 2: PSS influences psychological empowerment

PSS is found to have a significant relationship with psychological empowerment ($t = 4.04, p < 0.05$) as the t-value is well above 1.96. This leads to the observation that a significant relationship between these two constructs are existent, which suggests that the proposed relationship between these two variables was supported.

Hypothesis 3: PSS influences affective commitment

PSS is found to have a strong significant relationship with affective commitment ($t = 3.686$, $p < 0.05$). This finding correlated with the proposed relationship between the two variables.

Table 4.19

The beta matrix

	PE	AFFC
PE	--	--
AFFC	0.282 (0.114) 2.484	--
TI	0.068 (0.114) 0.601	-0.387 (0.145) -2.672



Hypothesis 4: Psychological empowerment influences turnover intentions

No significant relationship exists between psychological empowerment and turnover intentions ($t = 0.601$, $p < 0.05$) as the t value is below 1.96. The relationship between the two variables is therefore not supported.

Hypothesis 5: Psychological empowerment influences affective commitment

Psychological empowerment is found to have a statistically significant relationship with affective commitment ($t = 2.484$, $p < 0.05$). This finding suggests that the proposed relationship between psychological empowerment and affective commitment is supported.

Hypothesis 6: Affective commitment influences turnover intention

A strong inverse statistically significant relationship exists between affective commitment and turnover intention ($t = -2.672, p < 0.05$). The proposed relationship is therefore supported.

Hypothesis 7: Perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment or affective commitment predict turnover intention

Hypothesis six was tested using regression analysis. To conduct regression analysis, the variables under investigation must be correlated as indicated in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20

Correlational Output between Perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment, affective commitment and turnover intention

Correlations		TAFFE CT	TPSS	TPE	TTURN
TAFFE CT	Pearson Correlation	1	.456**	.356**	-.410**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	160	160	160	160
TPSS	Pearson Correlation	.456**	1	.323**	-.413**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	160	160	160	160
TPE	Pearson Correlation	.356**	.323**	1	-.239**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.002
	N	160	160	160	160
TTURN	Pearson Correlation	-.410**	-.413**	-.239**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.002	
	N	160	160	160	160

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

The relationships between perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment, affective commitment and turnover intention were tested using the Pearson correlation co-efficient. Before conducting a regression analysis, the assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity and linearity were conducted. There was a significant negative relationship between perceived supervisor support and turnover intention, affective commitment and turnover intention, and psychological empowerment and turnover intention. In addition, there was a significant positive relationship between perceived supervisor support and psychological empowerment, and psychological empowerment and affective commitment.

The R square value indicates how much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the model. For the current study, the R square indicates that the model explains 23.5% of the variance in turnover intention. When a study consists of a small sample, the adjusted R square value corrects the R square value with a better estimate of the true population sample (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). For the current study, the adjusted R square indicates that the model explains 22% of the variance in turnover intention (see table 4.21).



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Table 4.21

The Model Summary for Perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment

Model Summary										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. Change	F
1	.485a	.235	.220	15.193	.235	15.971	3	156	.000	
a. Predictors: (Constant), TPE, TPSS, TAFFECT										

The ANOVA table is used (Table 4.22) to assess the statistical significance of the result (Pallant, 2016). This tests the null hypothesis that multiple R in the population equals 0. The model in the current study reaches statistical significance (Sig=.000; $p < .0005$).

Table 4.22

The ANOVA Table for perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment, affective commitment and turnover intention

ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11059.432	3	3686.477	15.971	.000b
	Residual	36008.968	156	230.827		
	Total	47068.400	159			
a. Dependent Variable: TTURN						
b. Predictors: (Constant), TPE, TPSS, TAFFECT						

Table 4.23

The Coefficients Output for

Coefficients											
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	93.064	9.218		10.096	.000					
	TAFECT	-1.314	.402	-.265	-3.265	.001	-.410	-.253	-.229	.744	1.345
	TPSS	-.416	.122	-.274	-3.413	.001	-.413	-.264	-.239	.763	1.311
	TPE	-.102	.140	-.056	-.734	.464	-.239	-.059	-.051	.841	1.189
a. Dependent Variable: TTURN											

