A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION EXPERIENCED BY EMPLOYEES WITHIN A RETAIL COMPANY AND THEIR ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR.

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DECLARATION

"I declare that **A Study of the relationship between job satisfaction experienced by employees within a retail company and their organisational citizenship behaviour** is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.**"**

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ABSTRACT

The term organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) was first explored by Bateman and Organ (1983) to refer to particular behaviours that may benefit an organisation and gestures that cannot be enforced by means of formal role obligations nor be elicited by contractual guarantee of recompense. Organ (1988) proposes that OCB may have a positive impact on employees and organisational performance. Incumbents who are experiencing satisfaction from performing their jobs are likely to be better ambassadors for the organisation and be committed to their organization (Buitendach, 2005). Silverthorne (2005, p. 171) considers job satisfaction to be important for effective organisations and defines job satisfaction as "... a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job". Previous research indicates that individuals are most likely to go beyond their formal job requirements when they are satisfied with their jobs or committed to their organisations, when they are given intrinsically satisfying tasks to complete, and/or when they have supportive or inspirational leaders.

Research into Organisational Citizenship behaviour (OCB) has primarily focused on the effects of OCB on individual and organisational performance. Several empirical studies report that OCB produces various tangible benefits for employees, co-workers, supervisors and organisations in a variety of industries (Ackfeldt & Leonard, 2005). It essentially refers to prosocial organisational behaviour that goes beyond what is expected in role descriptions. Bolino, Turnley and Niehoff (2004) claim that three basic

assumptions have characterised OCB research. Firstly, they argue that OCB research stemmed from non-self-serving motives such as organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Moreover, they maintain that OCB has led to a more effective functioning of organisations and finally that OCB benefited employees by making organisations more attractive to work in. Murphy, Athansou and King (2002) reported positive relationships between OCB and job satisfaction. Chiu and Chen (2005) investigated the relationship between job characteristics and OCB and recommend that managers enhance employees' intrinsic job satisfaction to promote the display of OCB. Most research studies have investigated OCB as an outcome variable with job satisfaction as one of its antecedents. Although the majority of researchers contend that OCB is an outcome of job satisfaction, some research indicates that the two variables can function as antecedents or consequences or there may well be a reciprocal relationship between the two variables. This study endeavours to elucidate the factors that are postulated to produce job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour, based on a sample of 133 employees in a retail organisation in the Western Cape. The results indicate that there are significant relationships between biographical characteristics and job satisfaction, between the dimensions of OCB and job satisfaction and between the job satisfaction dimensions and OCB.

KEY WORDS

Job Satisfaction, Intrinsic satisfaction, Pay, Promotion, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Altruism, Civic Virtue, Courtesy, Sportsmanship, Conscientiousness

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The term Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) was first explored by Bateman and Organ (1983) to refer to particular behaviours that may benefit an organisation and gestures that cannot be enforced by means of formal role obligations nor be elicited by contractual guarantee of recompense. Organ (1988) proposes that OCB may have a positive impact on employees and organisational performance.

The practical importance of OCB is that efficiency and effectiveness of work teams and the organisation is realised through the discretionary behaviours of employees according to Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000). However, an employee may withhold citizenship behaviours due to frustration with certain aspects of the job, and if the feeling of disenchantment continues, the employee may build up an intention to quit and ultimately leave the organisation (Chen, Hui, & Sego, 1998). Incumbents who are experiencing satisfaction from performing their jobs are likely to be better ambassadors for the organization and be committed to their organization (Agho, Price Mueller, 1992 in Buitendach, 2005).

Research conducted within the organisational behaviour context centred around the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational citizenship attention behaviour (OCB) and organisational commitment have proven that they are important correlates of organisational success (Maharaj, 2005). The aim of this study is to explore and to ascertain the relationship between job satisfaction experienced by

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employees in a retail organisation in the Western Cape and their organisational citizenship behaviour.

1.2 DEFINING THE CONSTRUCTS USED IN THE RESEARCH:

1.2.1 JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is a widely researched topic in various fields including industrial psychology, public administration, business and higher education (Kh Metle, 2005).

According to Vroom (1967, p. 99) job satisfaction is the reaction of the employees against the role they play in their work. Similarly, Blum and Naylor (1968) define job satisfaction as a general attitude of the employees constituted by their approach towards their wages, working conditions, control, promotion related with the job, social relations in the work, recognition of talent and some similar variables, personal characteristics, and group relations apart from the work life.

Locke (1969) suggested that job satisfaction is the state of pleasure an employee experiences from the application of their values to the job. Simply put, job satisfaction according to Spector (1997) is the extent to which an individual likes their job. Job satisfaction is a very important attitude for many reasons. Some of the reasons may include for employee ramifications for subjective well-being (Judge & Hulin, 1993) and total life satisfaction (Judge & Watanabe, 1993).

Oshagbemi (1999) states that job satisfaction refer to an individual's positive emotions experiences toward a specific job. According to Friday and Friday (2003)

job satisfaction is a very complex job-related variable relating to the attitude of the employee. Spector (1997) defines job satisfaction as the extent to which employees like their jobs. Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975) define job satisfaction as employees reaction against their occupation or organisation. Cranny, Smith and Stone (1992) are of the opinion that overall job satisfaction describes a person's affective reaction to work related factors. Further, they identified some key examples of job satisfaction facets that are found in the literature such as satisfaction with pay, promotion, supervisor and co-workers. Hence, job satisfaction can be described as a multidimensional construct (Poulin, 1995).

According to Matlawe (1989) job satisfaction is brought about by a combination of factors that relate to the actual delivery of the work which is known as satisfiers. These satisfiers are defined as factors that contribute to job satisfaction if present, however not to dissatisfiers if absent. Satisfiers include: achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, the work itself, as well as an opportunity for professional growth. Another term used for satisfiers is motivation as the motivational potential for most people is increased by these (Matlawe, 1989).

For the purpose of this research, these facets will be explored further in the literature review.

1.2.2 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Effective organisational performance needs employees to perform their prescribed duties, and also engage in behaviours that go beyond these formal obligations according to Katz and Kahn (1987).

Wright, Dunford and Snell (2001) suggest that employees have both cognition and emotions that predispose them to apply free will with regards to the choice of behaviours they choose to exhibit in the workplace.

Organisational citizenship behaviour has been the subject of numerous studies because of its importance (Becker & Vance, 1993; Moorman, 1991; Moorman, 1993; Neihoff & Moorman, 1993; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Organ (1988, p. 4) defines organisational citizenship behaviour as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation."

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) refers to work behaviours such helping others, staying late or working weekends, performing at levels that exceed enforceable standards, tolerating impositions or inconveniences on the job, and being actively involved in company affairs (Organ, 1988; Padsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000).

The focal point of this study will be on organisational citizenship behaviour as defined by Organ (1988).

1.3 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY:

An organisation's human resources have become the one sustainable competitive advantage and therefore job satisfaction, performance and turnover is important for organisational success. Hence, it may therefore no longer feasible to consider the individual's job in isolation of the organisation or occupation.

1.4 RESEARCH PROBLEM:

The questions raised in this study are: Whether a relationship exists between job satisfaction and OCB of employees in a training organisation? Does job satisfaction have an influence on OCB? Based on which factors do employees exhibit OCB? Why do certain employees go beyond what is required in executing their job and others not? Is it possible that OCB can be predicted? The main objective of this study therefore is to establish whether a relationship exists between job satisfaction and OCB and whether a relationship is evident between these above mentioned constructs of the employees of the training organisation.

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

The objective of the study is to:

- determine whether employees are experiencing satisfaction within their jobs;
- identify work related factors which lead to job satisfaction;
- determine whether a relationship exists between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour based on biographical variables;
- identify whether employees exhibit OCB.

1.6 THE HYPOTHESES:

The following hypotheses will be investigated:

Hypothesis 1: There is a statistically significant relationship between the job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour amongst employees in a retail organisation in the Western Cape.

Hypothesis 2: There is no statistically significant relationship between the dimensions of job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour

Hypothesis 3: There is no statistically significant relationship between biographical characteristics (age, gender, marital status and tenure) and job satisfaction

Hypothesis 4: The four biographical variables (age, gender, marital status and tenure) will not statistically significantly explain the variance in job satisfaction

Hypothesis 5: The four biographical variables (age, gender, marital status and tenure) will not statistically significantly explain the variance in organisational citizenship behaviour

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY:

This particular study examines the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB of employees in a retail organisation situated in the Western Cape. The results of the study may be of value to managers in understanding what causes individuals behaviour and how it can be encouraged and promoted within the organisation.

1.8 LIMATITIONS OF THE STUDY:

- The fact that the study only conducts in one organisation could impact or even limit the generalisibility of research findings.

- The fact that the study relies on self-report measures could include relatively high level of "biasness" in the sense that the respondents would evaluate and measure themselves instead of colleagues or supervisors assessing them.

1.9 OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS:

Chapter 1 provides an overview of the constructs being researched in the current study that is job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. It highlights the aims and objectives of the study and finally the limitations of the study.

Chapter 2 presents an overview of the theoretical foundation that provides the premise of the study substantiating the research hypotheses for this particular study.

Chapter 3 describes in further detail the research design used to investigate the research problem with specific reference to the data collection methods and the statistical analysis.

Chapter 4 unveils the research findings from the analysis of data collected during the study.

Chapter 5

Concluding the study, chapter 5 discusses the results of the most salient results as well as the limitations of the study with recommendations for future study.

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CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The term organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) was first explored by Bateman and Organ (1983) to refer to particular behaviours that may benefit an organisation and gestures that cannot be enforced by means of formal role obligations nor be elicited by contractual guarantee of recompense. Organ (1988) proposes that OCB may have a positive impact on employees and organisational performance. In this work job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour are defined and explored.

2.1 JOB SATISFACTION:

Job satisfaction is an extensively researched topic (Li-Ping Tang & Talpade, 1999). Yousef (2000) explains that the reason for this is that job satisfaction is affected by numerous variables. To substantiate this Judge, Boudreau and Bretz (1994) in Buitendach (2005) are of the opinion that job satisfaction has a positive association with life satisfaction, organizational commitment (Fletcher & Williams, 1996 in Buitendach,2005) and job performance (Babin & Boles , 1996 in Buitendach,2005).

Incumbents who are experiencing satisfaction from performing their jobs are likely to be better ambassadors for the organization and be committed to their organization. (Agho, Price Mueller, 1992 in Buitendach, 2005)

2.2.1 DEFINITIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION:

Job satisfaction is the pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Locke,1976, cited in Sempane, Rieger & Roodt, 2002). In other words, job satisfaction is a compilation of attitudes that individuals have towards their work (James, 1994, cited in Malherbe & Pearse, 2003).

Lawler (1973, p. 63) maintains that: " what happens to people during the work day has profound effects both on the individual employee's life and on the society as a whole, and thus these events cannot be ignored if the quality of the life in society is to be high."

Locke (1976 cited in Sempane et al., 2002) proffers the view that researchers need to have a clear comprehension of job attitudes and explains that they have to understand job dimensions. He identifies the following as the common dimensions of job satisfaction: "work, pay, promotions, recognition, benefits, working conditions, supervision, co-workers, company and management" (Locke, 1976, p. 1302 in Sempane et al ., 2002).

According to Rothmann and Agathagelou (2000, p. 27 cited in Labuschagne, Bosman & Buitendach, 2005) "job satisfaction is a complex variable and is influenced by situational factors of the job environment, as well as dispositional characteristics of an individual. According to Hirshfield (cited in Labuschagne et al., 2005) job satisfaction relates to the emotional reaction which individual have towards

their job, resulting from the individuals' expectations of the job and the actual outcomes that they are experiencing.

2.2.2 INTRINSIC JOB SATISFACTION:

Buitendach (2005) identifies the intrinsic satisfaction as those factors that relate to the job task itself. These factors include variety, skill utilization and autonomy. According to Langley (1995) variety refers to the individual's need to experience a variety of tasks, activities, processes and methods. He also refers to skills utilization as ability utilization, which speaks of the extent the individual desires to develop his or her talents and abilities. Further he describes autonomy as the opportunity for individuals to make their own decisions and to execute their own plans as they deem fit, experiencing a level of independence in their work environment.
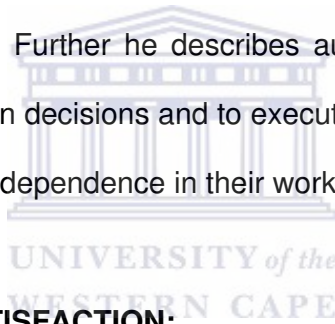
2.2.3 EXTRINSIC JOB SATISFACTION:

According to Buitendach (2005) the consequences of job satisfaction can be major for the employee due to the fact that it involves their emotional feelings. Locke (1976) in Buitendach (2005) identifies the most recurrent consequences of job satisfaction in terms of the negative impact it has on the employee's physical health, longevity, mental health, and the impact it has on interaction among employees and the feelings of employees towards their jobs and their social lives.

Mercer (1997) elucidates that an individual's affective reaction to work is hugely dependant on the interaction between individuals and their environment.

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Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk and Schenk (2003) maintain that job satisfaction often is thought to be tantamount to job attitudes, but cautions that one should take cognizance of the fact that those who differ in theoretical viewpoints may use somewhat different terms. Swanepoel et al. (2003) further explain that job satisfaction is viewed as the extent of incongruity that exists between the expectations of employees and what the employee actually perceive receiving.

2.2.4 JOB SATISFACTION THEORIES:

In order to comprehend job satisfaction it is pivotal to understand what motivates people within organizations. Motivation relates to why people act the way they do and why some individuals would refrain from doing things while others persist. Swanepoel et al. (2003) divide the various theories of motivation into content, process, and reinforcement theories. Content theories centre on the factors that supposedly motivate people: Maslow's needs hierarchy, Alderfer's ERG theory, Herzberg's two- factor theory, McClelland's achievement motivation theory and Locke's goal setting theory. Process theories, on the contrary, analyse the process people get motivated: cognitive dissonance theory, Stacey Adma's theory and Vroom's expectancy theory. Reinforcement motivation purports to establish how individuals can be conditioned to act in a way that is acceptable: McGregor's theory X and the theory Y.

2.2.5 CONTENT THEORIES:

Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2002) summarise the content theories: Maslow's needs hierarchy, Alderfer's ERG theory, Goal setting, Positive reinforcement and Herzberg's Two Factor Theory as the following:

2.2.5.1 MASLOW'S NEEDS HIERARCHY:

A psychologist, Abraham Maslow, proposed a need theory of motivation accentuating psychological and interpersonal needs in addition to physical and economic needs (Nelson & Quick, 2005). Martin (2001) argues that the basis of this model is that individuals will seek to satisfy the innate needs and wants they have. In addition, he adds that these innate needs and wants have a built in prioritizing system, thus being referred to the hierarchy of needs.

Figure: 2.1 Martin (2001)
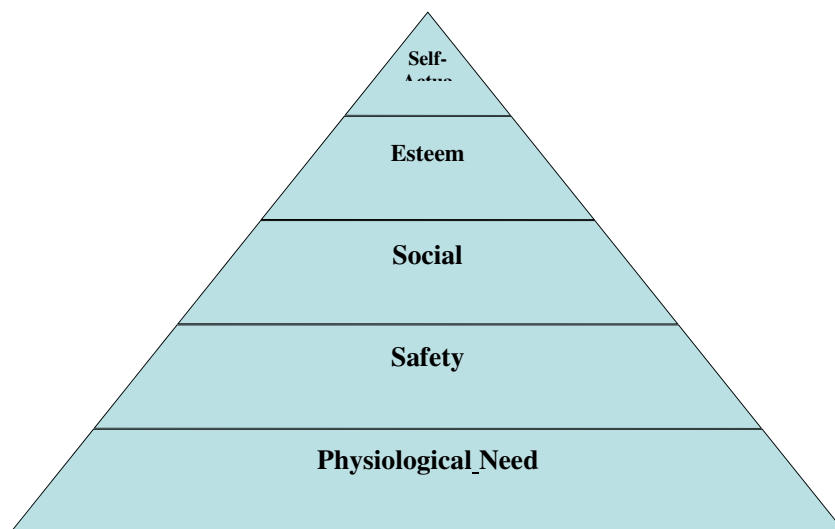
2.2.5.1.1 PHYSICAL OR PHYSIOLOGICAL NEEDS:

According to Grobler, et al. (2002) the physical needs of the individual refer to the person's need for food, shelter and clothing. This is also known as the primary needs that are often satisfied by compensation. Employees who are adequately remunerated would be able to see to these basic needs. Schultz et al. (2003) also describe the physiological need as the lowest order of needs. Examples of physiological needs may include: attractive salary or wages, company cafeteria, subsidies amongst others.

