CONCEPTUALISATION OF A STRUCTURAL MODEL TO PREDICT ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that *Conceptualisation of a structural model to predict organisational commitment* is my own, original work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other institution or higher learning, and that all the references have, to the best of my knowledge, been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.


Date: June 2020

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Signed:

UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

TO NOTE

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- The Department of Industrial Psychology does not require APA style formatting of the headings, paragraphs or tables. Students are encouraged to choose a style of their choice and to use that consistently.

- This thesis constitutes 50% of the structured Master's degree in Industrial Psychology. Therefore, the mini-thesis is only one requirement of the coursework Master's degree.

- According to the University of the Western Cape thesis guide, a mini-thesis is normally between 7 000 – 20 000 words in length and is limited in scope.
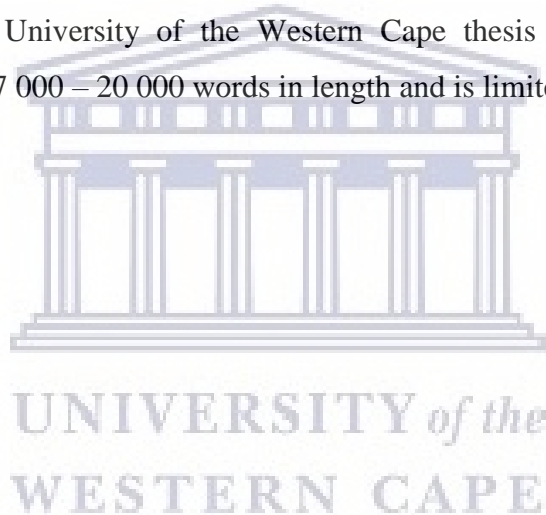
KEYWORDS

Organisational commitment

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ABSTRACT

As local textile manufacturing come under pressure from global competition, the competitive advantage of organisations in this sector have become an important research topic. As a key input in the manufacturing process, human resources can either be a burdensome cost or a source of competitive advantage for organisations in the textile industry. The effectiveness of human resources depends to a large extend on the ability of organisations to keep them motivated and productive.

Organisational commitment has been shown to be a key factor in employee retention, satisfaction, and performance. In addition, factors such as organisational justice, perceived organisational support and organisational citizenship behaviour have been identified as being strong predictors of organisational commitment and in turn employee retention.

The objective of this study was to develop a conceptual model to understand the relationships between the variables of organisational commitment, perceived organisational justice, organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to quit. Understanding the various interactions between these variables have important implication for applied practise in the retention and motivation of human resources. Input for the study was gathered from one of the leading footwear manufacturers in the country. A total of 198 responses were gathered by means of a questionnaire.

A quantitative approach was used to operationalise the variables in the study and to investigate the relationships in the proposed conceptual model. The data collected was then subjected to various forms of data analyses, including exploratory factor analysis, item analysis and regression analysis.

Findings of the study suggest that the proposed conceptual model is a fair and credible depiction of the relationships between the variables and can be used to design organisational interventions in the footwear and textile industry. This research holds value in that it explains how to better retain talent and minimise turnover while maintaining competitive advantage.

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To my mother and late father, thank you for all you have done to ensure that I reach this goal and supporting me in ways that only you can. Thank you for sacrificing so that I may reach new heights.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, BACKGROUND AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.1.   INTRODUCTION

With the decline in local manufacturing within the clothing and textile industry, and the lack of growth within the industry, it is imperative that organisations are able to recruit and retain talented and skilled employees.   In an environment where almost all the sources of competitive advantage can be replicated, most organisations are dependent on an engaged and committed workforce to compete globally. When a company has a competitive advantage over rivals, it means that it has managed to develop a distinct, yet difficult-to-emulate, 'core' competency that is superior to that of its competitors. Committed, highly trained employees, not machines, have recently become a company's main competitive advantage (Alajmi & Alenzi, 2016).

However, human resources are also one of the most expensive investments for any organisation, and most leaders are incentivised to optimise the performance of its working corps. Labour constitutes a pivotal production factor due to the fact that the organisation is managed, operated and run by people. Organisational commitment has emerged as an important causal indicator of labour efficiency and health. A committed workforce has an emotional connection with the organisation that often extends beyond the satisfaction of their basic subsistence needs. However, the functioning of human resources is driven by a complex network of variables that shape organisational commitment. The goal of the current study is to uncover the deterministic network of variables that shape organisational commitment. In this scenario, organisational commitment is but the end point from which the researcher works backwards to uncover the causal network of person and environmental factors.

Organisational commitment refers to an employee's loyalty and sense of obligation towards their company of employment due to a psychological bond that has been formed between the employee and the organisation (Suma & Lesha, 2013). The success of any HR intervention aimed at harnessing the benefits of organisational commitment is largely dependent on the valid understanding of the causal influences on organisational commitment.

1.2. RESEARCH PROBLEM AND RESEARCH QUESTION

The primary objective of the current study is to develop a conceptual model that can explain the complex network of variables that shapes organisational commitment in the workplace. To this end, the research problem can be framed as follows:

What are the main personal and contextual factors that shape organisational commitment in the textile and fashion apparel industry?

1.3. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main objective of this study is to develop a conceptual model that explains the relationships of variables and how they impact on organisational commitment. The aim is the empirical validation of the complex and dynamic linkages between the variables that shape organisational commitment in the workplace.

1.4. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Current research has shown that organisational justice and organisational support greatly impact organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, as well as intention to quit. It is of utmost importance that organisations are able to understand these factors and the relationships between them, and how they impact each other. The study aims to give organisations insight and recommendations that could encourage the retention of talented employees.

1.5. OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 delves into the background and introduction into the research. The research question and objectives of the study are outlined in this chapter.

Chapter 2 takes an in-depth review of the relevant literature providing a theoretical basis for the variables in the proposed conceptual model. The literature review was used to develop an in-depth understanding of the factors that influence organisational commitment in the workplace. Prominent theories were used to explain the proposed linkages between variables included in the conceptual model.

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Chapter 3 explains the research design and strategy used for the study. This chapter provides more information about the population, sample, data collection methods and measuring instruments, and data analyses techniques.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the data analyses, specifically the validation of the proposed relationships statistically. This chapter aims to provide empirical support for the proposed conceptual model.

Chapter 5 reviews the findings for theory and practice. This chapter discusses both the implications and limitations of the study. Lastly, the chapter aims to make valuable recommendations for future studies.

1.6. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter gave an introduction and background to the current study. The primary research question and research objectives were discussed. Further, this chapter provided an overview of the layout of all chapters.

The following chapter will consult various relevant literature which resulted in the formulation of the theoretical framework proposed in the study.

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CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1.   INTRODUCTION

We live in an age where innovation is the face of success, where industry leaders are constantly striving towards better, more effective and cheaper ways to gain profit and a greater stake in the market through innovative competitive advantage (Amadeo, 2018; Hana, 2013). In recent times more and more emphasis has been placed on human resource capital in order to gain above-market return on investment. Next to capital, and intellectual property, human resources are arguably the most important source of competitive advantage for organisations (Gabčanová, 2011).This notion is substantiated by Nassazi (2013, p.1) who states that the part played by employees in achieving overall goals cannot be underestimated. It further highlights how equipping "these unique assets through effective training becomes imperative in order to maximise the job performance" (Nassazi, 2013, p.1).

It is for this reason that organisations places great importance on training and upskilling the workforce. Companies are incentivised to invest significant resources in employees which will enable their growth, and develop the critical skills that are required for organisational success and strong performance. Even greater importance is given to protecting the well-being of the workforce. For this reason it is important for organisations to offer more than just market leading remuneration packages and growth to talented employees. It has become increasingly popular for successful organisations to offer high remuneration, work-life balance, flexi time and various benefits such as medical aid, maternity, performance bonuses and annual bonuses (Bussin & Thabethe, 2018; Yamamoto, 2011). However, organisations do not exist only to serve societal or workers' needs. They incur these expenses with an expectation for higher productivity of their human resources. This is particularly true as the modern global economy moves away from manufacturing as the driver of economic growth, to the tertiary sectors (technology and services) that mainly employ knowledge workers (Claassens, 2019; Yamamoto, 2011).

This is also especially true for the South African economy specifically, that has struggled to make the move from primary economic sectors to tertiary sectors for growth. The South African economy however, has been highly volatile and has affected various industries which are now struggling to attain a competitive advantage (Claassens, 2019; Ronan 2015). One of

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the industries that has been hit the hardest is the textile and apparel industry. The South African clothing and textile industry is finding it harder to compete with imports from India and China which enjoy protection against imports in the form of subsidies (Ronan, 2015). This is substantiated by research by Edwards and Jenkins (2014) which shows that the downturn suffered by South Africa's clothing and textile manufacturing industry is partly due to challenging manufacturing conditions and costs, with the local industry unable to compete with the influx of cheaper goods from countries such as China India and Bangladesh. This has resulted in more imports as opposed to more locally manufactured goods. In an attempt to promote the consumption of locally produced goods, campaigns like "local is best" or "local is lekka" have been launched to appeal to patriotic South Africans to support locally produced goods and services (Ronan, 2015).

However, textile and manufacturing organisations have become more and more dependent on a competent and productive workforce in order to stay competitive in the local and global apparel markets.

In order to stay competitive in the global marketplace local manufacturers needs to develop and retain a committed and innovative workforce. One of the most popular means of employee retention is to promote organisational commitment within the workplace. Simply explained, this refers to one's loyalty towards the organisation. It is the aim of many organisations to achieve this elusive ideal, as a committed and competent workforce offers the organisation numerous benefits, amongst others, lower turnover, higher productivity, and lower retraining costs (Kashefi, Adel, Abad, Aliklayeh, Moghaddam & Nadimi, 2013; Suma & Lesha, 2013).

The following sections aim to explore organisational commitment in more detail to understand what the main drivers of commitment in the workplace are.

2.2. ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organisational commitment has become one of the most popular psychological constructs studied in the past few years (Finkelstein, 2014; Girchira, 2015). Like most constructs, it is hard to derive a universally accepted definition. However, it has been measured and defined in several different theories, with the common theme being the bond between an individual and an organisation (Suma & Lesha, 2013). Organisational commitment can be defined as a

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psychological state that connects the employee to his organisation in such a way that allows the employee to better identify with the organisation and its goals, and actively exert effort towards achieving those goals (Brown 2003; Meyer & Allen, 1990; Suma & Lesha, 2013).

Based on previous research, organisational commitment brings about benefits for the organisation as well as the individual (Lodewyk, 2011; Meyer & Allen, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 2004). Commitment, specifically affective commitment, has been strongly linked to positive work-related behaviours. These include, but are not limited to, attendance and organisational citizenship behaviour (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002 as cited in McMahon, 2007). In addition to these, affective commitment has been positively correlated with organisational support, interactional justice, job involvement, job commitment, job satisfaction, as well as transformational leadership (Meyer et al., 2002 as cited in McMahon, 2007).

Further research shows that additional benefits of organisational commitment include higher motivation, increased work performance, and productivity among employees. Finally, commitment fosters a sense of organisational citizenship behaviour (Lodewyk, 2011), which, simply put, is the act of an employee going beyond normal duty in order to contribute to the overall success of the organisation (Finkelstein, 2014). This concept will be discussed in more detail further in the study.

As previously mentioned, a high level of organisational commitment may have considerable benefits for both the organisation as well as the individual. Various research studies suggest that a high level of organisational commitment may lead the individual to experience a greater sense of job satisfaction and support, reward recognition, as well as fulfilment in terms of more challenging work (Dixit & Bhati, 2012; Kashefi, et al., 2012; Mathew & Zacharias, n.d.; Pandey & Khare, 2012).

Further research by Mathew and Zacharias (n.d.) suggest that committed employees may have greater opportunities for growth and development as organisations are more likely to invest in individuals that display high degrees of commitment. In the same sense, organisations have more security that this type of investment will remain of benefit to the organisation as a committed employee is less likely to leave the organisation.

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2.2.1. Theoretical Framework

Organisational commitment remains an important research theme and numerous studies have investigated the concept from a variety of theoretical perspectives (Meyer & Allen, 1990; Rusbult, 1980; Porter, Steers, Mowday, 1982; as cited in McMahon, 2007).   This has culminated in the formulation of various theories and models. For the purpose of this study the most predominant models will be discussed.

One of the earliest theories is Rusbult's (1980) investment model of commitment. This theory explains how commitment is affected by outcome values, as well as the amount the individual has invested in the organisation. It can be argued that the level of commitment should increase as the outcome of alternatives decreases, or the magnitude of the individual's investment increases.

Another early theory is that of Porter, Steers, Mowday (1982, as cited in McMahon, 2007). This theory suggests that organisational commitment can be broken down into three main components, namely attitudinal commitment, behavioural commitment and affective commitment.

a. Attitudinal commitment

This refers to a mind-set where individuals consider the congruency of their goals and values with those of the organisation (McMahon, 2007). It further relates to the overall liking of the organisation and focuses on an employee's perceptions of happiness related to the organisation (Groff, 2009). Awadh and Ismail (2012) further suggest that attitudinal commitment improves the employee's loyalty to the organisation. This may be by means of improving employee attendance, job performance and the employee's motivation to displays more effort towards achieving company goals (Groff, 2009).

b. Behavioural commitment

With this mind-set an individual's past behaviour in an organisation binds them to the organisation. The theory suggests that if an individual has a habit of moving from organisation to organisation, he shows low behavioural commitment, whereas if he is with the organisation for a long period, he is said to have high behavioural commitment. Awadh and Ismail (2012) further explain that behavioural commitment involves an employee's

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identifying with and wishing to remain with the organisation as a means of achieving organisational goals which have been embraced as personal goals.

This theory gave rise to the more popular Meyer and Allen (1991) three-component model, which was developed to measure different types of organisational commitment. The framework consists of three components namely, affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

a. Affective commitment

This refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Further, affective commitment incorporates ones' positive feelings for the organisation, and fosters one's attachment to the organisation (Salim, Kamarudin, & Abdul Kadir, 2012). Employees who display high levels of affective commitment voluntarily remain with the organisation as a result of attaching their identity to that of the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

b. Continuance commitment

This refers to an employee's assessment of whether the cost of leaving the organisation is greater than the cost of staying. Baksh (2010) suggests that continuance commitment focuses mainly on the risk of economic losses and economic gains, and labour market conditions that specify the availability, or lack thereof, of suitable alternate employment. Employees who consider the cost of leaving the organisation to be more than the cost of staying, remain because they need to (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

c. Normative commitment

This refers to an employee's feelings of obligation towards the organisation. Employees displaying high levels of normative commitment stay with the organisation because they feel an obligation or sense of indebtedness toward the organisation, due to the investment made by the organisation in terms of training, development or growth   (Lodewyk, 2011; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees who experience high levels of normative commitment are largely driven by a sense of honour and morality; these employees may feel that it is morally wrong to leave the

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organisation, as though by leaving they would be betraying the organisation (Lodewyk, 2011).

Meyer and Allen (1991), suggest that individuals experience the above-mentioned components in an array of ways: person A may experience high levels of affective commitment and continuance commitment, while person B may experience high levels of normative commitment, and so forth. Thus, in order for organisations to reap the full benefit of high levels of commitment, it is important for the organisation to focus on all three facets of commitment.

Similar to the three-component model, is the theoretical model proposed by Johnson (1991). The author suggests that commitment is experienced in three ways: *personal commitment*; which occurs when an individual is emotionally attached to the organisation; *moral commitment*, where an individual feels obligated to the organisation and *structural commitment,* where an individual feels the need to remain with the organisation.

Based on the literature, the types of commitment proposed by Johnson (1991) is quite similar to those proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991). However, the question remains: what are the primary drivers of the facets of commitment in the work context? The next section will explore the possible correlates of organisational commitment in more detail.

2.3.   Perceived Organisational Justice

In recent years, organisational justice has been identified as a key factor associated with the success of any organisation. In order to keep employees happy and loyal to the organisation, it needs to be fair in how it treats employees (Greenberg, 2011).

Perceived organisational justice can be defined as the extent to which employees feel they are treated fairly by the organisation in terms of distribution of resources, fairness of decision-making procedures, and interpersonal interaction (Banerjee & Banerjee, 2013; Greenberg & Baron, 2003 and Greenberg, 1990).

Employees who feel they are being treated unjustly in the organisation may become frustrated, angry or disoriented which in turn could result in inappropriate and unproductive behaviour in the organisation. The consequent impact on the organisation is that the employee is no longer satisfied nor committed to the organisation. What could follow is a

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decline in performance, an increase in absenteeism, incidents of theft, as well as the raising of grievances. Ultimately the employee may opt to leave the organisation should the opportunity arise (Akanbi & Ofoegbu, 2013; Baldwin, 2006).

On the other hand, when employees feel they are treated fairly they may have a more positive attitude towards the organisation. This in turn may result in increased levels of trust in the organisation which will minimise conflict and raise the levels of job satisfaction, performance and organisational citizenship behaviour. In addition, individuals may experience better employee health and well-being (Baldwin, 2006; Banerjee & Banerjee, 2013; Greenberg, 2011). Organisational commitment has also been identified as one of the major positive outcomes of organisational justice his will be explained in detail further in the study.

2.3.1. Theoretical Framework

The theory of organisational justice revolves around the notion that employees evaluate organisational fairness by comparing their outcomes with the outcomes of others in similar positions (Arnold et al., 2010) or, their perceived personal contribution towards the achievement of organisational outcomes (Baksh, 2010). If there is a significant difference in the perceived outcomes, the employee will experience distress and perceive that an injustice has occurred (Arnold et al., 2010).

According to the literature, various researchers have proposed that perceived organisational justice be broken up into three facets. These areas are that of distributive justice, procedural justice and interaction justice. Each of these will be explained in more detail in the section below:

a. Distributive justice

Distributive justice is concerned with people's perception of the fairness of the distribution or allocation of resources (compensation or reward) among people (Greenberg & Baron 2003). It also refers to how an employee feels he should be rewarded based on his level of productivity (Banerjee & Banerjee, 2013). This form of justice stems from an equity theory proposed by Adams (1965) which focuses on remuneration inequalities, and uses concepts of inputs and outputs or outcomes. Input refers to what an employee perceives as his contribution to the

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organisation, for which he expects a fair return (Adams, 1965); outcome refers to the rewards an employee receives for his input, in terms of remuneration and intrinsic satisfaction (Cohen & Greenberg, 1982 as cited in Akanbi & Ofoegbu, 2013).

