

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTENTION TO QUIT, PSYCHOLOGICAL
CAPITAL AND JOB SATISFACTION IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN THE
WESTERN CAPE**

By

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ABSTRACT

In the context of the country's economic and political transformation, tourism has been accepted by the government, business, and labour as one of the key drivers for job growth, wealth creation, and economic empowerment. After years of isolation, South Africa has emerged as a highly attractive tourist destination. Tourism is vital to the development of South Africa and its people and it is currently the fastest growing industry (Van der Merwe, 1999). The tourism industry is at present the fourth largest industry in South Africa, after mining, agriculture and trade (Saayman & Olivier, 2005). The importance of a well-educated, well-trained, skilled, enthusiastic and committed work-force cannot be underestimated for the service industries in general, and the tourism industry in particular (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000). Achieving service quality and excellence, making satisfied and loyal customers depends, to a large extent, on attitudes, performance, and behaviour of employees in the front line.

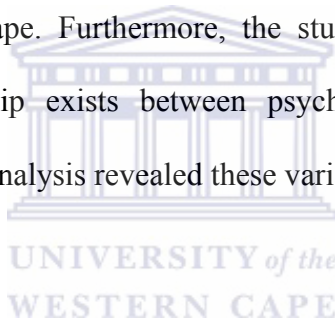
The current research aims to identify the variables that influence turnover intentions. In particular, this research explored the concept of turnover intentions by investigating the mediating effects of job satisfaction and psychological capital amongst a sample of 70 employees involved in the tourism industry.

A biographical questionnaire, the Job Satisfaction Index (JDI), the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PsyCap) and the Intention to Quit Questionnaire were administered to

respondents to elicit responses on how job satisfaction and psychological capital relate to employees' intention to quit the organisation.

Statistical analysis involved both descriptive and inferential statistics (the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Co-efficient and the Multiple Regression Analysis).

The study highlights that employees within the tourism industry within the Western Cape were the most satisfied with work content, and the least satisfied with leadership / supervision. The results emanating from the current study indicate that there is a strong, inverse relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst tourism employees in the Western Cape. Furthermore, the study revealed that a statistically significant, inverse relationship exists between psychological capital and turnover intention. Multiple regression analysis revealed these variables significantly explained the variance in turnover intention.



Recommendations are made with respect to future research implications, as well as recommendations impacting respectively on the individual as well as the organisation.

KEYWORDS

Psychological capital

Intention to quit

Job satisfaction

Hope

Resilience

Optimism

Self-efficacy

Positive organisational behaviour

Positive psychology

Tourism industry



DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis “The relationship between intention to quit, psychological capital and job satisfaction in the tourism industry in the Western Cape” is my own work, and that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university. All the resources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.



Verna Appollis

DEDICATION

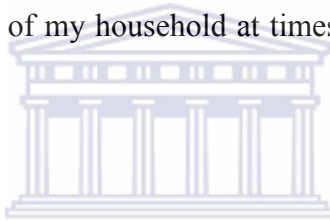
To my beautiful children, Taryn, Callum and Noah, I want to thank you for your patience, understanding and keeping my feet on the ground during this process, reminding me often about the simple things in life. I dedicate this research to the three of you, and may it serve as a reminder that whatever you set your mind to do, with perseverance and hard work, you can make it a reality. I love you all...



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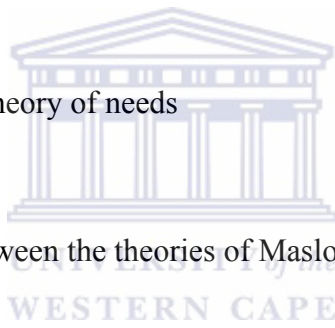


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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

South Africa, often described as "a world in one country" is one of the world's great tourist destinations. An excellent climate, natural beauty, first-rate infrastructure and welcoming people made this country the world's fastest-growing tourism destination in 2002. Supplementary to these attractions is value for money and the captivating story, accessible through ordinary people and historical monuments, of the transition from apartheid to democracy (South African Consulate General, 2008). Tourism in South Africa is a thriving sector, with millions of tourists from around the world entering the country annually, yet the inbound travel trade is suffering a slump that has been attributed to many things, including the strong rand, the effect of the World Cup and the recession suffered globally since the end of 2008 (Els, 2010). Tourism had, in 2008, constituted 8.4% of the National Gross Domestic Product (GDP), amounting to R178.6 billion and accounted for over one million jobs (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2009).

Having motivated and satisfied employees are fundamental in all organisations and especially in the service industry where front-line employees play a key role for the customers' perceived service quality (Alverén & Eriksson, 2010). One then considers the employees working in the tourism industry and considers their hopefulness, confidence

and optimism pertaining to the country and the work they do, particularly around the hype of Soccer World Cup 2010. The question then arises, just looking at the industry the researcher works in, why employees seem to be leaving the industry and / or the organisation, taking into consideration the excitement and vast possibilities for both country and individual around 2010.

Employee turnover is one of the most studied topics in human resources management (Riley, 2006). Employees may exit an organisation either voluntarily or involuntarily. For the purpose of this research, “turnover intention” is defined as an employee’s decision to leave an organisation voluntarily.

Employees leave for a number of reasons, some to escape a negative work environment, some are more in alignment with their career goals, and some to pursue opportunities that are more financially attractive. Involuntary turnover is usually employer initiated, where the organisation wishes to terminate the relationship due to incompatibilities in matching its requirements. Involuntary turnover can also include death, mandatory retirements, and ill health (Riley, 2006).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Building a knowledge base on what causes an employee to choose to leave an organisation gives organisations the opportunity to limit voluntary turnover and / or to

manage the turnover process more effectively. Aspects of the work environment and employee retention strategies can then be created.

The primary aim of the current research was to undertake research within the tourism industry to identify the variables that influence turnover intentions. In particular, this research explored the concept of turnover intentions by investigating the mediating effects of job satisfaction and psychological capital (Avey, Hughes, Norman & Luthans, 2008).

Avey, et al. (2008) state that in addition to Psychological Capital (PsyCap), those who think they have control over and influence their surroundings, create change, have autonomy, and find meaning in their work (empowerment), will be less likely to want to leave their organisations. When employees are self determined in their organisational role and believe they can have a positive impact in their organisation, they are more likely to apply that determination toward success in the organisation rather than waste the opportunity to be successful by leaving the organisation.

Psychological Capital (PsyCap) is a positive state-like capacity that has undergone extensive theory-building and research. Avey (2007) defines psychological capital as an individual's positive psychological state of development and is identified by the following four characteristics: (1) having confidence (self efficacy) to take on and put in the required effort to succeed at demanding tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and,

when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when inundated by problems and hardship, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to achieve success. Recent research has identified these four factors of PsyCap as major potential influences on a person's level of performance, organisational commitment and satisfaction with their job (Cordery, 2008).

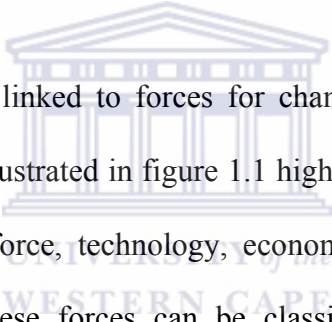
The results of a research programme conducted by Cordery (2008) strongly supports the conclusions that being able to view one's work through a positive lens generates distinct benefits for individuals and potentially for employers. People reporting higher PsyCap scores reported higher levels of job satisfaction and were less likely to leave the job that they are in. These findings were consistent across two studies separated in time.

Avey, et al. (2008), posit that individuals high in PsyCap will tend to conceptualise more options to achieve the same goal (hope) and are more likely to exercise these options in the work environment (efficacy) with positive expectations (optimism) and be able to bounce back from adversity (resilience). Confidence in one's abilities was consistently found to be the least strong correlate of psychological well-being, job satisfaction and intention to quit (Cordery, 2008).

Spector (1997, p. 2) states that job satisfaction can be "considered as a global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job". Job satisfaction is a subjective emotional evaluation made consciously or unconsciously by the employee and is defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state

resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. This variable is multidimensional in nature with specific facets such as satisfaction with pay, work, promotion, colleagues, and a global item for measuring overall job satisfaction (Riley, 2006).

Job Satisfaction relates to an individual's perceptions and evaluations of a job, and this perception is in turn prejudiced by their circumstances, including needs, values and expectations. Individuals therefore evaluate their jobs on the basis of factors which they regard as being important to them (Bull, 2005).



Intention to quit may also be linked to forces for change as depicted in the diagram below. Forces for change, as illustrated in figure 1.1 highlights factors which could force one to change, namely, workforce, technology, economic shocks, competition, social trends and world politics. These forces can be classified into two groups, namely environmental forces and internal forces. Environmental forces are beyond management's control, example, economic shocks, technological, competition, world politics and social trends. Internal forces operate inside the firm and are generally within the control of management, namely, workforce and technology (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1994). These factors could possibly relate to reasons why employees leave an organisation and has profound effects on the world of work. Accompanying these changes is a level of uncertainty that is playing havoc with people's careers and lives (University of Stellenbosch Business School, n.d.).

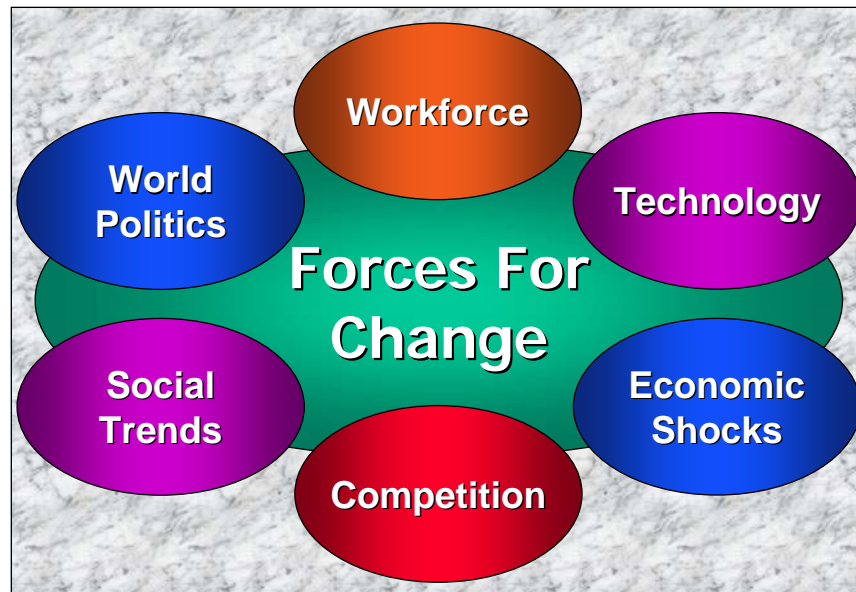


Figure 1.1 Forces for Change (Source: Extracted from Robbins (2001). *Organisational Behaviour*. New York: Wiley & Sons. Inc)



In a study conducted by Pienaar, Sieberhagen and Mostert (2007) it was found that there was a negative association between job satisfaction and turnover intention, a finding in line with that of international literature. The size of the correlation also indicated that these two variables are strongly negatively correlated. In the authors' final step of the regression analysis, qualitative role overload, job satisfaction and the noted moderating effects were the only significant predictors of turnover intention.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives include:

- To determine if there is a relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions amongst permanent tourism employees.
- To determine if there is a relationship between psychological capital and turnover intentions amongst permanent tourism employees.
- To determine if there is a significant relationship between psychological capital and job satisfaction.
- To determine whether psychological capital will be negatively associated with turnover intentions.

1.4 HYPOTHESES

To explore the relationships between the above variables, namely intention to quit, psychological capital and job satisfaction, the following general hypotheses were developed:

H1: Job satisfaction will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

H2: Psychological capital will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

H3: Job satisfaction will be associated with psychological capital.

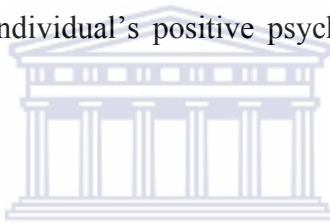
H4: Job satisfaction and psychological capital will not explain the variance in intention to quit.

1.5 DEFINITIONS AND TERMS

Intention to leave is defined as an ‘individual’s own estimated probability (subjective) that they are permanently leaving the organisation at some point in the near future’ (Vandenberg & Nelson, 1999, p. 1315).