The coefficients table indicated in Table 4.23 illustrates which of the independent variables included in the model added to the prediction of the dependent variable. This is done through the standardized beta column. Pallant (2016) states that the standardized coefficients means that the values have been converted to the same scale in order to compare the variables. In the current study, PSS (b=-.274) is the variable that makes the strongest unique and significant contribution in explaining turnover intention, providing that psychological empowerment and affective commitment is controlled. It accounts for 27.4 percent of the variance. Psychological empowerment (b=-.056) is not making a significant contribution to turnover intention. In addition, affective commitment is the second variable that is making a statistically significant contribution to turnover intention. It accounts for 26.5 percent of the variance. According to Pallant (2016) the Sig value should be less than .05 in order to make a unique contribution. In this case, psychological empowerment does not make a significant unique

contribution to the prediction of turnover intention (Sig=.464). To answer the hypothesis, affective commitment and PSS are the only significant predictors of turnover intention. Therefore, hypothesis is partially confirmed.



4.7. CHAPTER SUMMARY

The main aim of this chapter was to provide a presentation of the results of the statistical analysis obtained using SPSS version 25. The multiple imputation technique was used to address the issue of missing values. Item and dimensional analysis were performed on the data to identify poor items. In addition, confirmatory factor analysis was performed on the perceived supervisor support survey, measurement of psychological empowerment, affective commitment questionnaire as well as the turnover intention questionnaire. Item parcels were created to test the overall model. The measurement and the structural models were found to fit the data well. Therefore, the results indicated significant relationships between the latent variables used in the study.



CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1. Introduction

The previous chapters provided an overview of the research problem, the review of relevant literature using the current study's latent variables namely, perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment, affective commitment and turnover intention, the research methodology used to conduct this research study and the results of the current study. This chapter aims to discuss the findings presented in chapter four in more detail, discuss the limitations of the study and the practical implications of the findings. Lastly, the direction for future studies is also presented.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher aimed to answer the question, what is the influence of perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment on turnover intentions among support staff at a selected tertiary institution in the Western Cape? The specific objectives of the study were to 1) develop an explanatory structural model that explains the way turnover intention is influenced by perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment, and evaluate the significance of the hypothesized paths in the model, 2) assess the model's goodness of fit.

5.2. ASSESSMENT OF MODEL FIT

5.2.1. MEASUREMENT MODEL

Testing the extent to which a hypothesized model fits the data and provides proof and information of the observed indicators regarding the degree to which they represent the latent variables under investigation is known as the measurement model fit (Diamantopoulus & Siguwaw, 2000). With regards to the measurement model fit, the RMSEA for closeness of fit for the overall measurement model value of 0.06 indicates an acceptable fit. The p-value for test of close fit ($RMSEA < 0.05$) is 0.195 indicating that the model can be generalized beyond the sample. Table 4.15 provides a summary of the fit

indices. The RMR and standardized RMR values are 0.0964 and 0.0698. These values exceed 0.05, which is indicative of a lack of good model fit.

The GFI (0.926) and AGFI (0.871) can be interpreted as reflecting an acceptable fit, with the AGFI value falling just below the acceptable fit of .90. The values of NFI = 0.939, NNFI = 0.963, CFI = 0.974, IFI = 0.975, and RFI = 0.912 (see table 4.15) is indicative of a good model fit with the data. Therefore, it can be concluded that the measurement model shows good model fit.

5.2.2. STRUCTURAL MODEL

The structural model describes the relationship among the latent variables to determine whether the hypothesized relationships defined at the conceptualization stage are supported by the empirical data (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). The RMSEA for closeness of fit for the overall measurement model value of 0.08 is indicating a reasonable fit with the value falling just above 0.08. The p-value for test of close fit (RMSEA <0.05) is 0.0181 which implies that the model should not be completely generalized beyond the current sample. Table 4.17 shows a summary of the fit indices. The RMR and standardized RMR values are 0.111 and 0.0955. These values are above 0.05 and are therefore indicative of lack of good model fit.