As previously stated, employees base this fairness on the comparison between their own output and the output of others in a similar position. However, this is in relation to the input that the employee displays, or their input-output ratio. Thus the employee compares their input-output ratio to that of another in a similar position. A large discrepancy in the input-output ratio will lead employees to perceive that an injustice has occurred resulting in attempts to remedy the injustice (Banerjee & Banerjee, 2013). Further, distributive justice is concerned with the fact that not all employees are treated alike and that there is a differentiation in the allocation of resources in the workplace (Akanbi & Ofoegbu 2013).

Employees who experience disequilibrium may attempt to remedy the imbalance by either shifting inputs or outcomes, by cognitive distortion of inputs or outcomes, by leaving the exchange relationship, by shifting another's inputs or outcomes, or by changing the object of comparison (Banerjee & Banerjee, 2013; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). In other words, employees may attempt to achieve fairness by either altering the input-output ratio to match the ratio of others or vice versa, change the method or item of comparison, or ultimately leave the organisation if fairness cannot be met.

According to research conducted by Cropanzano, Bryne, Babocel and Rupp (2001) three distinct rules of allocation have been developed with the aim of achieving distributive justice:
    a. equality- where each employees is allocated the same outcome
    b. equity- where outcomes are allocated based on the input displayed
    c. need- where outcomes are allocated based on urgency

Through proper implementation of the above rules, organisations will be able to achieve distributive justice within the workplace.

b. Procedural justice

The next facet of justice is procedural justice, first introduced by Thibaut and Walker (1975 as cited in Banerjee & Banerjee, 2013). This concerns itself with the fairness of the process by which decisions that lead to outcomes are made (Banerjee & Banerjee, 2013) or the fairness of the evaluation procedures used to determine ratings for outcomes (Akanbi & Ofoegbu, 2013). This concept was transferred to a "non- legal context" (Banerjee & Banerjee, p. 210, 2013) by Leventhal (1980), who has proposed six criteria for procedures to be perceived as fair by the employee. Namely, that they be:

a. Consistent;
b. unbiased;
c. accurate;
d. contain mechanisms for correcting wrong decisions;
e. adhere to prevalent conceptions of morality; and
f. representative.

If organisations are able to ensure that all procedures meet the above criteria, it would allow employees to better perceive themselves as being treated fairly in the workplace.

c. Interactional justice

Interactional justice was introduced by Bies and various studies along with colleagues (Bies & Moag 1986; Bies & Shapiro 1987; Bies & Shapiro 1988). The authors propose that employees also judge the fairness of the way they are treated on an interpersonal level when procedures and rules of organisation are passed (Bies & Moag, 1986). Bies and Moag (1986) further state that interactional justice is primarily concerned with truthfulness, honesty, justification, respect and propriety.

Research by Greenberg (1990) proposed that interactional justice be split into two core elements namely, the quality of treatment of employees in terms of respect and sensitivity referred to as interpersonal justice; and explanations and information given regarding decision-making, referred to as informational justice.

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Interpersonal justice has its focus on the degree to which employees are treated with politeness, dignity and respect by managers, supervisors and other figures of authority, or third parties involved in implementing and executing procedures or determining outcomes. Informational justice, on the other hand, focuses on the amount and quality of information provided to employees regarding those procedures and outcomes in terms of the 'why' and 'how' (Colquitt 2001; Greenberg 1990). The clarity, adequacy and sincerity of communication and information regarding the procedures and outcomes are highly important factors in informational justice.

2.3.2. Organisational Commitment and Perceived Organisational Justice

Organisational commitment is one of the more important outcomes of perceived organisational justice. Studies have shown that perceived organisational justice can be associated with positive outcomes such as organisational commitment (Leow & Wei Khong, 2009). This notion is substantiated by Lambert (2003 as cited in (Mirmohhamdi & Marefat, 2014)who argues that employees who feel they are treated fairly by the organisation are encouraged to trust and be faithful to the organisation. This ultimately increases their commitment to the organisation. Similarly Leow and Khong (2009) found that employees are likely to display higher levels of organisational commitment when the consequences of practices used in an organisation are considered to be fair in the workplace. In addition Baksh (2010) proposes that justice and fairness in the workplace may contribute to organisational commitment. He is of the belief that justice is an essential part of an organisation's total reward system and has economic, mental and emotional consequences for the way an organisation is perceived by its employees. This, in turn, impacts on their commitment to the organisation (Baksh, 2010).

Various researchers have identified that each facet of justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) can be linked to organisational commitment (Anjum, Haq, Usman, & Hussain, 2014; Gichira, Were & Orwa, 2015; Gim & Desa, 2014). However, there have been various arguments regarding the extent of influence that each part has.

Research by (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001) found that distributive justice leads to a stronger relationship between organisational justice and organisational commitment in the workplace. Research by Mcfarlin and Sweeney, on the other hand, (1992 as cited in Anjum, Haq, Usman, & Hussain, 2014) shows that procedural justice is a better predictor of organisational commitment compared to distributive justice. Various researchers found similar results in their research, showing that even though both procedural and distributive justice have a substantial effect on organisational commitment, procedural justice does indeed have a greater impact on organisational commitment (Qureshi, Frank, Lambert, Klahm & Smith, 2016; Folger & Cropanzano 1998).

The relationship between organisational justice and organisational commitment can be investigated in greater depth and broken down further. Researchers have also identified that the different facets of justice can be linked to different facets of commitment (Gim & Desa, 2014; Tuntrabundit & Tuntrabundit, 2014).

In addition to the organisational justice theory, the hypotheses identified in the current study are largely derived from popular theories. Some of the most influential theories will be discussed next.

The most prominent theory is the equity theory of Adams (1965). This theory compares equality between the input-output ratios of one employee to that of another. Input in this sense refers to the employee's contribution to their job, while output refers to the reward for that input. This may be remuneration, recognition, promotions or intrinsic satisfaction (Greenberg, 2011). According to the theory, one of three perceptions may occur: overpayment, underpayment or equality. Adams (1965) states that over- or underpayment will occur when the employee's ratio is either greater or less than the comparison ratio, while equality is experienced when the ratios are the same. The basis of equity theory can be seen to be a fair allocation of resources which is likely to enhance one's affective commitment to an organisation (Greenberg, 2011).

The fair process effect, also referred to as 'voice' as described by Greenberg (2011) holds that employees are more likely to experience procedural justice when they are given a voice in the decision-making process. This will lead the employee to believe that both processes on which the decision is based, as well as the decision itself, are fair.

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One of the first links to be made between organisational justice and organisational commitment is that of distributive justice and affective commitment. Research suggests that distributive justice is positively linked to affective commitment (Gichira, Were & Orwa, 2015; Gim & Desa, 2014). For this reason, a positive relationship is predicted between distributive justice and affective commitment.

H1: Distributive justice is positively related to affective commitment.

Demirel and Yücel (2013) as well as Gichira et al. (2015) further found that no significant relationship exists between distributive justice and normative commitment. Studies done by Paramanandam (n.d.) found no support for the relationship between distributive justice and affective commitment. However, it is suggested instead that distributive justice is significantly related to continuance commitment. This is substantiated by research done by Turgat, Tokmak and Gucel (2012). When considering this finding from the perspective of equity theory, it is reasonable to expect employees to be committed to organisations that distribute rewards fairly. For this reason, a positive relationship is predicted between distributive justice and continuance commitment.

H2: Distributive justice is positively related to continuance commitment.

In addition to the link between distributive justice and continuance commitment, research suggests that a positive relationship exists between procedural justice and affective commitment (Gichira et al., 2015; Tuntrabundit & Tuntrabundit, 2014; Ahmed, 2014; Demirel & Yücel, 2013). However, limited support was found for the relationship between procedural justice and normative commitment, and procedural justice and continuance commitment.

H3: Procedural Justice is positively related to affective commitment.

Further research by Demirel and Yücel (2013) as well as Turgat et al. (2012) has indicated a strong relationship between interactional justice and affective commitment. Employees are more likely to feel a sense of attachment toward the organisation where interactions between employees promote their sense of dignity and respect. For this reason, one would expect

organisations that promote interactional justice to foster a workforce that is emotionally committed to the organisation.

H4: Interactional justice is positively related to affective commitment.

As previously mentioned, this section aims to unpack the primary drivers and correlates of organisational commitment in the workplace. The literature consulted, has presented an array of correlates; however, for the purpose of this research, only the most significant ones will be discussed. In addition to perceived organisational justice, perceived organisational support has been largely associated with organisational commitment.

Various authors (Neves & Eisenberger, 2014; Liu, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Satardien, 2014) have identified this facet as a significant predictor of organisational commitment. Perceived organisational support is an important variable in social exchanges that take place in the workplace. The role of perceived organisational support in relation to organisational commitment will be discussed in more details in the next section.

2.4. PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Perceived organisational support has proven to be a crucial factor in organisational success. If organisations are to keep employees satisfied and productive in the workplace, considerable support needs to be shown to employees. Various research suggest that a strong relationship exists between perceived organisational support and organisational justice (Neves & Eisenberger, 2014; Satardien, 2014).

Perceived organisational support can be defined as an employee's perception or feeling regarding the degree to which the organisation cares about his well-being and values his contribution (Liu, 2004; Shore & Shore, 1995; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Perceived organisational support also encompasses the degree to which employees feel that the organisation is willing to equitably reward them for their efforts, provide help, create interesting and stimulating work, and provide adequate working conditions (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986).

According to research (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995), employees who have developed a high sense of perceived organisational support due to receiving valued resources, may feel obligated to the

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organisation and endeavour to repay the organisation by helping it achieve its goals and objectives. This may be done through increased in-role and extra-role performance.

2.4.1. Theoretical framework

Research has shown that the following antecedents are related to perceived organisational support:

- a. Perceptions of the organisation, such as justice and politics (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey & Toth, 1997; Moorman, Blakely & Niehoff, 1998)
- b. Job conditions (Eisenberger, Rhoades & Cameron, 1999)
- c. Supervisor support (Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996; (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997)
- d. Personality (Aquino & Griffeth, 1999)
- e. Human resource practices (Wayne et al., 1997)

As previously stated, perceived organisational support is likely to increase an employee's emotional or affective attachment to the organisation, thus creating a feeling of obligation towards the organisation. Based on this, it may be assumed that perceived organisational support increases affective commitment as well as normative commitment, both of which are experienced by employees through fulfilling socio economic needs (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Satardien, 2014; Uçar & Ötken, 2010; Aube, Rousseau & Morin, 2007).

This relationship of affective commitment is explained through the concept of organisational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986) which maintain that perceived organisational support is strongly dependent on the employee's attributions concerning the organisation's intention behind favourable or unfavourable treatment (Kurtessis, Eisenberger, Ford, Bufarrdi, Steward & Adis, 2015). The theory further sets out that this creates a social exchange process, resulting in a sense of obligation towards the organisation and the achievement of its goals. There is the expectation that this will lead to greater rewards.

According to organisational support theory, perceived organisation support fulfils socio-emotional needs resulting in greater identification with, and affective commitment to the organisation. This relationship is further substantiated by social identity theory which suggests that employees remain committed to the organisation when they feel the organisation values and appreciates them (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

The link between normative commitment and perceived organisational commitment is fully explained through the concept of reciprocity or social exchange (Satardien, 2014; Aube, et al., 2007; LaMastro, 2008). The exchange process is made up of one party, the organisation, giving a benefit to another party, the employee. If the employee reciprocates this favour, a chain of beneficial or favourable exchanges consequently occur. These in turn create a feeling of obligation between the parties in order to repay the favourable treatment (Wikhamn & Hall, 2012).This feeling of obligation towards the organisation manifests itself in various positive behaviours such as increased performance, reduced absenteeism, more trust in the organisation, and increased loyalty and commitment towards the organisation. In other words, so that he may return the favour, the employee feels obligated to display a higher level of commitment to the organisation. In this case, examples of favourable or beneficial exchanges are: concern for the employee's well-being, meeting the employee's needs, fair treatment, monetary benefits and training investments (Aube, et al., 2007; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Since the social exchanges of support are largely emotional in nature, one would expect high support to lead to higher affective commitment and not continuance commitment. This expectation is supported by research by Uçar & Ötken (2010), who found no support between perceived organisational support and normative commitment.

Based on the above literature and arguments, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H5: Perceived organisational support is positively related to affective organisational commitment.

H6: Perceived organisational support (POS) is positively related to normative commitment.

POS is also an important psychological driver of extra role behaviours. Due to the concept's link to valued organisational outcomes, research on organisational citizenship behaviour has grown in popularity. Numerous authors (Greenberg, 2011; Finkelstein, 2014; Ibukunoluwa, Anuoluwapo & Agbude, 2015; Zhang, 2011) have identified the importance of POS to the concept of organisational citizenship behaviour.

2.5. ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB)

The concept of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has gathered popularity, academic attention and reviews since its conception. Over the years the concept of OCB has proven to be beneficial to organisations, and an important factor in overall performance and organisational success (Mohammad, Habib & Makhbul, 2009; Greenberg, 2011; Afshe & Mousavi, 2015).

Organisational citizenship behaviour can be defined as a prosocial behaviour where an employee goes beyond what is formally expected of him within a job in order to contribute to the improvement of the well-being of others, as well as the organisation (Greenberg, 2011, Finkelstein, 2014). Acts of OCB are done spontaneously and voluntarily; they are not expected from the employer and are often not formally appreciated in terms of remuneration or promotion (Zhang, 2011). Simply put, OCB refers to going the extra mile, above what is expected in order to help others.

According to the research, it is clear that OCB has the potential to be beneficial in terms of both individual as well as organisational performance. One of the common benefits of high OCB as established by researchers is increased employee performance (Alizadeh, darvishi, Nazari & Emami, 2012; Ibukunoluwa, et al., 2015; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000; Zhang, 2011). According to research, the impact of a higher level of OCB can be linked to increased performance, potentially greater intrinsic as well as extrinsic rewards, and a more positive behaviour in the workplace.

Through encouraging feelings of OCB, organisations are able to create a greater sense of belonging among employees and a more supportive working environment which will in turn aid in the attraction and retention of talented employees. Higher levels of OCB will decrease the employee's intention to leave and thus lower employee turnover (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Zhang, 2011). Through a greater sense of belonging, employees are more likely to relate to the organisation, as well as its goals and overall success.

Another important concept to consider is the relationship between organisational commitment and OCB. Various researchers have highlighted the link between organisational commitment and OCB and suggest that a positive relationship exists between the two variables where

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OCB can be seen as the desired outcome of organisational commitment (Mohammad, Habib & Zakaria, 2010; Ozturk, 2010).

2.5.1.   Theoretical Framework

Various researchers (Greenberg, 2011; Finkelstein, 2014; Mohammad et al., 2009) have examined two broad types of OCB, namely OCB directed at the individual (OCB-I), and OCB directed at the organisation (OCB-O).

OCB-I refers to acts of OCB aimed at and directly benefiting individuals or fellow employees, while indirectly contributing to the organisation's well-being (Greenberg, 2011 and Mohammad et al., 2009).

Examples of OCB-I include (Greenberg, 2011):

- doing a favour for someone
- assisting a fellow employee with personal problems
- sending birthday messages or cards to others in the office.

OCB-O on the other hand refers to acts of OCB aimed at and directly benefiting the organisation itself (Greenberg, 2011 and Mohammad et al, 2009).

Examples of OCB-O include (Greenberg, 2011):

- openness to new ideas
- loyalty towards the organisation
- speaking favourably about the organisation.

Upon further research by Greenberg (2011), Organ (1988 as cited in Zhang 2011), Posakoff, et al., (2000), and Alizadeh, et al. (2012), various categories of OCB have been identified:

1. *Altruism* - being polite in the workplace
2. *Conscientiousness* - going beyond the minimum requirements
3. *Civic Virtue* - showing interest and involvement in the organisation, its policies, procedures, values and goals
4. *Sportsmanship* - tolerating less-than-ideal, unfortunate conditions as well as accepting changes without filing a complaint or grievance

5. _**Courtesy**_ - being polite and courteous and preventing conflict

2.5.2. Organisational Commitment and OCB

Published research suggests a strong relationship between OCB and organisational commitment. Recent studies have indicated a significant relationship between affective commitment and OCB as well as normative commitment and OCB (Satardien, 2014; Finkelstein, 2014). In addition, numerous authors (Addison, Mohta, & David, 2006; Afshe & Mousavi, 2015) show that a positive relationship also exists between continuance organisational commitment and OCB, theorising that all 3 determinants of organisational commitment are positively related to OCB. This is an interesting finding, since even employees that are only committed to organisations due to lack of viable alternatives (continuance commitment) demonstrates extra role behaviours in the form of OCB.

Agca and Ertan (2013) however, suggest that no significant relationship exists between affective commitment and OCB, while Bakshi, Sharma and Kumar (2011) suggest that a significant relationship exists only between normative commitment and OCB.

For the purpose of this research, the focus will be on OCB-O, as the research is interested in the impact of commitment on the organisation. Based on the above, the following hypotheses are formulated:

> _**H7: Affective organisational commitment is positively related to OCB-O**_
>
> _**H8: Normative organisational commitment is positively related to OCB-O**_
>
> _**H9: Continuance commitment is positively related to OCB-O**_

Further research suggests that a lack of organisational justice, POS, organisational commitment and OCB, is likely to result in an employee experiencing higher levels of intention to quit, which is described below (Scannapieco & Connell-Carrick, 2007; Satardien, 2014).

2.6. INTENTION TO QUIT

Intention to quit is defined as an employee's plan to leave their current job in pursuit of another in the near future (Purani & Sahadev, 2007, as cited in Rizwan, Arshad, Munir, Iqbal,

& Hussain 2014). It refers particularly to the employee's evaluation and perception of job alternatives (Rizwan et al., 2014).

Intention to quit or intention to leave simply refers to a conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave an organisation (Basak, Ekmekci, Bayram & Bas, 2013).