Job satisfaction is ‘the measurement of one’s total feelings and attitudes towards one’s job’ (Bull, 2005, p. 19).

Psychological capital is ‘an individual’s positive psychological state of development’ (Avey, 2007, p.2).



Tourism “comprises the activities of persons traveling to, and staying in places outside their usual environment, for not more than one consecutive year, for leisure, business and other purposes” (Statistics South Africa, 2008, p. iv).

1.6 LIMITATIONS

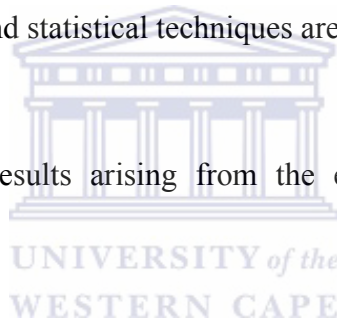
A primary limitation of the study relates to the use of a non-probability research design. This implies that the results emanating from the research cannot be confidently extrapolated to the population of tourism employees, as circumstances in other tourism environments may differ from the sample that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

1.7 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter two provides a comprehensive discussion of job satisfaction, psychological capital and turnover intentions with reference being made to the paucity of research on the relationship between these three variables in the tourism profession. Definitions of job satisfaction, psychological capital and turnover intentions are provided.

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

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



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

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Voluntary employee turnover is one of the most studied behaviours in management research (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hom & Kinicki, 2001; March & Simon, 1958). The many multivariate models and empirical tests within this research stream have greatly enhanced knowledge about quitting. Process models focus on how individuals arrive at their final decisions to quit, while content models focus on why individuals quit organisations (Maertz & Campion, 2004). For the purpose of this research study, the focus will be on why employees, specifically in the tourism industry quit organisations.

In the current global recession, the travel and tourism sector is viewed as the one sector that still possesses the ability to assist developing economies to move up the value chain, and become a significant contributor to a country's gross domestic product (GDP) (TECSA, 2009/10). In South Africa, tourism contributes 8% to the GDP with the potential to grow to 12% in the next five years. As a holiday destination, South Africa ranks 61 out of 133 destinations, on the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index.

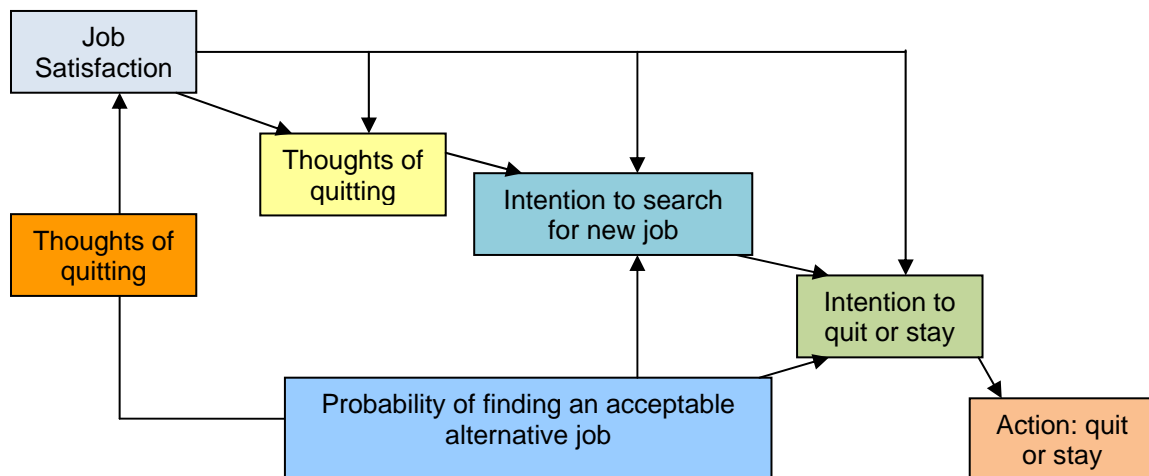
Employees are the backbone of any business success and therefore, they need to be motivated and maintained at all costs to aid the organisation to be globally competitive in

terms of providing quality products and services to society (Firth, Mellor, Moore & Loquet, 2004). Employees are often seen as knowledge workers or the talent of an organisation, and for this reason retaining this knowledge becomes a matter of retaining these individuals, given that their leaving the organisation means a loss to the organisation of its intellectual capital or indescribable resources (Birt, Wallis & Winternitz, 2004). Turnover is an employee-based decision thought to be one of the most expensive for employers, often costing organisations 1.5 to 2.5 times the incumbent's salary (Cascio, 2006).

Employee turnover could have a negative impact on organisational effectiveness, hence by identifying the determinants of employees' intention to leave, turnover behaviours could be predicted more accurately and measures to prevent turnover could be taken in advance (Van Schalkwyk, Du Toit, Bothma & Rothmann, 2010). Low employee engagement results in intention to leave (Firth, et al. 2004; Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002).

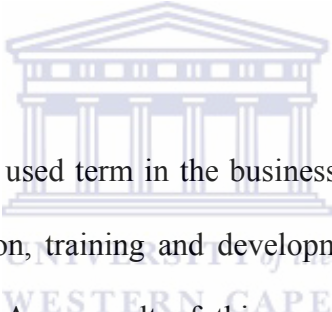
Figure 2.1 Voluntary Turnover: A Model (Source: Extracted from Greenberg &

Baron, 1997)



This voluntary turnover model extracted from Greenberg and Baron (1997), suggests that there are a number of elements relating to individuals, their jobs and economic conditions that influence a decision to change jobs and organisations. There are many more variables that are involved in making this decision, many of which are described in the above model. This model suggests that dissatisfaction with the job may lead to thoughts about quitting resulting in an employee starting to explore other job opportunities. If this proves to be successful, the employee may start developing serious intentions around whether to leave or stay on the job resulting in a particular action.

2.2 INTENTION TO QUIT

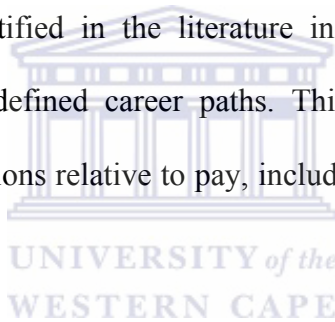


Employee turnover is a widely used term in the business world. Organisations invest in employees in terms of induction, training and development, maintaining and retaining them within the organisation. As a result of this, managers must at all costs try to minimise employee's turnover as it has cost implications for the organisation. Ongori (2007) postulates that there is a need to nurture a greater understanding of employee turnover; its sources, the effects on business as well as strategies management can implement to minimise employee turnover.

Labour turnover is classified in literature as either voluntary or involuntary (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004). Voluntary turnover is defined as employee initiated, with the employee seeking a better employment environment or prospects or job satisfaction. The authors further classify involuntary turnover as employer initiated and due to retrenchment or

dismissal for misconduct or non-performance related reasons. The present study is concerned only with voluntary turnover.

Intention to quit is largely influenced by job dissatisfaction, lack of commitment to the organisation and feelings of stress. Given their importance in quitting intentions, managers need to monitor both the extrinsic and intrinsic sources of job satisfaction available to employees (Firth et al. 2004). It has been argued that the hospitality industry is ambivalent to the “turnover culture” of its workforce and is identified as an industry with some inherent problems regarding candidate attractiveness (Robinson & Beesley, 2010). Issues previously identified in the literature include low entry barriers, poor standards of training and ill-defined career paths. This negativity is exacerbated by perceived poor working conditions relative to pay, including the temporal and seasonally challenging nature of the job.



Further research has implied that intention to quit is a strong surrogate indicator for actually quitting behaviour (Firth, et al. 2004). The authors postulate that job stressors and lack of job satisfaction are two of the factors that contribute to employees’ intention to quit their jobs. Researchers have highlighted that intentions are the most immediate determinants of actual behaviour.

2.2.1 DEFINITION OF INTENTION TO QUIT

The terms “retention” and “turnover” are often used interchangeably in the literature on employee turnover behaviour. Price (1989, p. 462), define turnover rate as “being both the entrance of new employees into the organisation and the departure of existing employees from the organisation”. Muchinsky & Morrow (1980, p. 267), posit a comparable description of turnover as “an individual’s voluntary termination of employment from an organisation”.

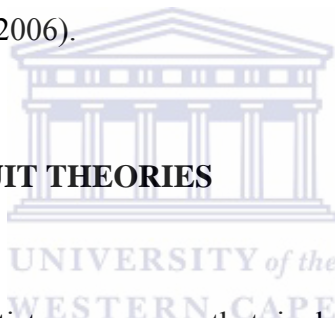
Intention to leave is referred to as a worker’s intention to leave the present organisation (Cho, Johanson & Guchait, 2009). This term is interchangeable with the term turnover intention. Intention to leave is considered a conscious and deliberate desire to leave an organisation within the near future and considered the last part of a sequence in the withdrawal cognition process. Three elements exist in the withdrawal cognition process, namely, thoughts of quitting, the intention to search for another job somewhere else and the intention to quit.

Boshoff, Van Wyk, Hoole and Owen (2002), defines intention to quit as the strength of an individual’s view that they do not want to stay with their employer. Intention to quit is seen as a dependent variable and is used as an indication of the probability that an individual will leave the organisation in the near future. The authors postulate that the intention to quit starts with the evaluation by individuals of their current situation, and

then they move through several further stages until a firm intention to quit is reached. The final outcome can be a decision to leave the organisation.

Vandenberg and Nelson (1999, p. 315) define intention to leave as an “individual’s own estimated probability (subjective) that they are permanently leaving the organisation at some point in the near future”. The determinants of employee turnover have great relevance to the employee who is thinking about quitting, as well as for the manager who is faced with the lack of employee continuity, the high costs involved in the induction and training of new personnel and the issue of organisational productivity (Firth, et al. 2004; Siong, Mellor, Moore & Firth, 2006).

2.2.2 INTENTION TO QUIT THEORIES



Turnover behaviour is a multistage process that includes attitudinal, decisional and behavioural components. The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) suggests that behavioural intention is a good predictor of actual behaviour. Studies (such as that of Fox & Fallon, 2003; Hom & Hulin, 1981; Mobley, 1982; Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978; Newman, 1974; Shields & Ward, 2001; Tett & Meyer, 1993) have effectively demonstrated that behavioural turnover intentions are constantly seen with moderate to strong correlations with turnover, substantiating the view of Ajzen (1991). There is extensive support for the idea that intention to quit-stay is almost certainly the most important and direct individual-level antecedent and predictor of turnover decisions (Chiu

& Francesco, 2003; Fox & Fallon, 2003; Mobley, 1982; Slate & Vogel, 1997; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Mobley (1977) suggests that there are several other possible turnover cognition types of interest to add in the withdrawal decision (the decision to quit a job), highlighting notions such as thinking of quitting, followed by the intention to search for alternatives.

Furthermore, many studies have been based on the belief that turnover is an individual choice behavioural pattern based on the conceptualization that it is a psychological response (Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid & Sirola, 1998; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979).



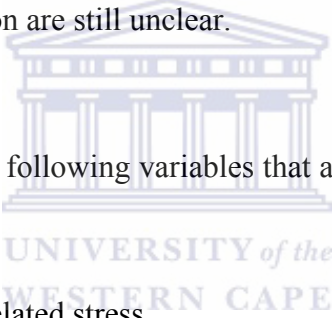
Chronic stress, inadequate pay, lack of recognition, increased job demand and other negative job characteristics are identified as reasons relating to worker's turnover (Drake & Yadama, 1996; Ellett, 2001; Scannapieco & Connell-Carrick, 2003; Scannapieco & Connell-Carrick, 2007).

In previous literature, it is reported that a negative connection exists between positive organisational support (POS) and intention to leave an organisation. Employees who feel supported by their employer are less likely to look for outside work opportunities and lack diligence in the workplace. The assumption is thus that an organisation encourages an employee to remain in its employ when the organisation shows concern for their

material and psychological well-being by seeking to establish a serene social context and a positive working climate (Paillé, Bourdeau & Galois, 2010).

According to McCarthy, Tyrrell and Lehane (2007), intentions are the most direct determinants of actual behaviour. They are therefore precise indicators of ensuing behaviour, however the reasons for these intentions are often unidentified (Firth, et al. 2004). Van Dick, Christ, Stellmacher, Wagner, Ahlswede, Grubba, Hauptmeier, Höhfeld, Moltzen & Tissington, (2004) agree that the observable fact is far from being fully understood, especially because some of the psychological processes underlying the withdrawal from the organisation are still unclear.