The GFI (0.906) and AGFI (0.81) can be interpreted as reflecting an acceptable fit with the AGFI value being just below 0.90. The values of the NFI = 0.920, NNFI = 0.938, CFI = 0.956, IFI = 0.957, and RFI = 0.888 values (see table 4.17) indicates a good model fit over the independence model as acceptable values are above 0.90 with the data, with the RFI being just barely below 0.90. In conclusion, the structural model shows good model fit

5.3. ASSESSMENT OF MODEL HYPOTHESES

The following section will discuss the results of the seven hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: PSS influences turnover intentions

There is a statistically significant inverse relationship between PSS and turnover intention ($t = -3.29, p < 0.05$) as the t-value cut off is $t = 1.96$. A negative correlation is thus shown

between the two constructs, which suggests that the proposed relationship between the two latent variables was supported.

The results are consistent with the results obtained by Kalidass and Bahron (2015) who conducted a study on 260 respondents selected from 8 three-star hotels in the Kota Kinabalu area. The findings indicated that 16.1% variance in turnover intention can be explained by PSS. In addition, the researchers found that there is a negative relationship between PSS and turnover intention which is indicative by the beta value ($\beta=-0.402$, $p<0.01$). Alshutwi (2017) also reviewed studies that found negative associations between perceived supervisor support and turnover intention. These associations vary in strength however, the study points to the potential of reducing turnover intention by improving supervisor support behaviours. The results are also justified with the study conducted by Newman et al. (2011) who focused on Chinese employees in multinational enterprises and found that perceived supervisor support had a direct relationship with turnover intentions of employees. Newman et al. (2011) stated that employees who feel more supported and cared for by their supervisors feel more committed which results in lower turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 2: PSS influences psychological empowerment

A significant relationship is existent between PSS and psychological empowerment ($t = 4.04$, $p<0.05$) as the t-value is above 1.96. This suggests that the proposed relationship between these two variables was supported.

In addition, a study conducted by Steinberg (2012), confirmed the hypothesis that supervisor support is positively related to psychological empowerment. A study conducted by Kent and Rondeau (2005, as cited in Steinberg, 2012) has shown that when nurses believed that their supervisor was listening and considerate towards their suggestions about their work, the nurses feel that they have a greater impact on their work environment. Ozaralli (2015), supports this hypothesis by stating that empowering leadership practices have a low positive correlation with the overall psychological empowerment and the three sub-dimensions namely, autonomy and impact, competence and meaning ($r=.61$; $r=.58$; $r=.38$ and $r=.42$; $p<.01$). Lastly, Farr-Wharton et al. (2011)

confirmed this relationship with their study on a sample of nurses that revealed that support from senior management was a factor that predicts empowerment.

Hypothesis 3: PSS influences affective commitment

A statistically significant relationship exists between PSS and affective commitment ($t = 3.69, p < 0.05$) as the t value is above 1.96. Therefore, the proposed relationship between the two variables is supported.

The results are consistent with a study done by Li et al. (2018), who conducted a study on 420 university teachers at five universities in China. The findings showed that perceived supervisor support is significantly linked to affective commitment. Additionally, Soulen (2003) conducted a study on 96 social workers and found that affective commitment is positively related to perceived supervisor support ($r = .42, p < .01$).

Hypothesis 4: Psychological empowerment influences turnover intentions

No statistically significant relationship exists between psychological empowerment and turnover intention ($t = 0.60, p < 0.05$) as the t value is below 1.96. Therefore, the hypothesized relationship between the two variables is not supported.

The finding is different to the supported literature by Wilutantri and Etikariena (2017) who conducted a study on psychological empowerment and turnover intention among 103 employees. The study purported that psychological empowerment has a significant negative relationship with turnover intention ($R^2 = 3.8, B = -.195, p < .05$). Kang (2012) also conducted a study on psychological empowerment among 342 social workers. The results showed that except for impact, three dimensions of psychological empowerment proved to have a significant relationship with turnover intention; meaning ($B = -3.77$), competence ($B = -2.63$), self-determination ($B = -2.76$).

Hypothesis 5: Psychological empowerment influences affective commitment

A statistically significant relationship exists between psychological empowerment and affective commitment ($t = 2.48, p < 0.05$) as the t value is above 1.96. The proposed relationship between the two variables is therefore, supported.