The concept of intention to quit has been extensively researched though the years as it has become vital to retain top talent in organisations. Literature suggests that intention to quit can be considered an appropriate indicator of actual behaviour or actual turnover (Mxenge, Dywili & Bazana, 2014; Appollis, 2010). It thus becomes important for organisations to understand intention to quit in order to implement measures which will ultimately minimise an employee's intention to do so.

High employee turnover will result in the organisation losing valuable skills, knowledge, experience, loyalty, as well as employee motivation, without which an organisation cannot be successful. Authors have identified that a high turnover rate in the organisation may result in a further spike in turnover, and may also affect the motivation and performance levels of employees who have remained with the organisation. This then affects the overall success of the organisation (Appollis, 2010).

2.6.1. Theoretical Framework

Various authors suggest that the decision to quit is not taken lightly by employees and only after considerable deliberation (Greenberg, 2011; Maertz and Campion 2004).

Greenberg (2011) theorised that before there is an intention to quit, two key factors come into play: firstly, a shock to the system, which refers to an event that has led to the employee thinking about quitting their job; secondly, a decision frame, which refers to the way in which employees interpret what has happened (Greenberg, 2011), which ultimately leads to four decision paths. Greenberg (2011) explains these paths as 1) where a 'shock' and matching 'decision frame' occur, 2) where a 'shock' occurs, but has no matching 'decision frame' while a job alternative does not exist, 3) where a 'shock' occurs without a matching 'decision frame' and no alternative exists and 4) where neither a 'shock' nor 'decision frame' occurs. The theory suggests that individuals follow these thought patterns when making a decision to leave the organisation.

Based on the literature consulted, it has been identified that some of the main determinants of intention to quit are (Appolis, 2010; Scannapieco & Connell-Carrick, 2007):

- job-related stress
- inadequate pay
- lack of recognition
- lack of commitment to the organisation
- job dissatisfaction

Further research suggests that these determinants are used to classify employees into decision-type profiles. Maertz and Campion (2004) describe four profiles, namely:

- *Impulsive* - where the decision to quit is made on the spot and without much thought or planning. Employees who fit this profile do not consider the financial impact or alternatives before quitting. It may be triggered by a number of reasons that cause a negative feeling (Maertz and Campion, 2004).

- *Comparison Quitters* – where the decision to quit is based on a better alternative opportunity for the employee. Employees who fit this profile logically compare the current organisation with an alternative and choose the best option (Maertz and Campion, 2004).

- *Preplanned Quitters* – where the decision to quit has been made well in advance. Employees who fit this profile have decided beforehand when they would quit, perhaps following an event such as relocation. This is case there is no negative feeling that lead to the decision (Maertz and Campion, 2004).

- *Conditional Quitters* – where the decision to quit is made as a result of a shock or incident that has occurred. Employees who fit this profile may consider quitting as a result of the organisation not meeting certain criteria, or for a more satisfying job (Maertz and Campion, 2004).

2.7.   PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER: BUILDING A CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Against the background of the foregoing section, the goal of the current section is to conceptually link all the variables in a single model. As the theories suggest, the existence of each variable (organisational justice and organisational support) will have a positive effect on organisational commitment which in turn has a positive effect on OCB. However, through further research, various authors suggest that the lack of justice my lead to intention to quit (Basar & Sigri, 2015; Sökmen & Ekmekçioğlu, 2016). This notion can be explained by the following theories.

Equity theory (Adams, 1965) explains that employee's base fairness or equity on their own input-output ratio compared to the ratios of a fellow employee in a similar position. The employee perceives that inequality exists where the ratios differ and the employee's ratio is either greater or lower than that compared to the fellow employee. The theory further suggests that in an attempt to remove the inequality the employee may either:

- increase their input or decrease their output to accommodate for a greater ratio, or
- decrease their input or increase the output to accommodate for a lower ratio.

However, in situations where these actions do not create a sense of equality, the employee may wish to terminate the relationship and leave the organisation.

As previously mentioned, social exchange and reciprocity, works on the notion that when an organisation acts favourably toward the employee, that employee feels obligated to do the same (Satardien, 2014). As the theory suggests, the exchange stems from a feeling of obligation in response to support from the organisation. However, when the organisation does not seem to be supportive, the feeling of obligation ceases to exist, and the employee may start to withdraw and want to leave the organisation (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Satardien, 2014).

Numerous authors have suggested that intention to quit may be affected by the variables in the foregoing sections. Various authors have identified a significantly negative relationship between attributes of organisational justice and intention to quit, specifically distributive and interpersonal justice (Basar & Sigri, 2015 Sökmen & Ekmekçioğlu, 2016). In other words, if

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employees experience justice in the workplace they will be less inclined to leave the organisation.

Based on the above the following hypotheses are proposed:

H10: Distributive justice is negatively related to intention to quit.

H11: Interactional justice is negatively related to intention to quit.

Further research has identified that perceived organisational support is negatively related to intention to quit (Erat, Erdil & Kitapchi, 2012; Kahumuza & Schlechter, 2008). This finding can be explained in part by the positive social exchanges that employees experience when they are supported by their organisations. This in turn will foster greater emotional attachment to the organisation.

Based on the above the following hypothesis is formulated:

H12: Perceived organisational support is negatively related to intention to quit.

In addition to attributes of justice and perceived organisational support, researchers have suggested that elements of organisational commitment are also negatively related to intention to quit (Basak et al., 2013; Limyothin & Trichun, 2012; Rizwan, et al., 2014), specifically normative and affective commitment, while no relationship exists with continuance commitment.

Based on the literature, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H13: Normative commitment is negatively related to intention to quit.

H14: Affective commitment is negatively related to intention to quit.
The hypotheses as derived above, forms the integrated theoretical model which becomes the basis of the current study. The hypotheses and theoretical model can be summarised in diagram 2.1 on page 26.

Figure 2.1 Theoretical Model 1

KEY
DJ-Distributive Justice   PJ-Procedural Justice
IJ-Interactional Justice   POS-Perceived Organisational Support
NC-Normative Commitment   AC-Affective Commitment
CC-Continuance Commitment   ITQ-Intention To Quit
OCB-Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
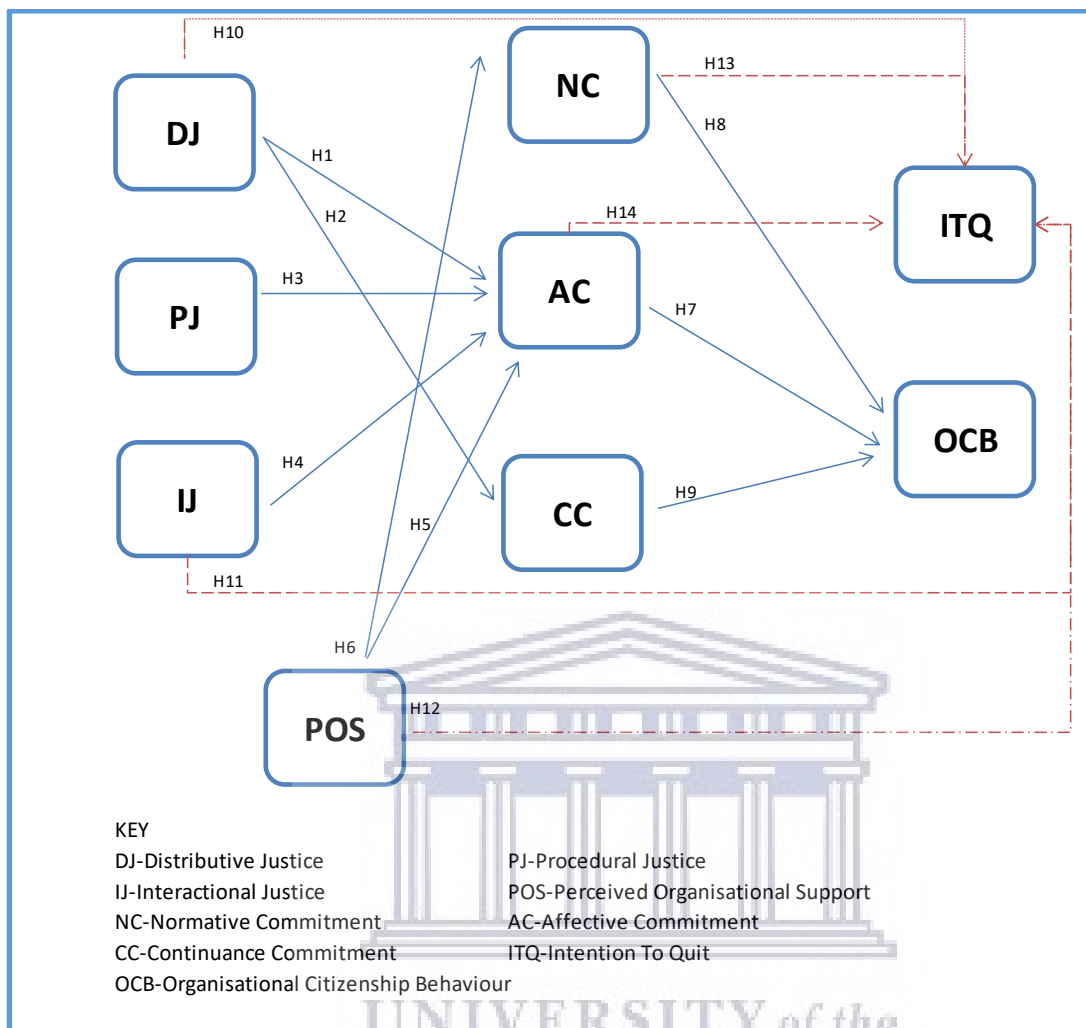
2.8. CONCLUSION

This chapter aimed to identify and unpack the various drivers of organisational commitment as well as its impact on the organisation. Various studies and literature were consulted in order to describe these drivers and understand the theories that shape the drivers, and the impact it could have on organisational commitment and the outcome thereof.

In specifying various bivariate relationships a conceptual model in the form of a nomological network was developed. The framework above depicts the link between each of the variables, as per the hypotheses, where solid lines show positive links and dashed lines show negative links.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 aimed to highlight the need for employee retention in organisations, especially in that of leather and textile manufacturing companies. Organisational commitment was evaluated according to theories of organisational justice, perceived organisational support, organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to quit. This chapter also described the background of the study and outlined the primary research objective.

In chapter 2 the researcher considered relevant literature and developed a theoretical model describing the proposed linkages between variables of organisational commitment, organisational justice, perceived organisational support, organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to quit. The proposed relationships were then expressed as hypotheses to be tested.

The current chapter will explain the research framework and design that was used to operationalise the measures used in the proposed theoretical model, as well as the statistical techniques that were used to examine the relationships between the variables. The goal of the chapter is to explain the research design that was used to empirically test the proposed relationships in the theoretical model. In addition, the chapter will highlight the sample, population, measuring instruments as well as their psychometric properties, and the statistical methods used for analysis of the data.

3.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Sekaran (2003) defines a problem statement as a clear and precise statement of a question or topic that is to be investigated with the aim of finding a solution to that particular statement.

This study aims to answer the problem statement through the following research question:

What are the main personal and contextual factors that shape organisational commitment in the textile and fashion apparel industry?

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3.3.   RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Sekaran and Bougie (2016) identify a research objective as the specific aim of the study which is derived from the problem statement. It may also be referred to as the primary goal that the researcher aims to achieve through the study (Sekaran, 2001).

The main objective of this study is to develop a conceptual model that explains the relationships of variables and how they impact on organisational commitment. The aim is the empirical validation of the complex and dynamic linkages between the variables that shape organisational commitment in the workplace.

The research question is answered by means of theorising what has culminated in a number of specific hypotheses that make up an integrated theoretical model.

The integrated conceptual model is graphically depicted in figure 3.1.
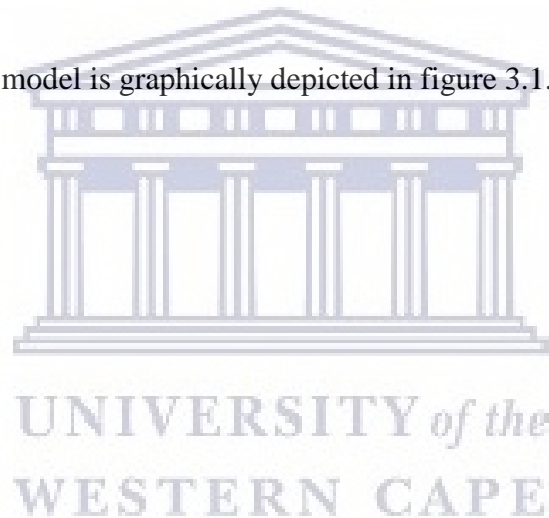
Figure 3.1 Theoretical Model 2
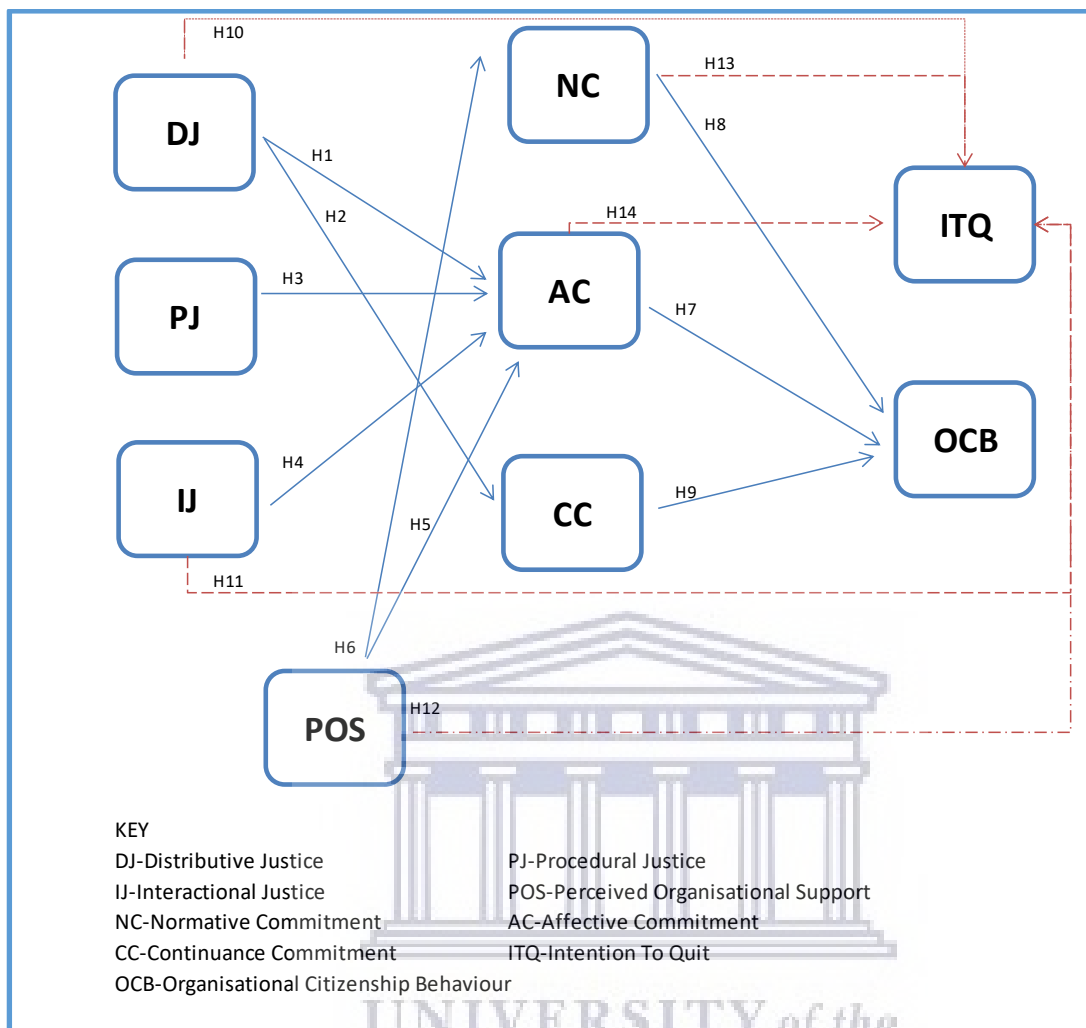
The integrated conceptual model can be broken down into 14 specific hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Distributive justice is positively related to affective commitment

Hypothesis 2: Distributive justice is positively related to continuance commitment

Hypothesis 3: Procedural justice is positively related to affective commitment

Hypothesis 4: Interactional justice is positively related to affective commitment

Hypothesis 5: Perceived organisation support is positively related to affective commitment

Hypothesis 6: Perceived organisation support is positively related to normative commitment

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Hypothesis 7: Affective commitment is positively related to OCB-O

Hypothesis 8: Normative commitment is positively related to OCB-O

Hypothesis 9: Continuance commitment is positively related to OCB-O

Hypothesis 10: Distributive justice is negatively related to intention to quit.

Hypothesis 11: Interactional justice is negatively related to intention to quit.

Hypothesis 12: Perceived organisational support is negatively related to intention to quit.

Hypothesis 13: Normative commitment is negatively related to intention to quit.

Hypothesis 14: Affective commitment is negatively related to intention to quit.

3.4. RESEARCH DESIGN

The strategy used to provide empirical verification of hypotheses is known as the research design (Kerlinger, 1973; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The ability of the research design to maximise systematic variance, minimise error variance, and control extraneous variance (Kerlinger, 1973; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000) determines the degree of confidence with which the researcher can make claims regarding the influence of exogenous variables on the endogenous variables. When the researcher is unable to manipulate the variables under consideration, they are forced to examine them as they exist naturally. This type of research design is typically referred to as a correlational design (Simon & Goes, 2011; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). More specifically, the design can be regarded as an *ex post facto* research design. Ontologically the study can be described as falling in the positivistic approach.

An *ex post facto* correlational research design was used for the current study. The *ex post facto* term literally translates to 'from after the fact' (Simon & Goes, 2011). It is used to identify that the research has been conducted after the phenomenon of interest has occurred naturally, where the main objective is to determine whether relationships exist between variables, and the regression equation thereof, in order to make predictions to a population. This type of research design is generally used when the researcher is unable to manipulate the

characteristics of research participants, either because it is impractical or unethical. Simon and Goes (2013) and Sharma (2019) suggest that, with this type of research, the researcher studies the phenomenon of interest (independent variables) in retrospect for their possible relationship to, and effects on the dependent variables.