Firth, et al. (2004) highlight the following variables that are found to relate to intention to quit:

- 
- The experience of job-related stress
 - The range of factors that lead to job-related stress
 - Lack of commitment to the organisation; and
 - Job dissatisfaction.

These variables can be mediated by personal or dispositional factors and by environmental or organisational factors. Generally, the focus will be on the personal factors that mediate between stressors and intention to quit, namely aspects of personal agency, self-esteem and social support.

Personal agency refers to concepts such as a sense of powerlessness, locus of control and personal control. Research findings strongly suggest that a greater sense of personal agency is associated with a reduced risk of negative outcomes following major negative life events and role-related stress (Firth, et al. 2004).

Firth, et al. (2004) postulate that social support has played an important role in mitigating intention to quit, although findings are unequivocal. A study conducted with nurses indicated that social support from supervisors reduced the level of nurses' burnout and indirectly, through reduced levels of burnout, reduced nurses' intention to quit.

Birt, et al. (2004) highlight that with continuance commitment; an employee bases their choice to remain with the organisation on perceptions of other existing opportunities as well as the cost of leaving the organisation rather than on a more emotional attachment to the organisation as is found in affective commitment. Furthermore, Jaros, Jermier, Koehler and Sincich (1993) postulate that continuance commitment reflects the extent to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in place because of the high costs of leaving. This idea stems from the fact that the employee invests in an organisation, such as time, job effort, and the development of work friendships, organisation-specific skills, and political deals, all which constitute sunk costs that reduce the magnetism of outside employment alternatives.

Maertz (2001), cited in Maertz and Campion (2004) identifies the following eight motivational forces of attachment and withdrawal, as depicted in the Table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1 Eight Motivational Forces of Attachment and Withdrawal (Source: *Extracted from Maertz & Campion, 2004*)

The Eight Motivational Forces of Attachment and Withdrawal	
Type of force	Psychological Motive for Attachment or Withdrawal
Affective: Current affective response to an organisation	This occurs when an individual is more attached because membership currently provides employment and positive emotions. Negative emotional responses to job or organisational membership cause a withdrawal response.
Contractual: Psychological contract obligations to an organisation and violations of contract	A desire to perform professed obligations in the current psychological contract through staying. On the other hand, the desire to disband a psychological contract or to respond to violations through quitting. This desire depends on an employee's holding a standard of reciprocity to some extent.
Constituent: Commitment to people or groups in an organisation	A desire to preserve, or on the contrary, to end, relationships with constituents by staying or quitting. This desire can stem from a number of motive forces. The net force (for staying or leaving) may depend on relationships with one or many constituents, and it may alter direction if the constituents themselves leave the organisation.
Alternative: Perceived alternatives to a current job	An employee's self-efficacy beliefs regarding competence to obtain alternatives, combining the perceived confidence and quality of alternative options.
Calculative: Anticipated future satisfaction associated with continued organisation membership	An assessment of future value attainment possibilities connected with continued membership. High expectancy of value attainment or a positive calculation increases psychological attachment, while low expectancy or a negative calculation increases withdrawal propensity.
Normative: Pressures to stay or leave an organisation derived from the expectations of others	A desire to meet perceived expectations of family members or friends outside the organisation with respect to staying or quitting. These pressures may come from one or many parties, and the motivation to comply with these expectations varies.
Behavioural: Behavioural commitment to an organisation	A desire to avoid the explicit and / or psychological costs of quitting. These costs are brought on largely by membership-related behaviours in the past or by company policies regarding the value of tenure. Perceived costs can range from zero to a very high level.
Moral: Moral / ethical values about quitting	A desire for uniformity between behaviour and values with regard to turnover. Internalised values lie somewhere on a continuum from "quitting is bad and persistence is a virtue" to "changing jobs regularly is positive; staying too long leads to stagnation".

Maertz and Campion (2004) highlight four decision type profiles which include the cognitive decision steps used and their timing, the type of event that likely triggered these steps, and the alignment of motives or reasons that influenced the ultimate decision. The four profiles are discussed below:

- i) Impulsive quitters – driven by sharp negative affect followed by quitting “on the spot”. Individuals experience strong negative affect, possibly from a psychological contract breach, that they decide to quit instantaneously without any planning. The impulsiveness of these decisions makes them hard to foresee and manage; therefore management interventions ought to focus on increasing good feelings toward organisations and minimizing policies that extract strong negative effect among employees.
- ii) Comparison quitters – attracted away from organisations by another job and are moderately free of strong negative affect toward their current employers. The employees feel more positive toward their organisations and may foresee good future prospects for themselves.
- iii) Preplanned quitters – plan in advance to quit at a specific time in the future. Individuals who preplan are less likely to be highly dissatisfied with their organisations than impulsive quitters.
- iv) Conditional quitters – plan to quit if some uncertain event or shock occurs, as perceived by the employees. Individuals experience different forces to withdraw. The condition to be fulfilled does not automatically involve getting another job offer. Management should consider instituting career advising, clarifying criteria

for promotion, and adhering to principles of procedural justice in providing development opportunities. Helping employees see futures for themselves with organisations may tempt them to avoid making – or to rethink – conditional plans to quit.

Employees who feel supported by their employer are less likely to look at outside job possibilities and lack diligence in the workplace. In harmony with previous empirical research, the more an employee feels their organisation is developing human resources policies with the focus on professional well-being, the less they will be inclined to leave the employ of the organisation (Paillé, et al. 2010).

It may therefore become important for line managers to take necessary action in reassuring the employee and by creating new opportunities for development that could provide a strong pull for the employee to stay within the organisation. For this reason, regular engagement from the manager's side is critical in order to assess where employees, particularly high performance individuals, are at in terms of their degree of happiness within their role in the organisation. This is usually identified at a stage when it is too late to implement corrective action, resulting in key employees leaving the organisation. With this in mind, it may be useful to explore how organisations and their managers can promote job satisfaction and in so doing, preventing turnover from the individuals that needs to be retained in the organisation. Greenberg and Baron (1997), offers the following suggestions:

1. Make jobs fun – Employees who enjoy the work that they do will result in them feeling more satisfied. There is no disputing that some types of work are innately boring, therefore it becomes important to make the workplace environment a fun place to be. Alternatively, ‘fun days’ can be organized to infuse an element of fun to regular routine by having fun activities and events outside of the working environment.
2. Pay people fairly – Employees who are of the perception that their organisations’ pay and benefit system is inherently unfair tend to have a high level of dissatisfaction with their jobs. Also, when employees have a choice in selecting their fringe benefits that they desire most, job satisfaction will in all likelihood increase. At the same time the remuneration component can influence job satisfaction by allowing people to structure their pay to sustain their financial needs and to have flexibility with whether more disposable income is required on a monthly basis compared to having an annual bonus at a particular time of the month or whether more or less leave is required.
3. Match people to jobs that fit their interests – It is important that people engage themselves in work activities that they enjoy and have a strong interest in, as they spend most of their time involved in workplace activities. Organisations should therefore seek to conduct regular assessments of people and their interests and as far as possible match their personality and work preferences to what they are involved in at work. This match is important to ensure that people’s interests are sustained in the workplace, leading to a satisfied employee on the job.

4. Avoid boring repetitive jobs – The majority of the workforce is at some point engaged in workplace tasks that are repetitive and administrative in nature. Employees, who do not have a flair for this kind of work, will find little satisfaction in routine jobs. It is therefore important for organisations to explore alternative roles and development of employee skills to prevent boredom.

2.2.3 RELATED RESEARCH ON INTENTION TO QUIT

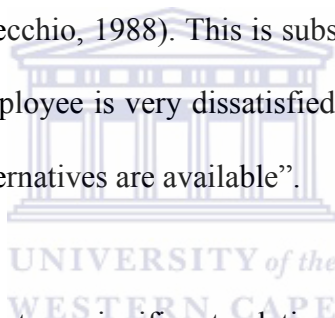
Research has shown, with a reasonable degree of consistency, that dissatisfied employees are more likely to quit their jobs (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Organ, 1991; Robbins, 2001; Smither, 1988; Staw, 1995; Vecchio, 1988). In fact, Robbins (2001) argues that the correlation between job satisfaction and turnover is stronger than the correlation between satisfaction and absenteeism.

While certain researchers maintain that a direct relationship exists between job satisfaction and turnover (Clugston, 2000; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001), a growing body of literature suggests that the relationship is neither simple nor direct (Saal & Knight, 1988; Somers, 1996). Camp (1994), for example, found that job satisfaction exerts an insignificant direct influence on turnover.

Studies generally specify that dissatisfaction leads to turnover intent which, in turn, is the direct precursor to actual turnover (Jinnett & Alexander, 1999; Morrison, 1997; Pasewark & Strawser, 1996; Quarles, 1994; Saal & Knight, 1988). In fact, in a study by Hellman

(1997) it was implied that every unit of decrease in job satisfaction reflects approximately a one-half standard deviation increase in intent to leave. It is further maintained by Smither (1988) that such turnover intent is the best predictor of actual turnover.

The relationship between job satisfaction and turnover is further complicated by the presence of moderating variables such as labour market conditions, expectations about alternative job opportunities, the length of tenure with the organisation and organisational commitment (Lum, et al. 1998; Robbins, 2001). Of these variables the most salient influence is exercised by the availability of alternative employment opportunities (McCormick & Ilgen, 1985; Vecchio, 1988). This is substantiated by Staw (1995, p. 94), who states that “Even if an employee is very dissatisfied with his job, he is not likely to leave unless more attractive alternatives are available”.



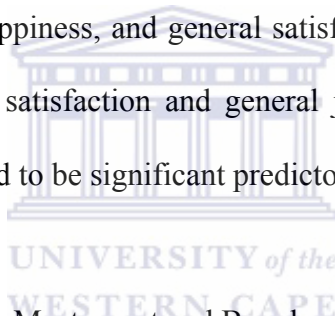
Many studies have reported that no significant relationship exists between gender and turnover intentions (such as Lambert, et al. 2001; Lum, et al. 1998). This was also the case in a longitudinal study (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Another study, however, reported a negative correlation whereby women had higher turnover intentions (Marsh & Mannari, 1977).

Race has been indicated as a poor and inconsistent variable as a predictor of turnover (Lambert, et al. 2001), but recently it was found that African professional nurses are significantly more inclined to quit than their coloured or white counterparts (Jacobs,

2005). It has also been found that far more black managers were seriously considering leaving their current positions than their white counterparts (Vallabh & Donald, 2001).

As in the case of absenteeism, job satisfaction will not, in and of itself, keep turnover low. On the other hand, however, if there is considerable job dissatisfaction, high turnover is likely to be evidenced (Luthans, 1992). It would therefore be accurate to say that job satisfaction is an important consideration in employee turnover.

Luthans, Lebsack, Lebsack, (2004) report on a study where the effect of nurses' general job satisfaction, general job happiness, and general satisfaction on their intention to quit was investigated. General job satisfaction and general job happiness along with other demographic factors were found to be significant predictors of nurse's turnover intent.



In a study conducted by Martin, Mactaggart and Bowden (2006), research indicated that a lack of career development, poor working conditions, and the industry's broad issues of poor image and low status appears to be the three major hurdles to all tourism businesses in achieving satisfactory level of recruitment and retention of managerial staff.

Intention to leave is seen by many authors as the best predictor of turnover. An analysis of turnover research found that intention to quit demonstrated the most consistent bi-variate relationship to turnover behaviour with an r value consistently around the 0.50 region. Further research indicated an interdependence of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to leave (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004).

In the study conducted by Firth, et al. (2004), there was no direct relationship between job stressors and intention to quit in the data; rather job stressors impacted upon intention to quit through supposed support from supervisors, and through the job engagement factors of job satisfaction, job commitment and feelings of job stress. The key impact in reducing employees' intention to quit came from a sense of commitment to the organisation ($\beta = - 0.49$) and from a sense of job satisfaction ($\beta = - 0.41$).

Swarts and Du Plessis (2007) investigated expatriate managers and their intention to quit foreign assignments. The research findings concluded that 46.48% of participants indicated an intention to quit. This percentage is quite high, but coincides with expatriate failure rates published in international and South African literature.