2.2.5.1.2 SAFETY AND SECURITY NEEDS:

After the physical or physiological needs have been satisfied the need for security and safety sets in. Job security is the most vital form of security desired. Other security factors include: increase in salary and benefits (Grobler et al., 2002). Shultz et al, (2003) add a few items that may be classified as safety and security needs such as: medical cover, pension plans, disability insurance and safe working conditions.

2.2.5.1.3 SOCIAL NEEDS:

Employees seek to form social relationships within and outside of the organization and this often adds to job satisfaction. Employees often value the acceptance of co-workers in the organization, which refers to psychological needs (Grobler et al., 2002).

2.2.5.1.4 SELF-ESTEEM:

Once employees feel accepted in the organization and successfully establishes relationship with their co-workers the need for self-esteem sets in. This related to the need for growth and development, achieving their full potential as well as self-fulfillment (Grobler et al., 2002).

2.2.5.1.5 SELF ACTUALIZATION:

Self actualization is the highest need which drives employees to seek fulfilment, pursue a useful life in the organization and ultimately in society. Employees will continue to seek jobs that are challenging and creative in their pursuit for self-actualisation. (Grobler et al., 2002)
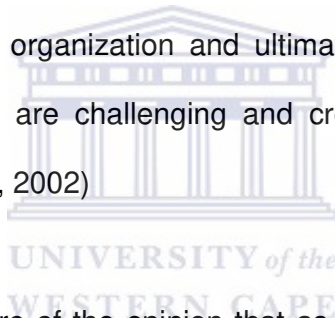
Nelson and Quick (2005) are of the opinion that as one level need is satisfied, the person moves to the next higher level of need as a source of motivation. They also identified a problem with the progression hypothesis in Maslow's hierarchy in that it does not make provision for employees to move down the hierarchy, which could happen, for instance, if a person at esteem level lost his job and becomes extremely concerned about his security.

2.2.5.2 ALDERFER'S ERG THEORY:

Swanepoel et al. (2003) maintains that according to Alderfer's theory there are three core needs, Existence, Relatedness and Growth. The need for existence refers to the human basic materialistic needs to exist. The need for relatedness relates to the human need and longing for interpersonal relationship and interaction with others. The need for growth speaks of the inherent longing for personal development. Carell et al. (1998) have the same opinion that the Alderfer's ERG (existence, relatedness and growth) theory proposes that when one need is frustrated the individual will simply direct attention on the other needs.

Nelson et al. (2005) explain that the ERG theory added another dimension to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, a regression hypothesis along with the progression hypothesis. The regression hypothesis states that failure of people's effort in satisfying a need in the higher level in the hierarchy of Maslow's needs might result in the person will regressing to the next lower level of needs and attempt to gratify these.

Schultz et al., (2003) makes use of the following model to illustrate ERG's theory:
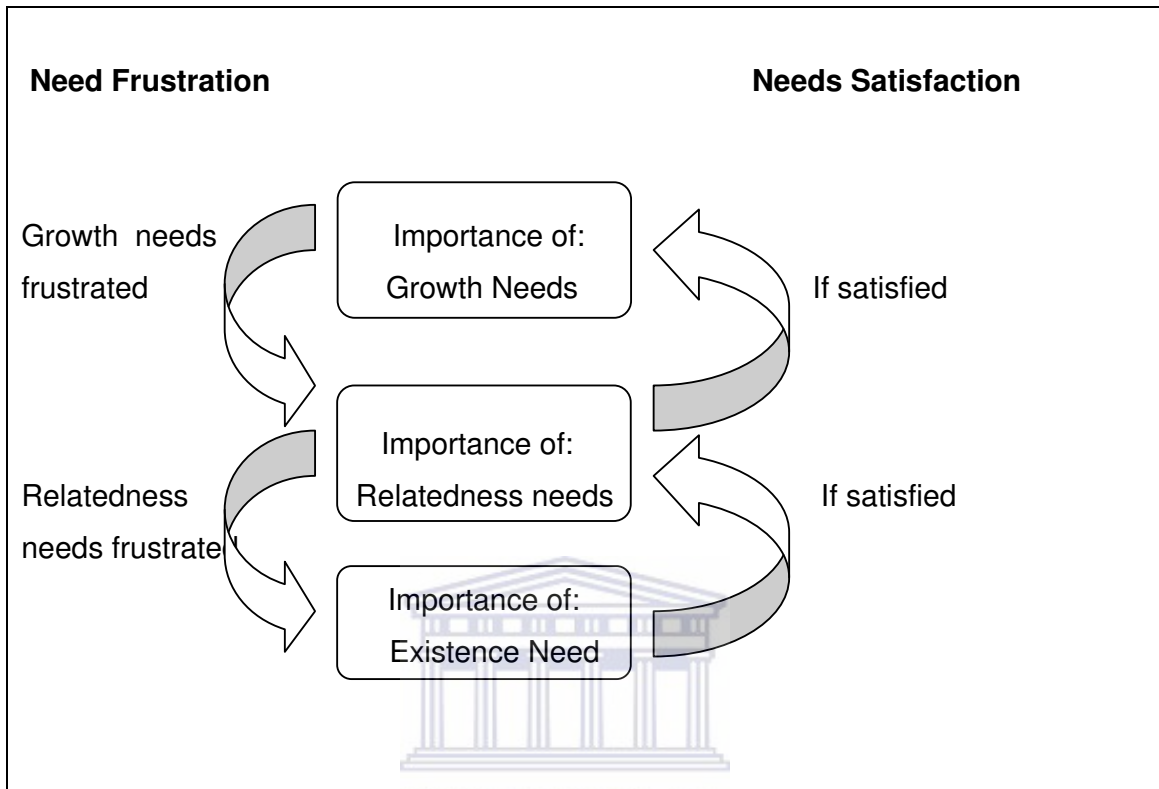
Figure: 2.2 Alderfer's ERG Theory

Schultz et al., (2003) concur with previous authors in that there are three groups of needs that can form a hierarchy but are not activated in a particular order. Alderfer (1972) in Schultz et al., (2003) termed the upward movement in the hierarchy as satisfaction-progression and downward movement as frustration-regression.

2.2.5.3 HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY OF MOTIVATION:

Herzberg applied his theory specifically to the workplace and job design. Herzberg discovered that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not straightforward opposites.

His findings indicate that poor working conditions lead to dissatisfaction, however this does not mean that good working conditions would result in job satisfaction either. According to Carell et al. (1998) these factors that prohibited dissatisfaction could be identified as hygiene factors. These hygiene factors include salary, attendance rules, holiday schedules, grievance and performance appraisal procedures, noise levels, co-worker relations and working conditions reflects the framework of the job. These factors are external to the incumbent and thus can be thought of as extrinsic factors, since the incumbent has no or little control of these factors as it is controlled by someone else.

Herzberg's theory maintains that it is difficult to keep these factors in tact and therefore does not necessarily yield long-term motivation. However, he argues that they are necessary in preventing job dissatisfaction and their absence averts the incumbent from concentrating on higher- level needs. Herzberg's theory stipulates that none of the above mentioned factors will result in employee motivation, essentially it proves that the more resources poured down the hygiene drain will inevitable require more in the future. This principle is evident in when trying to reason why salary disputes are never settled.

Carell et al. (1998) proceed in describing the second factor of Herberg's theory in claims that motivation is intrinsic in nature and reflects the content of the job. These intrinsic factors are controlled by employees themselves and cannot be given by management or supervisors.

2.2.5.4 MCCLELLAND'S ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION THEORY:

According to Grobler et al. (2002) the achievement motivation theory only placed emphasis on three needs: achievement, affiliation and power. The need to achieve is defined as "the preoccupation to focus on goals, improving performance and tangible results" (p. 105). This need is also strongly associated with self-discipline, schedule keeping, accepting responsibility and becoming success-orientated. The need for affiliation refers to the desire to make new friends and wanting to be part of a group and associating with other individuals. The need for power refers to the need to be in control and in charge of others, resources and environment. McClelland identifies the need for achievement as crucial for organizational success.
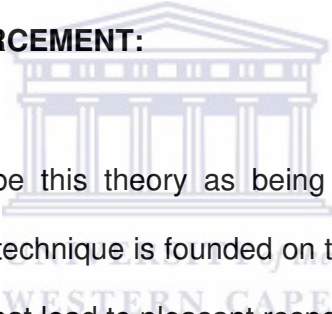
Nelson et al. (2005) classify the need for achievement, affiliation and power as manifest needs. They are of the opinion that some individuals and national cultures diverge on the levels of satisfaction of the manifest needs.

2.2.5.5 LOCKE'S GOAL SETTING THEORY:

Swanepoel et al. (2003) suggest that individuals deliver improved performance if they work towards a specific goal as apposed to working towards an objective that has not been clarified or understood by the individual. Thus the core of the theory is that particular goals serve as strong motivators in that they are able to inform the person as to what is to be accomplished and how much effort would be required in realizing this goal. The goal setting theory postulates that the more challenging the goal, the higher the level of input granted that the individual accept as true that he or

she possesses that ability to achieve the set goal. Other pertinent factors that are unique to the goal setting theory include, receiving continuous feedback of performance on how the individual is progressing in achieving the goal. It also proposes that the individual will be more committed to the goal if the goal has been made public and set by the individual him or herself. Empirical research shows that the likelihood of the individual realizing his or her goal and pursuing the goal with enthusiasm is higher if he or she has set this goal himself or herself. Carrell et al. (1998) are of the opinion that management by objectives is the best-known expression of goal setting.

2.2.5.6 POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT:

Carell et al. (1998) describe this theory as being central to the majority of the motivation techniques. The technique is founded on the law of effect, which refers to the theory that behaviours that lead to pleasant responses will be repeated, whereas behaviour that brings about unpleasant outcomes would be avoided next time. Reinforcement is at the core of merit increases.

Swanepoel et al. (2003) identify the reinforcement theory as a behavioural approach. This theory is in contrast with that of the goal setting theory which is a cognitive theory. Reinforcement theories hold that consequences will determine preceding behaviour. It is believed that if an employee is rewarded for certain behaviours exerted, this rewarded behaviour will be repeated. On the contrary, Swanepoel et al. (2003) also point out that behaviour which is not rewarded or that leads to punishment will diminish and will most likely not be repeated again.

Grobler (2002) also explains that the technique of reinforcement is based on the law of effect, where a certain behaviour that has unpleasant consequences will not be easily repeated.

2.3 JOB SATISFACTION DIMENSIONS:

Highly specialized jobs can be determined by measuring the two dimensions of the job, scope and depth. Job scope refers to how long it will take an employee to complete a task. Job depth refers to the degree to which a job is specialized. Determining this dimension is more challenging since the factors that are to be measured are not easily identifiable. These factors include how much planning, decision-making and controlling the worker has in the execution of the total job (Grobler et al., 2002).
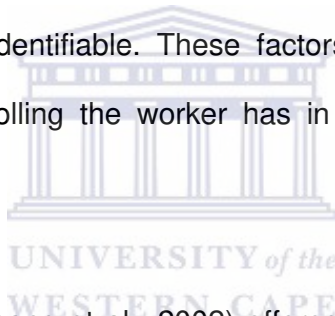
Locke (1976, cited in Sempane et al., 2002) offered a summary of job dimensions that have been established to add significantly to incumbents' job satisfaction. The dimensions are work itself, pay, promotions, recognition, working conditions, benefits, supervision and co-workers.

2.3.1 EXTRINSIC FACTORS OF JOB SATISFACTION:

2.3.1.1 WORK ITSELF:

The concept of "work itself" is referred to by Robbins et al. (2003,p.77) as "the extent to which the job provides the individual with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning, personal growth, and the chance to be responsible and accountable for results." Employees prefer jobs that gives them the opportunities to employ their competencies on a variety of tasks and that are mentally challenging (Robbins, 2003). This view is sustained by Lacey (1994) who indicated that employees are more satisfied with work itself when they are stimulated mentally and physically through various tasks (cited in Luddy,2005).

It is speculated that jobs that are unchallenging to employees leads to boredom and frustration according to Robbins (2003). However, Johns (1996) suggests that some employees have a preference for unchallenging and less demanding jobs. A major predictor of job satisfaction is the content of the work performed by employees according to Luthans (1995). In addition, "research is fairly clear that employees who find their work interesting, are more satisfied and motivated than employees who do not enjoy their jobs" (Gately, 1997 as cited by Aamodt, 2004, p. 326). Employees may have a preference for jobs that provides them with opportunities to apply their skills and abilities which also offer them a variety, freedom and jobs where constant feedback on their performance is offered (Robbins, 2005). It is therefore important for managers to be innovative in making work more interesting as an endeavour to increase job satisfaction of employees.

Furthermore, employees are likely to be satisfied with the job content and deliver higher quality work if a job is highly motivating (Friday & Friday, 2003). Fox (1994) as cited by Connolly and Myers (2003, p. 152) however, advances a contradictory view and maintain that "as workers become more removed from the ability to make meaning through work, the opportunity to experience job satisfaction becomes more difficult." This stems from the fact that job satisfaction is related to a myriad of factors, including physical, psychological and demographic variables, which are unrelated to the workplace.

2.3.1.2   PAY:

Pay refers to the amount of remuneration the employee received for a specific job (Robbins et al., 2003). Luthans (1995, p. 127) states that "wages and salaries are recognised to be a significant, but complex, multidimensional predictor of job satisfaction." Bassett (1994) is of the opinion that there is lack of evidence to prove that pay as the only factor improves satisfaction or reduces dissatisfaction. Further, he indicated that employees who are highly remunerated may still experience dissatisfaction if they have a dislike for the nature of their job and feel they are not able to enter into a more satisfying one.

Studies conducted by Spector (1997) and Berkowitz (1987) indicated that the correlation between the level of pay and job satisfaction tends to be surprisingly small. This therefore suggests that pay in itself is not a very strong factor influencing job satisfaction. Berkowitz (1987, p. 545) notes that "there are other considerations,

besides the absolute value of one's earnings that influences attitudes toward satisfaction with pay. "

Spector (1996, p. 226) postulates that "it is the fairness of pay that determines pay satisfaction rather than the actual level of pay itself." If an employee's compensation is therefore perceived to be equitable, when compared to another person in a similar position, satisfaction might be the likely result. According to Nel, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono and Werner (2004) employees view their compensation as an indicator as their value to the organisation. Employees generally make comparisons between their inputs and the received outputs relevant to that of others. In support of this view Sweeney and McFarlin (2005) concur that comparisons with similar others are important predictors of pay satisfaction. In their study, which focused around the social comparison theory, brought to light the fact that comparison with parallel others will have an impact on pay satisfaction.
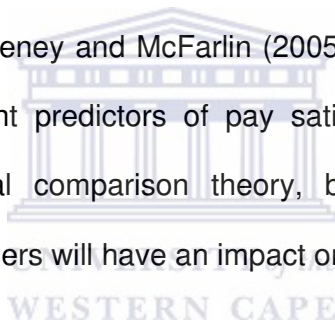
Atchison (1999) however, highlights that an increase in pay only serves as a short-term motivator and therefore other ways to increase the levels of job satisfaction should be explored by management.

Satisfaction with pay needs a closer look for the following main reasons indicated by Oshagbemi and Hickson (2003): Firstly, pay is one of the five indices integrated in the original and revised Job Descriptive Index and affects the overall level of employee job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Secondly, pay often represent major costs of conducting or managing business and is a primary factor in most organisational decision making.

2.3.1.3   PROMOTIONS:

According to Friday and Friday (2003), satisfaction with promotion assesses employees' attitudes toward the organisation's promotion policies and practices. Promotion affords employees with opportunities for personal growth, greater responsibilities and also increased social status (Bajpai & Srivastava, 2004).