Some of the advantages of *ex post facto* as suggested by Cohen, Manion and Morison (2000): high external validity; usefulness when rigorous experimentation is not viable or feasible; the sense of direction it offers; provision of a source of hypotheses to be tested; usefulness in examining relationships between variables.

However, various limitations have also been identified: generalisations are limited as the sample cannot be considered random; it is impossible to disconfirm a hypothesis; conclusions may be based on too limited a sample; the researcher cannot be certain whether the causal factor has been included or even identified. Considering these factors, one should take caution when making conclusions.

For the purpose of this study a positivistic approach will be followed, using a quantitative research design.

According to Hudson and Ozanne (1988) the positivistic researcher makes use of objectivity and uses a controlled and structured approach when conducting research; in so doing, a clear research topic is identified. Positivism focuses on objective knowledge with a clear distinction between fact and judgement. This approach is governed by hypotheses and theories which can be statistically and mathematically tested (Carson, Gilmore, Perry & Gronhaug (2001).

Pham (2018) suggests that positivism is advantageous in that it generally has high reliability and external validity and can be generalised to a large scale.

According to de Vos, Strydom, Fouché, and Delport (2005) quantitative research designs make use of numbers and statistical procedures to determine whether the proposed relationships in a theoretical model are plausible. One of the benefits of this approach is its simplicity - large amounts of data can be gathered in a short amount of time (Sekaran, 2001; Sekaran & Bougie 2016).

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Data will be gathered through the use of standardised instruments in the form of questionnaires. The questionnaire will include a letter which outlines the aims and objectives of the study. The letter will highlight the rights of the participant as well as the responsibility of the researcher.

3.5. POPULATION AND SAMPLE

3.5.1. Population

Sekaran (2001) identifies that a population is referred to as a whole group of people of interest that the researcher aims to investigate for the purpose of the research. The population in the current study consisted of managers and administrative staff in the footwear, apparel and textile sectors in South Africa. However, since it was too expensive and time-consuming to target the entire population, the researcher focused on a smaller sample within one manufacturing organisation in the textile industry. Thus, the sample can be regarded as a subset of the entire research population. Since the researcher did not have access to the entire research population, the sample cannot be regarded as a representative sample (Sekaran 2003). Instead, the study made use of a convenience sampling strategy.

A convenience sample refers to a group of the population that is readily available to partake in a study, implying that the researcher has easy access to participants (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Advantages of this method include the ease with which the researcher can gather participants in a short period of time, and the low cost involved. However, since convenience sampling may not select participants that strictly mirror the population from which it is drawn, it is not possible to generalise findings from this study to the broader population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

3.5.2. Sample

Sekaran (2003) defines a sample as a subset of the target population. The sample targeted for the purpose of this study included all permanently employed staff at one of the leading footwear manufacturers in the Cape Town area. The organisation employs over 1000 people who comprise admin, managerial, professional and blue-collar factory employees.

For the purpose of this study, the white-collar admin and managerial staff will be targeted, ranging from junior management to top management. The researcher aimed to gather 200-300 completed questionnaires through a non-probability convenience sample approach using online questionnaires. In total 198 people participants completed surveys which were collected and used for analysis purposes.

The sample demographics are noted in table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1 Demographic Properties

Sample Characteristic		Frequency	Percentage
Age	20-30	70	35
	31-40	54	27
	41-50	32	16
	51-60	35	18
	60 +	7	4
		198	100
Gender	Male	83	42
	Female	115	58
		198	100
Nationality	South African	193	97,5
	Missing	5	2,5
		198	100
Length of Service	0-4 years	96	49
	5-10 years	44	22
	11-15 years	15	8
	16-20 years	8	4
	20 +	35	18
		198	100
Race	African	19	10
	Coloured	95	48
	White	42	21

	Indian	39	20
	Other	3	2
		198	100
Home Language	Afrikaans	63	32
	English	119	60
	Xhosa	11	6
	Zulu	3	2
	Other	2	1
		198	100
Highest Qualification	Grade 12	60	30
	Certificate/Diploma	60	30
	Degree	33	17
	Honours	25	13
	Masters	5	3
	Doctorate	0	0
	Other	15	8
		198	100
Marital Status	Single	81	41
	Married	100	51
	Divorced	16	8
	Widowed	1	1
		198	100

The overall demographic representation of the sample consisted of 83 males (42%) and 115 females (58%), thus more females completed the survey. The average age was between 20 – 30 years (35%) followed by 31 – 40 years (27%) making up the majority of the sample. The ethnicity distribution was African (10%), Coloured (48%), White (21%), Indian (20%) and Other (2%) indicating that the majority of the respondents were Coloured followed by White and Indian. Most of the respondents reported that they had achieved at least Grade 12 (30%) or a national diploma/certificate (30%). Approximately 17% of the respondents had degrees and 16% a post-graduate qualification. In terms of tenure, approximately 49% of the

respondents have worked for the company four years or fewer, and 22% between 5 and 10 years. Marital status among participants was presented as single (41%), married (51%), divorced (8%) and widowed (1%), indicating that the majority of participants were married. Home language amongst participants was distributed as Afrikaans (32%), English (60%), Xhosa (6%), Zulu (2%) and Other (1%).

3.5.3. Sampling Procedure

The current study made use of a convenience sampling approach which according to Sekaran (2003) means that elements of the population do not have any probability of being included in the sample. For this, results obtained using a non-probability sampling approach cannot be generalised to the broader sample of respondents. Sekaran (2003) further explains that non-probability sampling may be a quick and cost-effective way to gather data and useful information about a population.

An advantage of non-probability sampling is that it is cost and time effective compared with probability sampling. Non-probability sampling is considered a feasible alternative when probability sampling is impractical or impossible to conduct. A disadvantage of non-probability sampling is lack of generalisability to the larger population since the entire population is not equally represented.

3.6. DATA COLLECTION

The data required for this study has been gathered using various questionnaires or surveys to operationalise the latent variables used in the current study. All the instruments used were freely available for research purposes; however, the researcher did attempt to contact the authors for permission to use them. Two of the authors have responded and given their permission to make use of the instruments.

A questionnaire can be defined as a set of pre-formulated written questions to which respondents record their answers within defined alternatives. This can be administered personally or electronically.

Different questionnaires were combined into a single survey that was sent out to the sample population. Participants were invited to partake in the survey via email and responses were

recorded electronically via Google forms. The email contained an information sheet that explained the objectives of the study and a link to the survey. Participants had to provide consent for the study before they could proceed to the survey.

3.7. ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

During the research process, the following ethical standards were considered, which was also highlighted in the information sheet issued to the participants of the study.

- Participation was voluntary. The procedure of the study was explained and informed consent was obtained before the respondent completed the questionnaire.
- No harm was anticipated to befall any respondent. Respondents were not coerced to complete the survey, and they could withdraw from the study at any point.
- Responses to the survey were kept anonymous and confidential, the researcher made use of an offsite server for data storage. The data was password protected, and only the lead researcher had access to the original data.

By following the above mentioned ethical guidelines during the data collection procedure, the researcher was confident that no harm would befall the respondents. However, in the unlikelihood that a respondent may have needed psychological support, the primary supervisor in the study is a registered psychologist and was available to provide support to any of the participants.

3.8. MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

3.8.1. Biographical questionnaire

A simple questionnaire was used to acquire demographic information from the sample. Participants were requested to provide basic biographic information with regard to their gender, age, home language and marital status.

This is used to describe basic characteristics of the sample and some of the demographic variables as control variables for the purposes of statistical analyses.

3.8.2. Organisation Commitment

Organisational commitment was measured using the organisational commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1991). This scale measures three dimensions of commitment, using three well validated subscales, namely the affective commitment scale, the normative commitment scale and the continuance commitment scale (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

The original scale comprised a total of 24 items and each subscale consisted of 8 items. The revised scale, on the other hand, is a shortened version which consists of 6 items in each subscale totalling 18 items. For the purpose of this study the revised version was used. Studies have shown this measure to have internal reliability with a coefficient alpha ranging between 0.82 and 0.91 (Lodewyk, 2011; Goulet & Frank, 2002).

In addition, a study conducted by Bagraim (2003) among the Actuarial Society of South Africa (ASSA) within the life assurance industry, found coefficient alphas for each subscale of organisational commitment where affective commitment was found at 0.79, normative commitment at 0.82 and continuance commitment at 0.85. Similar results were found by Mguqulwa (2008) who conducted a study within the agricultural sector in South Africa, where the overall reliability for the scale yielded a coefficient alpha of 0.77.

Discriminate validity for this measure was found by Meyer and Allen (1991) which was supported by South African studies of Karim and Noor (2006).

Typical items included in the measure were "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation", and "This organisation deserves my loyalty." Responses are measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 - strongly disagree, to 7 - strongly agree (Meyer & Allen, 2004; Meyer & Allen, 1991).

3.8.3. Perceived Organisational Justice

Perceived organisational support was measured using the 20-item organisational justice scale by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). This scale measures three dimensions of organisational justice namely, distributive justice consisting of 5 items, procedural justice consisting of 6 items and interactional justice consisting of 9 items. Research has shown the scale to have satisfactory levels of reliability and validity (Gürbüz & Mert, 2009; Al-Zu'bi, 2010, Niehoff & Moorman, 1993).

A study conducted by Bayarcelik and Afacan Findikli (2016) found coefficient alphas of 0.889 for distributive justice, 0.947 for procedural justice and 0.892 for interactional justice. A study conducted by van Vuuren, Dhurup and Joubert (2016) among the South African Police Service found Cronbach alpha coefficients ranging from 0.827 to 0.946, indicating high reliability.

Furthermore the authors found construct and predictive validity (van Vuuren et al., 2016). Typically, items included in the measure are "My work schedule is fair", and "I think that my level of pay is fair." Responses are measured on a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 - strongly disagree, to 5 - strongly agree (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993).

3.8.4. Perceived Organisational Support

Perceived organisational support was measured using the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support (SPOS) developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986). This survey measures perceived organisational support in terms of, but not limited to, satisfaction with the employee as a member of the organisation; their performance; possible future value; appreciation for extra effort made by the employee; consideration of their goals and opinions; fair pay; the degree to which the employee uses their talents; as well as the employee's perceived well-being (Eisenberger, et al., 1986). Based on this, revised and shortened 16- and 8-itemed versions were developed by the researchers. For the purpose of this study the shortened 8-item version will be used to avoid a lengthy instrument.

The survey displays high degrees of internal reliability and has demonstrated that the scale is unidimensional (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Worley, Fuqua & Hellman, 2009) showing a Cronbach alpha of 0.93 and item-total correlations ranging from 0.70 to 0.84.

A study conducted by Meintjes and Hofmeyr (2018) among sales representatives within the South African pharmaceuticals industry listed on the JSE found high degrees of reliability and validity, where the study yielded Cronbach alphas of 0.90. South African-based studies conducted by Mathumbu and Dodd (2013) as well as Smit, Stanz and Bussin (2015) found similar results with alphas ranging from 0.71 to 0.89, respectively.

Typically, items included in the measure are "My supervisors are proud that I am a part of this organisation", and "My company strongly considers my goals and values." Responses are measured on a 7-point Likert Scale ranging from 0 - strongly disagree, to 6 - strongly agree (Eisenbergeret al., 1986).

3.8.5. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

OCB was measured using Fox and Spector's Organisational Citizenship Behaviour- Checklist (OCB-C) which was developed in 2009 (Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema, & Kessler, 2012). The checklist measures OCB in terms of acts directed toward the organisation (OCB-O), which would benefit the organisation as well as co-workers (OCB-C) which would assist with work-related issues (Fox et al., 2012).

The original checklist consisted of 42 items designed to assess the frequency with which OCB is displayed in the workplace. A revised version was then developed containing 36 items, which was subsequently reduced to 20 items (Fox & Spector 2014). For the purpose of this study the shortened 20-item version has been used.

The checklist displays sufficient levels of reliability (Fox & Spector, 2014) with a Cronbach alpha of 0.938 (Narayanan & Nirmala 2017).

Mafini (2015) conducted a study among supply chain managers within the South African government and found the organisational citizenship behaviour checklist to have a high level of reliability, internal consistency, discriminate and convergent validity. The results show a Cronbach alpha of 0.873 and item loadings ranging from 0.677 to 0.831, thus indicating acceptable item-convergent validity. Discriminate validity was established by means of confirmatory factory analysis (Mafini, 2015).

Typically, items included in the checklist are "How often have you picked up a meal for others at work?", and "How often have you helped new employees get oriented to the job?" Responses are measured on a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 - never to 5- every day (Fox & Spector, 2014).

3.8.6. Intention to Quit

Intention to quit was measured using the Turnover Intention Scale as developed by Roodt (2004). The original 15-item scale was developed to measure an employee's intention to leave an organisation. The scale was revised to a shorter 6-item scale which will be used in the current study.

The scale is reported to have adequate degrees of reliability and validity (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). The study was conducted within the South African Information, Communications and Technology Sector, the results showing an alpha coefficient of 0.80 thus demonstrating internal consistency. Bothma and Roodt (2013) further reported both satisfactory criterion validity and differential validity, as the measure is able to identify actual turnover, as well as establish the difference between those who have left the organisation and those that stay.

Typical items included in this measure are "How often have you considered leaving your current job?", and "How often do you look forward to another day at work?" Responses are measured on a 5-point Likert scale using various ranges for each question: 1 - never to 5 - always; 1 - very satisfying to 5 - very dissatisfying; 1 - highly unlikely to 5 - highly likely.

3.9.   DATA ANALYSIS

For the purposes of this research, version 25 of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the data. Descriptive statistics were also used to test the sample-specific assumptions underlying multiple regression (multivariate normality, linearity, collinearity, and homoscedasticity of residuals). The following section discusses the treatment of missing values in the data.

3.9.1. Missing values and data preparation

Most researchers are faced with missing data in quantitative studies at some point, and this may occur for a number of reasons. Such reasons include participants refusing or forgetting to answer questions, files getting lost, data not recorded correctly, or issues with regards to the design of the study (Pigott, 2001).

Missing data may pose a threat to the outcome of research studies as it may drastically reduce the sample size. This may harm the confidence of intervals, as well as the statistical strength of the study, and may lead to bias in the results of the study (Pigott, 2001).

There are three main types of missing data: missing completely at random, missing at random and not missing at random, which will be explained.

Missing completely at random (MCAR) refers to unsystematic patterns of missing data; the probability of missing data for a specific variable is not linked to the variable itself (Pigott, 2001; Soley-Bori, 2013).

Missing at Random (MAR) occurs when the probability of missing data for a specific variable is not linked to the variable after controlling for other variables in the analysis (Soley-Bori, 2013); in other words, the rate of missingness for a certain variable is not dependent on the actual variable, but rather a secondary variable.

Not missing at random (MNAR) refers to missing data for a particular variable that is indeed influenced by that variable (Soley-Bori, 2013).

In order for research to remain meaningful and relevant, it becomes important for researchers to address the issue of missing values in an effective way. There are numerous methods available for addressing missing values; however, the effectiveness of the method is dependent on the degree of missingness. Some methods include deletion methods, single imputation methods and model-based methods.

Deletion methods include:

- Listwise deletion or complete case analysis. This occurs when cases with missing data are simply excluded from analysis (Soley- Bori, 2013; Enders, 2010; Pigott, 2001).
- Pairwise deletion or available case analysis, on the other hand, occurs when analysis takes place with all cases where the variable of interest is present (Enders, 2010; Pigott, 2001).

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Single imputation methods include:

- Mean/mode imputation occurs when missing values are replaced with the sample mean or mode value in order to complete the case (Soley- Bori, 2013; Enders, 2010; Pigott, 2001).

- Dummy variable adjustment: similar to mean/mode imputation method, the dummy variable method creates a missing value indicator, and replaces the missing value with a constant value (Enders, 2010).

- Regression imputation occurs when missing values are replaced with a predicted value based on a regression calculation (Soley-Bori, 2013; Enders, 2010).

Model-based methods include:

- Maximum likelihood estimation which makes use of the value that is most likely to be observed in the findings (Enders, 2010).

- Multiple imputation which involves replacing missing values with one or more acceptable values creating new data sets. An analysis is then run on the new datasets and pooled together to one estimate value (Soley-Bori, 2013; Enders, 2010).

For the purposes of this study, the pairwise deletion or available case analysis is used to address missing values in the current study, as the data showed few missing values. Advantages of this method include keeping as many cases as possible for analysis as well as using all the information possible with each analysis (Enders, 2010). The author could have opted for a more sophisticated method such as maximum likelihood estimation of missing values, but given the relatively low percentage of missing cases in the data (<5%), a more direct and simple approach was utilised that does not require sophisticated software.

3.9.2. Inferential statistics

The use of inferential statistics allows more accurate and relevant findings to be presented. For the current study, the following inferential statistical analyses were used:

- Item analysis
- EFA
- Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient
- Simple linear regression analysis

Another method that could have been used to test the proposed hypotheses is structural equation modelling (SEM). SEM is a regression-based analysis that offers various benefits when compared to traditional regression analysis, and is best suited for larger sample sizes (Civelek, 2018). This type of analysis requires extensive statistical knowledge and the use of specialised statistical software which is not readily available to the researcher. Based on this, SEM was not considered a viable alternative to test the conceptual model proposed in the current study.

3.9.3. Item Analysis

Sekaran and Bougie (2016) further explain that each of the items in a measure is examined to determine its ability to discriminate between items with high total scores and those with low scores. In simple terms, item analysis is used to determine whether items in an instrument belong together or not (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016), and ultimately determines which items, if any, should be excluded (Pallant, 2011). The primary metric that is used to assess the internal consistency of a set of items is Cronbach's coefficient alpha. It is important to consider the item-total correlation as well as the overall reliability, if a single item is to be deleted from the measure.