Intention to quit is the strength of an individual's viewpoint that they do not want to stay with their employer. People who intend to quit are psychologically detached, less motivated and unwilling to contribute effectively to the organisation as they are not engaged (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades, 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Reese, in Boshoff & Allen, 2000). The focus is then drawn to the individuals' psychological capital as discussed below.

2.3 PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

2.3.1 POSITIVE ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Positive psychology is a result to the fixation that psychology has traditionally had with negative, pathological aspects of human performance (Luthans, Lebsack & Lebsack, 2008). The positive psychology movement has emerged because not enough importance has been placed on researching strengths and other positive human characteristics. The emphasis of the positive psychology movement is on improving people's lives, on nurturing, on flow and contentment, and on building on the strengths of the human spirit.

Positive organisational behaviour (POB) and its derivative psychological capital (PsyCap) are drawn from the theory and research in positive psychology applied to the workplace (Luthans, Norman, Avolio & Avey, 2008). According to Bakker and Schaufeli (2008), positive psychology studies the strengths and qualities that enable individuals and communities to thrive.

Positive organisational behaviour is defined by Luthans, et al. (2008, p. 220) as “the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace”.

The subsequent criteria were set for including constructs in this definition of positive organisational behaviour, namely, “(a) grounded in theory and research; (b) valid

measurement; (c) relatively unique to the field of organisational behaviour; (d) state-like and hence open to development and change as opposed to a fixed trait; and (e) have a positive impact on work-related individual level performance and satisfaction” (Luthans, Avolio, Avey & Norman (2007, p. 542). The positive psychological constructs that have been determined to meet the inclusion criteria for this specific research study include hope, resilience, optimism and self-efficacy, and when combined, represent psychological capital or PsyCap.

This composite construct has been defined as “an individual’s positive psychological state of development and is characterised by : (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success (Luthans, et al. 2007, p. 542).

Although other positive constructs such as wisdom, well being, emotional intelligence, courage, and even spirituality have been considered as potential PsyCap , efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience have been featured as best meeting the defined PsyCap inclusion criteria of being state-like and demonstrating performance impact (Avey, Luthans & Mhatre, 2008). The four identified for this study have been determined to best meet the POB inclusion criteria, and has also theoretically and empirically shown to make up the core construct of psychological capital. When combined together, the POB

states of confidence, optimism, hope and resilience form the higher order core factor for positive psychological capital (Luthans, et al. 2008).

POB studies individual positive psychological conditions and human resource strengths that are in one way or the other, related to employee well-being or performance improvement. Research may also focus on the cognitive capacities of creativity and wisdom, and the affective capacities of work engagement and humor. POB studies also examine the role of states like self-efficacy, optimism, hope, resilience, and other personal resources in coping with organisational demands or in fostering performance (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). Each of the four components has considerable theory and research that can contribute to developing an integrative theoretical foundation for PsyCap (Luthans, et al. 2007).



2.3.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

Psychological capital is proposed as a higher-order construct and hence is distinctive as a state-like construct. State-like refers to the construct being malleable and open to development. This means that the constructs are more open to change and development (Luthans, et al. 2007).

The higher-order core construct of PsyCap represents the cohesion among the four component dimensions, namely hope, resilience, optimism and efficacy, and has both theoretical and empirical support (Luthans, et al. 2008).

2.3.3 DIMENSIONS TO POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

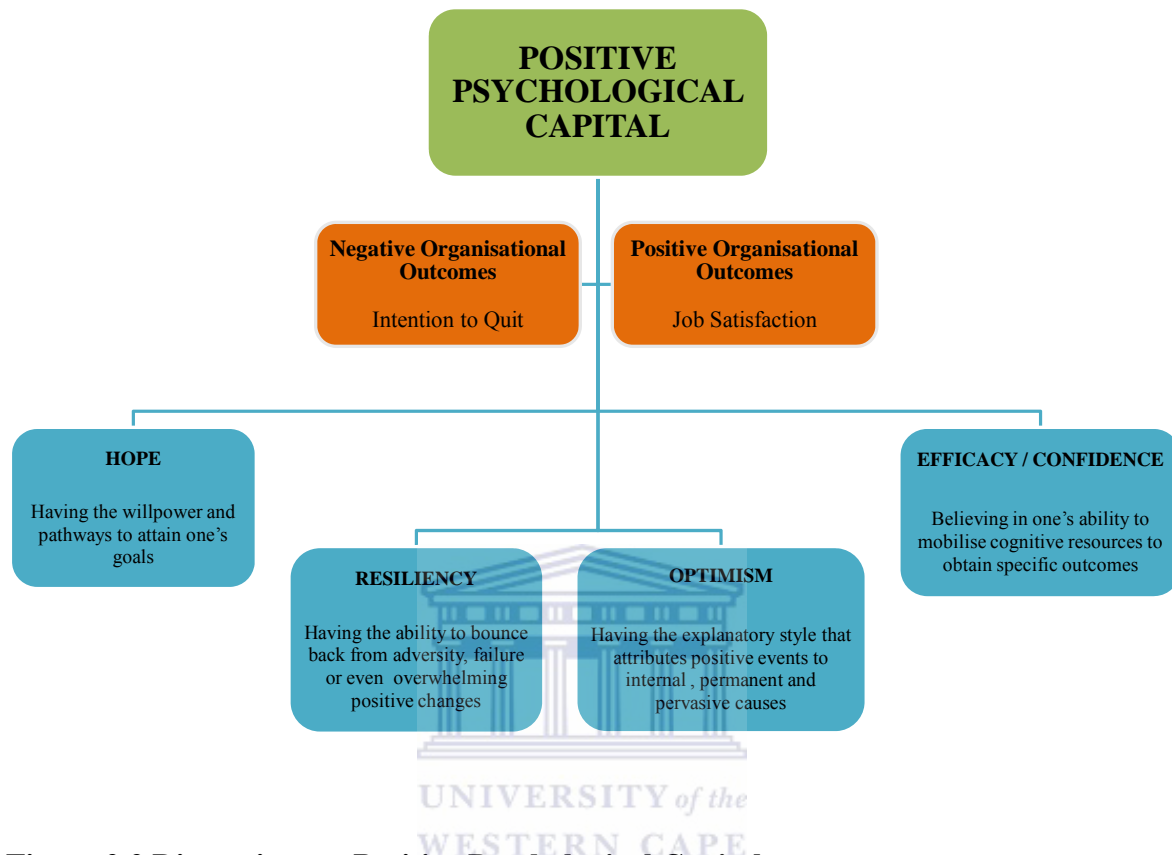


Figure 2.2 Dimensions to Positive Psychological Capital

2.3.3.1 HOPE AS A POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSTRUCT

Hope is frequently used on a daily basis. Traditionally, hope was used in psychology as general expectations of meeting goals (Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Conversely, as a psychological strength, there are numerous misperceptions about what constitutes hope and what the characteristics of hopeful individuals, groups and organisations are. According to Luthans, Youssef and Avolio (2007) hope is confused with hopeful thinking, an unsubstantiated positive attitude, an emotional high, or even an illusion.

Hope has also been portrayed as a general inclination of being positively creative and reactive towards the supposed future, by subjectively assessing what is probable or significant in the future; a future-referenced, sentimental cognition based on wish for events and some expectation of the occurrence of these events; and as a state being, characterised by an expectancy of a continued good state (Luthans, Van Wyk & Walumbwa, 2004).

The most recognized definition of hope is by the positive psychologist C. Rick Snyder in Luthans, et al. (2008), where hope is defined as a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively resulting sense of successful (a) agency (goal directed energy or willpower) and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals). Snyder's research supports the idea that hope is a cognitive or "thinking" state in which an individual is proficient in setting realistic but demanding goals and expectations and then reaching out for those aims through self-directed determination, energy, and view of internalised control (Luthans, et al. 2007). This is what Snyder and peers refer to as "agency" or "willpower". During the "pathway" or "waypower" component of hope, people are able to produce alternative paths to their most wanted destinations should the original ones become blocked. The pathways component distinguishes PsyCap hope from the everyday usage of the term and from the other PsyCap states, such as resiliency, self-efficacy and optimism.

As a psychological construct, hope consists of three major conceptual foundations, namely; agency, pathways and goals (Luthans, et al. 2007). The agency element of hope

can be seen as having the determination to accomplish the intended or desired effect. Therefore, hope involves the agency or motivational energy to pursue a goal. Luthans, et al. (2007) also postulates that hope involves the pathways that include not only identifying goals and subgoals, but also alternative ways to reach these goals. Those high in hope utilize contingency planning as they forecast obstacles to achieving goals or subgoals and proactively identify multiple pathways to attain the targeted goal. This all means that hope constitutes the will to succeed and the ability to identify, clarify, and pursue the way to success.

In Luthans, et al. (2007), a study conducted by Snyder in 2002, indicates that theory building and research have demonstrated hope to be abstractly convergent but also distinct from other positive constructs, and has been empirically confirmed to have discriminant validity in relation to comparable positive constructs.

To date very few studies have explored the impact of hope in the workplace. For example, in a study by Adams and colleagues in 2002, the researchers found that organisations with respondents reporting higher levels of hope tended to be more successful than those with lower levels of hope. Luthans, et al. (2007) also reported that in a study conducted by Peterson and Luthans in 2003, fast-food store manager's level of hope correlated with financial performance of their unit and employee retention and job satisfaction. In another study conducted by Luthans and colleagues, the hope level of Chinese factory workers was also found to be associated to their supervisory-rated performance and merit salary increases.

The hope construct draws its uniqueness from the equal, additive, and iterative contributions from its agency and pathways components. Although the willpower or agency component of hope is common amongst other positive psychological capacities, such as optimism, the pathways component is distinguishing of hope. It allows for the rebirth of determination and willpower even when faced with blockages, as additional alternative pathways have been proactively determined. The ensuing increase in willpower in turn motivates the search for even further alternate pathways in light of the realities of the new situation. This hope process allows blockages or problems to be perceived as challenges and learning opportunities (Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

Luthans, et al. (2007) also reports that there is some evidence based on recent studies that the hope levels of production workers in a small Midwestern factory were related to their job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In a large cross-sectional sample of employees, hope was related to their satisfaction, organisational commitment, and work happiness.

Practical approaches for developing hope include setting demanding “stretch” goals, emergency planning, and regoaling when required to steer clear of false hope (Luthans, et al. 2007).

2.3.3.1.1 DEVELOPING HOPE IN EMPLOYEES

Several successful approaches have been successful in developing and nurturing hope.

These include the following (Luthans, et al. 2007):

1. Goal-setting – In line with the theory of hope, performance gains are achieved when goals are internalised and committed to and when goal attainment is self-regulated. Goals that are self-set, participatory, or even assigned but explained in a rational way that one can relate to will tend to yield higher performance than dictated, unexplained goals.
2. Stretch Goals – These are goals that are complex enough to arouse excitement and investigation and yet are still perceived to be within reach. These are the type of goals that call for examination and reasonable expectations of accomplishment, given extra effort.
3. Stepping – In this process, difficult, long-term, and possibly even overwhelming goals are broken down into smaller, achievable, and thus more controllable milestones. As continuing progress is made toward the distant goal, agency and pathways are enriched, thus building a more sustainable foundation for pursuing one's extreme challenges effectively.
4. Involvement – Bottom-up decision-making and communication, opportunities for participation, employee empowerment, engagement, delegation and increased autonomy are all involvement techniques that works in terms of increased performance and in increasing employee satisfaction, commitment, and other

- desirable attitudinal outcomes, such as psychological engagement and recognition.
5. Reward Systems – Reinforcing PsyCap hope thinking can be achieved through rewarding employees who contribute to the correct goals, take effective goal-setting initiatives, exhibit internalised control and self-regulating behaviours (agency), and ingeniously and persistently pursue various alternative pathways to goal achievement.
 6. Resources – Clearly set priorities and successful distribution of resources are vital to sustaining hope and achieving goals. Support from the leader and the organisation to help employees explore alternative pathways also helps. In addition to the above mentioned resources, managerial support and commitment are also indispensable resources.
 7. Strategic Alignment – Developing the agency and pathways ingredients of hope demands the careful grouping of the placement and development of human resources with each employee's talent and strengths. From hope's focus on pathways, it follows that getting people aligned provides them with a broader set of pathway choices in which to be doing well at work. On the other hand, getting people completely mismatched with their job responsibilities to the degree that they have little probability for success limits the employee's pathway possibilities along with their hope.
 8. Training – Hope-promoting types of training are hands-on, interactive and participative. They are leaning toward enhancing broad competencies and developing talents into strengths, which in turn are modified to various situations.