Robbins (1989) maintains that employees seek promotion policies and practices that they perceive to be fair and unambiguous and in line with their expectations. Research indicates that employees are most likely to experience job satisfaction if they perceive that promotion decisions are made in a fair and just manner. However, Cockcroft (2001), is of the opinion that perceived equity of promotion is not the only single factor that has an positive impact on job satisfaction. It is likely that the employee may be happy about the organisations promotion policy, but dissatisfied with the opportunities for promotion. It is not the desire of all employees to be promoted it is therefore largely dependent on the individual career aspirations of the individual employee. In addition to this Cockcroft (2001) notes that the employee may perceive the promotion policy of the organisation as unfair, but would still be satisfied since they have no desire to be promoted.

Various researches indicated that job satisfaction is highly related to opportunities for promotion (Pergamit & Veum, 1999; Peterson, Puia & Suess, 2003; Sclafane, 1999 as cited in Luddy, 2005).

2.3.1.4 WORKING CONDITIONS:

According to Luthans (1995) working conditions is an extrinsic factor that has a moderate impact on an employee's job satisfaction. Working conditions refer to aspects such as temperature, lighting, noise and ventilation. Robbins (1989) maintains that employees are concerned with their work environment for both personal comfort and for facilitating good job performance.

According to Spector (1997), his findings demonstrated that employees tend to be dissatisfied with their job if they perceive high levels of constraints in terms of their work environment.

Research is unequivocal however, and indicates that "most people do not give working conditions a great deal of thought unless they are extremely bad" (Luthans, 1995, p. 128). Robbins (1989) maintains that employees are concerned with their work environment for both personal comfort and for facilitating good job performance.

2.3.1.5 SUPERVISION:

Research shows that people will be more satisfied with their job if they enjoy working with their supervisors (Aamodt, 2004). In addition, a study by Bishop and Scott (1997) as cited by Aamodt (2004) found that satisfaction with supervisors was related to organisational and team commitment, which in turn manifests in higher productivity, lower turnover and a greater willingness to help.

According to Luthans (1995), there seem to be three dimensions of supervision that affect job satisfaction. The first dimension relates to the extent to which supervisors concern themselves with the wellbeing of their employees. According to numerous studies employee satisfaction is enhanced if the immediate supervisor is emotionally supportive (Egan & Kadushin, 2004; Robbins, 1989; Schlossberg, 1997, as cited by Connolly & Myers, 2003).

The second dimension deals with the extent to which people participate in decisions that affect their jobs. Research by Grasso (1994) and Malka (1989) as cited by Egan and Kadushin (2004) indicated a positive relationship between managerial behaviour that encourages participation in decision-making and job satisfaction. Supporting this view Robbins (1989) maintains that satisfaction is increased if the immediate supervisor listens to employees' inputs.
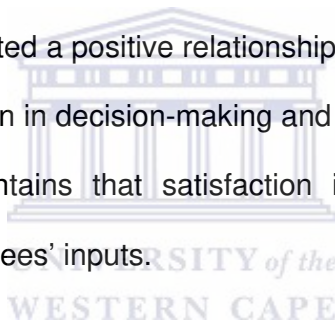
A third dimension of supervision has to do with job satisfaction, according to Luthans (1995), is an employee's perception of whether they are of value to their supervisor and their organisation. Connolly and Myers (2003) suggest that this aspect of an employee's work setting may also be related to enhancing job satisfaction.

2.3.1.6 CO-WORKERS:

According to (Robbins et al., 2003) the extent to which co-workers are friendly, competent and supportive are another dimension which influences job satisfaction. Various studies show that employees will experience increased job satisfaction if co-

workers are more supportive (Aamodt, 2004; Robbins, 1989; 2005). This is mainly because "the work group normally serves as a source of support, comfort, advice and assistance to the individual worker" (Luthans, 1995, p. 127).

Landy (1989) suggests that employees will be more satisfied with colleagues who are inclined to view matters in the similar way as they do.

Further researchers found that employees observe the levels of satisfaction of other employees and then adopt these behaviours (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1997 as cited by Aamodt, 2004). Hence, if an organisation's veteran employees work hard and talk positively about their jobs, new employees will model this behaviour which will result in productiveness and satisfaction. The reverse can also be true. Contrary to this Luthans (2002) argues that co-worker relations are not essential to job satisfaction, but in the presence of extremely strained relationships job satisfaction is likely to suffer.

2.4.1 FAIRNESS:

Another factor that is related to job satisfaction is the extent to which employees believe that they are being treated with fairness (Aamodt, 2004). According to Robbins (1989), employees seek for policies and systems that they believe to be fair as this may result in an increase in job satisfaction.

Johns (1996) makes the differentiation between distributive fairness and procedural fairness. Distributive fairness is related to the fairness of the actual decisions made

in an organisation. Employees are most likely to experience job satisfaction if they perceive that decisions are made in a fair manner (Robbins, 2005).

On the other hand, procedural fairness occurs when the processes to determine work outcomes/decisions are believed to be reasonable. According to Johns (1996, p. 142), "procedural fairness is particularly relevant to outcomes such as performance evaluations, pay raises, promotions, layoffs and work assignments. " Therefore, if the processes used to arrive at for example, promotion decisions, are perceived to be fair, it may lead to job satisfaction.

Aamodt (2004) found that the relationship between perceptions of justice and job satisfaction is significant; thus employers should be open about how decisions are made and provide feedback to employees who might unhappy with certain important decisions.
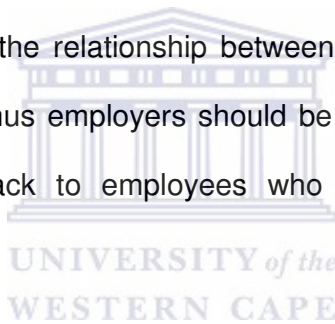
2.5.1 INTRINSIC FACTORS OF JOB SATISFACTION:

Intrinsic sources of job satisfaction mainly generated from within the individual and are essentially lasts longer than the extrinsic sources (Atchison, 1999). These sources are generally intangible in nature, such as employees feeling a sense of pride in their work as well as individual differences such as personality.

2.6.1 PERSON-JOB FIT

Some research has attempted to investigate the interaction between job and person factors to ascertain whether certain types of people respond differently to different types of jobs (Spector, 1997). This approach suggests that "there will be job satisfaction when characteristics of the job are matched to the characteristics of the person" (Edwards, 1991 as cited by Spector, 1997). One stream of research has investigated this perspective in two ways: (1) in terms of the fit between what organisations require and what employees are looking for and (2) in terms of the fit between what employees are looking for and what they are actually offered (Mumford, 1991 as cited by Mullins, 1999).

Johns (1996, p. 140) refers to this as the "discrepancy theory" of job satisfaction and maintains that "satisfaction is a function of the discrepancy between the job outcomes people want and the outcomes they perceive they obtain." Hence, the smaller the discrepancy, the higher the job satisfaction should be (Johns, 1996; Spector, 1997). For example, a person who is seeking a job that entails interaction with the public but who is office bound, will most likely be dissatisfied with this aspect of the job.

2.7.1 DISPOSITION/PERSONALITY

Robbins (1989, p. 51) defines personality as "the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others." Research suggests that some individuals are predisposed by virtue of their personality to be more or less satisfied amidst the fact that their working environment may vary from time to time and other factors (Aamodt, 2004; Johns, 1996).

This concept can apparently be traced back to the Hawthorne studies, which indicated that particular individuals were constantly complaining about their jobs (Spector, 1996). Despite what the researchers did, the participants found a reason to complain. The conclusion that was reached was that their dissatisfaction is a result of their personality. According to Aamodt (2004) one of the ways therefore is to increase the overall level of job satisfaction in an organisation is to recruit talent who exhibit overall job and life satisfaction.

Schneider and Dachler (1978) as cited by Spector (1996) states that job satisfaction appears to be constant over time and that it may be the result of personality traits. This view holds some truth in that people with a negative attitude towards life would most likely respond negatively to their jobs even if their jobs changed (Atchison, 1999). The author proceeds in stating that numerous organisations invest much time trying to turn these "negative" people around. In such cases, the best organisations could do is to keep these individuals from influencing the rest of their employees and workforce.

On the other hand, people with a positive inclination towards life, would most likely have a positive attitude towards their job as well. It is noted by Aamodt (2004), however, that findings on the personality-job satisfaction relationship are controversial and have received some criticism, thus more research would be appropriate before firm conclusions can be drawn. Spector (1997) further indicates that most research on the personality-job satisfaction relationship has only demonstrated that a correlation exists, without offering much theoretical explanations.

2.8 IMPACT OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES ON JOB SATISFACTION

Studies on job satisfaction have further identified certain personal or demographic characteristics which influence satisfaction in some way or another. This would involve comparing job satisfaction ratings based on demographic variables such as age, gender, marital status, job level, tenure and number of dependents.

2.8.1 GENDER

As the influx of woman into the workplace increases it has become pivotal to understand how men and women may be different in their job attitudes. There is a growing interest in attempting to explain the gender-job satisfaction relationship by researchers. However, research in this regard has not been consistent. Some literature reports that males are more satisfied than females, others suggest females are more satisfied and some have found no differences in satisfaction levels based on gender.

Most studies have found only a few differences in job satisfaction levels amongst males and females according to Spector (2000). Research by Loscocco (1990) demonstrated that female employees enjoyed higher levels of job satisfaction than male employees across various settings. This author purports that most women value rewards that are readily available to them, such as relationships with co-workers. Hence, it becomes easier for them to experience job satisfaction. Male employees on the other hand, most likely desire things like autonomy and financial rewards which are not as readily available. Lower levels of job satisfaction may be a product of this.

A study conducted Alavi and Askaripur (2003) amongst 310 employees in government organisations, found no significant variance in job satisfaction among male and female employees. Carr and Human's (1988) research supports this view as they investigated a sample of 224 employees at a textile plant in the Western Cape and found no significant relationship between gender and satisfaction. Furthermore, Pors (2003) conducted a study including 411 Danish library managers and library managers from the United Kingdom and concluded that there is no overall difference in job satisfaction in relation to gender. A possible explanation is offered by Tolbert and Moen (1998), who maintain that men and women attach value to different aspects of the job. This therefore makes it difficult to measure differences in job satisfaction based on gender.

On the contrary, research conducted by Okpara (2004) with a sample size of 360 Information Technology managers in Nigeria, indicated that female employees are less satisfied than their male counterparts - specifically with pay, promotion and

supervision. According to Okpara (2004), this finding may be attributed to higher educational levels of women in this sample. The author postulates that higher education levels raise expectations about status, pay and promotion and if these expectations are realised, they may experience lower levels of satisfaction.

2.8.2 AGE

While research has offered varied evidence on the influence of age on job satisfaction, majority of the studies suggest a positive correlation, that is, older workers tend to be more satisfied with their jobs than younger workers (Okpara, 2004; Rhodes, 1983 as quoted by Kacmar & Ferris, 1989; Saal & Knight, 1988).

A number of explanations may be given to explain the positive correlation between age and job satisfaction (Okpara, 2004):

- Older employees have adapted to their work over the years, which might have lead to higher levels of satisfaction.

- Prestige and confidence are likely to mature with age and this could result in older employees experiencing more satisfaction.

- Younger employees may have the benefit of mobility and therefore seek greener pastures, which could lead to lower satisfaction levels.

- Younger employees are more likely to hold high expectations of their jobs and if these expectations are not met, they might end up being dissatisfied.

However, on the other hand, other research suggests that age does not significantly explain the difference in job satisfaction levels (Alavi & Askaripur, 2003; Carr & Human, 1988; Kacmar & Ferris, 1989; Siu, 2002).

2.8.3 TENURE

Research suggests that tenure may influence job satisfaction, according to Saal and Knight (1988). Literature vastly indicates a positive relationship between tenure and job satisfaction, that is, employees with longer job experience are more satisfied in comparison with those with lesser years of experience (Bilgic, 1998 as cited by Okpara, 2004; Jones-Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Staw, 1995). Okpara (2004) provides an explanation for this positive correlation and suggests that over time employees eventually settle into their jobs, which may result in an increase in organisational commitment and job satisfaction. In addition, Robbins (1989) maintains that the longer an employee occupies a job, the more likely they may be to be satisfied with the status quo.

Lambert, Hogan, Barton and Lubbock (2001) holds a different view and argue that there is an inverse relationship between tenure and job satisfaction. Thus, the tenured employees are less satisfied than those employees who have been in the organisation for shorter time period. The results of holding the same job over a long

period of time may result in employees becoming bored and start experiencing lower levels of job satisfaction.

Research in this regards appears to be contradictory as researchers, Alavi and Askaripur (2003) presents a different view. The authors investigated a study amongst 310 employees in government organisations and found no significant difference in job satisfaction amongst employees based on their years of service.

2.8.4 MARITAL STATUS:

There is consistency in the finding of research that married employees are more satisfied with their jobs than their un-married co-workers (Chambers, 1999; Loscocco, 1990; Robbins et al., 2003).
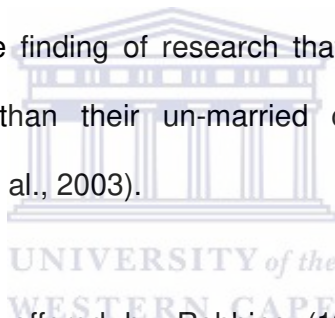
A possible explanation is offered by Robbins (1989) where he suggests that marriage requires increased responsibilities which might make a stable job more valuable, thus increasing their satisfaction. However, Robbins et al. (2003) note that the available research only distinguishes between being single and married and do not look at the divorced, cohabit couples and widowed which also needs to be investigated.

Furthermore, a study by Alavi and Askaripur (2003) reported no significant difference in job satisfaction and its five dimensions among single and married personnel. There is therefore a disagreement among researchers regarding the relationship between marital status and job satisfaction.

2.8.5 NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS

Robbins (1989) indicated that there is strong evidence suggesting a positive relationship between the number of dependents and job satisfaction. This means that the higher the number of dependents an employee has, the higher the job satisfaction is likely to be. A possible reason for this could be that employees with more children are most likely older and for a longer period of time in their jobs.

The increase in job satisfaction may be a result of their willingness to adapt to their work situations. Studies by Alavi and Askaripur (2003) amongst employees in government organisations reported no statistically significant relationship between the number of dependents and job satisfaction. Limited literature and research is available in this are though.

2.8.6 JOB LEVEL

Oshagbemi (1997) indicated that relatively few studies has been explored to investigate the relationship between employees' job level and corresponding levels of job satisfaction.

However, according to Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) and Saal and Knight (1988), the limited research available suggests that people who hold higher level jobs are more satisfied than those who hold lower level positions. Few other researchers also found support for a positive relationship between job level and satisfaction. Smither (1998) noted that employees in jobs which is characterised by hot or dangerous conditions, which are normally of a lower level nature, may

experience lower levels of job satisfaction. Furthermore, Miles, Patrick and King (1996) found that job levels moderates the communication-job satisfaction relationship.

A possibility exists that the more challenging, complex nature of higher-level jobs may lead to higher job satisfaction. In addition, employees in professional and managerial jobs are normally paid more, have better promotion prospects, autonomy and responsibility which might also increase the levels of job satisfaction (Saal & Knight, 1988).

It may be concluded therefore that job level is a reliable predictor of job satisfaction; more specifically employees in higher level jobs have greater satisfaction than lower level employees.
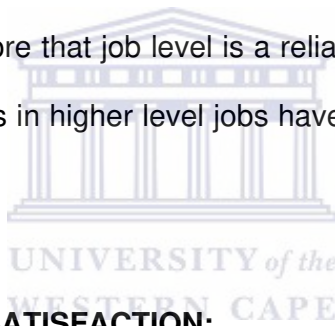
2.9 WHAT CAUSES JOB SATISFACTION:

There are five main models of job satisfaction which specify the causes according to Kreitner and Kinicki (1998). The five models are namely: need for fulfilment, discrepancy, value attainment, equity and trait / genetic components, a brief discussion on the models will follow.
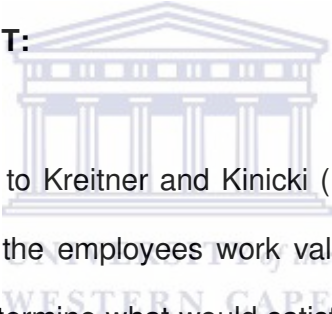
2.9.1 NEED FULFILMENT:

Kreitner and Kinicki (1998) is of the opinion that satisfaction is determined by the degree to which the characteristics of a job allows an employee realize their needs.