Albrecht and Andreetta (2010) conducted a study on community health service workers and found that psychological empowerment has an influence on turnover intentions of employees. All path estimates within their proposed model were statistically significant including the significant effects of psychological empowerment on affective commitment. More specifically, the results indicated that feelings of empowerment will result in employees feeling more motivated and engaged in the workplace which leads to feelings of connection and belongingness. The researchers concluded that when employees feel aspects such affective commitment they are less inclined to entertain thoughts of leaving the organization. In addition, Farr-Wharton et al., (2011) concluded similar results that empowerment influences affective commitment. This was based on their study on nurses in which empowerment explained 23.7% of the variance related to their levels of affective commitment.

Hypothesis 6: Affective commitment influences turnover intentions

There was a significant relationship between affective commitment and turnover intention ($t = -2.672, p < 0.05$). The proposed relationship in the model is supported.

Saeed et al. (2014) conducted a study that is consistent with the current study stating that organizational commitment and turnover intention have a significant negative relationship with each other. Even though affective commitment is a type of organizational commitment, we can see that the overall variable also influences turnover intention negatively. Furthermore, the results are in correlation with Galletta et al. (2011) who conducted a study in Italian healthcare and found that affective commitment has an influence on turnover intention. The study showed that affective commitment is negatively related to turnover intention with a ($b = -.46; p < .05$). The model also explained 21% of the variance in turnover intention.

Hypothesis 7: PSS, psychological empowerment or affective commitment predict turnover intentions

PSS was found to be the most significant predictor of turnover intentions than affective commitment and psychological empowerment.

This result is consistent with a study conducted by Kalidass and Bahron (2015) who focused on investigating the influence of perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support and organizational commitment on turnover intentions of employees within a three star hotel in the Kota Kinabalu area. The results show that perceived supervisor support has an influence on turnover intention. This could infer that perceived supervisor support is a predictor of turnover intention. Maerts, Griffeth, Campbell and Allen (2007, as cited in Newman et al., 2011) study based on the effects of perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support on employee turnover shows that when supervisors provide high support, POS becomes a less important predictor of turnover. Therefore making perceived supervisor support a higher predictor of turnover intention.

5.4. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The measuring instrument used to collect data in this study was cross-sectional in nature which resulted in same-source or common method biases. Contrary to this, using a longitudinal or continued measurement would most likely have resulted in more precise findings of the influences the variables have on each other long term. In addition, a longitudinal study could decrease the effect of same-source or common method biases. Rylander (2003, as cited in Mahembe, 2010) feels strongly about moving away from the method of measuring at a single point in time during a participant's employ. This is due to organizational constructs (such as the variables in the present study) cannot effectively be measured by such means as things change.

The timing, in which the data collection was done, deemed to be a busy period for participants, which made it harder for the researcher to receive the questionnaires back. In addition to having a challenge collecting data from support staff, the sample size that was used for the current study was too small, thus the study cannot be generalized to the

entire population of support staff at the selected tertiary institution within Western Cape. The population also only consisted of support staff at one tertiary institution thus the findings cannot be generalized to the bigger population of support staff within the province or South Africa. Having a bigger population would have helped in making the findings more difficult to disprove.

Furthermore, the measurement instruments used for the study appeared to be a limitation as well. The questionnaires were based on self-reporting methods, which are influenced by how a staff member feels at a point in time. This makes for subjective results. There are also disadvantages such as central tendency and social desirability, which could play a big role in the way questionnaires are answered.

The current study only made use of quantitative research methods in which questionnaires were the only source of collecting data. The accuracy and quality of the data could have been improved if a mixed-method approach was used. Instead of only making use of close ended questions, the use of open-ended interview questions could have given the researcher more insight into the topic under study.

Lastly, the sample was lopsided as the sample consisted mostly of female participants (66.9%).

5.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research should look into adding more latent variables into the study in order to expand the conceptual model. Latent variables such as perceived organizational support, employee performance and engagement could add value for further research within the tertiary education sector.

Future research could expand the sample size for the data to be more generalizable. In addition to making it generalizable, the total sample after dealing with missing values should not be less than the minimum recommended requirement of 200 participants. Obtaining samples from more universities to increase the demographic representatives of support staff population in Western Cape and South Africa could also be considered.

Future research should also consider using a quantitative and qualitative (mixed-method) approach to gather more insightful experiences from participants. The degree of accuracy in the research analysis could increase if data collection measurements such as interviews would be used in addition to questionnaires.