Hope-related training, together with learned skills, can be equipping and enabling, but it leaves room for self-awareness, self-regulation, self-evaluation, and self-development.

2.3.3.2 RESILIENCE AS A POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSTRUCT

According to Luthans, et al. (2007), resilience in positive psychology is characterised by positive coping and adaptation in the face of significant risk or adversity. Resilience, applied in the working context, is defined as the positive psychological ability to rebound, to bounce back from hardship, indecision, conflict, failure, or even positive change, growth and increased responsibility. Resilience allows for not only reactive recovery but also proactive learning and growth through conquering challenges. This means that resilience may integrate both negative and positive setbacks but potentially overwhelming events (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). According to Luthans and colleagues (2004), highly resilient people have a deep conviction, based on a strong set of values, that life is meaningful and a strange ability to improvise and adapt to major change. The authors also report that extensive research work in clinical and positive psychology suggests that highly resilient individuals have a propensity to be more effective in a variety of life experiences, including good adjustment and development under a variety of life-course threatening conditions.

Research supports that resilience can be developed through asset-focused, risk-focused, and process-focused strategies that are applicable and relevant to the workplace. In

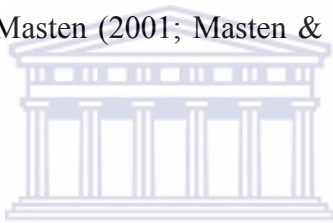
addition, state-like resilience can be developed through training interventions (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). In a study conducted on factory workers, it was found that the worker's resiliency related to their job satisfaction, and another study concluded that employee's level of resilience related to their satisfaction, commitment and happiness (Luthans, et al. 2007). In other studies, it was found that resilience is measurable and applicable and related to performance in the workplace (Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

Youssef and Luthans (2007) postulate that resilience recognizes the need to take both proactive and reactive measures in the face of hardship. Reactively, resilience distinctively recognizes the potential that setbacks, traumas and even positive but overwhelming events can have a disparaging impact, even on the most hopeful and optimistic individuals, and therefore, the need to bounce back. The capacity for resilience promotes the recognition and acknowledgement of such impact, allowing the affected individual the time, energy and resource investment to recuperate, rebound and return to an equilibrium point. Proactively, resilience also allows for the use of setbacks as "springboards" or opportunities for growth beyond that stability point. Resilience places a distinctive positive value on risk factors that may otherwise be viewed as threats that increase the probability of negative outcomes or decrease the probability of positive ones.

Although there is not an agreed upon categorization of the situations or qualities needed to activate resilience, there is adequate evidence showing the existence of a dynamic psychological capacity of adaptation and coping with adversity (Luthans, Vogelgesang & Lester, 2006). A recent metatheory of resiliency identified three waves of inquiry and

analysis, namely: (a) identifying resilient traits of individuals and support systems that forecast social and personal success (b) understanding the process of coping with stressors, hardship, change, or opportunity ensuing in the identification, reinforcement, and improvement of protective factors; and (c) identifying the motivational forces within individuals and groups and the creation of experiences that advance the activation and use of these forces.

Three areas of focus for a proactive human resource development (HRD) approach to resiliency development have been drawn from work in the clinical field as well as from work of positive psychologist Masten (2001; Masten & Reed, 2002), namely risk, asset and process strategies.

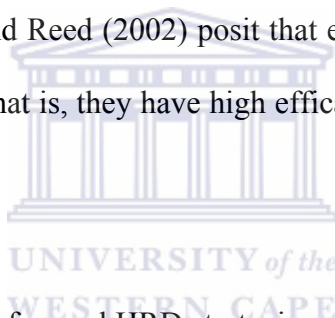


Risk-focused HRD strategy – This development strategy aims to proactively and aggressively avoid circumstances and reduce the risks that may cause adverse events. Although it is not always possible to foresee external and / or environmental indicators that may lead to adversity in an organisation, it is likely that a strong organisational culture can and often does deter internal lapses (for example, ethical crises, sexual harassment, and employee misconduct) that may leave those involved facing adverse events.

Asset-focused HRD strategy – Assets include human capital such as knowledge, skills, and abilities and social networks of support or social capital. An asset-focused HRD strategy for resiliency would enhance the “employability” of their people through paying

for continued educational expenses, promoting developmental workshops and cross-training, and rewarding those seeking to better themselves. Such a strategy would foster employee engagement and reap the added benefit of an increased sense of ownership. Luthans, et al. (2006), postulate that the specific HRD guideline for an effective strategy for proactively developing resiliency is to *invest in the human and social capital of employees*.

Process-focused HRD strategy – PsyCap hope, confidence, and optimism can be independently developed to contribute to the process of increasing the resilience an individual can have. Masten and Reed (2002) posit that employees who have confidence in performing their job well (that is, they have high efficacy) will also likely have higher resilience.



These risk-, asset-, and process-focused HRD strategies are specific application steps that can be taken in anticipation of negative events.

2.3.3.3 OPTIMISM AS A POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSTRUCT

An Optimist is one who expects positive and desirable events in the future, while a pessimist is one who continuously has off-putting thoughts and is convinced that undesirable events will happen. Optimists are those who make internal, stable and global attributions regarding positive events (for example, task accomplishment) and those who attribute external, unstable, and specific reasons for negative events (for example, a

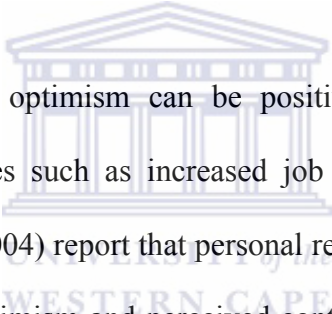
missed deadline) (Luthans, et al. 2007). Optimism as a component of PsyCap is associated with a positive outcome outlook or attribution of events, which includes positive emotions and motivation and has the caveat of being realistic.

Optimism is oriented toward evaluation of the past or recently occurring events – as opposed to only being oriented toward the future (Avey, et al. 2010). Optimism is defined by Youssef and Luthans (2007) as an attributional style that explains positive events in terms of personal, permanent, and pervasive causes and negative events in terms of external, temporary, and situation-specific ones. Pragmatic, flexible sanguinity is relevant to POB, which can be learned and developed through accepted approaches such as leniency for the past, having a positive reception for the present, and opportunity seeking for the future. Luthans, Lebsack and Lebsack (2004), emphasis the importance of flexible optimism, where one faces reality with a positive attitude without dwelling excessively on the negatives. Another concept highlighted is that of “realistic optimism”, which does not take an extreme in internalising good events and externalising negative ones. This approach has recognized the importance of understanding that there can be a downside to too much and / or false optimism.

Schneider in Luthans, et al. (2008) highlights three forms of realistic optimism which is relevant for success, namely:

- i) Leniency for the past
- ii) Appreciation for the present, and
- iii) Opportunity-seeking for the future.

The authors are also of the opinion that optimism can be validly and reliably measured, and has a recognised performance impact in work settings, which meets the POB inclusion criteria. Luthans, et al. (2004) postulate that optimists are easily motivated to work harder, are more contented and have high morale, have high levels of motivational aspiration, persevere in the face of obstacles and difficulties, analyse personal failures and setbacks as temporary, and tends to make one feel upbeat and rejuvenated both physically and psychologically. These descriptions point out that pathways and agency-like thoughts are inherent in the theory of optimism, and like hope, optimism also a cognitive process.



There is some evidence that optimism can be positively associated with affective measures of employee attitudes such as increased job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Luthans, et al. (2004) report that personal resilience (defined in the study as a composite of self-esteem, optimism and perceived control) was associated with higher levels of change acceptance and that lower levels of change acceptance were associated with less job satisfaction, more work irritation, and stronger intentions to quit. In another study it was also reported that one of the major determinants of nurses' job satisfaction was positive affectivity. The relationship between optimism and job satisfaction and organisational commitment seems largely important because of previous research which has established the positive impact these affective states can have on nursing performance and turnover.

2.3.3.4 SELF-EFFICACY AS A POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSTRUCT

Self-efficacy represents a positive belief (not ability per se nor outcome expectancy) and was defined for the workplace by Stajkovic and Luthans as “the employee’s conviction or confidence about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources or courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context” (Luthans, et al. 2007, p. 548).

Avey, Luthans, Smith and Palmer (2010, p. 20) define efficacy as “one’s conviction (or confidence) about their abilities to mobilise the motivation, cognitive resources or courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context”. The need for achievement is mediated by self-efficacy beliefs (Wilson, 1995). The author further postulates that individuals with a high need for achievement will be motivated to tackle only those goals for which there is a moderate probability of success. The high self-efficacy beliefs held by successful women will increase the expectancy of success for challenging goals. The more you believe in yourself, the more likely you are to be successful in an organisation.

Self-efficacy is cognitive in nature. It is flexible and influenced by information derived from four main sources; performance accomplishments; vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and the control of negative emotions (Devonport & Lane, 2006).

Bandura (1977) highlights the belief in one's ability as self-efficacy with four basic sources:

1. Mastery experiences – or performance accomplishment
2. Vicarious experience – or social modeling (live and mediated)
3. Verbal persuasion – or social encouraging (must be trusted source)
4. Emotional arousal – or managing ones physiological self.

Bandura (1997) maintains the effects of increased self-efficacy beliefs by mastery experience are increased optimism, cognition, motivation, emotional, and decisional abilities. Highly efficient people have a higher affective belief in their capability to cope and search out new interests and challenges. Their selection process is at a turning point in their lives (Bandura, 1989). They seem to have the world in the palm of their hands. Meanwhile, restaurant managers with lower self-efficacy appear perplexed and disgusted (Aguilar & Yuan, 2010).

According to Luthans and Peterson (2002) self-efficacy has emerged as a key construct that may assist in clarifying and predicting work-related effectiveness. Self-efficacy is state-like and active; it can change over time with new information, experience and learning. This all means that self-efficacy is adaptable to human resource development and management for performance improvement.

Three approaches have been provided on how to develop self-efficacy in practicing managers (Luthans & Peterson, 2002), namely:

- i) Guided mastery – includes instructive modeling to acquire a skill or competency, guided skill perfection, and then transfer the training back to the job to insure self-directed managerial success
- ii) Cognitive mastery modeling – learning thinking skills and how to apply them by observing the decision rules and reasoning strategies
- iii) Development of self-regulatory competencies – interlinked self-referent processes such as self-monitoring, self-efficacy appraisal, personal goal setting, and use of self-motivation theories.

2.3.4 PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AS A HIGHER-ORDER FACTOR

It is important to note that each of the four positive constructs reviewed above have been shown to have conceptual independence, and empirically based discriminant validity; and at the same time there may also be a common, underlying link that runs between them and binds them together, that is, a higher-order core factor, called psychological capital (Luthans, et al. 2007). There is both conceptual and preliminary research support for the proposed higher-order factor.

PsyCap can be viewed as “who you are” and “what you can become in terms of positive development” and is differentiated from human capital (“what you know”), social capital (“who you know”), and financial capital (“what you have”) (Luthans, et al. 2008).

In a study conducted by Youssef and Luthans (2007), each of the three psychological capacities of hope, optimism and resilience, was significantly positively related to job

satisfaction and work happiness after controlling for the industry and demographic variables, which each capacity accounting for significant additional variance after controlling for the other two capacities.

Job satisfaction has been found to be associated with organisational trust and helps increase employee performance. It also serves as a significant predictor in organisational commitment and retention (Chuang, Yin & Dellman-Jenkins, 2009).

2.4 JOB SATISFACTION

2.4.1 JOB SATISFACTION DEFINED



Job satisfaction refers to an overall affective orientation on the part of individuals toward work roles which they are presently occupying. It must be distinguished from satisfaction with specific dimensions of those roles. This theory implies that job satisfaction is a unitary concept and that individuals may be characterised by some sort of vaguely defined attitude toward their total job situation. A person may be satisfied with one dimension of the job and dissatisfied with another. The assumption underlying the present view is that it is possible for individuals to balance these specific satisfactions against the specific dissatisfactions and thus to arrive at a composite satisfaction with the job as a whole (Kalleberg, 1977).

Nelson and Quick (2006, p. 120) define job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences”. Job satisfaction is generally seen as a general attitude as well as satisfaction with particular dimensions of the job, pay, the work itself, supervision, promotion, the work group and working conditions.