2.9.2 DISCREPANCIES:

This model suggests that satisfaction is an outcome of expectations that are met. Met expectation is the variation between what an employee expects to receive from the job, such as pay and promotional opportunities and what is actually received (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998). Hence, if an employee's expectation is higher than what is received it will ultimately result in dissatisfaction. Various theories focus on the needs and values of people such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs, ERG theory, Two-factor and McClelland's needs theory (Grobler et al., 2002).

2.9.3 VALUE ATTAINMENT:

Value attainment according to Kreitner and Kinicki (1998) is the degree to which a job allows the fulfilment of the employees work values. Locke (1976) argues that employees values would determine what would satisfy them on the job ultimately. In light of this, it is believed that since employees hold various values their job satisfaction levels will also therefore differ. According to Anderson, Ones, Sinangil and Viswesvaran (2001) the theory would predict that the discrepancies between what is desired and received are dissatisfying only if the job facet is of utmost importance to the employee.

The possible problem with this theory lies in the fact that what people desire and what people consider to be important are likely to have a high correlation (Cooper & Locke, 2000). " In theory these concepts are separable; however, in practice many

people will find it difficult to distinguish the two. Despite this olimitation, research on the theory has been highly supportive" (Cooper & Locke, 2000, p.169).

2.9.4 EQUITY:

The level of job satisfaction experienced by employees is related to how fairly they believe they are being treated in comparison to others, this is according to the equity theory that was developed by Adams in 1965 (Cockroft, 2001). A result of inequitable situations is that employees may experience dissatisfaction and emotional tension, thus motivated to reduce (Spector, 2000).

2.9.5 TRAIT/ GENERIC COMPONENTS:

Several studies had indicted that employees are likely to experience job satisfaction when they are able to utilise all their skills and knowledge on the job, perform varied tasks, and experience positive employee-manager relations, organisational culture

2.10 IMPACT OF DISSATISFIED AND SATISFIED EMPLOYEES ON THE ORGANISATION:

As previously mentioned that the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour have been investigated by numerous researchers. For the management process this has certain implications in the organisation. The organisation variables would include amongst the following: performance and turnover as well as non work related of a personal nature as well.

This would be variables such as health and satisfaction with life. The section to follow briefly discusses the potential effect of job satisfaction on various variables.

2.11 JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB PERFORMANCE

A vast number of studies have been conducted to examine whether a relationship exists between job satisfaction and productivity according to Porter, Bigley and Steers (2003). An assumption is made that if an employee is happy may tend to be more productive and an unhappy employee is less productive. A large body of researchers are of the opinion that job satisfaction has a positive impact on productivity (Cranny, Cain-Smith & Stone, 1992; Kreitner & Kinicki,2001;Robbins,2005;Spector,1997). However, no evidence could be found to confirm that a clear relationship exists between satisfaction and productivity unfortunately. According to Porter et al. (2003) Vroom's theory of satisfaction-job performance had to contend with the fact that happiness and productivity is not necessarily have a positive correlation. Motivation and management is looked at in Vroom's theory of expectancy. It makes the assumption that behaviour is a product of conscious decisions of people among alternatives which serves to maximise pleasure and minimise pain. Further, Vroom realised that there are individual factors such as an individual's personality, skills, knowledge and experience.

As a result, the fact that satisfaction and performance are not closely linked has been acknowledged by organisational psychologists according to March and Simon (1965) as sited in Porter et al. (2003).

2.12 JOB SATISFACTION AND OCB

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2001) organisational commitment reflects the extent to which an employee identifies with the organisation and the extent to which the employee is committed to organisational goals. Organisational commitment has three components according to Armstrong (1996):

- o Identification with the organisation's goals and values;

- o a need to belong to the organisation, and

- o a keenness to display effort to the benefit of the organisation.

Armstrong (1996) cited in Josias (2005) suggests that there is a strong correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. High commitment can and may in turn facilitate higher productivity.
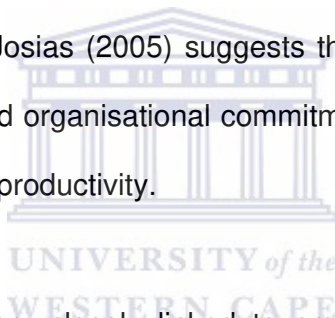
Another concept that is very closely linked to organisational commitment is the concept of organisational citizenship behaviour. Spector (1997, p.57) defines OCB as a "behaviour by an employee intended to help co-workers or the organisation." Thus referring to the voluntary behaviour employee's exerts to assist their fellow colleagues and their employers. It is noted by Robbins (2005) that job satisfaction is a huge determinant of OCB in that employees who are satisfied are likely to talk positively about their organisation and go beyond what is their normal tasks and responsibilities are. Overall the nature of the relationship between the two variables is modest according to Robbins et al. (2003).

In earlier discussions of OCB the assumption was made that a close link exists between job satisfaction according to Bateman and Organ (1983), where more recent research assumes that satisfaction influences OCB, but through the perception of fairness (Fahr, Podsakoff & Organ, 1990). Further, Fahr et al. (1990) support the assumption that overall a modest relationship exists between job satisfaction and OCB, but satisfaction is unrelated to OCB when fairness is controlled for. This implies that job satisfaction is based on fair outcomes, treatment and procedures (Organ, 1994). However, trust is developed when an employee perceives the organisational process and outcomes to be fair. Willingness to go beyond what is required may be a product of employees who trusts their organisation (Organ, 1994).

2.13 JOB SATISFACTION AND EMPLOYEE BEHAVIOUR (ABSENTEEISM, TURNOVER)

Organisational effectiveness can be negatively impacted by absenteeism. Spector (1997) found that job satisfaction plays a pivotal role in an employee's decision to be absent. Even though the correlation is not very high between job satisfaction and absenteeism, most literature indicates that a negative correlation exists between the two variables (Robbins, 1989; Spector, 1997). Absenteeism is costly and Krietner and Kinicki (1998) suggest that one way to decrease absenteeism is by increasing job satisfaction. Research therefore suggests that if satisfaction increases, absenteeism therefore decreases.

Turnover is very expensive and disrupts organisational continuity, this presents concerns to managers. The costs included in turnover are separation costs (exit interviews, separation pay) , the placement and training costs of the new employee according to Saal and Knight (1988) as cited in Kreitner and Krnicki (1998). Studies have been consistent in demonstrating a correlation between satisfaction and turnover (Spector, 1997). Employees who experience low levels of satisfaction are more likely to leave their employer. Luthans (1995, p .129) states that "high job satisfaction will not, in and of itself, keep turnover low, but it does seem to help. On the other hand, if there is considerable job dissatisfaction, there is likely to be high turnover." It is therefore of high importance that employees satisfaction levels are managed as it may lead to employees wanting to leave the organisation if not managed with care.
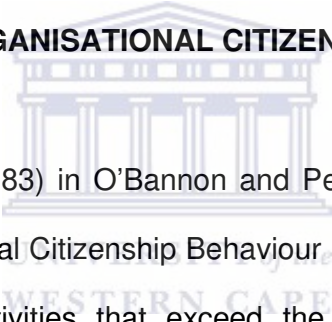
2.14 JOB SATISFACTION AND COUNTER PRODUCTIVE BEHAVIOURS

The opposite of organisational citizenship behaviour is counterproductive behaviours which include aggression against co-workers, employers, sabotage and theft at work. According to Spector (1997) the counterproductive behaviour can be associated with frustration and dissatisfaction with work. One of the more costly consequences of organisational frustration is represented through sabotage which is the deliberate damaging of equipment or products by employees (French, 1998). A limited number of investigations on the causes of counterproductive behaviour in organisations have been undertaken (Spector, 1997). In an endeavour to reduce counterproductive behaviour it would be important for organisations to create a workplace that enhances job satisfaction.

2.15 THE CONCEPT OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Organisations are increasingly being pressured to be lean, dynamic, proactive quick responding, team-based, efficient, empowering and innovative. Business media are paying more attention to harnessing intellectual and social capital of organisational members for competitive advantage (Bhagat, Ford, Jones & Taylor, 2002). OCB is becoming more and more important for organisational success (Bolino, Turnley, & Bloodgood, 2002).

2.16 DEFINITIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR:

Smith, Organ and Near (1983) in O'Bannon and Pearce (1999) state that the first appearance of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) was made in the 1980's. OCB is the employee activities that exceed the formal job requirements and contribute to the effective functioning of the organisation (Finkelstein, 2006). OCB is defined as extra role behaviour that exceeds formally required work expectation (Organ, 1988).

Derived from Kat'z (1964) category of extra role behaviour, OCB has been defined as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation" (Organ, 1988, p. 4).According to Msweli-Mbanga & Lin (2003) OCB is the function of individual initiative, helping behaviour, organisational allegiance and loyalty.

A brief description of each OCB dimension follows as outlined by Organ (1988):

2.16.1 ALTRUISM:

Refer to employees assisting their colleagues with work related tasks. According to Farh, Zong and Organ (2004) it is the discretionary behaviour that aids a specific employee or group in task related matters.

2.16.2 CONSCIENTIOUSNESS:

Refers to role behaviours that goes beyond basic role requirements, including observing the rules, working diligently, attendance etc. Similarly, Farh et al. (2004) refers to conscientiousness as the discretionary behaviour on the part of the employee that goes beyond the minimum role requirement of the organisation, in the areas of attendance, obeying rules and regulations.

2.16.3 SPORTSMANSHIP:

Employees exhibit sportsmanship when they do not complain during difficult times, avoiding the initiation of trivial grievances. In other words, tolerating in good spirit the occasional hardships and deprivation that unpredictably befall employees in the course of the organisational endeavours (Farh et al., 2004).

2.16.4 COURTESY:

It is the discretionary behaviour targeted at avoiding and preventing workplace conflicts, mindful of how one's actions would impact others etc. In addition, it is the gestures that help avoid problems for co-workers (Farh et al., 2004).

2.16.5 CIVIC VIRTUE:

Civic virtue refers to the employee's involvement in organisational life, including optional meetings, keeping up with organisational changes, performing a task that is beneficial to the company's image. Also includes the constructive involvement in the political life of the organisation (Farh et al., 2004).

2.17 THE IMPORTANCE OF EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIOUR:

Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch (1994) define OCB as the behaviour employees exert which is beyond the traditional measures of job performance. These kinds of behaviours are not an integral part of the formal job description nor are they included in the conventional reward system. OCB however, holds promise for long term company success. OCB has generally been accepted as a beneficial construct for organisations (Tan & Tan, 2008).

Other terms have been used to describe OCB, terms such as prosocial organisational behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo,1986), extra role behaviour (Van Dyne & Cummings, 1990) and organisational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992).Also

referred to as contextual performance or prosocial organisational behaviour (Finkelstein, 2006). According to Cox, (1994), OCB at the end benefits organisational functioning through the little, unexpected deeds of selfless sensitivity, cooperation, and contributions that neither is formally recognised nor rewarded. Behaviours such as the above, have the probability to improve interpersonal relations, communication between employees, job satisfaction as well as foster an atmosphere of collaboration.

Dubrin (2005) further suggests that organisational citizenship behaviour is a consequence of job satisfaction and that personality factors are at times linked to OCB as well. Dubrin (2005) states that organisational citizenship behaviour is the eagerness to work for the benefit of the organisation without any agreement of a reward. Instances like assisting a person with a computer problem from another department or picking up litter from company parking could all be examples of good citizenship behaviour.

In Podsakoff and MacKenzie is research (1989, in Van Yperen, van den Berg & Willering, (1999) OCB was measured on a scale developed which was (1) altruism (for example at all times ready and willing to assist and help others around him/her), (2) conscientiousness (e.g is prepared to work on a job/project until it is completed even if it means working over general working time), (3) sportsmanship (Spending a lot of time complaining about trivial matters), (4) courtesy (for example: Aware of how his/her actions impacts others.) and (5) civic virtue (for example: provides useful suggestions regarding changes that may be made in his/her department or company). OCB is driven by motivational factors which are exercised within the

discretion of individuals, and ultimately impact the overall organisational performance and effectiveness (Tan & Tan, 2008).

2.17 MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS OF OCB:

Organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) are work behaviours that are influenced by motivational factors and strongly related to motives such as organisational concern (OC) and pro social values (PV) according to Finkelstein and Penner (2004). Researchers, Finkelstein (2006), identified three motives for OCB of which two of them are selfless motivation which includes a regard for the organisation (OC). The other motive refers to the desire to assist others (PV).

TABLE 2.1: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Variable:	OCB:
Level of discretion:	Exercised by an individual as a result of positive influences or as a means to positive outcomes.
Level of attribution	Occurs at the individual or organisational level.
Basis of motivation	Motives such as organisational concern, prosocial values, and impression management.
Impact on organisation	Increase organisational effectiveness and performance through prosocial behaviour.
Relation to formal work requirements	Extra role behaviour that exceeds work requirements.

Degree of control by individuals	Voluntary contributions.

2.19 ANTECEDENTS OF OCB:

OCB is work behaviour recognized on an individual level, but have an impact on the group and organisation of which the individual is part (Smith et al., 1983). As previously mentioned OCB have an impact on organisational performance in that it increases the effectiveness of organisations (Organ, 1988). OCB is within the control of the employee as OCB is the voluntary contributions that are over and above the task and organisational requirements (Kerr, 1983).

Schappe (1998) highlighted the following three correlates as antecedents of OCB:

2.19.1 JOB SATISFACTION:

Substantial evidence is found within literature to support that a relationship between job satisfaction and OCB exists (Schappe, 1998). Examples of this are found in a survey of university employees, Bateman and Organ (1983) found a significant relationship between general measures of job satisfaction and supervisory ratings of citizenship behaviour. Furthermore, employing path analysis, Smith et al. (1983) found that job satisfaction, measured as a chronic mood state, showed a direct predictive path to altruism but not to comply in general.

2.19.2 PROCEDURAL JUSTICE:

According to Thibuat and Walker (1975), cited in Schappe (1998), procedural justice deals with the perceived fairness of the process through which decisions are made. Later suggestions were made that procedural justice consists of a structural dimension and interpersonal dimension (Greenberg, 1990). Several studies done by Moorman and his colleagues give support to the evidence that relationships between OCB and the structural and interpersonal dimensions of procedural justice exists. Moorman (1991) found that significant paths between interactive justice (that is the interpersonal dimension of procedural justice) and four or five OCB dimensions (that is paths to altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, and sportsmanship were significant; the path to civic virtue was not). The finding was realised by making use of a structural equations modelling approach.

2.19.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT:

Theoretical support for commitment and OCB-relationship has been presented by Scholl (1981) and Weiner (1982). Scholl (1981) suggested that because commitment upholds behavioural direction when there is little expectation of formal organisational rewards for performance, commitment is likely to be a determinant of OCB. Similarly, Weiner (1982) suggests that commitment is responsible for behaviours that do not depend primarily on reinforcement or punishment. On the contrary and despite the strong support for a relationship between commitment and OCB, Tansky (1993) found no support for such a relationship. In a survey of organisational supervisors and managers, she found no significant positive relationship between organisational commitment and five OCB dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue).

In the study conducted by Schappe (1998) it was found that when all three antecedents are considered together, only organisational commitment emerges as a significant predictor of OCB.

2.19.4 LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS

An employee's willingness to engage in OCB may be influenced by leadership to a large extent. Research identified that it is due to the quality of the relationship between employee and the leader that matters (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

2.19.5 FAIRNESS OF PERCEPTIONS

According to Moorman (1991) fairness refers to the extent to which the employee believe that organisational decisions are made equitably, with employee input (also known as procedural justice) and whether the employee perceive the fairness of the rewards system (also known as distributive justice).

2.19.6 ROLE PERCEPTIONS

Role perceptions include perceptions such as role conflict, role ambiguity, role clarification and role facilitation. According to Padsakoff et al.(2000) found that role conflict and role ambiguity to be negatively correlation to OCB, whereas role clarity and role facilitation is positively related to OCB.

2.19.7 INDIVIDUAL DISPOSITIONS

Organ and Ryan (1995) have found that personality factors inclusive of positive and negative affectivity, conscientiousness and agreeableness are believed to predispose employees to engage in OCB.