According to Nunnally (1978) and Anastasi and Urbina (1997) the minimum accepted level of internal consistency is dependent on the intended use of the test information, where higher coefficients are typically expected when the test information is intended to be used for selection decisions.

Nunnally (1978) states that item total correlations above 0.20 can be considered an acceptable agreement between measurement items. As a general rule, Cronbach alphas greater than 0.70 are considered acceptable for individual sub-scales comprising measures (Nunnally, 1978).

3.9.4. Exploratory Factory Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is used when determining the number of factors which influences variables, and which items cluster together (DeCoster, 1998 as cited in Yong & Pearce, 2013), or correlate highly with other variables. EFA allows the researcher to identify and remove items that do not cluster or correlate together, in doing so, leaving fewer, more meaningful variables (Field, 2009).

EFA is specifically important prior to conducting regression analyses since items are aggregated into factor scores before specifying regression models. It is only permissible and methodologically prudent to aggregate items into factor scores if they are proven to be unidimensional and internally consistent. Yong and Pearce (2013) argue that the relationships between variables will remain ambiguous if the measurement integrity (i.e. construct validity) of the observed measures is not established initially. For this reason, it was decided to conduct EFA with the maximum likelihood estimator and promax rotations on each of the measures included in the current study, prior to the regression analyses.

Prior to performing the EFA, the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed by means of the Keiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) index of sampling adequacy. Possible KMO index values range between 0 and 1, with 0.60 indicating minimum factorability (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Comrey and Lee's (1992) guidelines were utilised to evaluate the magnitude of EFA factor loadings using the following normative values:

- Loadings of 0.71 and above are considered excellent (50% overlapping variance)
- Loadings between 0.63 and 0.71 are considered very good (+ 40% overlapping variance)
- Loadings between 0.55 and 0.63 are considered good (+ 30% overlapping variance)
- Loadings between 0.45 and 0.55 are considered fair (+ 20% overlapping variance)
- Loadings between 0.32 and 0.45 are considered poor (+ 10% overlapping variance).

3.9.5. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient

Chee (2015) describes the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (*r*) as a measure of the linear relationship between two variables. It can have a value between -1 and 1. Sekaran (2003) and Sekaran and Bougie (2016) further suggest that *r* can be used to determine the strength, stability, direction, as well as the significance of the relationship between variables.

One of the advantages of this method is its simplicity in determining the association between two variables and the degree thereof (Chee, 2015). One of the disadvantages, however, is that this method is only able to test linear relationships (Chee, 2015).

It is important to note the actual strength of the relationship between two variables when making interpretations. This will assist in determining whether value is being added to the study. Cohen (1988) has theorised a guide for establishing the strength or size effect of variables in a relationship. The guide is summarised below.

Table 3.2 Effect size

Coefficient (*p*)	Size of effect
0.1	small
0.3	medium
0.5	large

The guideline by Cohen (1988) will be used to interpret the effect sizes of relationships proposed in the study. It is important to note that bi-variate correlations will also be used to test the assumption of linearity prior to conducting the regression analyses.

3.9.6. Simple Linear Regression Analysis

Linear regression analysis is a popular statistical method for establishing the significance of the relationship between variables, where the independent variable predicts the significance of the dependent variable (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014; Kumari & Yadav, 2018). Linear regression may be used to determine the actual strength of the relationship; it may also be used to analyse the degree of change in the independent variable in relation to the dependent variable (Schneider, Hommel & Blettner, 2010).

Regression analysis may be interpreted by means of:

- R^{2-} This refers to the goodness of fit of the regression or the percentage of variance in the dependent variable, explained by the variation in the independent variable (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).
- F test - This tests the relationship of variables or establishes the significance thereof by means of the F- ratio. Probability distribution is used to establish a critical value,

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which is then equated to the F-ratio. In order for the relationship to be valid, the F-ratio must be greater than the critical value (Kao & Green, 2008).

- Collinearity - This is used when multiple independent variables are regressed to a single dependent variable. The purpose of collinearity is to determine how to observe the effect as well as control the variables separately; in other words, it measures the strength of the relationship between the variables, and also controls the influence of one or more variables (Cowden, 2012).

- Standardised beta coefficient - This refers to the degree of change in the dependent variable for one unit of change in the independent variable (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

There are numerous forms of regression analysis models which are dependent on the type of the Y distribution. In order to specify the regression model, there are various assumptions which must be considered and met.

3.9.6.1.   Assumptions of Regression

Linearity

Regression can only accurately determine the relationship between dependent and independent variables if the relationships are linear in nature. Linearity describes the dependent variable as a linear function of the independent variable. If linearity is met, then for every value of the independent variable, the dependent variable must be normal in distribution and the difference between the distributions must be a continuous (Alexopoulos, 2010; Osbourne & Waters, 2002). If linearity is not achieved, it may result in an over- or under estimation of the analysis (Osbourne & Waters, 2002). The assumption of linearity in the current study will be tested through correlations.

Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity refers to an equal variance of errors across all levels of the independent variable and is central to linear regression models (Osbourne & Waters, 2002; Lani, 2013). The violation of homoscedasticity is referred to as heteroscedasticity (Lani, 2013). Homoscedasticity occurs when residuals are scattered around the horizontal line of the scatter plot providing a relevantly even distribution. With a heteroscedasticity plot, there is not an even distribution (Osbourne & Waters, 2002).

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Heteroscedasticity may lead to bias, misrepresentation and distortion of results, as well as the weakening of the overall analysis of the study, resulting in the possibility of a type 1 error (Lani, 2013; Osbourne & Waters, 2002). Homoscedasticity will be assessed through the visual inspection of a plot of the standardised residuals by the regression standardised predicted value. Preferably, residuals should be randomly scattered around zero (the horizontal line) in order to provide an equal distribution spread (Keith, 2006; Osborne & Waters, 2002).

Normality

Normality implies that variables are normally distributed, with a bell-shaped scatter plot (Gregory, 2018). When distributions are not normal, relationships may be distorted and result in inaccurate results, in terms of type 1 and type 2 errors (Osbourne & Waters, 2002).

Normality can be tested in various ways: visual inspection of data plots, skewness, and kurtosis (Osbourne & Waters, 2002). Skewness refers to a measure of asymmetry of the data distribution, where skewness describes which end of the distribution tail is longer and the direction thereof (von Hippel, 2010). According to Rose Spinks & Canhoto, (2015), a positive skewness value is rightly skewed, and a negative skewness is skewed to the left. The greater the absolute value, the greater the skewness will be; likewise, the higher the absolute value, the greater the kurtosis. This allows a simple criterion to be followed and applied. If either score is divided by its standard error and the result is greater than ±1.96, it suggests that the distribution is not normal (Rose et al., 2015). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test can also be used to test the normality of distribution scores.

Kurtosis is a measure of whether the distribution of a plot is heavy-tailed or light- tailed (Rose et al., 2015). Normality can be achieved through the removal of outliers as well as transformations.

Collinearity

Linear regression assumes that there is no multicollinearity in the data and variables do not overlap (Gregory, 2018). Multicollinearity occurs when the independent variables correlated too highly with one another (Gregory, 2018).

If the assumption is not fulfilled, autocorrelation takes place, which may lead to inaccurate results and an increase in errors (Gregory, 2018).

3.10. CONCLUSION

This chapter focused on the research design and strategy that was used to operationalise the substantive research hypotheses. In addition, the sampling approach and data collection procedure was discussed, as well as the impact of the sampling approach on the generalisability of the results obtained through the statistical analyses.

Each of the measures used in the study was discussed by making specific reference to the reliability and validity of the measures when used in previous studies. Finally, the inferential and descriptive statistical techniques that will be used in the study were discussed in detail.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1.   INTRODUCTION

The conceptual model was formulated in Chapter 2, and the method used to validate the linkages in the model empirically was discussed in Chapter 3. The purpose of Chapter 4 is to report on the findings of the statistical analyses discussed in Chapter 3. The variables discussed, namely justice, commitment, perceived organisational support, organisational citizenship behaviour, and intention to quit, were subjected to exploratory factor analysis and item analysis. The goal of the item analysis and factor analysis was to establish the construct validity and reliability of the measures prior to including them in the multiple regression model. The primary reason is that the proposed linkages between latent variables will remain ambiguous if the construct validity of the variables entered into the regression model is not initially established (Westen & Rosenthal, 2003). Furthermore, the proposed hypotheses conceptualised in Chapter 2 are empirically validated in this chapter using the research design and strategy discussed in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 fundamentally focuses on reporting the results of the statistical analyses.

The approach used for managing missing values is initially reviewed, followed by a discussion of the descriptive statistics. Thereafter, the reliability and dimensionality of the measures included in the conceptual model are discussed. Finally, the results of the multiple regression analysis are discussed in relation to the proposed hypotheses that constitute the conceptual model.

4.2.   MISSING VALUES

When dealing with missing values in a data set, it is important to consider the approach that will be used carefully in order to minimise the risk of introducing bias into the data set (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). In total 198 respondents completed the questionnaire. Screening of the data suggested minimal missing values and most of the missing values stemmed from the biographical portion of the questionnaire: 5 cases where respondents did not indicate their nationality correctly, and 3 cases where respondents did not indicate their race correctly. For example, one respondent had indicated a religion instead of race.

Due to the low number of missing values, there was not a significant impact on the results, and for this reason all available cases were used for data analyses. According to Cheema (2014) and Bennett (2001), when the percentage of missing data is greater than 10%, analyses of the data may be biased. However, when the percentage of missing values is small (< 10%), the impact on the statistical findings can be considered inconsequential. For this reason, it was decided to deal with missingness in the data through pairwise deletion of cases. This method makes use of the largest set of accessible data cases for approximating the restriction of interest and is often used for the computation of relevant statistical tests (Bennet, 2001). Thus, if the variables to be used in the analyses are available for a certain case but other variables are missing for the specific case, the whole case will not be omitted from the analysis.

4.3. UNIDIMENSIONALITY

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted in order to verify unidimensionality of each factor or variable, in other words to discover the number of factors influencing variables, and analyse which variables 'go together' (Yong & Pearce, 2013).

Restricted maximum likelihood EFA extraction with promax rotation was performed on the various scales and subscales.

Before conducting EFA to determine unidimensionality, the measures had to be investigated. For data to be conducive to factor analysis, it needs to meet 3 requirements: (i) inter-item correlations that are higher than .30, statistically significant ($p < .05$); (ii) a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy that approaches unity (at least >.60); (iii) a Bartlett's test of sphericity that is significant ($p < .05$), resulting in the rejection of the hypothesis of identity matrix (Pallant, 2011). If the data meets these requirements, the data is suitable for factor analysis.

Furthermore, the Eigenvalue-greater-than-one rule was applied to determine which distinct factors should be retained. Factor loadings greater than 0.5, were considered to be acceptable, highlighting that the items mainly reflect the latent dimension under consideration. Negatively worded items were reversed prior to conducting the factor analysis.

4.3.1. Unidimensionality on affective commitment

A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of 0.809 was reported (> 0.60), and a significant *p*-value for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) when subjecting the items making up the affective commitment scale to the restricted EFA. Three items in the scale were reverse scored due to negative wording, namely items 12, 13 and 14.

The first round of EFA analysis resulted in two Eigen-values greater than one, where items loaded on two factors instead of one, as shown in Table 4.1. Upon further analysis of the rotated pattern matrix, it was determined that all reverse items had loaded together on factor two, explaining roughly 51% of the total common variance, while all non-reverse items had loaded together on another factor, explaining 13% of the variance. Brown (2006) noted that EFA has the potential to provide misleading results when it comes to the factor analyses of reversed items. The technique is specifically prone to reflecting additional factors in questionnaires consisting of a mixture of positively and negatively worded items (Brown, 2006). Thus, the differential covariance among items is not based on the influence of distinct substantively important latent dimensions, but is rather due to statistical artefacts associated with response styles (Marsh, 1996).

Table 4.1 Unidimensionality analysis on affective commitment

Sub-scale	Number of Items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Affirmative Commitment subscale	6	0,809	1 2	51.20 64.45

Since there was no theoretical rationale for extracting two factors, it was decided to subject all the items to a restricted factor analysis forcing all items on a single factor. This resulted in one factor explaining 48% of the variance. Most of the items loaded strongly on a single factor. For this reason, one can regard the affective commitment scale as unidimensional. The results of the restricted one-factor solution are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Unidimensionality analysis on affective commitment

Sub-scale	Number of Items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Affirmative Commitment subscale	6	0,809	1	48.10

All the items loaded strongly on a single factor with factor loadings ranging from 0.466 to 0.817 as depicted in table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3 Factor matrix for affective commitment

R_I1_13 I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation	0.817
R_I1_12 I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organisation	0.794
R_I1_14 I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organisation	0.788
I1_10 I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation	0.622
I1_15 This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	0.603
I1_11 I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	0.466

4.3.2. Unidimensionality of Continuance Commitment

A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of 0.687 was achieved (> 0.60) and a significant *p*-value for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) was reported when subjecting the items making up the continuance commitment scale to restricted EFA. The first round of EFA analysis resulted in two Eigen-values greater than one, and items loaded on two factors instead of one, as shown in Table 4.4. Upon further examination of the rotated pattern matrix, it was found that three items loaded on the first factor, explained 27% of the common variance, while four items loaded together one the second factor, explained 20%. The Eigenvalues and associated common variance are summarized in Table 4.4.

When looking at the individual items that make up the measure, item 17 was removed from the measure due to an abnormally high communality value (0.999) and item 20 was removed due to a very low communality value (0.062). Communality values reflect the proportion of true variance in the item which can be attributed to the latent variable under consideration (Yong & Pearce, 2013). After these two items were removed, the remaining items were subjected to a second round of EFA.

Table 4.4 Unidimensionality analysis on continuance commitment

Sub-scale	Number of Items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Continuance Commitment subscale	6	0,687	1 2	27.672 48.202

After removing the two items, the resulting EFA indicated that all items loading on a single Eigen-value which explains 39% of the common variance, shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Unidimensionality analysis on continuance commitment

Sub-scale	Number of Items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Continuance Commitment subscale	4	0,658	1	39.736

Based on this analysis, one can consider the revised scale to be unidimensional with factor loadings ranging between 0.376 and 0.900, highlighted in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Factor matrix for continuance commitment

I2_19 I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation	0.900
12_21 One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives	0.670
I2_18 Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now	0.433
I2_16 Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire	0.376

4.3.3. Unidimensionality of Normative Commitment

A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of 0.834 (> 0.60) and a significant *p*-value for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) were reported when subjecting the items making up the normative commitment scale to restricted EFA. Item 22 was reverse scored due to the negatively worded statement.

The EFA results indicated a single Eigenvalue greater than one explaining roughly 52% of the common variance. The results are summarised in Table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7 Unidimensionality analysis on normative commitment

Sub-scale	Number of Items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Normative Commitment subscale	6	0,834	1	52.046

As a result, the normative commitment scale can be considered to be unidimensional. All the items loaded strongly on a single factor with factor loadings ranging between 0.493 and 0.815 shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Factor matrix for normative commitment

I3_26 I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	0.815
I3_25 This organisation deserves my loyalty	0.785
I3_24 I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now	0.759
I3_27 I owe a great deal to my organisation	0.732
I3_23 Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now	0.699
R_I3_22 I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer	0.493

4.3.4. Unidimensionality of Organisational Distributive Justice

A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of 0.794 (> 0.60) and a significant *p*-value for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) were reported when subjecting the items making up the distributive justice scale to EFA. No items were reverse scored.

The results in Table 4.9 suggest that a single factor was extracted explaining roughly 60% of the total common variance.

Table 4.9 Unidimensionality analysis on distributive justice

Sub-scale	Number of Items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Distributive Justice subscale	5	0,794	1	59.928

Furthermore, the scree plot indicated a single node above the elbow, and factor loadings ranged between 0.652 and 0.891, as shown in Table 4.10 For this reason one can consider the organisational distributive justice scale as unidimensional.

Table 4.10 Factor matrix for distributive justice

I4_30 I consider my workload to be quite fair	0.891
I4_32 I feel that my job responsibilities are fair	0.874
I4_28 My work schedule is fair	0.749
I4_31 Overall the rewards I receive are quite fair	0.673
I4_29 I think that my level of pay is fair	0.652

4.3.5. Unidimensionality of Organisational Procedural Justice

A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of 0.616 (> 0.60) and a significant *p*-value for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) were reported when subjecting the items making up the procedural justice scale to restricted EFA. Item 33 was the only reversed item in the scale.

The initial analysis suggests that only one factor was responsible for the inter-correlations among the items in the scale as shown below. However, the communality value for item 33 was very low (0.028) suggesting that the item reflects low levels of common variances that are attributed to underlying latent factor. For this reason, it was decided to delete this item from the scale.

Table 4.11 Unidimensionality analysis on procedural justice

Sub-scale	Number of Items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Procedural Justice subscale	6	0,820	1	53.149

The revised scale was subjected to restricted EFA and the analysis suggested a single factor is responsible for the inter-correlations among items, explaining roughly 63% of the total common variance. Thus, after the deletion of the problematic item the common variance

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improved by approximately 10%. Results of the EFA analyses are summarised in Table 4.12 below.

Table 4.12 Unidimensionality analysis on procedural justice

Sub-scale	Number of Items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Procedural Justice subscale	6	0,818	1	63.256

Furthermore, the scree plot indicated a single node above the elbow, and factor loadings ranged between 0.612 and 0.893, depicted in the table below. Based on the foregoing analysis, the procedural justice scale can be regarded as unidimensional.

Table 4.13 Factor matrix for procedural justice

I5_35 To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information	0.893
I5_34 My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made	0.886
I5_36 My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees	0.826
I5_37 All job decisions are applied consistently to all affected employees	0.723
I5_38 Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by their managers	0.612

4.3.6. Unidimensionality of Interactional Justice

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of 0.940 (> 0.60) and a significant p-value for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) were reported when subjecting

the items making up the interaction justice scale to EFA. No items were reverse scored in the sub-scale.