The authors are also of the opinion that people who are dissatisfied with their jobs are absent more frequently, mainly because they are dissatisfied with the work itself. Dissatisfied workers are also more likely to quit their jobs, and turnover at work can then be quite costly to organisations. The authors also postulate that dissatisfied workers report more psychological and medical problems than satisfied workers.

Robbins (1998, p. 156 – 157), advocates that employee dissatisfaction can be anticipated in many diverse ways and summarises these as follows:

- Exit – Behaviour directed toward leaving the organisation, including looking for a new position as well as resigning.
- Voice – Actively and constructively attempting to improve conditions, including suggesting improvements, discussing problems with superiors, and some forms of union activity.
- Loyalty – Passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve, including speaking up for the organisation in the face of external criticism and trusting the organisation and its management to “do the right thing.”

- Neglect – Passively allowing conditions to worsen, including chronic absenteeism or lateness, reduced effort, and increased error rate.

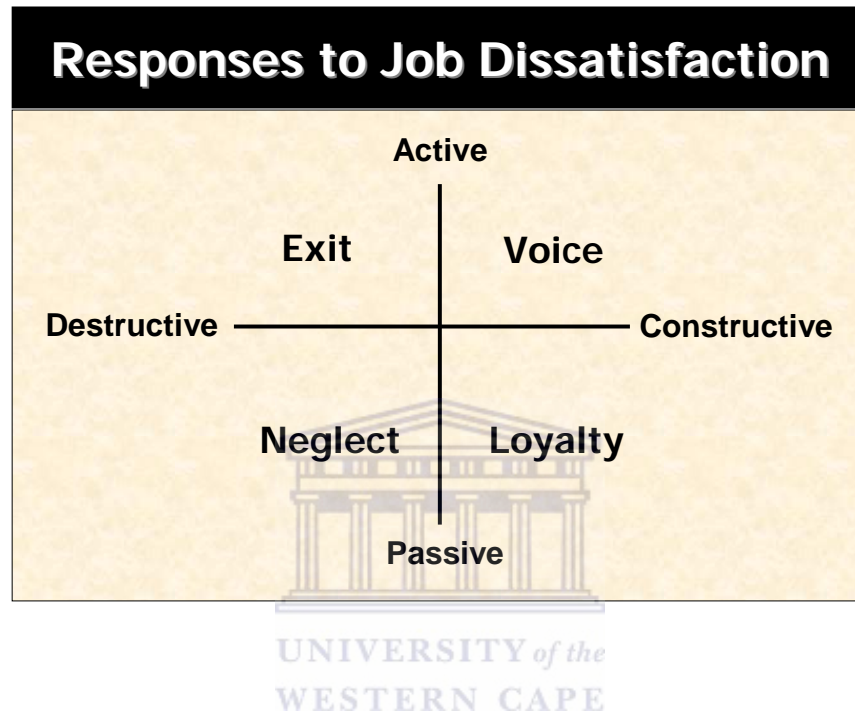


Figure 2.3 Responses to Job Dissatisfaction (Source: Extracted from Robbins (2001).

Organisational Behaviour. New York: Wiley & Sons. Inc)

2.4.2 MOTIVATION THEORIES

Motivating staff may be an important aspect in ensuring that an organisation thrives and succeeds in an increasingly competitive situation (Govender & Parumasur, 2010).

Motivation is seen as the willingness to do something, and is conditioned by this action's ability to satisfy some need of the individual (Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk & Schenk,

2000). Nelson and Quick (2006) defines motivation as the process of arousing and sustaining goal-directed behaviour. The motivation factor is a work condition related to satisfaction of the need for psychological growth.

Motivation is an internal drive that directs people toward the satisfaction of certain needs and expectations, and helps clarify why individuals act the way they do (Chuang, Yin & Dellmann-Jenkins, 2009). The inner drive of motivation impels humans to decide on a particular job, to stay with that job, and to try hard at making it successful. The authors also postulate that motivation can be studied with the content approach that focuses on individuals' needs and wants from the jobs; or process approach which looks at why a person behaves in a certain way in relation to available rewards and work opportunities.



2.4.2.1 THE CONTENT THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Content theories of motivation focus on factors that allegedly motivate people, for example “needs”, and hence these theories try to answer the question “what motivates people?”

Tsang (1991) describes content theories as being substantive, as these types of theories try to discuss the needs and drives as well as the incentives that affect the behaviour of individuals. The content theories to be focused on in this chapter are Maslow's needs hierarchy, Alderfer's ERG theory, Herzberg's two-factor motivation theory and McClelland's achievement motivation theory.

2.4.2.1.1 MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS THEORY

The most widely discussed content theory for the study of motivation is Maslow's theory of hierarchical needs. The core of Maslow's theory of human motivation is a hierarchy of five need categories, namely physiological needs, safety and security needs, love (social) needs, esteem needs, and the need for self-actualisation (Nelson & Quick, 2006).

Maslow's need hierarchy is depicted below and is based on the hypothesis that only ungratified needs motivate behaviour.



Figure 2.4 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Source: Extracted from <http://arevalla.com/2009/07/30/5-levels-of-a-mans-need/.html>)

The theorist further explains that as one level of need is met, a person progresses to the next higher level of need as a source of motivation. As a result, people progress up the hierarchy as they successively satisfy each level of need.

Maslow posited a hierarchy of human needs based on two groupings: deficiency needs and growth needs. Once each of these needs has been satisfied, if at some future time a deficiency is detected, the individual will act to remove the deficiency.

The levels are:

- 1) Physiological : hunger, thirst, shelter, sex and other physiological needs associated with the biological survival of the individual and the species;
- 2) Safety and security needs: security and protection from physical and emotional harm;
- 3) Social: the needs to belong, to be liked and for friendship;
- 4) Self-esteem: internal mental states such as self-liking, autonomy, achievement, as well as external factors such as needs relating to status, recognition and attention.
- 5) Self-actualisation: this concerns the need to become what one is capable of becoming and includes needs relating to growth and development, achieving one's potential and self-fulfillment.

Swanepoel, et al. (2000) postulate that the key to an understanding of Maslow's schemata is the concept of "prepotency" which means that as a lower-level need becomes substantially fulfilled, the next higher-order need increases in strength and thus becomes a powerful motivator. A person fighting for his / her survival will not be motivated by

opportunities to fulfill his / her status needs, because safety as a lower-order need must first be satisfied before the higher-order esteem needs.

2.4.2.1.2 ALDERFER'S ERG THEORY

Alderfer's ERG theory, as depicted in Figure 2.5, is adapted from Maslow's need hierarchy on the basis of empirical research. According to this theorist, there are three core needs, namely, Existence, Relatedness and Growth. Alderfer classified Maslow's physiological and physical safety needs in an existence need category; Maslow's interpersonal safety, love and interpersonal esteem needs in a relatedness need category; and Maslow's self-actualisation and self-esteem needs in a growth need category (Nelson & Quick, 2006).

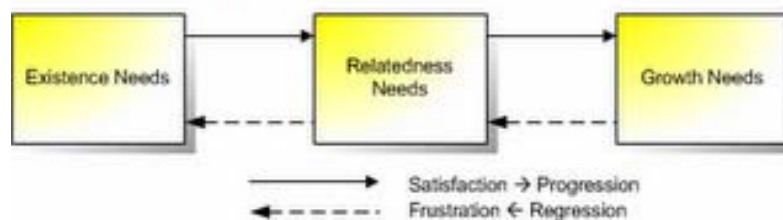


Figure 2.5 Alderfer's ERG Theory (Source: Extracted from Robbins (2001). *Organisational Behaviour*. New York: Wiley & Sons. Inc)

Swanepoel et al. (2000) describes the different categories as follows:

- Existence needs – these needs relate to our basic material existence needs;

- Relatedness needs – these needs relate to our desire for interpersonal relationships and interaction;
- Growth needs – this grouping of needs relates to our inherent desire for personal development.

ERG theory represents an enhancement of Maslow's theory in that it relates closer to everyday observations about people and is thus regarded as a more valid version of the needs theory of motivation. Swanepoel et al. (2000) highlights two important inferences that can be resultant from ERG theory, namely:

- An embellished need for something may point out that the employee is experiencing frustration in satisfying a higher-order need. The implication of this would be that to provide that individual with more of what he / she professes to want may not be enough, since the higher-order need that gives rise to the weakening and overstated perceived lower-order need will remain unsatisfied.
- Needs fulfillment is not a unidimensional procedure as more than one level of needs can be effective in the same person at the same time.

2.4.2.1.3 HERZBERG'S TWO FACTOR MOTIVATION THEORY

Herzberg found that employees at every level of an organisation are interested in two facets of their work, namely, the quality of the work itself and the benefits or rewards the job offers (for example, money and status). He was also of the opinion that the quality of

the work itself leads to job satisfaction, which occurs when employees experience work situations that entail increases in achievement, recognition, challenging work, responsibility, and advancement (Brown & Harvey, 2006).

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory	
Hygiene Factors	Motivational Factors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quality of supervision • Rate of pay • Company policies • Working conditions • Relations with others • Job security 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Career Advancement • Personal growth • Recognition • Responsibility • Achievement

Table 2.2 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (Source: Extracted from Robbins (2001). *Organisational Behaviour*. New York: Wiley & Sons. Inc)

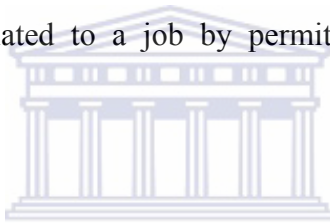
Herzberg believed that people had two sets of needs, as depicted in Table 2.2 above, namely one related to the avoidance of pain and one related to the desire for psychological growth. Nelson and Quick (2006) states that conditions in the work environment would affect one or the other of these needs. Motivation factor is defined as a work condition related to satisfaction of the need for psychological growth, and hygiene factor is a work condition related to dissatisfaction caused by discomfort or pain.

Chuang, et al. (2009) define motivators as:

- Intrinsic factors that satisfy people's psychological needs, such as security, personal interest, responsibility, achievement, advancement, and moral values
- Connected to self-fulfillment
- What is considered necessary for intrinsic motivation.

Motivation Factors

According to Herzberg, job satisfaction is produced by building motivation factors into a job. This process is known as job enrichment, which holds that jobs should be redesigned to improve the motivators related to a job by permitting employees to attain more responsibility and achievement.



Researchers are of the opinion that recruitment and retention problems are not always about pay or working conditions and has proposed that hygiene factors and motivators have different weightings on the job satisfaction and motivation of professional / managerial staff as opposed to amateur / non-managerial staff. The results of research indicated that the former are driven by motivators whilst the latter are concerned with hygiene factors (Martin, et al. 2006). The research empirically suggested that the former focused more on long-term benefits example, job security, career opportunities such as training and development, and required greater recognition and challenges. The implication of this is that in order to recruit and retain qualified managerial staff, the tourism industry would need more to motivate and satisfy the candidates' intrinsic needs than to improve the extrinsic environment.

Motivation factors lead to positive mental health and challenge people to grow, contribute to the work environment, and invest themselves in the organisation. According to Nelson and Quick (2006), the lack of these factors does not lead to dissatisfaction, but leads to the lack of satisfaction. The motivation factors are the more important of the two sets of factors, because they directly affect a person's motivational drive to do a good job. When these factors are absent, the person is demotivated to perform well and achieve excellence. The hygiene factors are an entirely separate set of factors dissimilar to the motivation to achieve and do excellent work.

Hygiene Factors

Job satisfaction occurs when the hygiene factors are either not present or not sufficient. During the original research, the hygiene factors were seen as the company policy and administration, technical supervision, salary, interpersonal relations with one's supervisor, and working conditions, salary, and status. These factors relate to the context of the job and may be considered support factors (Nelson & Quick, 2006).

Martin et al. (2006) postulate that looking at hygiene factors, it is clear that tourism employers face a challenge to satisfy the basic needs of tourism employees as tourism jobs tend to be more repetitive, experience-based, and rely on easily acquired skills, with low or no qualifications. The high proportions of low skilled, young and female labour forces in the tourism industry coupled with high levels of informal and basic jobs, high skill gaps and high wage gaps between genders all contribute to the negative pay conditions of tourism.