To gain an understanding around the OCB construct, Hudson (1999) as cited in Mester Visser and Roodt (2003) noted that it should not only to be expected from an employee to go beyond or above the call of duty. OCB researchers have explored attitudes including job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, trust in management and co-workers and organisational commitment as antecedents of OCB (William & Anderson, 1991; Organ, 1988;Puffer, 1987; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986;Smith et al, 1983). Job satisfaction is the most consistent factor correlated with OCB. A study conducted by Organ and Ryan (1995) indicated in their meta-analytic review of 55 studies that job satisfaction, fairness and organisational commitment were the only correlates in the majority of the studies. Even though job satisfaction and organisational commitment are strongly related to OCB, research supports the relationship between perceptions of fairness and OCB (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993;Konovsky & Folger, 1991; Fahr et al.,1990). Some researchers would argue that when studying the impact of join satisfaction on OCB that it is beneficial to include perceptions of fairness as sited in Alotaibi (2001).

However, for the purpose of this study the researcher intends to explore the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. Lui, Huang and Chen (2004) is of the opinion that there is no worth that antecedents such as job satisfaction, perception of equity, organisation commitment, trust, procedural justice and distributive justice all have positive relationships with OCB (Zellers, Tepper & Duffy, 2002; Alotaibi, 2001;Hui, Law & Chen, 1999; Fahr, Early & Lin, 1997; Fork, Hartman, Villere, Maurice & Maurice, 1996).

2.20 CONSEQUENCES OF OCB:

According to Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) OCB enhances the social and psychological work environment. Its enhancement is in a manner that supports task proficiency and has the ability to increase group performance (Walz & Nichoff, 2000). OCB enhances team spirit and cohesiveness in an organisation (Kidwell, Mossholder & Bennet, 1997).

OCB has been associated to improved employee retention, better resource allocation (Bolino, 1999). Improved work group co-ordination and effectiveness has also been associated with OCB (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997). Rioux and Penner (2001) noted that the motive behind the OCB of the employee are thought to determine the extent of these organisational outcomes. Further, they explain that self serving motives could actually not serve the organisation (Baumeister, 1989, Schnake, 1991 cited in Becker & O'Hair, 2007).

2.21 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH FINDINGS-RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND OCB:

According to Todd and Kent (2006) it has been accepted that job satisfaction is a significant predictor of OCB for many years. The conception of the construct of OCB originated from the belief that job satisfaction influences an employee's work behaviours that were extra-role in nature (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Consequently Organ (1988) was of the opinion that job satisfaction and OCB was inextricably linked in a solid bond (as cited in Todd & Kent, 2006).

When employees experience satisfaction with their job, they will reciprocate with positive behaviour (that is, OCB) to benefit the organisation according to theory (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Bateman and Organ (1983) proved that job satisfaction was positively related to OCB and suggested that only employees who experience high levels of satisfaction with dedicate their efforts and exert behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation.

Earlier research (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983; Graham, 1986; Puffer, 1987; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Kemery, Bedeian & Zacur, 1996; Moorman, 1993; Wagner & Rush, 2000; Robbins, 2001; Appelbaum et al., 2004) and the theoretical rationale offered by Organ (1989, 1990) provided support for the investigated positive correlated relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Robbins (2005) indicated that job satisfaction is a major determinant of OCB as employees who experience satisfaction are highly likely to talk positively about their organisation and go beyond their normal responsibilities and duties. In addition, Organ and Ryan's (1995) meta-analysis demonstrated that an individual's cognitive work attitudes can predict OCB better than an individual's dispositions.

There is a modest overall relationship between job satisfaction and OCB according to Robbins et al., (2003). Organ and Konovsky (1989) are of the opinion that job satisfaction is the more dominant factor that correlates with OCB. According to Organ and Ling (1995) fifteen independent studies revealed that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. There was a quick realisation amongst researchers, however, that the link between job satisfaction and OCB is more complex. It was the work of Moorman (1993) cited in Todd and Kent (2006) that various measures of job satisfaction shared differential relationships with OCB. Todd and Kent (2006) stated that it is generally accepted that the differential relationship of job satisfaction and OCB is primarily a function of the type of job satisfaction measure that is used in the analysis.

On the other hand, Organ (1990) suggested that the significant relationship found between job satisfaction and OCB would likely reflect the influence of fairness perceptions. Moorman (1991) subsequently measured both fairness perceptions. Findings indicated that job satisfaction did not significantly influence OCB and that fairness perceptions did not significantly predict OCB.

Contrasting previous research, Schappe (1998) argues that job satisfaction is not related to OCB as cited in Alotaibi (2001). Some researchers are sceptical about the relationship between the two constructs and consider the relationship to be non existent. They also believe that any disparity may be due to the nature of job satisfaction measures, which includes perceptions of fairness (Organ, 1988; Moorman, 1991). The findings of Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler and Purcell (2004) indicated that to understand the rationale in employees undertaking OCB emanates from the relationship the employee holds with the employing organisation. Deluga (1995) noted that certain studies suggest that fairness is a predictor of OCB (Organ, 1998a, 1988b, 1990; Fahr et al., 1990, Moorman, 1991). These studies further suggest that fairness might be a critical driver of OCB. As stated by Deluga (1995) if employees perceive fair treatment from supervisors they may be inclined to engage in discretionary activity which characterises OCB. The relationship between overall fairness and OCB is supoorted by empirical research (Greenberg, 1993; Konovsky & Folger, 1991; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Organ & Konovsky, 1989) whereas Moorman's (1991) findings indicated that procedural justice measures relate to four out of five dimensions of OCB, whilst job satisfaction does not. The assertion of Organ (1988) suggested that employees, who perceive that they are being treated fairly, will respond through exhibiting behaviour relating to OCB. Growing from this finding fairness has been considered one of the essential predictors of OCB.

It can therefore be concluded that the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB depends on the job satisfaction measures based on the above literature. This research project however, will only investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB.

2.22 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER:

The chapter introduces the concept of job satisfaction and reviewed the various motivational theories, particularly the process theories relating to job satisfaction. In addition, it provides an overview of literature relating to job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. From the literature review it is evident that job satisfaction is of significant importance to both employees and managers alike.

Finally, the concept of OCB is introduced whereby the researcher explores the importance of "extra role behaviour". Furthermore, various definitions as well as a review of literature on the antecedents and the consequences of OCB are presented.

In conclusion, a brief review on the relationship between the two concepts is provided.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, chapter 2, factors influencing job satisfaction and OCB were discussed.

This chapter demarcates the research methodology used in the investigation of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. Further, it focuses on sampling methods, measuring instruments and issues pertaining to its reliability and validity and the methodology employed to gather the data in this research. The measuring instruments were in the form of a questionnaire which consisted out of three sections namely a biographical questionnaire, a self reporting questionnaire on Organisational citizenship behaviour and Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The statistical analysis used to asses the hypotheses proposed concludes the chapter.

Permission was obtained from the manager of a organisation in the Western Cape to conduct the research. Participants were assured of anonymity and confidentiality as it was not required of them to provide names or identification numbers.

3.2 POPULATION

Sekaran (2000) defines a population as the group of people, events or things of interest that is investigated by the researcher.

Neuman (2003) defines a research population as a particular pool of cases, individuals or group(s) of individuals which the researcher desires to investigate. The population of this study comprise of all the permanent employees at a retail organisation in the Western Cape.

3.2.1 SELECTION OF SAMPLE

The population for the current research comprised of 350 employees from a retail organisation situated in the Western Cape. Based on the method of convenience a non-probability sample was employed. According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) the selection of units from the population is founded on easy availability and/or accessibility in convenience sampling.

3.2.2 SAMPLING SIZE

A sample size between thirty and five hundred subjects is appropriate for most research according to Sekaran (2000). A total of 150 questionnaire were distributed and 121 respondents (n=121) returned completed questionnaires. Thus a response of 86.6 % was achieved.

3.3 PROCEDURE FOR DATA GATHERING

The researcher received permission from the HR manager to conduct the study within the organisation. A cover letter accompanied the research questionnaires explaining the purpose and nature of the research and elucidating that participation was voluntary, anonymous, and that the information would be treated confidentially, thereby removing fears of respondents regarding traceability and possible victimisation. Each questionnaire had detailed instructions and guaranteeing confidentiality.

3.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

Questionnaires were considered ideal for data gathering purposes for this research project.

According to Weiers (1998) the benefits in using questionnaires include the cost per questionnaire being relatively low, analysing questionnaires is relatively straightforward due to its structured information in the questionnaire and

questionnaires provide respondents with sufficient time to formulate accurate answers. Some disadvantages of the utilisation of questionnaires relate to the non-responsiveness to some items in the questionnaire. Added to this, participants may fail to return the questionnaire making generalisation a challenge from the sample to population.

Despite the disadvantages, a questionnaire was employed as the measuring instrument in conducting the research. The questionnaire consisted out of three sections:

(See Annexure A)

Section A: Biographical Questionnaire

Section B: OCB Questionnaire

Section C: Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

3.4.1 BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE:

The biographical questionnaire contained the following personal information to be completed by participants:

1) Age

2) Tenure

3) Gender

4) Marital Status

The inclusion of the biographical questionnaire was to explore the following research question: "do organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction levels differ based on biographical variables?"

3.4.2 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR QUESTIONNAIRE:

According to Fields (2002), the OCBS questionnaire uses twenty four items to describe the five dimension's of OCB.

These five dimensions are described by MacKenzie, Padsakoff and Fetter (1993, .p 71) as follows:

- o **Altruism (five items)**

    It is the discretionary behaviour that has the effect of helping another person with a task that has relevance to the organisation.

- o **Conscientiousness (five items)**

    It is the behaviour that is voluntary which goes beyond the minimum requirement expected in performing the role of an employee.

- o **Sportmanship (five items)**

    The discretionary behaviour that shows the willingness of an employee to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without any objection.

- **Courtesy (five items)**

    Relates to the behaviour that is aimed at preventing incidents of work-related

    problems.

- **Civic virtue (four items)**

    It is behaviour indicating the employee's participation in the political life of the

    organisation.

The participants were asked to respond to twenty four items using a five-point Likert

scale ranging from strongly disagree, 1, to strongly agree, 5.
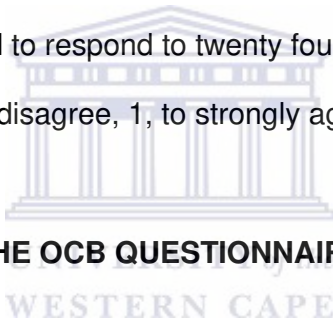
3.4.2.1 RELIABILITY OF THE OCB QUESTIONNAIRE:

The following table indicates the coefficient alphas for the five dimensions of the

OCB questionnaire (Fields, 2002).

Table. 3.1 Coefficient alpha for the OCB questionnaire

Dimension	Coefficient Alpha
Altruism	0.67 to 0.91
Conscientiousness	0.70
Sportmanship	0.76 to 0.89
Courtesy	0.69 to 0.86
Civic Virtue	0.66 to 0.90

The coefficient alpha for the single organisational citizenship behaviour questionnaire scale was 0.94 according to Fields (2002).

3.4.2.2 VALIDITY OF THE OCB QUESTIONNAIRE:

Fields (2002) stated that five dimensions correlated positively with each other (Padsakoff et al., Moorman, 1993). Klein and Verbeke (1999) as cited in Fields (2002) found that there was a positive correlation between the dimensions of OCB with role ambiguity, emotional exhaustion, reduced accomplishment and depersonalisation. Further, Fields (2002) found that when all items are combined into on measure it correlates positively with distributive justice, procedural justice, trust and organisational commitment. He also found a positive correlation between altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, courtesy with the "in role" behaviour such as controlling expenses, providing information to others, keeping up with technical developments, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In addition civic virtue had a negative correlation with employee affect, and sportsmanship and courtesy had a negative correlation with turnover intentions according to Field (2002).

3.4.3 THE JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY (JSS):

The Job Satisfaction Survey was used in this particular study to elicit data on the job satisfaction levels of participants. According to Spector (1997) the JSS has been tested for reliability and validity across various studies. Nine facets of job satisfaction are assessed as well as overall satisfaction. The facets are as follows:

Table 3.2 – Facets of Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Facet	Description
1. Pay	Satisfaction with pay and pay raises
2. Promotion	Satisfaction with promotion opportunities
3. Supervision	Satisfaction with immediate supervisor
4. Fringe benefits	Satisfaction with fringe benefits
5. Contingent rewards	Satisfaction with rewards (not necessarily monetary) for good performance
6. Operating conditions	Satisfaction with rules and procedures
7. Co-Workers	Satisfaction with co-workers
8. Nature of work	Satisfaction with type of work done
9. Communication	Satisfaction with communication within the organisation

(Source : Spector, 1997, p. 8)

3.4.3.1 THE NATURE AND COMPOSITION OF THE JSS

Each of the nine facets of the JSS is scored by combining responses to four items, which amounts to a total number of 36 items, of some of the items need to be reverse scored. Table 3 indicates which items go into which facet, the "r" indicating which items need to be reverse-scored.

Table 3.3 – Subscale contents for the Job Satisfaction Survey

Facet	Item number
Pay	1, 10r, 19r, 28
Promotion	2r, 11, 20, 33
Supervision	3, 12r, 21r, 30
Fringe benefits	4r, 13, 22, 29r
Contingent rewards	5, 14r, 23r, 32r
Operating conditions	6r, 15, 24r, 31r
Co-Workers	7, 16r, 25, 34r
Nature of work	8r, 17, 27, 35
Communication	9, 18r, 26r, 36r

(Source : Spector, 1997, p. 9)

The JSS makes use of a Likert-type scale with six response alternatives for each item, ranging from "Disagree very much" (weighted 1) to "Agree very much" (weighted 6).   To reverse the scoring, the items indicated with "r" above are renumbered from 6 to 1 rather than 1 to 6 (Spector, 1997).   Each of the nine facets or subscales can produce a separate facet score and the total of all items produces a total score.

3.4.3.2. RELIABILITY OF THE JSS

According to Foxcroft and Roodt (2005) reliability refers to the consistency with which an instrument measures whatever it measures. Therefore an instrument that produces different scores every time it is used, posses low reliability. According to Spector (1997), internal consistency and test-retest reliability are the two types of reliability estimates that are pivotal in evaluating a scale.

Internal consistency reliability

If items are consistent across various constructs it is referred to as internal consistency according to Cresswell (2003). The method examines how well items of a scale relate to each other. The JSS has been tested for internal consistency reliability and reported coefficient alphas ranging from .60 for the co-worker subscales to .91 for the total scales. According to Spector (1997, p.12), "the widely accepted minimum standard for internal consistency is .70."

Test-retest reliability

According to Cockcroft (2001) the test-retest reliability is a measure of a test's stability based on the correlation between scores of a group of respondents on two separate occasions. The JSS has reported test-retest reliability ranging from .37 to .74 (Spector, 1997).

3.4.3.3   VALIDITY OF THE JSS

According to Foxcroft and Roodt (2005) the validity of a measure refers to what the test measures and how well it measures it. Joppe (2000) states validity determines whether the research actually measures what it is intended to measure and how truthful the research results are. There are various ways in which validity can be assessed: content validity contruct and criterion-related validity (Cresswell, 2003).

Content validity

Content validity of a measuring instrument reflects the extent to which the items measure the content they were intended to measure (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). It must therefore provide adequate coverage of the questions guiding the research. The JSS measures job satisfaction, using different subscales and it therefore is considered to have content validity.

Criterion –related validity

Criterion-related validity reflects the extent to which measures can successfully predict an outcome and how well they correlate with other instruments (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). According to Spector (1997, p. 12), "the JSS subscales of pay, promotion, supervision, co-workers and the nature of work correlate well with corresponding subscales of the JDI." These correlations ranged from .61 for co-workers to .80 for supervision.

3.4.3.4. RATIONALE FOR INCLUSION OF THE JSS

The JSS was used for this particular study as it was proven to be reliable and valid according to Spector (1997). Koeske, Kirk, Koeske and Rauktis, (1994 as quoted by

Egan & Kadushan, 2004, p. 290) also indicate that the JSS has been examined for construct validity and reliability with good results in previous research. Furthermore, the JSS measures different facets of job satisfaction which is widely referred to in the literature. It uses a much shorter form compared to the popular Job Descriptive Index, which consists of 72 items. The items in the JSS are also relatively easy to understand. It was therefore considered appropriate for the present study.7

3.5 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for all statistical calculations. This assisted in describing the data gathered more succinctly and making inferences about the characteristics of the populations on the basis of the data collected from the sample. The SPSS programme also assisted in presenting the data of this research with frequency tables and graphical illustrations to provide information on key demographic variables. The data analyses included both descriptive and inferential statistics.