5.6. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The current study reported significant relationships between perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment, affective commitment and turnover intention with positive significant relationships between perceived supervisor support, psychological empowerment and affective commitment. The findings lead to the conclusion that support staff managers should practice perceived supervisor support in order to create an environment in which support staff feel valued and acknowledged for their contributions. Support staff is more likely to perceive managers as supportive if they actively listen, and acknowledge the contributions and value-added activities employees do. A supportive supervisor is more than just a manager but rather someone who values their employees' contribution to the overall success of the business.

Perceived supervisor support was found to have a positive relationship with psychological empowerment in support staff. This is because staff members feel more empowered in their jobs due to perceived supervisor support. When supervisors are perceived to be more supportive in their role rather than micro-managing, it creates a sense of empowerment within staff. This could be in the form of support staff feeling more competent in their role because they are believed to be capable. Alternatively, support staff could feel that their job has more meaning because of recognition provided by supervisors. Therefore, sufficient time should be spent on coaching and training supervisors to play a more supportive leader rather than micromanaging.

Perceived supervisor support also has a positive significant relationship with affective commitment in support staff. When employees feel that they are receiving support from their supervisors, it creates feelings of loyalty not only towards their supervisors but their organization. Therefore, it is important that managers and employees have a trust

relationship where they value each other. This will create mutual feelings of being valued and additionally create loyalty among the two.

In addition, the relationship between psychological empowerment and affective commitment is significantly positive. This can be due to support staff feeling that their jobs have an impact on the bigger organization/ tertiary institution and that their jobs have meaning. Most of the support staff members in the current study have years of tenure at the tertiary institution, therefore they feel that they are fully competent in what their role is. This in return enhances their loyalty to the institution. Consequently, when employees feel affective commitment their turnover intentions decrease as well. When employees (support staff) have an emotional attachment (affective commitment) to the organization, they are less likely to leave the organization.

Turnover intention was also found to have a negative significant relationship with PSS and affective commitment. This is due to the inverse relationship the variables have on each other. The higher the perceived supervisor support in the organization, the less likely employees would think of leaving. This is similar for affective commitment, which is the higher the emotional attachment support staff has towards the selected tertiary institution; the less likely they are to leave the organization.

The relationship between psychological empowerment and turnover intention were found to be insignificant. A possible premise for the insignificant relationship may be due to psychological empowerment being an important factor on its own. This means that if employees do not have empowerment within their jobs, it does not necessarily lead to turnover intention.

Although the significant relationships are of value to future researchers, the weak or non-significant relationship should not be ignored as it can help improve or possibly find solutions to problems that are experienced in the tertiary institution. Nonetheless, against the previous discussion and interpretation of the results, these results could be attributed mainly to the specific sample that was used for this study.

The study will be of value specifically to the human resource function in the formulation of reliable and valid psychological explanations of the behaviours and also the

identification of interventions that could be implemented to help develop these positive behaviours. The major contribution of this study is to call upon organizational development practices so that support staff can receive adequate training and coaching to help understand the bigger picture of how being a supportive supervisor could have a ripple effect on positively influencing the employees and organization which would ultimately reduce turnover intention.

Support staff is the heart of a tertiary institution, making sure that all administrative duties are fulfilled. Therefore, it is important to ensure that support staff are aware of the vital role they play within the tertiary institution and to ensure that they are well looked after. These interventions can ensure effective and efficient improvement in the performance and more importantly reduce their thoughts of leaving the organization. Furthermore, the results of this study may guide policy makers, rectors and educational practitioners to take better care of their support staff and to help enhance their working conditions. This study can also assist in developing interventions that would create an environment in which support staff would be more supported, empowered, loyal which would hopefully reduce turnover intentions.

5.7. CONCLUSION

Even though turnover intention is becoming a very topical area in research, it remains a big priority within the workplace. All the hypotheses have been discussed and interpreted. The results of the study illustrate relationships between perceived supervisor support and turnover intention, perceived supervisor support and psychological empowerment, psychological empowerment and turnover intention as well as affective commitment and turnover intention. These relationships consisted of positive and negative relationships however, all of them were found to be significant regardless of the direction of the relationship. The limitations and suggestions for future research have been outlined. There is the hope that the practical implications of the current study will contribute significantly to the advancement of conducive working conditions as well as creating a harmonious environment for support staff in order to feel empowered in their work and not think about leaving the organization.

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