The significance of Herzberg's theory to the debate of reward and recognition is that a dissatisfied employee cannot be motivated. It is thus imperative that an organisation first give consideration to hygiene factors before introducing motivators into the workplace.

2.4.2.1.4 MCCLELLAND'S THEORY OF NEEDS

The fourth process needs theory of motivation focuses on personality and learned needs. McClelland identified three learned or acquired needs, called manifest needs, and these are the needs for achievement, for power, and for affiliation (Nelson & Quick, 2006). The three focus areas are highlighted in Figure 2.6 below.

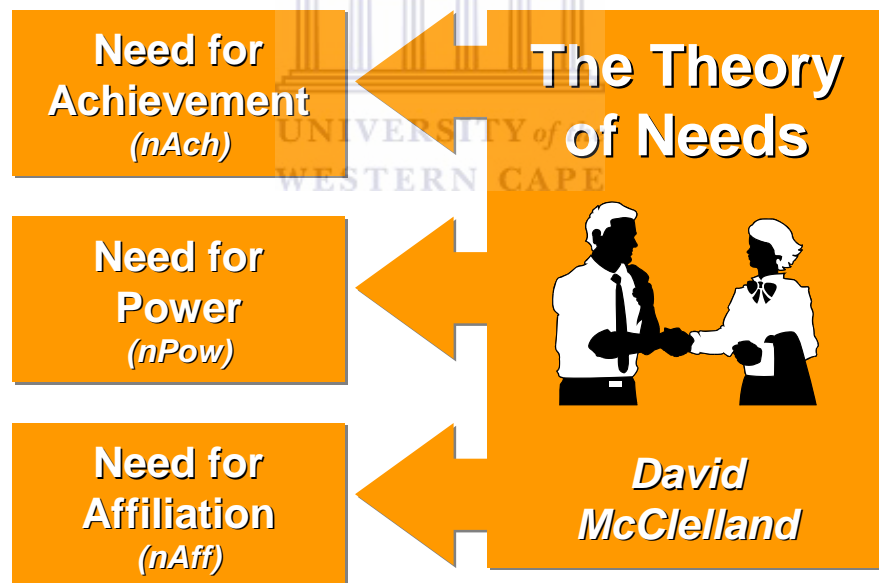


Figure 2.6 McClelland's Theory of Needs (Source: *Extracted from Robbins (2001). Organisational Behaviour. New York: Wiley & Sons. Inc*)

The three needs operative in the workplace are as described below (Swanepoel, et al. 2000):

- The need for achievement – this is the desire to exceed some standard of behaviour; the need to excel; the need to be successful. McClelland found that people with a high need for achievement perform better than those with a moderate or low need for achievement. He postulated that individuals with a high need for achievement have three distinctive characteristics, namely that they set goals that are rather complicated, yet achievable; secondly, individuals with a high need for achievement like to receive feedback on their progress towards these goals, and lastly, they do not like having outside events or other people get in the way of their progress towards achieving these goals.
- The need for power – the need to make others behave in a way in which they would not otherwise have behaved; the need to control others; to be influential. In McClelland's research a high need for power was one unique characteristic of managers who were rated the best. The best managers had a high need for socialized power, more so than for personalized power. This means that these managers are concerned for others; have an interest in organisational goals; and have a desire to be useful to the larger group, organisation, and society.
- The need for affiliation – the need for warm and close interpersonal relationships; to be liked and accepted by others. The best managers are people with a high need for power and a low need for affiliation. People with a high need for affiliation are motivated to express their emotions and feelings to others while expecting other people to do the same in return.

Figure 2.7 summarizes Maslow’s hierarchy of needs with its extension in the work of Alderfer, and Herzberg, as well as summarizes McClelland’s need theory of motivation.

The figure shows the parallel structures of these four motivational theories.

Maslow	Alderfer	Herzberg	McGregor		
Self-actualisation	Growth	Motivators	Theory Y	Intrinsic (within worker and job)	Focus of needs / motivators
Esteem					
Affiliation	Relatedness	Hygiene	Theory X	Extrinsic (external to worker and job)	
Safety					
Physiological	Existence				

Figure 2.7 Comparison between the theories of Maslow, Alderfer, Herzberg and McClelland

It can be noted that all content theories of motivation stipulate the idea that employees should be encouraged to develop through meaningful work situations. These theories tend to suggest that intrinsic motivations are in general more effective than extrinsic ones and people are better motivated by forces within them (Tsang, 1991).

The content theories generally maintain the view that if an organisation wants to have motivated employees, it must satisfy the needs of its employees (Lussier, 2000). The content theorists have identified what each considers to be the vital needs in employee

motivation, as well as ways in which organisations may fulfill these needs to optimize employee motivation.

2.4.2.2 THE PROCESS THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Process theories try to analyse the process of manner in which people get motivated (they focus on the question: “how are people motivated?”) Process theories attempt to provide a generalised explanation of the process involved in an individual which leads to choices among alternative course of action, different degrees of effort spent and determination of the behaviour over time. This means that process theories do not account for what factors can motivate people, but are concerned with the process of how behaviour is energized, how it is directed, how it is sustained and how it is stopped (Tsang, 1991).

The process theories examined include cognitive dissonance theory, Adam’s equity theory and Vroom’s expectancy theory.

2.4.2.2.1 COGNITIVE DISSONANCE THEORY

The term cognitive dissonance describes a situation where there is a discrepancy between the cognitive and behavioural components of an attitude. Gibson, et al. (1994) further explains it as a mental state of nervousness that occurs when there is a divergence among an individual’s diverse cognitions (for example, attitudes and beliefs) after a decision has been made.

Cognitive dissonance theory presumes that , if a person did poorly a number of times in a task, he / she will do poorly again, even if he / she can do better, in order to be consistent with his / her cognitions (self-perception) of incompetency developed in the preceding tasks (Swanepoel, et al. 2000).

The authors further explain that an individual's cognitions (ideas, attitudes and opinions) may have the following three types of relations to one another:

- i) Consonant – This occurs when cognition A follows from cognition B. For example, if a person works for a company and says that that organisation is a good place to work (the cognition of liking the company is consonant with the cognition gained from experience).
- ii) Dissonant – When cognition A does not follow from cognition B, and the example used here is if the same person says that he / she dislikes working for that organisation.
- iii) Irrelevant – If cognition A has no relation to cognition B, the same person decides to buy himself / herself a dog.

From the above-mentioned possible cognitive associations it is purposed that a dissonant set of cognitions constitutes a negative motivational state that the person finds repulsive and is motivated to reduce. The way in which this negative motivational state can be eliminated is by changing one's cognitions and / or the behaviour leading to these cognitions so that they become consonant (Swanepoel, et al. 2000).

2.4.2.2.2 EQUITY THEORY

The equity model is an important theory of motivation which has its foundation in cognitive dissonance theory. Equity theory asserts that the employee compares their input-outcome ratio with the input-outcome ration of relevant others. If these ratios are equal, it is stated that a state of equity exists. As the employee perceives the situation to be fair, there will be no desire to change anything. Alternatively, if the input-outcome ratio shows an unequal equation, inequity exists and the individual sees this as unfair, and hence is motivated to do something about this so that the ratio can be equalized. According to the founder of equity theory, Stacey Adams, inputs are seen as anything that the individual might invest in a task, such as effort, education, money and time. Outcomes are seen as anything the individual might receive such as money, recognition and praise. The motivational hypothesis is that unequal ratios lead to negative motivational states which the person tries to reduce (Swanepoel, et al. 2000).

Ratio Comparison*		Employee's Perception
$\frac{\text{Outcomes A}}{\text{Inputs A}} < \frac{\text{Outcomes B}}{\text{Inputs B}}$		Inequity (Under-Rewarded)
$\frac{\text{Outcomes A}}{\text{Inputs A}} = \frac{\text{Outcomes B}}{\text{Inputs B}}$		Equity
$\frac{\text{Outcomes A}}{\text{Inputs A}} > \frac{\text{Outcomes B}}{\text{Inputs B}}$		Inequity (Over-Rewarded)

*Where A is the employee, and B is a relevant other or referent.

Figure 2.8 Equity Theory (Source: Extracted from Robbins (2001). *Organisational Behaviour*. New York: Wiley & Sons. Inc)



If the depicted equality, as identified in Figure 2.8, does not obtain (because the left-hand ratio is either bigger or smaller than the right-hand ratio), inequity and unfairness exist and the person is motivated to restore the equilibrium by either one or more of the following means:

- Distorting the perceptions of one's own or the other's inputs and / or outcomes;
- Resigning from one's job, that is, withdrawing from the situation;
- Behaving in a certain way by causing others to change their inputs and / or outcomes;
- Changing one's own actual inputs and / or outcomes;
- Choosing someone different with whom to compare oneself.

2.4.2.2.3 VROOM'S EXPECTANCY THEORY

Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation holds that the tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of the expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome, and on the degree to which the person desires that outcome (Swanepoel, et al. 2000).

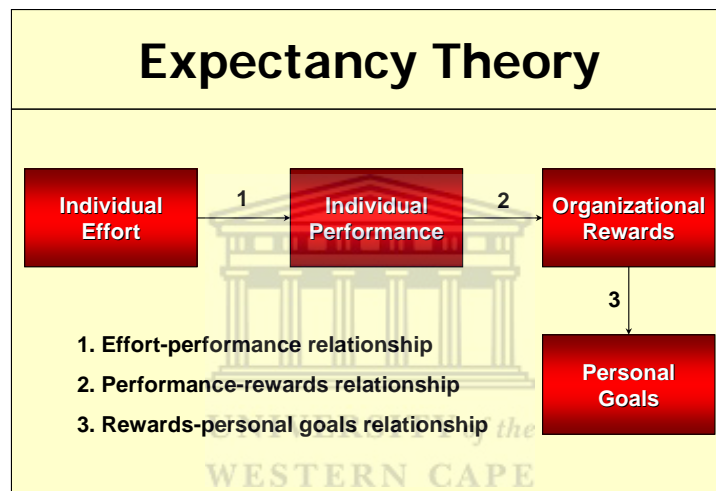


Figure 2.9 Expectancy Theory Model (Source: Extracted from Robbins (2001). *Organisational Behaviour*. New York: Wiley & Sons. Inc)

Another model depicted by Chiang and Jang (2008) is as follows:

$$\text{Motivation force} = \text{expectancy} \times \text{instrumentality} \times \text{valence}$$

The key constructs in the expectancy theory of motivation are the valence of an outcome, expectancy, and instrumentality. Valence is the value one places on a particular reward.

Expectancy is the belief that effort leads to performance and instrumentality the belief that performance is related to rewards (Nelson & Quick, 2006).

An individual's motivation increases along with their belief that effort leads to performance and that performance leads to rewards, assuming the person wants the rewards. The value that people place on various rewards though varies, which is the key idea of valence (Brown & Harvey, 2006). Valence is also a measure of an individual's usefulness, desirability, salience, charisma, or value for a specific outcome or practice (Lee, Lee & Lum, 2008).

Expectancy theory provides a framework for assessing, interpreting, and evaluating employee behaviour in learning, decision making, attitude formation and motivation (Chiang & Jang, 2008). Process theories are more complex than content theories in that they attempt to understand why employees have different needs, how and why they attempt to satisfy their needs in different ways, the various mental processes employees go through as they try to understand situations, and how they evaluate need satisfaction (Lussier, 2000).

2.4.3 DIMENSIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Six dimensions of work that are differently valued in a study by Kalleberg (1977) are identified below:

- An intrinsic dimension, which refers to those characteristics associated with the task itself – whether it is interesting, allows the worker to develop and use his / her abilities, allows the worker to be self-directive and whether the worker can see the results of the work.
- A convenience dimension, which refers to job characteristics that provide comforts, such as convenient travel to and from work, good hours, freedom from inconsistent demands, pleasurable physical surroundings, moderate amounts of work, enough time to do the work and an break from personal problems.
- The financial dimension refers to items such as pay, fringe benefits and job security. Appraisal of this dimension depicts a worker's desire to obtain present and future fiscal rewards from a job.
- Relationships with co-workers includes items as whether the job permits chances to make friends, whether co-workers are friendly and helpful and whether one's co-workers take a personal interest in him / her.
- Career, a dimension that includes items such as whether the chances for promotion are good, whether promotions are dealt with fairly and whether the employer is concerned about giving everyone a chance to get ahead. Valuation of this dimension represents a worker's desire for progression and acknowledgment.
- Resource adequacy, a dimension that represents a worker's wishes for adequate resources with which to do their jobs well and include such items as whether the help, equipment, authority and information required for job performance are adequate, whether co-workers are knowledgeable and supportive, and whether the management is contributing to fulfilling the job.