The EFA analysis indicated that a single factor is responsible for the inter-correlations among the items, explaining roughly 82% of the total common variance. Results of the EFA are reported in Table 4.14 below

Table 4.14 Unidimensionality analysis on interactional justice

Sub-scale	Number of Items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Interactional Justice subscale	9	0,940	1	82.345

Furthermore, the scree plot indicated a single node above the elbow, and factor loadings ranged between 0.834 and 0.942, highlighted in the table below. Based on the foregoing analyses, the interactional justice scale can be regarded as unidimensional.

Table 4.15 Factor matrix for interactional justice

I6_46 When making decisions about my job, the manager offers explanations that make sense to me	0.942
I6_47 My manager explains very clearly any decisions made about my job	0.919
I6_43 When decisions are made about my job, the manager shows concern for my rights as an employee	0.919
I6_42 When decisions are made about my job, the manager deals with me in a truthful manner	0.918
I6_45 The manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job	0.917
I6_40 When decisions are made about my job, the manager treats me with	0.908

respect and dignity	
I6_39 When decisions are made about my job, the manager treats me with kindness and consideration	0.907
I6_44 Concerning decisions made about my job, the manager discusses with me the implications of the decisions	0.899
I6_41When decisions are made about my job, the manager is sensitive to my personal needs	0.834

4.3.7. Unidimensionality of Organisational Support Scale

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of 0.899 (> 0.60) and a significant p-value for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) were reported when subjecting the items constituting the organisational support scale to EFA. Four items were reverse scored in the scale, namely items 49, 50, 52, and 54.

Results from the restricted EFA suggest that a single factor is responsible for the inter-correlations between the items on the scale. In total a single factor is responsible for approximately 55% of the total common variance. Results of the EFA are reported in Table 4.16 below.

Table 4.16 Unidimensionality analysis on perceived organisational support

Sub-scale	Number of Items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Perceived Organisational Support	8	0,899	1	55.879

Furthermore, the scree plot indicated a single node above the elbow, and factor loadings ranged between 0.634 and 0.866, as shown in Table 4.17. Based on the foregoing analyses, the organisational support scale can be regarded as unidimensional.

Table 4.17 Factor matrix for perceived organisational support

I7_55 The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work	0.866
I7_48 The organisation values my contribution to its well-being	0.837
I7_51 The organisation really cares about my well-being	0.775
I7_53 The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work	0.769
R_I7_54 The organisation shows very little concern for me	0.697
R_I7_50 The organisation would ignore any complaint from me	0.692
R_I7_52 Even if I did the best job possible, the organisation would fail to notice	0.679
R_I7_49 The organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me	0.634

4.3.8. Unidimensionality on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of 0.899 (> 0.60) and a significant *p*-value for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) were reported when subjecting the items making up the organisational citizenship behaviour scale to EFA. No items in the scale were reverse scored.

A single Eigenvalue greater that one was extracted explaining roughly 42% of the total common variance. The results of the restricted EFA results are summarised in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18 Unidimensionality analysis on organisational citizenship behaviour-O

Sub-scale	Number of Items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
OCB-O	6	0,758	1	42.710

Furthermore, the scree plot indicated a single node above the elbow, and factor loadings as seen below ranged between 0.452 and 0.873. Based on the foregoing analyses, the organisational citizenship behaviour scale can be regarded as unidimensional.

Table 4.19 Factor matrix for OCB-O

I8_64 Offered suggestions for improving the work environment	0.873
I8_63 Offered suggestions to improve how work is done	0.852
I8_59 Helped new employees get oriented to the job	0.602
I8_68 Volunteered for extra work assignments	0.543
I8_70 Said good things about your employer in front of others	0.462
I8_71 Gave up meal and other breaks to complete work	0.452

4.3.9. Unidimensionality of Intention to Quit Scale

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of 0.864 and (> 0.60) and a significant p-value for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) were reported when subjecting the items making up the intention to quit scale to restricted EFA. No items were reversed in this subscale.

The unrestricted EFA analysis indicated a single factor is responsible for the inter-correlations between the items. The single factor explained roughly 51% of the total common variance. The results from the restricted EFA analyses are summarised in Table 4.20 below.

Table 4.20 Unidimensionality analysis on intention to quit

Sub-scale	Number of Items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Intention to Quit	6	0,864	1	51.760

Furthermore, the scree plot indicated a single node above the elbow, and factor loadings ranged between 0.584 and 0.926, as depicted in Table 4.21 below. Based on the foregoing analyses, the organisational citizenship behaviour scale can be regarded as unidimensional.

Table 4.21 Factor matrix for intention to quit

I9_76 How often have you considered leaving your job?	0.926
I9_79 How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	0.800
I9_80 How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?	0.705
I9_77 How satisfying is your job in fulfilling your personal need?	0.643
R_I9_81 How often do you look forward to another day at work?	0.597
I9_78 How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	0.584

4.3.10. Synopsis of the EFA analyses

The results from the EFA analyses suggested that most scales were unidimensional after making some revisions to the scales. The continuance commitment scale was particularly problematic and several poor items had to be deleted to arrive at an acceptable factor structure. The rest of the measures reported simple factor structures explaining large proportions of common variance. Most of the factor loadings were robust and therefore it was decided not to delete any additional items from the revised scales. The foregoing results suggest that the measures are unidimensional and for this reason it is permissible to conduct internal consistency reliability on the scales.

4.4.   ITEM ANALYSIS –RELIABILITY

4.4.1. Reliability of Affective Commitment

The affective commitment subscale consisted of 6 items. Internal consistency was assessed via Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The analysis displayed a Cronbach alpha of 0.849, which is higher than the normally accepted value of 0.7 (Nunally and Bernstein, 1994, Sekaran, 2001). When considering the item total correlations and Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted, none of the items indicated an increased overall Cronbach alpha value upon deletion. This indicates that all items positively contribute to the Cronbach alpha. For this reason none of the items

were considered for deletion. A summary of the item level statistics is reported in Table 4.22 below.

Table 4.22 Reliability Analysis results on the Affective Commitment

Affective Commitment (Cronbach alpha =0.849)				
Item	**Description**	**Corrected Item-total correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha per sub-scale**	**Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted**
I1_10	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation	0.667	0.849	0.817
I1_11	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	0.505	0.849	0.847
R_I1_12	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organisation	0.642	0.849	0.821
R_I1_13	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation	0.680	0.849	0.814
R_I1_14	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organisation	0.659	0.849	0.818
I1_15	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	0.634	0.849	0.823

4.4.2. Reliability of Continuance Commitment

The revised continuance commitment scale reported a Cronbach alpha value of 0.682. This is below the generally accepted level of 0.70 which is indicative of low internal consistency. Referring to the Table 4.23, the deletion of item 16 would result in an increase in the Cronbach alpha value.

Table 4.23 Reliability Analysis results on the Continuance Commitment

Item	Description	Corrected Item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per sub-scale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
Continuance Commitment (Cronbach alpha =0.682)				
I2_16	Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire	0.331	0.849	0.692
I2_18	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now	0.396	0.849	0.663
I2_19	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation	0.632	0.849	0.497
I2_21	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives	0.514	0.849	0.583

It was decided not to delete item 16 because only a total of 4 items are left in the subscale and the increase in Cronbach's coefficient alpha would be marginal. For this reason it was decided to retain all 4 items in the revised measure. Although the Cronbach value was lower than 0.70, it was only marginally lower.

4.4.3. Reliability of Normative Commitment

The normative commitment subscale comprised 6 items and reported an overall Cronbach alpha value of 0.861. Thus, the sub-scale can be regarded as reliable. Upon further analysis it is apparent that by removing the reversed item R22, the overall Cronbach's alpha would increase to 0.869. In the final analysis, it was decided not to delete the item because it would only result in a marginal increase in the overall Cronbach alpha value and the reported item-total correlation was still sufficiently high for the item. A summary of the item analyses is reported in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24 Reliability Analysis results on the normative commitment

Normative Commitment (Cronbach alpha =0.861)				
Item	**Description**	**Corrected Item-total correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha per sub-scale**	**Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted**
R_I3_22	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer	0.468	0.861	0.869
I3_23	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now	0.645	0.861	0.839
I3_24	I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now	0.714	0.861	0.826
I3_25	This organisation deserves my loyalty	0.695	0.861	0.830
I3_26	I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	0.730	0.861	0.824
I3_27	I owe a great deal to my organisation	0.675	0.861	0.833

4.4.4. Reliability of Distributive Justice

This subscale comprised 5 items and reported an overall Cronbach alpha of 0.881, thus indicating that the sub-scale can be considered to be reliable. The item level statistics indicate that all items contributed to the overall reliability of the scale and for this reason none of the items were considered for deletion. The results of the internal consistency reliability is summarised in Table 4.25.

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Table 4.25 Reliability analysis results on distributive justice

Distributive Justice (Cronbach alpha =0.881)				
Item	**Description**	**Corrected Item-total correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha per sub-scale**	**Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted**
I4_28	My work schedule is fair	0.667	0.881	0.867
I4_29	I think that my level of pay is fair	0.681	0.881	0.865
I4_30	I consider my work load to be quite fair	0.770	0.881	0.843
I4_31	Overall the rewards I receive are quite fair	0.711	0.881	0.857
I4_32	I feel that my job responsibilities are fair	0.761	0.881	0.847

4.4.5. Reliability of Procedural Justice

The reliability analysis of the procedural justice scale produced a Cronbach alpha of 0.893. This indicates that the scale can be regarded as reliable. The results in Table 4.26 further indicate that by deleting item 38 the overall Cronbach's coefficient alpha will marginally increase from 0.893 to 0.896. However, considering the marginal increase it was decided not to delete item 5_38.

Table 4.26 Reliability analysis results on procedural justice

Procedural Justice (Cronbach alpha =0.893)				
Item	**Description**	**Corrected Item-total correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha per sub-scale**	**Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted**
I5_34	My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made	0.810	0.893	0.852
I5_35	To make job decisions, my manager	0.793	0.893	0.857

		Corrected Item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per sub-scale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
	collects accurate and complete information			
I5_36	My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees	0.771	0.893	0.863
I5_37	All job decisions are applied consistently to all affected employees	0.711	0.893	0.876
I5_38	Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by their managers	0.614	0.893	0.896

4.4.6. Reliability of Interactional Justice

The interactional justice consisted of 9 items and generated an overall Cronbach alpha of 0.976. Since the reported value is higher than the normative criteria of 0.70, the scale can be considered to be internally consistent. All the item total correlations were strong and none of the items would increase the overall Cronbach's alpha when deleted, as shown in Table 2.27.

Table 4.27 Reliability analysis results on interactional justice

Interactional Justice (Cronbach alpha =0.976)				
Item	**Description**	**Corrected Item-total correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha per sub-scale**	**Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted**
I6_39	When decisions are made about my job, the manager treats me with kindness and consideration	0.897	0.976	0.973
I6_40	When decisions are made about my job, the manager treats me with respect and dignity	0.903	0.976	0.973
I6_41	When decisions are made about my job, the manager is sensitive to my personal	0.827	0.976	0.976

	needs			
I6_42	When decisions are made about my job, the manager deals with me in a truthful manner	0.908	0.976	0.973
I6_43	When decisions are made about my job, the manager shows concern for my rights as an employee	0.911	0.976	0.973
I6_44	Concerning decisions made about my job, the manager discusses with me the implications of the decisions	0.887	0.976	0.974
I6_45	The manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job	0.901	0.976	0.973
I6_46	When making decisions about my job, the manager offers explanations that make sense to me	0.925	0.976	0.972
I6_47	My manager explains very clearly any decisions made about my job	0.897	0.976	0.973

4.4.7. Reliability of Organisational Support

The organisational support scale consisted of 8 items. The reliability of this subset revealed a significant Cronbach alpha of 0.909 which was indicative of robust internal consistency. None of the items would lead to an increase in internal consistency when deleted which would suggest that all the items contribute towards the overall internal consistency of the measure.

Table 4.28 Reliability analysis results on organisational support

Organisational Support (Cronbach alpha =0.909)				
Item	**Description**	**Corrected Item-total correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha per sub-scale**	**Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted**
I7_48	The organisation values my contribution to its well-being	0.775	0.909	0.892
R_I7_49	The organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me	0.640	0.909	0.903
R_I7_50	The organisation would ignore any complaint from me	0.691	0.909	0.898
I7_51	The organisation really cares about my well-being	0.686	0.909	0.899
R_I7_52	Even if I did the best job possible, the organisation would fail to notice	0.680	0.909	0.900
I7_53	The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work	0.700	0.909	0.898
R_I7_54	The organisation shows very little concern for me	0.698	0.909	0.898
I7_55	The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work	0.794	0.909	0.890

4.4.8. Reliability of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Organisation Scale O

The organisational sub-dimension of the OCB scale comprised 6 items and resulted in a Cronbach alpha of 0.808. None of the items would result in an increase in Cronbach's alpha when deleted. The results in Table 4.29 indicate that each of the items reported strong item total correlations.

Table 4.29 Reliability analysis results on organisational citizenship behaviour-O

OCB (Cronbach alpha =0.808)				
Item	**Description**	**Corrected Item-total correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha per sub-scale**	**Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted**
I8_59	Helped new employees get oriented to the job	0.557	0.808	0.783
I8_63	Offered suggestions to improve how work is done	0.688	0.808	0.752
I8_64	Offered suggestions for improving the work environment	0.692	0.808	0.750
I8_68	Helped a less capable co-worker lift a heavy box or other object	0.553	0.808	0.782
I8_70	Said good things about your employer in front of others	0.491	0.808	0.795
I8_71	Gave up meal and other breaks to complete work	0.438	0.808	0.805

4.4.9. Reliability of Intention to Quit Scale

The intention to quit scale consisted of 6 items, which produced a Cronbach alpha of 0.858, indicating strong internal consistency reliability. None of the items reported an increase in Cronbach's alpha if deleted. This, combined with strong item total correlations for each of the items, suggests that each of the items contributed to the overall reliability of the scale. A summary of the item total statistics is reported in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30 Reliability analysis results on intention to quit

Intention to Quit (Cronbach alpha =0.858)				
Item	**Description**	**Corrected Item-total correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha per sub-scale**	**Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted**
I9_76	How often have you considered leaving your job?	0.835	0.858	0.798
I9_77	How satisfying is your job in fulfilling your personal needs?	0.604	0.858	0.842
I9_78	How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	0.546	0.858	0.852
I9_79	How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	0.734	0.858	0.818
I9_80	How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?	0.641	0.858	0.837
R_I9_81	How often do you look forward to another day at work?	0.541	0.858	0.853

4.4.10. Synopsis of inter item analysis

The results of the inter item analysis suggested that most scales were reliable. All scales with the exception of continuance commitment, generated a Cronbach alpha value well in excess of the accepted level of 0.70 and is considered to be highly reliable. The continuance commitment scale displayed a slightly lower level of reliability at 0.682 which is just below the acceptable level.

4.5. REGRESSION ANALYSIS

In order to operationalise the substantive research hypotheses proposed in Chapter 2, simple linear regression analyses were used. Linear regression is a widely used statistical method to

establish the relationship between the dependent variable on one or more independent variables (Kumari & Yadav, 2018). One of the advantages of using linear regression is that it assists in analysing the strength of the relationship between the outcome variable (dependent variable) and the predictor variables. In the current study, linear regression was used; this will determine whether a statistically significant relationship exists between the variables, and the direction of such a relationship. In the next section each of the 14 hypotheses making up the conceptual model will be statistically tested with simple linear regression, as summarised in the Figure 4.1 below.

Figure 4.1 Theoretical Model 3

KEY
DJ-Distributive Justice   PJ-Procedural Justice
IJ-Interactional Justice   POS-Perceived Organisational Support
NC-Normative Commitment   AC-Affective Commitment
CC-Continuance Commitment   ITQ-Intention To Quit
OCB-Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
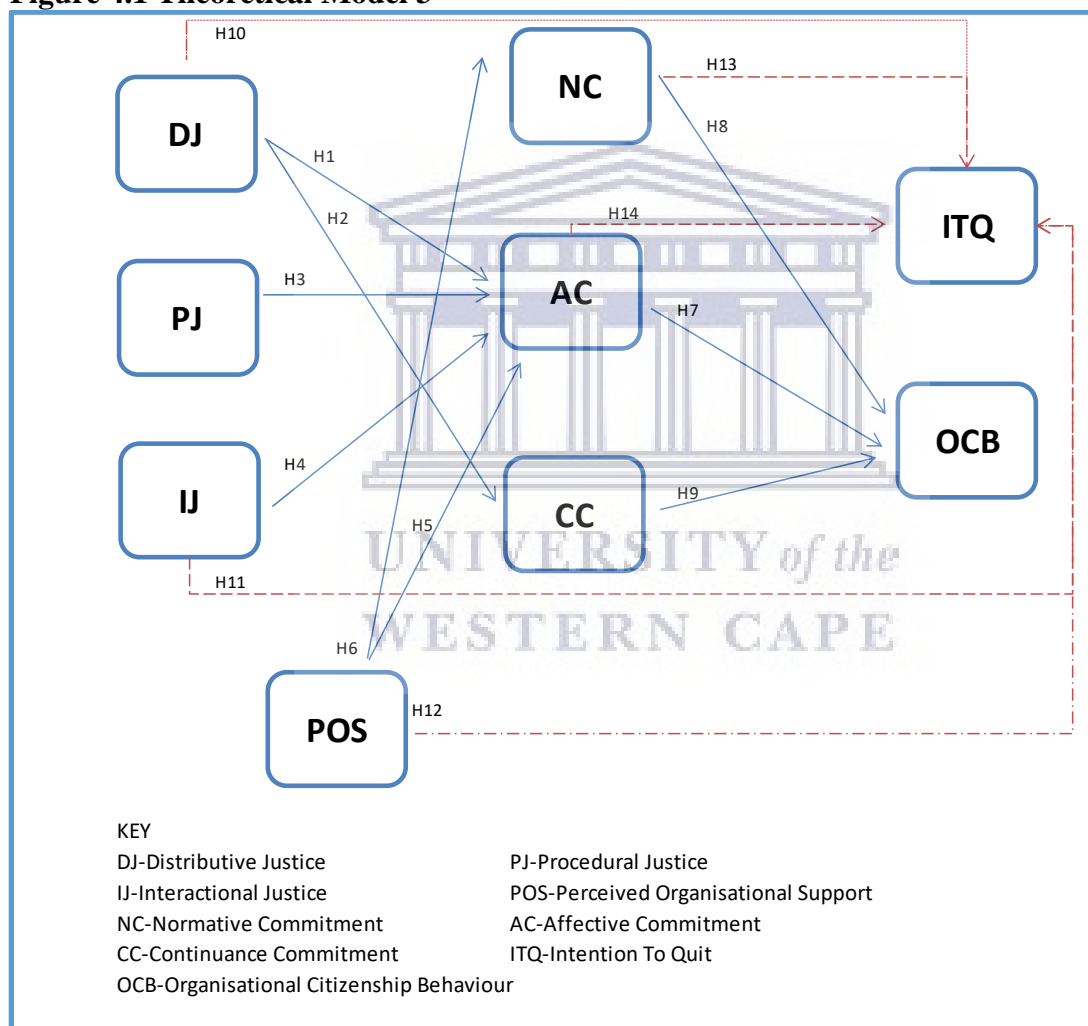
Hypothesis 1 proposed a positive relationship between distributive justice and affective commitment. The Pearson coefficient displayed a correlation of $r = 0.460$ ($p < 0.05$). Results from the linear regression are summarised in table 4.31.