3.5.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics are used to describe and summarise the data which was collected for this study. As stated by Neuman (2003) this method further enables the researcher to present numerical data in a structured, accurate and summarised manner. The descriptive statistics used in this research are employed to analyse the demographic variables and includes frequency tables, percentages, means and standard deviations. Visual depiction of the data will be presented in tabular formats

and graphical charts. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) data analysts should start with visual inspection of data to ensure that assumptions are not flawed.

Frequency and percentages:

Frequencies and percentages are useful in organising data either in graphical and tabular format. Further the frequencies are used in the current study to present the total number of observations for the overall job satisfaction as calculated in the JSS. These include for example, the frequency of "disagree very much" compared to "agree very much."

Percentages offer information on the percentage of respondents within each of the biographical variables, for example, the percentage of males compared to females participating in the study. Histograms and bar charts are commonly used to display these intervals

(Cooper & Schindler, 2001).
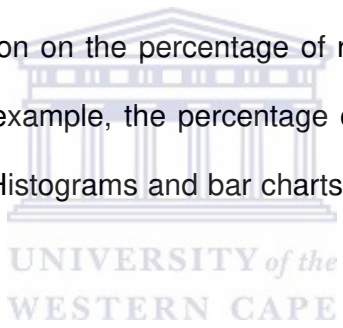
2.5.1.1 Mean:

The mean refers to a measure of central tendency that provides a general picture of the data, also commonly known as the average value of the distribution of the scores (Murphy & Davidshofer, 1998).

3.5.1.2 Standard Deviation:

The standard deviation refers to the measuring of the square root the variance (Sekaran, 2001). Leary (2004) supports Sekaran in stating that the standard deviation is a measure of variability, which is calculated as the square root of the

variance. It provides a measure of the spread of the distribution of the data. For the current study the standard deviation is used to indicate the distribution of scores relating to job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour.

3.5.2. INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

"Inferential statistics allow researchers to infer from the data through analysis the relationship between two variables; differences in a variables among different subgroups, and how several independent variables might explain the variance in a dependent variable" (Sekaran, 2000, p.401). Thus enabling the researcher to draw conclusions about a population from a sample. The following inferential statistical methods were used for the current study included the Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Multiple Regression Analysis.

3.5.2.1 PEARSON'S PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

Correlation coefficients reveal the strength and direction of relationships between two variables (Cooper & Schindler, 2003; De Vos, 1998; Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). According to Leedy and Ormrod (2001), the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient, sometimes called the Pearson r is the most common of all correlation techniques. For the present study, the Pearson r was used to determine whether there is a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and

organisational citizenship behaviour and to determine the strength and direction of this relationship.

3.5.2.3 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Multiple regressions are commonly used in the data analysis technique for measuring linear relationships between two or more variables according to Payne (1982). In addition, Neuman (2003, p. 355) notes that multiple regression "indicates two things, (1) how well a set of variables explains a dependent variable and (2) the direction and size of the effect of each variable on a dependent variable. " In this present study, multiple regression analysis was used to predict whether the independent variables gender, age, tenure and marital status contribute to predicting job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. Furthermore, to determine whether dimensions of job satisfaction predict organisational citizenship behaviour.

3.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

In summary, this chapter provided explanations of the research design, the sampling design, the data gathering procedure and the statistical techniques that were used to answer the research questions of this particular study.

The following chapter will focus on the results obtained in the empirical analysis specifically with reference to the testing of the hypotheses of this study.

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CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The current chapter outlines the results obtained in the study and discusses the findings of the results. The chapter commences with an overview of the most salient sample characteristics depicted in graphical format. The descriptive and inferential statistical results are presented thereafter, followed by a discussion of these.

4.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow.
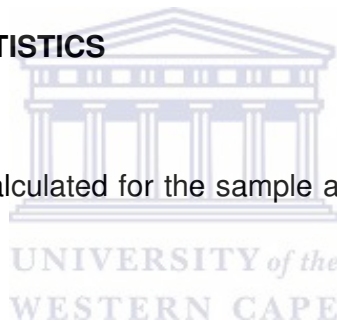
4.2.1 RESULTS OF THE BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The descriptive statistics calculated for the biographical questionnaire is presented in graphical format, followed by a description of the most salient sample characteristics in the form of frequencies and percentages.

Figure 4.1: Age of respondents
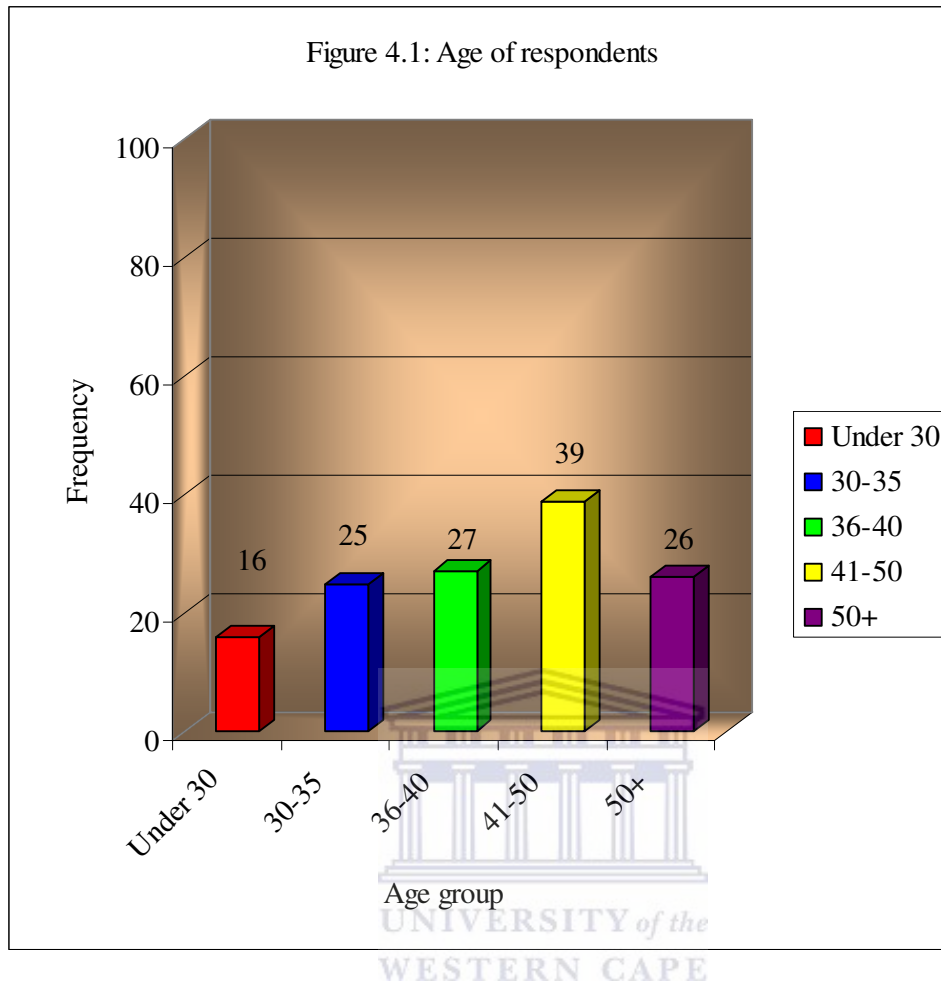
The frequency distributions of the respondents are presented graphically in Figure 4.1. It can be seen that the majority of the sample (n = 39), falls into the age category of 41 to 50 years old. This is followed by the age category 36 to 40 years old, (n=27) which constitutes 20% of the sample. Only 16 respondents are under the age of 30.

Figure 4.2: Tenure
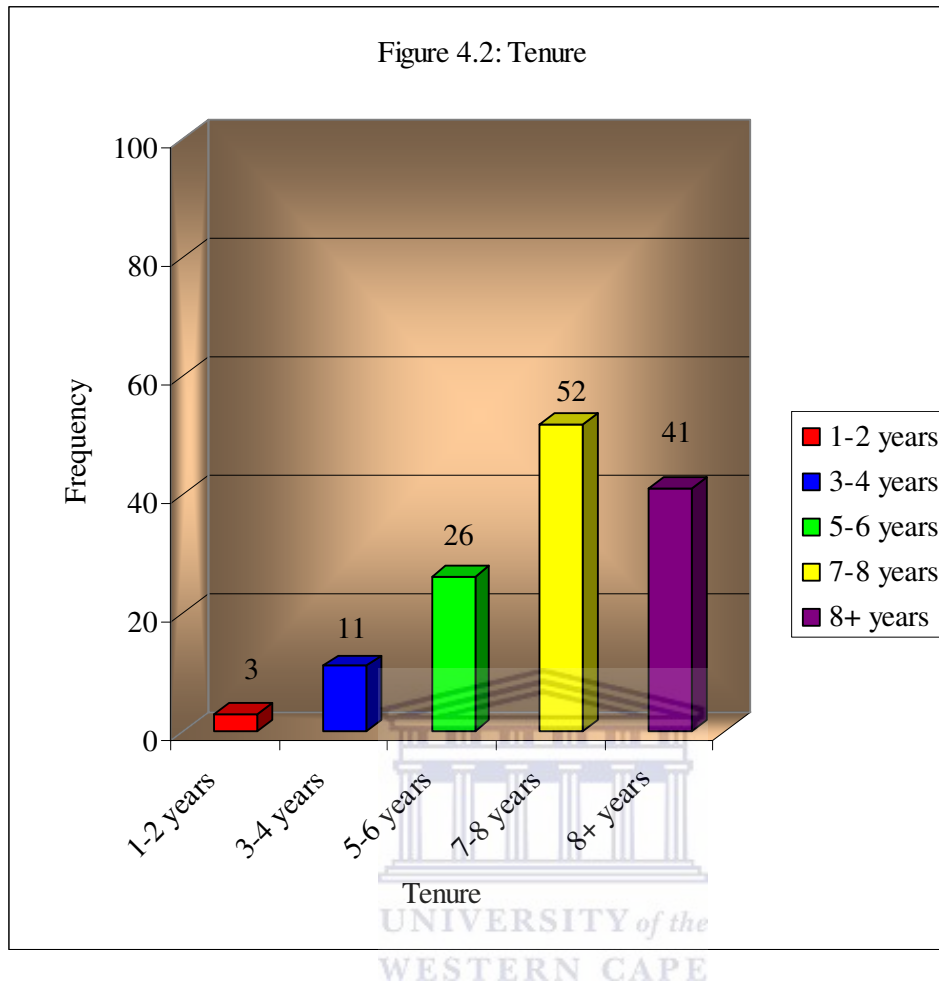
The years of service for the respondents is displayed in figure 4.2. The majority of the respondents (n=52) or 39% have between 7-8 years of service with the company and (n=41) or 31% of the respondents has more than 8 years of service with the company. Only 3 respondents have been with the company for between 1 and 2 years.
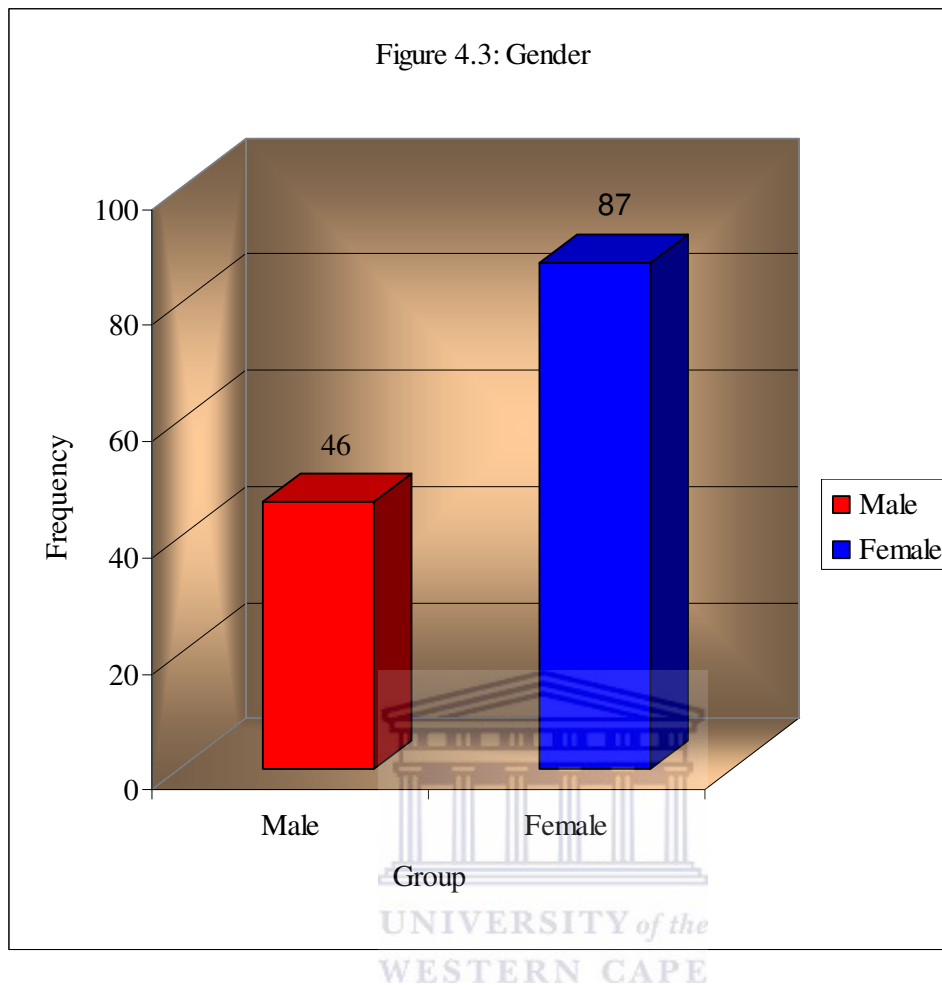
Figure 4.3: Gender

Figure 4.3 contains the graphic presentation of the gender distribution of the sample. There are a larger number of female respondents (n=87), which is 65% of the sample. The male respondents (n=46) comprise 35% of the sample.

Figure 4.4: Marital Status
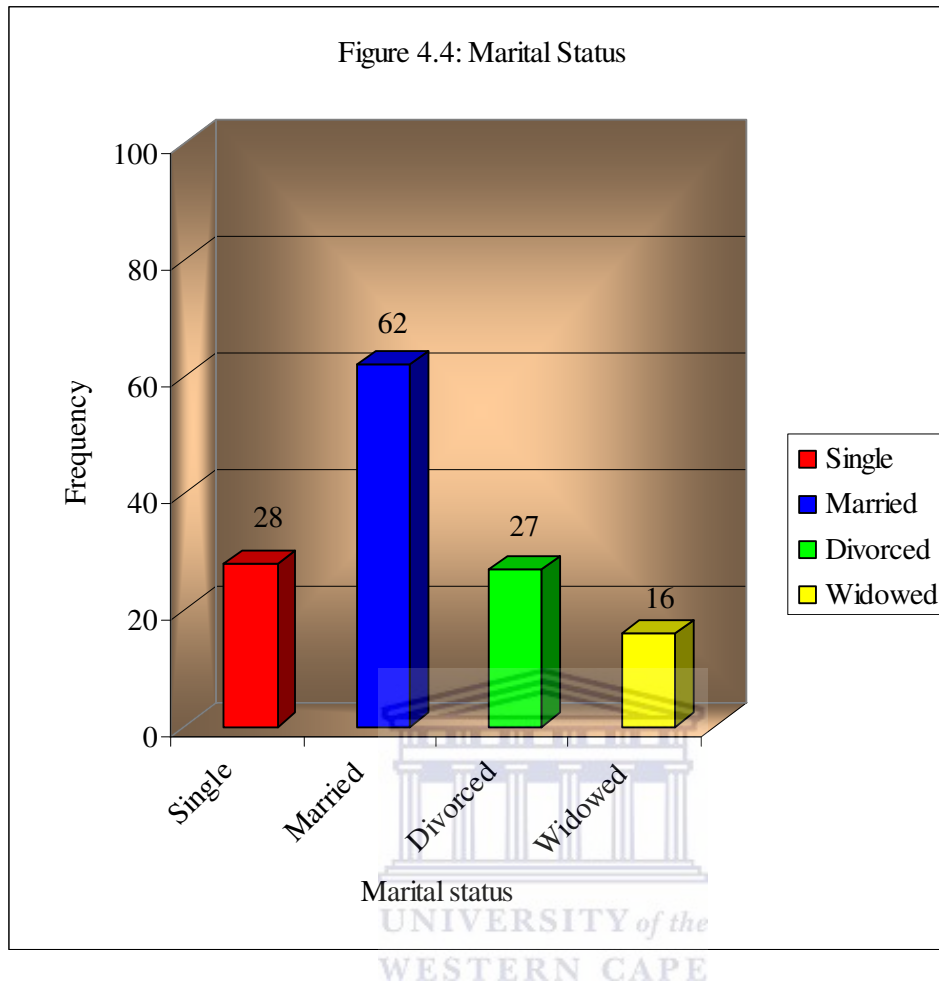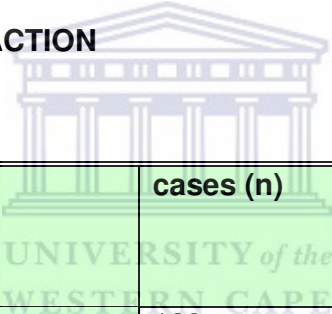
Figure 4.4 indicates that 62 of the sample subjects (47%) are married, while a further 27 employees, that is, 20% are divorced. Sixteen (16) respondents are widowed, constituting 12% of the sample.

4.2.2 RESULTS OF THE JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY

Descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations were computed for the various dimensions assessed by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and the OCB questionnaire. The results are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 indicates that the arithmetic mean for the total job satisfaction of the sample is 87.3 with a standard deviation of 13.4. Based on the fact that an average level of job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, would be represented by a mean of approximately 136.5, it may be concluded that the overall job satisfaction of the sample is relatively low. The standard deviation for the overall level of job satisfaction is also not high, indicating that most respondents are close to the mean on this dimension.

4.2.2.1   TABLE 4.1: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE DIMENSIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Variable	cases (n)	mean	standard deviation
Benefits	133	13.1	3.8
Pay	133	8.7	6.3
Supervision	133	19.2	2.7
Promotion	133	11.4	2.6
Contingent rewards	133	13.7	2.1
Operating procedures	133	14.6	2.3
Co-workers	133	13.3	1.8
Nature of work	133	16.9	3.1
Communication	133	14.5	2.5
Total Job Satisfaction	133	87.3	4.7

With respect to the dimensions of job satisfaction assessed by the JSS, Table 4.1 indicates that the arithmetic means for the pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work and communication vary from a mean of 8.7 to 19.2. When measured against the table norms for the JSS conducted by Spector (1997), it can be seen that the employees at the organization where the current research was undertaken, indicated average to below average levels of job satisfaction with the various dimensions assessed by the JSS.

While the mean values obtained indicated that most employees experienced average to above average satisfaction with communication, nature of work, supervision, and operating procedures, the remaining dimensions (pay, promotion, benefits, co-workers and contingent rewards) were experienced as less satisfactory.

Moreover, it may be concluded from Table 4.1 that respondents are most satisfied with the supervision they receive, nature of the work and operating procedures. They appear, however, to be least satisfied with their pay and with their opportunities for promotion. The standard deviations for all the dimensions of the JSS are relatively low, indicating similarity in responses obtained on the JSS from the sample.

TABLE 4.2: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE DIMENSIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Variable	Cases (n)	mean	standard deviation
Courtesy	133	13.1	3.8
Conscientiousness	133	8.2	5.9
Civic Virtue	133	19.2	2.7
Sportsmanship	133	9.4	2.6
Altruism	133	13.7	2.1
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	133	14.6	2.3

Table 4.2 provides the descriptive statistics for the dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour. The highest mean value was for Civic Virtue (Mean = 19.2, s.d = 2.7), followed by Altruism (Mean = 13.7, s.d = 2.1), courtesy (Mean = 13.1, s.d = 3.8), sportsmanship (Mean = 9.4, s.d = 2.6) and conscientiousness (Mean = 8.2, s.d = 5.9). Overall, average organisational citizenship was 14.6, with a standard deviation of 2.3.

4.3   INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

In the sections that follow the results of the inferential statistics employed in the study are presented. For the purposes of testing the stated research hypotheses,

Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was calculated, and multiple regression were performed. With the aid of these statistical techniques conclusion are drawn with regards to the population from which the sample was taken and decisions are made with respect to the research hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: There is a statistically significant relationship between the job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour amongst employees in a retail organisation in the Western Cape.

TABLE 4.3: INTER-CORRELATION MATRIX FOR THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND THE DIMENSIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Table 4.3 presents the results of the inter-correlation matrix representing the relationships between Job satisfaction and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

	Job satisfaction
Civic Virtue	0.514**
Courtesy	0.423**
Conscientiousness	0.312*
Sportsmanship	0.297*
Altruism	0.392**
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	0.428**

* p < 0.05

** p < 0.01

In terms of table 4.3, it can be seen that there is a significant relationship between Job satisfaction and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. The results depict a strong, direct relationship between Job satisfaction and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (r=0.428), which is significant at the 99% confidence level. There were statistically significant relationships between job satisfaction and Civic virtue (r=0.514), Courtesy (r=0.423) and Altruism (r=0.392), respectively (p<0.01). In addition there were also statistically significant relationships between Conscientiousness (r=0.312) and Sportsmanship (r=0.297) and job satisfaction, respectively (p<0.05).

TABLE 4.4: PEARSON'S CORRELATION MATRIX BETWEEN BIOGRAPHICAL DATA AND JOB SATISFACTION

	Job satisfaction		
	R	**N**	**P**
Gender	0.482	94	0.00**
Age	0.441	92	0.00*
Marital Status	0.323	89	0.04*
Years of service	0.224	94	0.03*

*   p < 0.05

** p < 0.01

In terms of Table 4.4, it may be seen that moderately positive correlations existed between the biographical characteristics of the sample and their levels of Job satisfaction. The correlation coefficients varied between 0.224 (years of service and Job satisfaction) to 0.482 (gender and Job satisfaction).

The results depict low to moderate, positive relationships between the biographical characteristics and Job satisfaction. The results indicate weak to moderately strong, significant relationships between gender and job satisfaction (r=0.482), age and job satisfaction (r=0.441), significant at the 99% confidence interval.

The results further indicate there are positive relationships between marital status and job satisfaction (r=0.323) and years of service and job satisfaction (r= 0.224) at the 95% confidence interval.
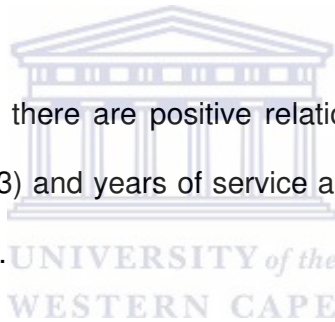
Hypothesis 3: There is a statistically significant relationship between the dimensions of job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour

TABLE 4.5: CORRELATION OF JOB SATISFACTION DIMENSIONS WITH ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

	Job Satisfaction	
	Pearson correlation	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Benefits	.787	.000**
Pay	.854	.000**
Supervision	.737	.000**
Promotion	.784	.000**
Contingent rewards	.782	.000**
Operating procedures	.713	.000**
Coworkers	.643	.008**
Nature of work	.696	.006**
Communication	.785	.000**

** $p < 0.01$

In order to determine whether there are significant relationships between the dimensions of job satisfaction, Pearson's product moment correlation was computed. The results indicated in Table 4.3 indicates that the correlation coefficients for the relationships between job satisfaction and its dimensions are direct, linear and positive ranging from moderate to high correlation coefficients.

Significant correlations were shown to exist between coworkers and OCB ($r = .343$, $p < 0.05$), and between communication and OCB ($r = .41$, $p < 0.01$), suggesting that higher values of both of these dimensions translate into higher levels of OCB. The converse is also true, however, with lower values on the dimensions corresponding to lower levels of OCB.

The results indicate that there are statistically significant relationships between pay and OCB ($r = .834$, $p < 0.01$), benefits and OCB ($r = .812$, $p < 0.01$), supervision and OCB ($r = .720$, $p < 0.01$), operating procedures and OCB ($r = .704$, $p < 0.01$), contingent rewards and OCB ($r = .682$, $p < 0.01$), nature of work and OCB ($r = .634$, $p < 0.01$) and for promotion and OCB ($r = .603$, $p < 0.01$). The moderate to high correlations between these dimensions and OCB suggest that the higher their relationship with OCB, the more satisfied employees would be.
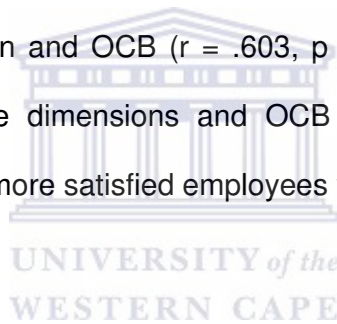
Hypothesis 4: The four biographical variables (age, gender, marital status and tenure) will not statistically significantly explain the variance in job satisfaction

TABLE 4.6 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS REGRESSING THE FOUR DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AGAINST JOB SATISFACTION

Multiple R	0.37651		
R Square	0.14176		
Adjusted R Square	0.10687		
Standard error	25.08685		
Degrees of freedom	3		
Regression	130		
Residual			
F	4.06328		
Sign F	0.0019 ***		
Variable	Beta	T	Sig T
Marital status	0.136760	0.385	0.7008
Age	0.029652	1.271	0.2438
Gender	0.259773	1.826	0.0215*
Tenure	0.301364	1.352	0.0032**

$* \ p < 0.05$

$** \ p < 0.01$

From Table 4.6 it can be seen that the multiple correlation among the four demographic variables and job satisfaction is 0.37651, as indicated by Multiple R. Furthermore, given the R Square value of 0.14176, it may be deduced that only 14.176% of the variance in job satisfaction can be accounted for by these four demographic variables.

The F-statistic of 4.06328 at 3 and 130 degrees of freedom is statistically significant at the 0.01 level. On the basis hereof, it may be concluded that the four demographic variables of gender, age, tenure and marital status together significantly explain 14.176% of the variance in job satisfaction. In effect, therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. It should be noted, however, that the variance accounted for by these four variables is relatively small, with the remaining 85.824% of the variance being explained by factors other than those considered.

Hypothesis 5: The four biographical variables (age, gender, marital status and tenure) will not statistically significantly explain the variance in organisational citizenship behaviour

TABLE 4.7 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS REGRESSING THE FOUR DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AGAINST ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Multiple R	0.42562		
R Square	0.18115		
Adjusted R Square	0.16656		
Standard error	19.3434		
Degrees of freedom			
Regression	3		
Residual	130		
F	6.02397		
Sign F	0.0001 ***		
Variable	Beta	T	Sig T
Gender	0.36420	0.287	0.0084**
Age	0.24532	1.334	0.0438*
Tenure	0.43124	1.546	0.0022**
Marital status	0.32656	1.397	0.0314*

* $p < 0.05$

** p $<$ 0.01

From Table 4.7 it can be seen that the multiple correlation among the four demographic variables and job satisfaction is 0.37651, as indicated by Multiple R. Furthermore, given the R Square value of 0.14176, it may be deduced that only 14.176% of the variance in job satisfaction can be accounted for by these six demographic variables.

The F-statistic of 6.02397 at 3 and 130 degrees of freedom is statistically significant at the 0.01 level. On the basis hereof, it may be concluded that the four demographic variables of gender, age, tenure and marital status together significantly explain 18.12% of the variance in organisational citizenship behaviour. In effect, therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. It should be noted, however, that the variance accounted for by these four variables is relatively small, with the remaining 81.88% of the variance being explained by factors other than those considered.

All four of the variables can be considered significant predictors of organisational citizenship behaviour, with tenure being the most predictive thereof with a Beta-value of 0.43124 which is statistically significant at the 0.01 level. Moreover, gender, age and marital status are also significant predictors of organisational citizenship behaviour.

4.4. RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Cronbach's Alpha is viewed as an index of reliability associated with the variation accounted for by the true score of the underlying construct (Cronbach, 2004). Alpha coefficients range in value from 0 to 1 and may be used to describe the reliability of factors extracted from dichotomous and or multi-point formatted questionnaires or scales. However, there is no lower limit to the coefficient, however, the closer Cronbach's coefficient alpha is to 1, the greater the internal consistency of the items of the scale (Cronbach, 2004).

TABLE 4.8: CRONBACH'S COEFFICIENT ALPHA FOR THE JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY AND THE ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR QUESTIONNAIRE

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT			
JOB SATISFACTION		**ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR**	
No. of cases	133	No. of cases	133
Alpha	0.925	Alpha	0.942
No. of items	36	No. of items	20

According to research, such a score can be regarded as excellent in terms of the reliability of the instrument. George and Mallery (2003) argue that coefficients above 0.8 can be considered to be good indicators of the reliability of an instrument. Hence with the current study, this was exceeded, indicating a high degree or reliability.

4.5   SUMMARY

This chapter has provided an overview of the most important findings which emerged from the empirical analysis. The next section presents a discussion of the findings obtained and compares findings obtained with other research conducted in this field.

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CHAPTER 5

DISSCUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION:

In this chapter the results described in Chapter 4 will be discussed in detail and where appropriate, existing literature will be integrated into the discussion. In addition, this chapter will elucidate some of the limitations of the study and the suggestions for future research will be addressed. The information and discussions provided in the previous chapters will serve as background against which the contents of this chapter will be presented and interpreted.

The discussion includes demographic information about the sample, results obtained from the descriptive statistics for the dimensions of job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour and then presented with the aid of inferential statistical procedures. Conclusions are drawn based on the results obtained.

**5.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE SAMPLE**

The sample consisted of 133 employees working in a large retail organisation situated in the Western Cape.

The majority of the respondents were in the age group 31-40 (n=39, constituting 29%) of the sample, with the sample being more representative of females (n=87, or 65%) than males (n=46 or 35%). Most of the respondents have been in the service

of the organisation for between 7 and 8 years (n=52, 39%) and are married (n=62, or 47%).

5.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Table 4.1 indicates that the arithmetic means for the pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work and communication vary from a mean of 8.7 to 19.2. While the mean values obtained indicated that most employees experienced average to above average satisfaction with communication, nature of work, supervision, and operating procedures, the remaining dimensions (pay, promotion, benefits, co-workers and contingent rewards) were experienced as less satisfactory.
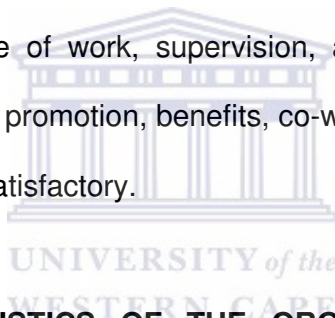
5.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR QUESTIONNAIRE

Table 4.2 indicates that the highest mean value was for Civic Virtue, followed by Altruism, Courtesy, Sportsmanship and Conscientiousness. Average organisational citizenship was 14.6, with a standard deviation of 2.3.

5.5 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS:

The discussion of results will be presented into sections as per the hypothesis in chapter 1.

5.6.1 HYPOTHESIS 1

There is a statistically significant relationship between the job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour amongst employees in a retail organisation in the Western Cape.
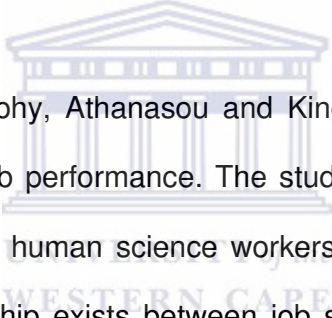
Results derived from this research indicate that a statistically significant and direct correlation exists between job satisfaction and OCB. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.
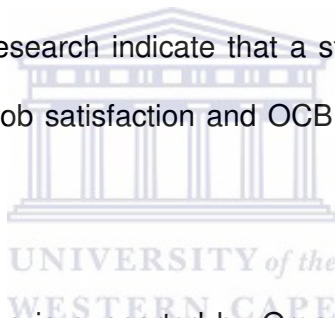
The above research findings is supported by Organ and Konovsky found that job satisfaction is the strongest measure that correlates with OCB (Organ & Konovsky, 1983 as sited in Alotaibi,2001). A significant and positive correlation between job satisfaction and OCB was found in a meta-analysis covering 6 747 people and 28 separate studies (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Study conducted by Smith et al., (1983) a correlation of ($r = 0.31$) between job satisfaction and altruism. Part of their findings indicated that there was no direct correlation between the general compliance (consequently termed as conscientiousness by Organ, 1988) be it in a small or large organisation as cited Alotaibi (2001).