Table 4.31 H1 Regression Analysis

Description	Pearson Coefficient	Standardised B	Adjusted R²
H1: DJ is positively related to AC	$r = 0.460$ ($p < 0.05$)	$B = 0.460$, $p < 0.05$	0.207

Results from the regression analysis demonstrate that a statistically significant positive result was obtained ($B = 0.460$, $p < 0.05$). The adjusted R^2 value was 0.207, suggesting that the distributive justice explains roughly 20.7% of the total variance in the outcome variable of affective commitment. This result indicates that empirical support was obtained for hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 proposed a positive relationship between distributive justice and continuance commitment. The Pearson product-moment coefficient reflected as $r = 0.059$ ($p > 0.05$). Table 4.32 summarises the results.

Table 4.32 H2 Regression analysis

Description	Pearson coefficient	Standardised B	Adjusted R²
H2: DJ is positively related to CC	$r = 0.059$ ($p > 0.05$)	$B = 0.059$, $p > 0.05$	-0.002

The model F-test was not statistically significant. For this reason, the adjusted R^2 value was -0.002, which suggests that distributive justice does not explain practical or statistically significant portions of variance in continuance commitment. This indicates that empirical support was not obtained for hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 proposed a positive relationship between procedural justice and affective commitment with the Pearson coefficient seen at $r = 0.372$ ($p < 0.05$). Results of the regression analysis are summarised in Table 4.33.

Table 4.33 H3 Regression analysis

Description	Pearson coefficient	Standardised B	Adjusted R²
H3: PJ is positively related to AC	$r = 0.372$ $(p < 0.05)$	$(B = 0.372, p < 0.05)$	0.134

Regression analysis shows a positive statistically significant result ($B = 0.372$, $p < 0.05$). The adjusted R^2 is reflected as 0.134 suggesting that procedural justice explains approximately 13% of the total variance in the outcome variable of affective commitment. Based on the above, empirical support was obtained for hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4 predicts a positive relation between interactional justice and affective commitment. The Pearson product-moment coefficient displays a correlation of $r = 0.396$, $p < 0.05$.

Table 4.34 H4 Regression analysis

Description	Pearson coefficient	Standardised B	Adjusted R²
H4: IJ is positively related to AC	$r = 0.396$ $(p < 0.05)$	$(B = 0.396, p < 0.05)$	0.152

As per Table 4.24, the analysis shows a statistically significant and positive relationship (B = 0.396, $p < 0.05$). The adjusted R^2 value was 0.152, suggesting that interactional justice explains approximately 15% of the total variance in the outcome variable affective commitment. This indicates that empirical support was obtained for this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 5 predicts a positive relation between perceived organisational support and affective commitment. The Pearson coefficient yielded a correlation value of $r = 0.643$ ($p < 0.05$). Based on Cohen's (1988) guidelines of effect, this can be considered as a large effect on the outcome variable.

Table 4.35 H5 Regression analysis

Description	Pearson coefficient	Standardised B	Adjusted R²
H5: POS is positively related to AC	$r = 0.643$ ($p < 0.05$)	($B = 0.396$, $p < 0.05$)	0.410

Based on Table 4.35, a positive statistically significant result is reported ($B = 0.643$, $p < 0.05$). The adjusted R^2 value was reported as 0.410, indicating that organisational support explains roughly 41% of the total variance in the outcome variable of affective commitment. Based on Cohen's (1988) guidelines of effect, this can be seen as a large effect on the outcome variable indicating that empirical support was obtained for hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 6 proposed a positive relationship between perceived organisational support and normative commitment. The Pearson coefficient displayed a correlation of $r = 0.123$ ($p > 0.05$) as displayed below.

Table 4.36 H6 Regression analysis

Description	Pearson coefficient	Standardised B	Adjusted R²
H6: POS is positively related to NC	$r = 0.123$ ($p > 0.05$)	($B = 0.123$, $p > 0.05$)	0.010

The regression analysis demonstrates that a positive result was obtained. However, the model was not statistically significant ($B = 0.123$, $p > 0.05$). The adjusted R^2 value was 0.010. This result indicates that empirical support was not obtained for hypothesis 6, since the regression result did not reach practical or statistical significance.

Hypothesis 7 proposed a positive relationship between affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour-O. The Pearson coefficient displayed a correlation of $r = 0.189$ ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4.37 H7 Regression analysis

Description	Pearson coefficient	Standardised B	Adjusted R²
H7: AC is positively related to OCBO	$r = 0.189$ ($p < 0.05$)	($B = 0.189$, $p < 0.05$)	0.036

Results from the regression analysis, as shown in Table 4.37, demonstrate that a positive and statistically significant result was obtained ($B = 0.189$, $p < 0.05$). The adjusted R^2 value was 0.036, highlighting that affective commitment only explains 3.6% of the total variance of the outcome variable. As per Cohen's (1988) guidelines, this can be considered to be a small effect.

This result indicates that empirical support was obtained for hypothesis 7.

Hypothesis 8 proposed a positive relationship between normative commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour-O. The Pearson coefficient displayed a correlation of $r = -0.082$ ($p > 0.05$), shown in table 4.38.

Table 4.38 H8 Regression analysis

Description	Pearson coefficient	Standardised B	Adjusted R²
H8: NC is positively related to OCB-O	$r = -0.082$ ($p > 0.05$)	($B = -0.082$, $p > 0.05$)	0.002

Results from the regression analysis, as shown in the table above, demonstrate a result of $B = -0.082$, $p > 0.05$. The adjusted R^2 value was 0.002. Therefore, empirical support was not obtained found for hypothesis 8.

Hypothesis 9 proposed a positive relationship between continuance commitment and organisation citizenship behaviour-O. The Pearson coefficient displayed a correlation of $r = -0.070$ ($p > 0.05$). Regression analysis results are shown in Table 4.39.

Table 4.39 H9 Regression analysis

Description	Pearson coefficient	Standardised B	Adjusted R²
H9: CC is positively to OCB-O	$r = -0.070$ ($p > 0.05$)	($B = -0.70$, $p > 0.05$)	0.000

Results from the regression analysis demonstrate a value of $B = -0.70$, ($p > 0.05$). The adjusted R^2 value was 0.000. As shown, empirical support was not obtained for hypothesis 9.

Hypothesis 10 predicted a negative relationship between distributive justice and intention to quit. The Pearson coefficient displayed a correlation of $r = -0.559$ ($p < 0.05$). Results of the regression analysis for hypothesis 10 are displayed in table 4.40 below.

Table 4.40 H10 Regression analysis

Description	Pearson coefficient	Standardised B	Adjusted R²
H10: DJ is negatively related to ITQ	$r = -0.559$ ($p < 0.05$)	($B = -0.559$, $p < 0.05$)	0.309

Results based on the regression analysis reflects a statistically significant and negative relationship between distributive justice and intention to quit ($B = -0.559$, $p < 0.05$). The adjusted R^2 value was 0.309, highlighting that distributive justice explains 30.9% of the total variance in the outcome variable intention to quit. As Cohen (1988) suggests, this may be seen as a large effect on the outcome variable.

Empirical support was thus achieved for hypothesis 10.

Hypothesis 11 proposed a negative relationship between interactional justice and intention to quit. The Pearson coefficient reflected correlation of $r = -0.444$ ($p < 0.05$). Results of regression analysis are highlighted in table 4.41.

Table 4.41 H11 Regression analysis

Description	Pearson coefficient	Standardised B	Adjusted R²
H11: IJ is negatively related to ITQ	$r = -0.444$ ($p < 0.05$)	($B = -0.444$, $p < 0.05$)	0.193

As shown above, a statistically significant negative result is achieved ($B = -0.444$, $p < 0.05$). The adjusted R^2 value is displayed as 0.193, thus explaining approximately 19.3% of the total variance in the outcome variable and displaying a medium effect (Cohen, 1988).

Empirical support was thus achieved for hypothesis 11.

Hypothesis 12 predicted a negative relationship between perceived organisational support and intention to quit. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is calculated at $r = -0.669$ ($p < 0.05$). Table 4.42 below summarises the regression analysis conducted.

Table 4.42 H12 Regression analysis

Description	Pearson coefficient	Standardised B	Adjusted R²
H12: POS is negatively related to ITQ	$r = -0.669$ ($p < 0.05$)	($B = -0.669$, $p < 0.05$)	0.445

As shown in Table 2.42, a statistically significant and negative result is obtained ($B = -0.669$, $p < 0.05$). The adjusted R^2 value is displayed as 0.445, thus explaining 44.5% of the total variance in the outcome variable, displaying a large effect (Cohen, 1988).

Empirical support was thus achieved for hypothesis 12.

Hypothesis 13 proposed a negative relationship between normative commitment and intention to quit. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is calculated at $r = -0.074$ ($p > 0.05$). Table 4.43 summarises the regression analysis conducted.

Table 4.43 H13 Regression analysis

Description	Pearson coefficient	Standardised B	Adjusted R²
H13: NC is negatively relates to ITQ	$r = -0.074$ ($p > 0.05$)	($B = -0.074$, $p > 0.05$)	0.000

A result of $B = -0.74$ ($p > 0.05$) is obtained, with an adjusted R² value of 0.000. Empirical support for hypothesis 13 was not found.

Hypothesis 14 predicted a negative relationship between affective commitment and intention to quit. The Pearson coefficient reflects that $r = -0.673$ ($p < 0.05$). Results from the linear regression are reported in table 4.44.

Table 4.44 H14 Regression analysis

Description	Pearson coefficient	Standardised B	Adjusted R²
H14: AC is negatively related to ITQ	$r = -0.673$ ($p < 0.05$)	($B = -0.673$, $p < 0.05$)	0.449

A statistically significant negative result is obtained ($B = -0.673$, $p < 0.05$). The adjusted R^2 value is noted as 0.449, thus explaining 44.9%% of the total variance in the outcome variable, displaying a large effect (Cohen, 1988).

Empirical support was thus achieved for hypothesis 14.

4.6. SUMMARY OF RESULTS

This research aimed to test 14 hypotheses, of which 9 hypotheses have been supported through the statistical analyses. The remaining 5 null hypotheses could not be rejected as the analyses did not yield significant results. The results from the regression analyses are summarised in Table 4.45.

Table 4.45 Regression Analyses Results

Hypotheses	Statistical Values	
H1: DJ is positively related to AC	$r = 0.460; p < 0.05$	$B = 0.460; p < 0.05$
H2: DJ is positively related to CC	$r = 0.059; p > 0.05$	$B = 0.059; p > 0.05$
H3: PJ is positively related to AC	$r = 0.372; p < 0.05$	$B = 0.372; p < 0.05$
H4: IJ is positively related to AC	$r = 0.372; p < 0.05$	$B = 0.372; p < 0.05$
H5: POS is positively related to AC	$r = 0.643; p < 0.05$	$B = 0.643; p < 0.05$
H6: POS is positively related to NC	$r = 0.123; p > 0.05$	$B = 0.123; p > 0.05$
H7: AC is positively related to OCBO	$r = 0.189; p < 0.05$	$B = 0.189; p < 0.05$
H8: NC is positively related to OCB-O	$r = -0.082; p > 0.05$	$B = -0.082; p > 0.05$
H9: CC is positively related to OCB-O	$r = -0.070; p > 0.05$	$B = -0.070; p > 0.05$
H10: DJ is negatively related to ITQ	$r = -0.559; p < 0.05$	$B = -0.559; p < 0.05$
H11: IJ is negatively related to ITQ	$r = -0.444; p < 0.05$	$B = -0.444; p < 0.05$
H12: POS is negatively related to ITQ	$r = -0.669; p < 0.05$	$B = -0.669; p < 0.05$
H13: NC is negatively related to ITQ	$r = -0.74; p > 0.05$	$B = -0.74; p > 0.05$
H14:AC is negatively related to ITQ	$r = -0.673; p < 0.05$	$B = -0.673; p < 0.05$

4.7.   CONCLUSION

This chapter aimed to operationalise the 14 hypotheses as conceptualised in Chapter 2 and captured in the conceptual model. However, prior to specifying and interpreting the results from the regression analyses, the author investigated the missing values in the data. The reliability and dimensionality of each of the measures were investigated before specifying the regression models. Results from the EFA and item analyses suggested that most of the scale were uni-dimensional and reliable. Finally, the relationships captured in the conceptual model were tested with regression analyses. In total, statistical support was found for 9 of the 14 hypotheses, which lends credibility to the proposed conceptual model.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1.   INTRODUCTION

This primary aim of the study was to develop a nomological network that can explain OCB and intention to quit in the workplace. In Chapter 2 the researcher considered relevant literature and developed the various hypotheses as well as the theoretical framework that would be tested. Chapter 3 highlighted the research design, research approach and statistical analyses that would be used to empirically test the substantive research hypotheses. Chapter 4 presented the findings of the data analyses. In the current study, the researcher aims to discuss the findings presented in chapter 4 in more detail, focusing on those hypotheses which did not yield empirical support. Thereafter the chapter will address the limitations to the study and any fruitful avenues for future research based on the results obtained in the current study.

5.2.   AIM AND OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The ultimate aim and objective of this study is to develop a conceptual model that explains the relationships between the variables, as identified in the study, and how they impact organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to quit.

The study further aims to help organisations to better understand organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to quit, and make recommendations to organisations in terms of how they could develop this into business practice. This will allow organisations to better retain talented employees.

5.3.   SUMMARY OF UNIDIMENSIONALITY FINDINGS

Exploratory factor analyses were conducted on the measures prior to specifying the regression model to ascertain the dimensionality of the scales. Through the process potentially problematic items were flagged, and in some cases deleted, to strengthen the construct validity of the measures.

The affective commitment subscale had loaded on two factors due using a mixture of positive and negatively worded items, where all non-reverse items loaded together, while all reverse items loaded together on another factor. Upon investigation it was deemed a statistical artefact. It was then decided to conduct a restricted EFA and unidimensionality was achieved.

Continuance commitment proved to be problematic and items were removed for having too high or too low commonalty values. The remaining items loaded on a single factor.

It was also decided to remove an item in the procedural justice subscale for having a commonality value that was too low. The remaining items loaded robustly on a single factor.

All the other scales demonstrated strong construct validity and were considered to be unidimensional. Most of the items used to operationalize the measure reported high community values and factor loadings.

5.4. SUMMARY OF RELIABILITY FINDINGS

Once unidimensionality had been established, the internal consistency of the measures was assessed by way of item analyses. The findings presented in Chapter 4 showed that all subscales displayed high levels of reliability. The only exception to this is the subscale of continuance commitment which yielded a Cronbach alpha of 0.682. This is only slightly lower than the accepted level of 0.70. However, considered collectively, the researcher were confident the all the scales demonstrated strong internal consistency reliability.

5.5. DISCUSSION OF THE THEORETICAL HYPOTHESES

The results from the EFA and item analyses suggested that the revised scales were reliable and valid and can be included in the regression model by way of aggregated total scores. The proposed theoretical model conceptualised in Chapter two was made up of a number of direct relationships which can be expressed as 14 substantive hypotheses, of which empirical support was found for 9 Hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Distributive justice is positively related to affective commitment

Hypothesis 3: Procedural justice is positively related to affective commitment

Hypothesis 4: Interactional justice is positively related to affective commitment

Hypothesis 5: Perceived organisation support is positively related to affective commitment

Hypothesis 7: Affective commitment is positively related to OCB-O

Hypothesis 10: Distributive justice is negatively related to intention to quit.

Hypothesis 11: Interactional justice is negatively related to intention to quit.

Hypothesis 12: Perceived organisational support is negatively related to intention to quit.

Hypothesis 14: Affective commitment is negatively related to intention to quit.

The findings indicate that empirical support is present for most of the hypotheses set out in this research, particularly those describing the relationships between affective commitment and distributive justice, interactional justice, procedural justice, perceived organisational support, OCB-O, and intention to quit. Further, empirical support was also obtained for the theorised model in terms of the relationships between both intention to quit and distributive justice and interactional justice.

However, most of the hypotheses that included continuance commitment or normative commitment were problematic. Hypothesis 2 suggested a positive relationship between distributive justice and continuance commitment. The findings, however, indicated that there is no statistically significant relation between the variables. Continuance commitment is based on the notion that employees are committed to the organisation as a result of necessity, or that the risk of financial loss may be too high for the employee (Baksh, 2010, Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Although research suggests that distributive justice is linked to continuance commitment, this might not always be the case. For example, when an employee feels that there is no fairness in the allocation of financial resources, he may not have any intention of quitting as the cost associated with leaving is still too high in terms of finding employment elsewhere. This is very likely in the context of this study as the industry of clothing and textiles is shrinking and finding employment in the industry has become harder (Ronan, 2015; Edwards and Jenkins, 2014). This is also evident in the responses to question 21, "One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives." Approximately, 54% of respondents agreed with this statement.

In addition to the scarcity of jobs within the industry, employees may also be reluctant to leave the organisation even if there is no distributive justice as they experience high levels of affective commitment as evident in the length of service. Based on the results of the analyses, 51% of the sample population have been with the organisation for more than 5 years, and 29% more than 10 years. It could be argued that affective commitment to the organisation buffers or mitigates the negative effects of a lack of distributive justice, as evident in question 15 of the current study, "This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me", where 63.1 % of responses were "slightly agree", "agree" or "strongly agree."

Additionally, it could be that the continuance commitment measure suffered from a lack of reliability. It was noted in Chapter 4 that that dimension was problematic and a number of items had to be deleted. It could be that the measure is contaminated with measurement error and as a result the relationship between continuance commitment and other variables is not supported by the regression analyses.

Hypothesis 6 proposed a positive relationship between perceived organisational support and normative commitment; the findings, however, did not identify a statistically significant relation between the variables. The null hypothesis could thus not be rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. Various research studies have indicated that a positive relation exists between perceived organisational support and organisational commitment as a whole; however, when considering the sub dimensions of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment, there is a greater link to affective commitment as opposed to the other two types of commitment (Satardien, 2014;   LaMastro, 2008). However, a moderate relationship has been found between perceived organisational support and normative commitment in previous studies, and consequently similar results were expected in the current study.

The relationship between these variables is strongly linked to social exchange as predicted in the social reciprocity theory (Satardien, 2014). This explains that an exchange of favours or positive behaviours is likely to occur when the organisation shows support toward the employee, and the employee responds positively. One of the positive outcomes may be affective commitment, and not normative commitment, as predicted by hypotheses 6. This makes sense since normative commitment is a value-based orientation of the employment relationship that is probably not strongly influenced by perceived organisational support. It

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could be argued that employees may be normatively committed to an organisation irrespective of positive exchanges that they receive from the organisation. This could be one alternative explanation for the non-significant results found with regard to hypothesis 6.

Hypothesis 8 predicted a positive relationship between normative commitment and OCB-O. The findings of the current research however did not establish a statistically significant relation between the variables. Where normative commitment refers to commitment based on feelings of obligations toward the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 2004) organisational citizenship behaviour–O refers to acts of OCB that are directly linked to the benefit of the organisation (Greenberg, 2011).

In theory, an employee who displays levels of normative commitment would act in a manner that constitutes acts of OCB. Research has indicated that in theory, a relationship should exist between OCB-O and normative commitment. However, practically, it seems that normative commitment is more related to OCB-I instead, while affective commitment is a stronger predictor of OCB-O (Addison, Mohtar & David, 2006). This may be due to organisational culture. For example, the high level of normative commitment that an employee feels may be directed more toward the employee's direct manager or a single manager who has acted favourably to the employee, rather than the organisation, and the obligation would be toward that manager. This relates to question 26 of the current study, "I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it", implying the obligation relates to the people rather than the organisation. 55.5% of the responses for this question were either "slightly agree", "agree" or "strongly agree."

Similarly, hypothesis 9 predicted a positive relationship between continuance commitment and OCB-O. However, this was contradicted by the research findings in the current study. Continuance commitment refers to commitment on the basis of necessity; this does not necessarily mean that the employee is happy to be at the organisation, but is there because they must be there. A person with this mind-set may not want to partake in behaviour beyond what is expected in terms of their work roles (Shore & Wayne, 1993; Addison, Mohtar & David, 2006). This is in direct contrast with the notion of OCB that stems from prosocial behaviour where an employee goes beyond what is expected, not because they have to, but because they want to and are happy to do so (Greenberg, 201).

Additionally, similar concerns raised with regards to hypothesis 2 can probably also be offered in terms of the measurement quality of continuance commitment. The scale suffers from low reliability and as a result may distort any relationship with the variable due to the high levels of random error variance in the measure.

Hypothesis 13 suggested a negative relationship between normative commitment and intention to quit. Although more researchers have found a strong negative relationship between affective commitment and intention to quit (Basak, Ekmekci, Bayram & Bass, 2013), it makes sense that normative commitment would be related to intention to quit (Satardien, 2014; Bagraim, 2010). An argument can be made that an employee will only truly have a low intention to leave an organisation if the employee feels a real sense of belonging to and an emotional bond with the organisation, rather than an obligation to the organisation. Consider the following example: employees will be less likely to stay at an organisation where their higher-order needs are not met, even if they feel an obligation to stay with the organisation.

5.6.   MANAGERIAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Retaining top talent is a strategic imperative for most modern-day organisations that hope to be successful in a competitive global economy. The inverse is also true: losing quality employees entails recruitment and selection costs, as well as efficiency and production costs. For this reason, it is important for organisations to understand the systematic factors that shape turnover intentions.

Organisational justice was identified as a major predictor of employee commitment and intention to quit. However, organisational justice cannot be understood as a single concept. There are clear differences between interactional justice, procedural justice, and distributive justice in relation to intention to quit. Any organisational approach that fundamentally regards them as a single factor could have a low chance of success.

The results from the current study found widely different effect sizes between the forms of justice and intention to quit, as well as OCB, which suggests that these types of justice have unique psychological mechanisms underlying their functioning in the workplace.

It is important to note that Organisational Justice can only be effective in the workplace when it is perceived and experienced3 by employees. As highlighted in the literature, employees consider an array of facets when measuring fairness in the workplace, such as the allocation or distribution of resources, the input – output ratios, how decisions are made as well as how the policies and procedures that it is followed in the organisation. Hence, equal focus should be given to the implementation of the measure as well as monitoring thereof.. When employees feel that the organisation treats them fairly they are more likely to trust the organisation and buy into the overall goals and objectives thus increasing organisational commitment.

Procedural justice measures can hold great value for organisations in terms of conciliation or arbitration cases that the organisation may face. When employees experience procedural justice, there is a sense that the organisation is fair in their policies and procedures and employees are less likely to feel that they have been unfairly treated by the organisation.

Leadership and managerial skills play an important role in promoting perceived interpersonal justice. Often unhappiness from employees stems from the way management treats one employee in comparison to way they treat another. It is important for managers to be adequately trained in terms of leadership skills, emotional intelligence and communication skills to ensure that employees feel that they are being treated with dignity and respect in the workplace. Team cohesion and unit level performance are directly related to the leadership style of management.

In addition, organisations should also enhance employee well-being. When employees feel that the organisation cares for them and values their contribution to the organisation's success, they are more likely to reciprocate with attributes of OCB. This could include increased employee performance, higher productivity and decreased absenteeism.

Organisations can achieve this by creating safe and stimulating working conditions and environments, and equitably reward employees. By encouraging employee growth and development, employees will feel appreciated and valued by the organisation. In turn, the organisation is able to build a skilled and motivated workforce.

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5.7.   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

As with all studies, the current study has various limitations which should be highlighted. A limitation of the current study revolves around the methodology of the research. The study made use of a quantitative design. A disadvantage of this method is that it forces participants to respond within a limited selection (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). A recommendation for future studies is to incorporate a combination of both qualitative and quantitative approaches which could add more value to the study as it allows for probing of information if needed. The study also made use of self-reported questionnaires. Self-reports are open to possible bias and misrepresentations in the form of extreme responding. Here the participant only chooses the extreme end of the Likert scale, or confirms to social nuances, where the participant chooses responses which are considered socially desirable, and do not reflect accurately (Neuman, 2003; Hair, Babin, Money & Samouel, 2003).

The limitation associated with the generalisability of the findings to the industry must be considered. The population and sample were chosen from one organisation within the footwear manufacturing industry. Findings can therefore not be confidently generalised to the entire industry. Future researchers should therefore expand the research to more organisations for it to be more generalisable to the broader population.

The study made use of non-probability sampling which may lead to an unfair representation of the population and bias. A recommendation would be to make use of probability sampling in future studies in order to better control the study. In addition, a longitudinal study could be used to evaluate variables over a period of time at different occasions. This would allow the researcher to collect additional substantial data and possibly achieve different outcomes.

Furthermore, future studies could include a broader scope of variables for investigation in order to better predict intention to quit and organisational commitment.

5.8.   CONCLUSION

The main aim of the study was to establish and understand the relationships between organisational justice, perceived organisational support, organisational commitment, intention to quit and organisational citizenship behaviour. The study obtained empirical support for most of the proposed model. This lends credibility to the importance of justice and organisational commitment, in relation to intention to quit and OCB.

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Social exchange theory which formed the bedrock of the proposed conceptual model dictates that organisational commitment is the likely outcome if individual workers feel that they are remunerated and treated fairly. Highly effective teams and organisations aim to appeal to employees' extra-role behaviours by providing a work environment that embodies fairness and justice in their policies and processes.

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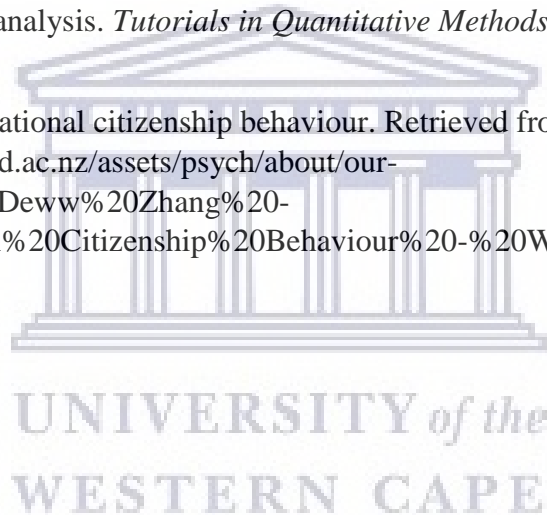
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Appendix A-Information Sheet

CONCEPTUALISATION OF A STRUCTURAL MODEL TO PREDICT ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

INFORMATION SHEET FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

Dear participant

This study is designed to identify and create a model of organisational commitment, and more importantly understand the drivers thereof. The research further has the potential to identify characteristics of employee retention and engage employees in such a way that is beneficial to both employee and organisation.

The current study, conducted by the researcher with the support of the University of the Western Cape, is purely for academic purposes and all research gathered will only be used for this. Participation in this study is completely voluntary as well as anonymous and will be treated with the strictest confidentiality. The survey will take about 15 minutes, please answer all questions as truthfully as possible.

Should you have any questions regarding this study or wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact me at**: 3023953@myuwc.ac.za or jbecker@uwc.ac.za (Supervisor)**

Thank you for your time and cooperation

Shameema Parker
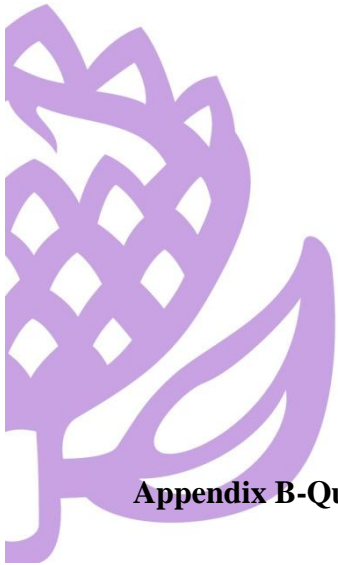
Appendix B-Questionnaire

This survey is designed to gather relevant information regarding organisational commitment, as well as the drivers and outcomes thereof. The survey consists of various sections including a biographical survey, for representation purposes, thereafter the survey takes the form of a Likert scale where participants are to select the most appropriate option.

Please answer all questions as honestly as possible.
*Required

Informed Consent

Please note that participation in this study is completely voluntary and participants may withdraw at any point.
Responses are anonymous as well as confidential and will only be used for academic purposes.
By checking yes, you hereby acknowledge consent to proceed with the survey.

1. **I hereby acknowledge consent to proceed** *
Check all that apply.
   ☐ **Yes**

Demographic Information

Please provide the following information by writing in the appropriate response in the spaces provided or by ticking the appropriate box.

2. **Age:**
   ☐ 20-30
   ☐ 31-40
   ☐ 41-50
   ☐ 50-60
   ☐ Older than 60

3. **Gender:**
   ☐ Male
   ☐ Female

4. **Nationality:** _____

5. **Job Title:** _____

6. **How long have you been employed at your current job?**
- ☐ 0-4 years
- ☐ 5-10 years
- ☐ 11-15 years
- ☐ 16-20 years
- ☐ More than 20 years

7. **Race:**
- ☐ African
- ☐ Coloured
- ☐ Indian
- ☐ White
- ☐ Other _____

8. **Home Language**
- ☐ Afrikaans
- ☐ English
- ☐ Xhosa
- ☐ Zulu
- ☐ Other _____

9. **Highest qualification**
- ☐ Grade 12
- ☐ Certificate Diploma
- ☐ Degree
- ☐ Honors
- ☐ Masters
- ☐ Doctorate
- ☐ Other _____

10. **Marital Status**
- ☐ Single
- ☐ Married
- ☐ Divorced
- ☐ Widowed

	Section 2 **Organisational Commitment Questionnaire** **(Meyer & Allen, 1991)**							
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Undecided	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
11.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	be right to leave my organization now.							
25.	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	This organization deserves my loyalty.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	I owe a great deal to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Section 3 **Organisational Justice Scale** **(Niehoff and Moorman, 1993).**					
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree slightly	Neither agree or disagree	Agree slightly	Agree very much
29.	My work schedule is fair	1	2	3	4	5
30.	I think that my level of pay is fair	1	2	3	4	5
31.	I consider my work load to be quite fair	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Overall the rewards I receive here quite fair	1	2	3	4	5
33.	I feel that my job responsibilities are fair	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Job decisions are made by the manager in a biased manner	1	2	3	4	5
35.	My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before Job decisions are made	1	2	3	4	5
36.	To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information	1	2	3	4	5
37.	My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees	1	2	3	4	5
38.	All jobs decisions are applied consistently to all affected employees	1	2	3	4	5
39.	Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by their managers	1	2	3	4	5
40.	When decisions are made about my job, the manager	1	2	3	4	5

	treats me with kindness and consideration					
41.	When decisions are made about my job, the manager treats me with respect and dignity	1	2	3	4	5
42.	When decisions are made about my job, the manager is sensitive to my personal needs	1	2	3	4	5
43.	When decisions are made about my job, the manager deals with me in a truthful manner	1	2	3	4	5
44.	When decisions are made about my job, the manager shows concern for my right as employee.	1	2	3	4	5
45.	Concerning decisions made about my job, the manager discusses with me the implications of the decisions	1	2	3	4	5
46.	The manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job	1	2	3	4	5
47.	When making decisions about my job, the manager offers explanations that make sense to me	1	2	3	4	5
48.	My manager explains very clearly any decisions made about my job	1	2	3	4	5

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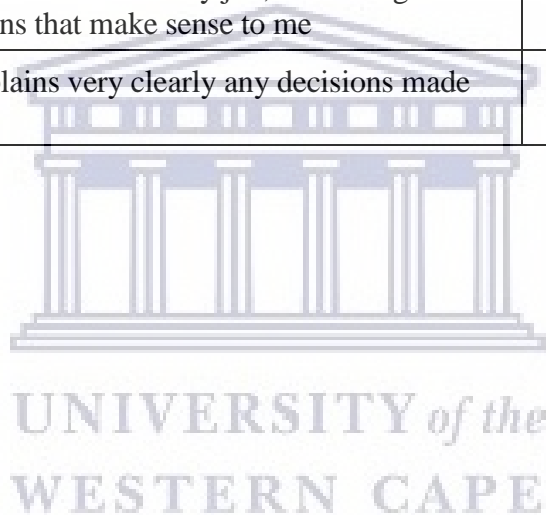
	Section 4 **Survey of Perceived Organizational Support** **(Eisenberger et al., 1986).**							
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	
49.	The organization values my contribution to its well-being	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
50.	The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
51.	The organization would ignore any complaint from me	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
52.	The organization really cares about my well-being	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
53.	Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
54.	The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
55.	The organization shows very little concern for me	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
56.	The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Section 5 **Organisational Citizenship Behaviour- Checklist** (Copyright © 2009, Paul E. Spector)	Never	Once or Twice	Once or Twice per month	Once or Twice per week	Every Day
	HOW OFTEN HAVE YOU DONE EACH OF THE FOLLOWING THINGS ON YOUR PRESENT JOB?					
57.	Picked up meal for others at work	1	2	3	4	5
58.	Took time to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker	1	2	3	4	5
59.	Helped a co-worker learn new skills or shared job knowledge	1	2	3	4	5
60.	Helped new employees get oriented to the job	1	2	3	4	5
61.	Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a work problem	1	2	3	4	5
62.	Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a personal problem	1	2	3	4	5
63.	Changed vacation schedule, work days, or shifts to accommodate co-worker's needs.	1	2	3	4	5
64.	Offered suggestions to improve how work is done.	1	2	3	4	5
65.	Offered suggestions for improving the work environment.	1	2	3	4	5
66.	Finished something for co-worker who had to leave early.	1	2	3	4	5
67.	Helped a less capable co-worker lift a heavy box or other object.	1	2	3	4	5
68.	Helped a co-worker who had too much to do.	1	2	3	4	5
69.	Volunteered for extra work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5

70.	Took phone messages for absent or busy co-worker.	1	2	3	4	5
71.	Said good things about your employer in front of others.	1	2	3	4	5
72.	Gave up meal and other breaks to complete work.	1	2	3	4	5
73.	Volunteered to help a co-worker deal with a difficult customer, vendor, or co-worker.	1	2	3	4	5
74.	Went out of the way to give co-worker encouragement or express appreciation.	1	2	3	4	5
75.	Decorated, straightened up, or otherwise beautified common work space.	1	2	3	4	5
76.	Defended a co-worker who was being "put-down" or spoken ill of by other co-workers or supervisor	1	2	3	4	5

	Section 6 **Turnover Intention Scale** (Copyright © 2004, G. Roodt)	
	PLEASE READ EACH QUESTION AND INDICATE YOUR RESPONSE USING THE SCALE PROVIDED FOR EACH QUESTION: DURING THE PAST 9 MONTHS…..	Never Always
77.	How often have you considered leaving your job?	1 2 3 4 5
78.	How satisfying is your job in fulfilling your personal needs?	1 2 3 4 5
79.	How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	1 2 3 4 5
80.	How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	1 2 3 4 5
81.	How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?	1 2 3 4 5
82.	How often do you look forward to another day at work?	1 2 3 4 5