Further, in an investigation by Schnake, Cochran and Dumler (1993) conducted in a small manufacturing organisation the results indicated that job satisfaction only explained the difference in two of the five OCB dimensions.

Additional support was provided by Williams and Anderson (1991) in more recent research of the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. Their findings indicated that the cognitive component of job satisfaction actually predicts altruism and general compliance. Producing similar results, research findings of Moorman (1993), who investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB could depend on the nature of job satisfaction measures used.

A study conducted by Murphy, Athanasou and King (2001) examined the role of OCB as a component of job performance. The study was conducted on a sample that comprised of forty one human science workers. The findings indicated that a significant positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and OCB. Findings were consistent with the notion that satisfaction may not be reflected in productivity but is reflected in the discretionary involvement in the workplace.

A study conducted by Organ and Lingl (1995) hypothesised the personality dimensions and the agreeableness and the conscientiousness to account for commonly shared variance between job satisfaction and OCB. Study was conducted among 99 employees of United Kingdom and United States. Findings indicated that both dimensions indeed account for substantial variance in job satisfaction and that conscientiousness also accounts for the unique variance in one dimension of OCB.

Satisfaction accounts for unique variance in OCB but are not explained by either of these personality dimensions.

On the contrary to all the above literature, findings of study conducted by Schappe (1998), indicated that neither job satisfaction nor procedural justice was correlated to OCB. However, the one significant correlate to OCB was organisational commitment ($r=.21, p < .01$). Even though this study finds a positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCB it is evident that there are other antecedents or measures to take into considering when studying OCB.

Organ and Ryan (1995) findings demonstrated that OCB dimensions, such as courtesy, civic virtue and sportsmanship correlated with job satisfaction. Further, they also indicated that civic virtue is less related than other OCB measures to a certain degree.
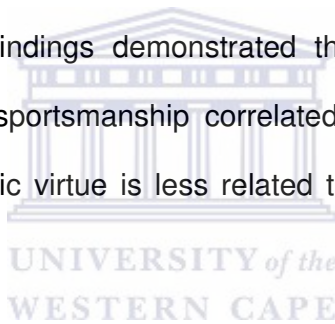
Relating to job satisfaction and OCB, Smith et al., (1983) discovered that leader supportive behaviours had a significant impact on altruism one of the OCB dimensions.

Organ and Ryan (1995) note however that when the OCB dimensions are treated as separate indicators and aggregates them into an overall OCB measure, the correlation between satisfaction and the composite OCB is .38. This serves as evidence and provides some support for the hypothesis that measures of OCB will be more related to satisfaction than would in-role performance.

Thanswor, van Dick, Wagner, Upadhyay and Ann (2004) investigated the structure of OCB and its relation to organisational commitment in Nepal. Questionnaires were completed by four-hundred and fifty employees from five Nepalese organisations. With the use of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses the findings revealed that two factors of OCB, altruism and compliance replicated the western models of extra role behaviour (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983).

Chiu and Chen (2005) investigated the relationship between job characteristics and OCB and the meditational role of job satisfaction. The study was conducted amongst 270 employees from 24 electronic organisations. Their findings indicated that job variety and job significance had a significant positive relationship with OCB.

According to Ladebo (2008), the performance of OCB by employees contributes to overall organizational effectiveness, and where inequity, unfair treatment, and unfulfilled personal goals by employees characterize the work environment, there has been a reported reduction of OCB. Research on OCB has tended to either examine antecedent factors predicting the OCB relationship, or the relationship between OCB and outcome factors.

Ladebo (2008) conducted reserech on a sample of 270 at two agricultural organizations. He argues that a potential situational factor in the workplace that may foster employee satisfaction relates to the quality of the relationship between an employee and the supervisor. Based on the social change framework, he postulates that the supportive action of supervisor towards their subordinates tend to increase employees' satisfaction with their jobs. Indeed, empirical evidence supports the

supposition that satisfied employees engage in cooperative behavior such as citizenship behaviours (Vigoda-Gadot & Angert, 2007).

Bateman and Organ (1983) defined organizational citizenship behavior as work-related behaviours that are discretionary, not related to the formal organizational reward system, and in the aggregate, promote the effective functioning of the organization. A central component of organizational citizenship behavior involves offering help to others without the expectation of immediate reciprocity on the part of the individuals receiving such aid.

Researchers have identified various factors that influence OCB of which leadership is an important one. Empirical support for the relationship between supportive leadership style and OCB can be found in various research studies (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Smith et al., 1983). It appears that leader supportiveness, an environmental factor, influences OCB indirectly through its effects on job satisfaction; but leader supportiveness is also postulated to have a direct influence on OCB.

Podsakoff et al. (1990), in their study carried out on a sample of petrochemical employees found positive correlations between transformational leadership and OCB. Indeed, South African research (Engelbrecht & Chamberlain, 2005; Maharaj & Schlechter, 2006; Mester, Visser, Roodt & Kellerman, 2003; Schlechter & Englebrecht, 2006) indicates a significant relationship between OCB and leadership style.
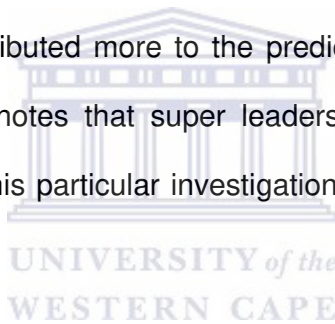
5.6.2 HYPOTHESIS 2

Hypothesis 2: There is no statistically significant relationship between the dimensions of job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour

The current research indicates there are significant relationships between the dimensions of job satisfaction and OCB. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. The findings of Organ (1996) demonstrated that the extrinsic rewards, such as pay and working conditions do not serve as motivation to display positive work behaviours (OCB). Schappe (1998) supports Organ (1990) in agreeing that managerial supervision and salary are all negatively correlated with OCB.

As cited in Kreitner and Kinicki (1998) the findings of Konovsky and Organ (1996) indicated that the OCB behaviours of employees are more determined by the leadership characteristics and the work environment as appose to the employee's personality. It is also noted that managerial behaviour has a major impact on the employee's willingness to exhibit OCB. A number of studies indicate that there is a high quality relationship between the relation of supervisors and the extra-role behaviours, including OCB. Thus, if the employees detect that there is a violation in the support from the supervisor the employee would more likely be inclined to reduce or even withhold OCB (Deluga, 1995; Farh et al., 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1996; Schnake et al, 1993) .

In terms of leadership and its impact on OCB Podsakoff (2000) suggests that leaders play a pivotal role in influencing the citizenship behaviour. Behaviour of a supportive nature from the leader is positively correlated with OCB. Transformational leadership also consistently affected on every form of citizenship behaviour.

A study conducted by Engelbrecht and Chamberlain (2005) using structure equation modelling to test the model in which both procedural justice and trust in the leader mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB. The sample consisted of three hundred and ninety employees of three organisations in the banking industry in South Africa. The results indicated that transformational leadership has a positive influence on OCB, through procedural justice and trust. Further the findings indicate however that transformational leadership does not lead directly to trust though. An investigation in a manufacturing company of which data was collected from a semi skilled employee sample revealed the following: Traditional leadership contributed more to the predictability of OCB as apposed to super leadership. Further notes that super leadership was designed to increase employee's autonomy. In this particular investigation, super leadership indicated no significant impact on OCB.

Finally, the findings of Lam, Hui and Law (1999) revealed that co-worker relations to be positively correlated with the level of employee altruism (OCB).

5.6.3 HYPOTHESIS 3

**There is no statistically significant relationship between biographical characteristics (age, gender, marital status and tenure) and job satisfaction**

The results from the current study indicate that there are statistically significant relationships between age, gender, marital status and tenure, respectively with job satisfaction. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. Furthermore, it may be seen from

Table 4.6 that when the other variables are controlled, two of the demographic variables are significant. With a Beta-value of 0.301364, tenure level reaches statistical significance at the 0.01 level, and is the best predictor of job satisfaction.

Furthermore, the Beta-value of 0.259733 obtained for gender is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. Consequently, tenure, too, is a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Table 4.6 further shows that neither age nor marital status were found to be statistically significant at even the 0.05 level. Moreover, it further appears as though age, with an obtained Beta-value of only 0.029652, is the poorest predictor of job satisfaction. On the basis hereof, it may thus be concluded that while gender and tenure are significant predictors of job satisfaction, age and marital do not predict job satisfaction based on the sample of employees.
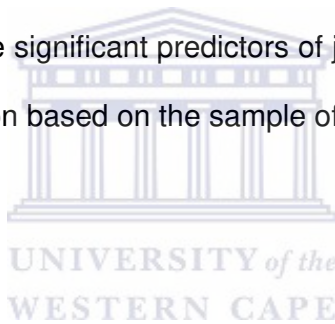
5.6.3.1.1 GENDER

There is a large body of research explaining the gender-job satisfaction relationship. However, research in this regard has not been consistent. Some literature indicates that males are more satisfied than females, others is of the opinion that females are more satisfied and some have found no differences in satisfaction levels based on gender.

A study conducted by Alavi and Askaripur (2003) amongst 310 employees in government organisations found no significant difference in job satisfaction among male and female employees. Supporting this view the findings of Carr and Human's (1988) research indicates the same findings. These authors investigated a sample of

224 employees at a textile plant in the Western Cape and found no significant relationship between gender and satisfaction. Furthermore, Pors (2003) conducted a study including 411 Danish library managers and 237 library managers from the United Kingdom. Similarly no difference in job satisfaction in relation to gender was found.

On the contrary, research conducted by Okpara (2004), which involved 360 Information Technology managers in Nigeria, indicated that gender was a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Their findings demonstrated that female employees are less satisfied than their male counterparts - specifically with pay, promotion and supervision. This finding may be attributed to higher educational levels of women in this sample according to Okpara (2004). The author postulates that higher education levels raise expectations about status, pay and promotion and if these expectations are not met, they might experience lower levels of satisfaction.
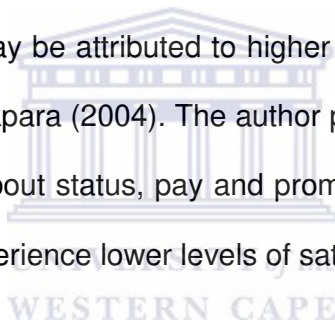
According to investigations conducted by Loscocco (1990), female employees demonstrated higher levels of job satisfaction than male employees across different settings. This author is of the opinion that most women value rewards that are readily available to them, such as relationships with co-workers. Thus is easier for them to experience job satisfaction. On the other hand, male employees are mostly likely want things like autonomy and financial rewards, which are not as readily available and may therefore experience lower levels of satisfaction.

5.6.3.1.2 AGE

Studies have indicated no significant variance in the job satisfaction levels and age (Alavi & Askaripur, 2003; Carr & Human, 1988; Kacmar & Ferris, 1989; Siu, 2002). However, research by Okpara (2004), Rhodes (1983) as quoted by Kacmar and Ferris (1989) and Saal and Knight (1988), concluded that overall satisfaction is positively associated with age. Implying therefore that older employees are more satisfied than younger employees.

The following explanations are offered (Okpara, 2004) to explain the positive correlation between age and job satisfaction:

Older incumbents have adjusted to their work over the years, which may lead to higher satisfaction.

Prestige and confidence are likely to increase with age and this could result in older incumbents being more satisfied.

Younger employees may consider themselves more mobile and seek greener pastures, which could lead to lower satisfaction levels.

Younger employees are more likely to hold high expectations of their jobs and if these expectations are not met, they may experience lower satisfaction levels.

5.6.3.1.3 TENURE

A study conducted by Lambert et al. (2001) indicated an inverse relationship between tenure and job satisfaction, thus the more tenured employees experienced the lower the level of job satisfaction in comparison to those employees who had been with the organisation for a shorter period of time. The reason for this could be due to the fact that the more tenured employees may experience their work to be unchallenging and monotonous as they may have done the same job for many years.

Contrary to the above studies other findings are inconsistent with other research on the tenure-job satisfaction relationship. Bilgic (1998) as quoted by Okpara (2004) and Jones-Johnson and Johnson (2000) found that employees who had tenured for a longer period experience higher levels of job satisfaction compared to those who have fewer years in experience. According to Okpara (2004), this may be an indication that once the process of acculturation is over, employees settle into their jobs, have an increased organisational commitment and they seem to like their jobs. The author further postulates that the longer time spent in the organisation, the more employees tend to be satisfied with the status quo.

A study by Alavi and Askaripur (2003), amongst 310 employees in government organisations found no significant variation in job satisfaction amongst employees based on their years of service.

5.6.3.1.4 MARITAL STATUS

Research conducted by Alavi and Askaripur (2003) found no significant difference in job satisfaction and its five dimensions among single and married personnel.

On the other hand, other research has consistently found that married employees are more satisfied with their jobs than their un-married co-workers (Chambers, 1999; Loscocco, 1990; Robbins et al., 2003). Chambers (1999) in particular, employing the subscales of JDI found that married employees experienced increased satisfaction with pay, work, supervision and the co-worker.

According to Robbins et al. (2003), it could be that marriage imposes increased responsibilities, which may cause a steady job to be perceived as more valuable, thus leading to higher levels of satisfaction. However, these authors note that the available research only distinguishes between being single and married. Divorcees, couples who cohabit and the widowed have been excluded from research and these are in need of investigation.

5.7 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS:

In conclusion of the present study, some thoughts on the limitations of this study would be appropriate, and where possible, recommendations are offered for future research.

The study is not without limitations. Firstly, the numbers of participants in this present study although adequate for statistical testing; represent a relatively low response rate. The external validity can be enhanced by the selection of a larger sample.

Secondly, there are very few job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour studies researched in the retail industry.

Thirdly, the sample drawn from the retail company was only conducted in the Western Cape generalisibility therefore to other retail companies may be limited.

The objective of this study is to clarify the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. The finding of significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour is consistent with the result of many other studies (Organ & Konovsky, 1983; fahr, 1990; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Alotaibi, 2001). Furthermore it may be beneficial for future research within the retail industry to include procedural justice in the study. Particular studies (Organ, 1998a, Fahr et al., 1990, Moorman, 1991) suggests that fairness is a predictor of OCB abd suggest further that fairness is a perceptions may be the pivotal force behind OCB (Deluga,1995).

Organisational citizenship behaviour may contribute to organisational success by:
- o Increasing co-worker and managerial productivity;
- o the preservation of resources that can be used for productive purposes;

- decrease in the need to dedicate scarce resources to purely maintenance functions;
- assisting to coordinate activities both within and across workgroups;
- empowering the organisation to attract and retain the best employees;
- facilitating the stability of the organisation's performance, and
- enabling the organisation to be more flexible to the changes in the environment.

In conclusion, the results emanating from this study support interesting directions for future research for organisational researchers. With the assumption that the current patterns of results persists when a larger and more representative samples of the retail organisation.

5.8 CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, the results from this study support interesting directions for future research for organisational researchers. Assuming that the current patterns of results persist when larger and more representative samples of a retail organisation is used.

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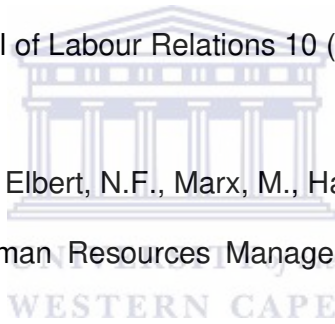
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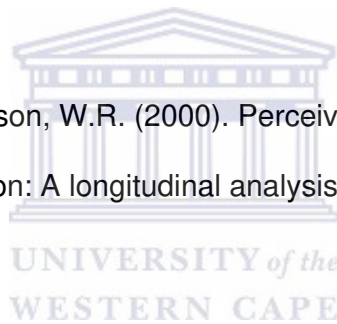
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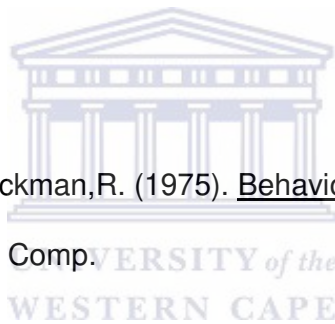
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