2.4.3.1 THE WORK ITSELF

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

Aamodt (1999) is also of the opinion that job satisfaction is influenced by opportunities for challenge and growth as well as by the opportunity to accept responsibility. The power to assume accountability and to make decisions relating to their work leads to higher satisfaction in employees.

Landy (1989) shares this view and maintains that mentally challenging work, that the individual can successfully accomplish, is satisfying. In fact, research indicates that employees prefer jobs that afford them with opportunities to use their skills and abilities and that offer a variety of tasks, freedom, and feedback regarding performance (Larwood, 1984; Luthans, 1992; Robbins, 1998, Tziner & Latham, 1989). Robbins (1998, p152) argues that these characteristics make work mentally challenging, and that “Under conditions of moderate challenge, most employees will experience pleasure and satisfaction.”

Job challenge, as a predictor of job satisfaction, continues to receive research support. A recent study by Jinnett and Alexander (1999) suggests that challenging work may

actually produce satisfied employees. This finding is supported by Gunter and Furnham (1996) who argue that challenge is likely to be a more important determinant of job satisfaction than are gender, age, salary, or work history.

Landy (1989) further argues that work that is personally interesting to the employee is likely to contribute to job satisfaction. This view is shared by Aamodt (1999), who contends that employees who find their work interesting are more satisfied and motivated than are employees who do not.

Closely related to the above-mentioned variables are task variety and skill variety. Existing research suggests that these factors may facilitate job satisfaction (Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999). Findings by Lambert, Hogan and Barton (2001) indicate that employees generally appear to be more satisfied with jobs that provide them with variety rather than repetition. A study by Ting (1997) further shows skill variety to have strong effects on job satisfaction. The greater the variety of skills that employees are able to utilize in their jobs, the higher their level of satisfaction.

In addition to the above, Landy (1989) is of the opinion that the physical demands inherent in the job are also likely to have an impact on the employee's level of job satisfaction. In other words, work that is physically or emotionally exhausting is less likely to produce satisfaction.

Judge, Bono and Locke (2000, p. 237), on the other hand, argue that it is possible that “individuals with positive self-evaluations may see their jobs as more challenging simply because they are predisposed to perceive all aspects of their jobs positively.” This implies that the individual’s own sense of challenge may impact on job satisfaction. In such a case, however, challenge represents an intrinsic source of job satisfaction (Vecchio, 1988).

2.4.3.2 PAY

Weaver (2009), tested the views of graduates who completed a tourism management programme on their perceptions of job quality within the tourism industry, and the following views were raised:

- ✓ Perceptions of remuneration in the tourism industry were mixed, where a number of graduates made moderately favorable remarks about the pay they received.
- ✓ Various types of fringe benefits associated with work in the tourism industry were viewed in a positive manner: travel-related discounts, free tickets to local events and performances, and complimentary meals.
- ✓ Other described their pay negatively, stating that the pay was “crap” and that the downside of the job was the salary received.
- ✓ Some of the graduates remarked that the pay in the tourism industry was poor in comparison to other industries that they previously worked in.
- ✓ Many graduates appeared to tolerate their poor remuneration because they valued their job to an extent that they made the effort to cope with the poor pay received

Some interviewees stated that money and wealth was not the primary motivator and that they did the job because of the fun and pleasure experienced whilst performing the tasks involved.

Pay and benefits are often a motivating force and are key drivers of motivation (Anonymous, 2007; Stanley, 2008). In a study by Govender and Parumasur (2010) it was found that in terms of economic rewards, 145 employees in a financial institution were not motivated by what they received for their efforts but by comparing with what others received. Benson and Dundis (2003) postulate that individuals who deem that they are not being paid a fair remuneration spend too much time contemplating this supposed inequity, to the disadvantage of other work concerns.

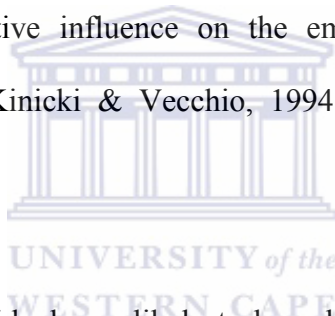
In tourism, male workers earn on average 6.7% higher monthly wages than their female counterparts, while among non-tourism workers the predicted gender wage gap is to some extent narrower (4.8%). The wage gap in tourism is due to separation as regards the type of contract held, the qualification required for the job and the division of employment: these three variables are especially penalising for women (Munoz-Bullón, 2009).

Paying employees a comparable salary has been found to result in their sense of being valued, which, in turn, increases motivation (Govender & Parumasur, 2010). It is especially important to pay attention to the salaries of long-service employees, as it is often the case in contemporary organisations that younger, often better educated,

employees are paid better salaries upon entering the organisation than those of their long-term counterparts, and this could lead to lack of motivation among long-service employees. However, money alone is not the best way of motivating employees, and this implies that the perceived inequities do not have a significant effect on motivation in the long term (Nelson, 1996; Skabelund, 2008; Snyder, 2007).

2.4.3.3 SUPERVISION

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



Studies have shown that individuals are likely to have high levels of job satisfaction if supervisors provide them with support and co-operation in completing their tasks (Ting, 1997). Similar results were reported by Billingsley and Cross (1992) as well as Cramer (1993). These researchers generally hold that dissatisfaction with management supervision is a significant predictor of job dissatisfaction. The above findings are further supported by Staudt (1997) in a study involving social workers. Respondents who reported satisfaction with supervision were also more likely to be satisfied with their jobs in general.

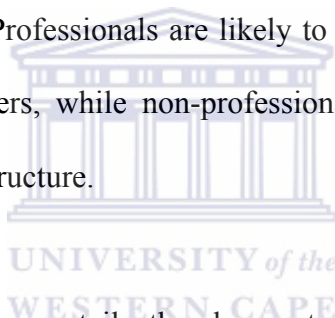
A number of supervisory antecedents have been found to exert a particularly salient influence on job satisfaction (Boshoff & Mels, 1995; McCormick & Ilgen, 1985). These include leadership style, technical adequacy, consideration, initiating structure, participation in decision-making, autonomy, performance feedback, and communication. Supervisory consideration refers to leader behaviours that are concerned with promoting the comfort and well-being of subordinates. It concerns the degree to which managers are supportive, friendly, considerate, consult with employees, and recognize their contribution (Boshoff & Mels, 1995).

Research makes a strong case for the use of supportive behaviours by supervisors (Chieffo, 1991; Packard & Kauppi, 1999). The general argument is that democratic leadership styles, which are high in consideration, are consistently associated with higher levels of employee satisfaction. The results of a study by Packard and Kauppi (1999), for example, indicate that subordinates with autocratic supervisors experience significantly lower levels of job satisfaction than do those with democratic leaders. Boshoff and Mels (1995) also reported consideration to be positively associated with job satisfaction. Results from a similar study by Pool (1997) concur with this view.

According to Boshoff and Mels (1995) initiating structure refers to leader behaviours that clearly define the roles of the supervisor and subordinates. By initiating structure, the supervisor strictly directs subordinates, clarifies their roles, co-ordinates, solves problems, criticizes, and pressurizes them to perform. Initiating structure therefore closely resembles task-oriented behaviour.

Research is somewhat inconsistent regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and initiating structure. Boshoff and Mels (1995) argue that initiating structure has a significant positive influence on satisfaction. Pool (1997), on the other hand, reports an inverse relationship between initiating structure behaviour and employee satisfaction, suggesting that supervisors who use an initiating structure style will see a decrease in their employees' level of job satisfaction.

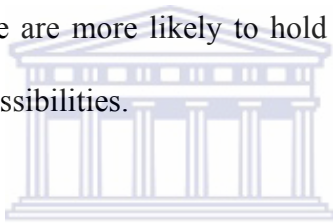
It is, however, suggested by Howell and Dorfman (1986), cited in Boshoff and Mels (1995), that initiating structure is likely to have differential effects on professional and non-professional employees. Professionals are likely to resent what they perceive to be interference from formal leaders, while non-professionals tend to be more positively inclined towards initiation of structure.



Participation in decision-making entails the degree to which employees are able to influence decisions about their jobs (Boshoff & Mels, 1995). Boshoff and Mels (1995) found participation in decision-making to be a particularly important cause of job satisfaction. Results from a study by Chieffo (1991) support this view. Luthans (1992) too, is of the opinion that supervisors who allow their employees to participate in decisions that affect their own jobs will, in doing so, stimulate higher levels of employee satisfaction. Moreover, Luthans (1992) maintains that a participative climate created by the supervisor will have a more substantial impact on job satisfaction than will participation in a specific decision.

According to Boshoff and Mels (1995) performance feedback refers to a superior's communication to a subordinate regarding the quality of job performance. Researchers generally agree that performance feedback is positively correlated with job satisfaction (Luthans, 1992). Pool (1997) found that employees who receive feedback concerning accomplishments demonstrate higher levels of job satisfaction than do employees who are not provided with such feedback. Boshoff and Mels (1995) reported similar findings.

The latter authors maintain that feedback is positively associated with job satisfaction mainly because employees who are properly informed concerning their supervisor's evaluation of their performance are more likely to hold realistic expectations regarding remuneration and promotion possibilities.

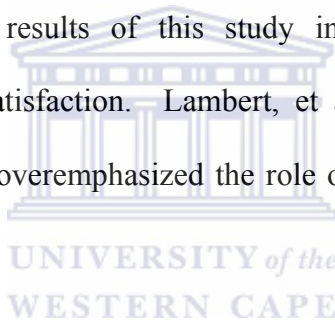


Communication is the degree to which management communicates with subordinates and the extent to which employees perceive that they are being properly informed with regards to the aspects of the job that affect them (Boshoff & Mels, 1995).

In a study by Miles, Patrick, and King (1996) superior-subordinate communication demonstrated significant predictive power in predicting job satisfaction, irrespective of job level. It is suggested that such communication reduces role ambiguity and role conflict, which in turn facilitates job satisfaction. Managers are thus well advised to consider communication practices as part of any effort to improve the job satisfaction of employees. Luthans (1992) supports this view, but is also of the opinion that

communication with employees should extend beyond the official level to include communication of a more personal nature as well.

Autonomy implies that employees experience a certain amount of freedom in their jobs, including freedom of choice in decision-making, freedom of expression in work, and freedom from close supervision. Taber and Alliger (1995) point out that a task that is not closely supervised will give the employee a sense of autonomy and personal accomplishment. Consequently, it is held that freedom from supervision is positively correlated with job satisfaction. A recent study by Lambert, et al. (2001), however, contradicts this view. The results of this study indicate that autonomy has an insignificant impact on job satisfaction. Lambert, et al. (2001) are therefore of the opinion that the literature has overemphasized the role of autonomy in determining job satisfaction.



Job satisfaction research therefore generally supports relationship-oriented leadership styles that are characterized by supervisory consideration, participation in decision-making, performance feedback, and communication.

2.4.3.4 PROMOTION

Possible advancement opportunities can be an important characteristic of a job and can lead to increased salary and other desirable job attributes. In the study of graduates conducted by Weaver (2009), some jobs were professed as good jobs because they

provided a decent path for development. In the study some graduates indicated that when jobs were seen to offer limited promotional opportunities, they would consider changing jobs. Some respondents also indicated that when applying for certain jobs, they considered the future positions and opportunities. Securing a supervisory role is associated with achievement and success by some respondents. For others though, certain types of management-oriented roles were seen to have drawbacks and arduous obligations.

Career opportunities and advancement is regarded by Kochanski and Ledford (2001) as a much greater forecaster or indicator of retention than any other type of reward. Baruch (2004) concedes by highlighting that perception about a company's career orientated practices and processes such as internal promotions, training and development and employment security are constructively linked to employee commitment.

The fact that the tourism industry is perceived to lack career development, opportunities such as training and empowerment, intensifies the negative image within the industry. This is as a result of "servant jobs" within the tourism industry which does not have the same traditional view of a valuable job such as within the legal or medical field (Martin, et al. 2006). A key cause for this observation is that the majority of tourism businesses are small and medium sized enterprises, and hence recruitment procedures can be informal and random, as well as training and staff development weak and uninformed.

2.4.3.5 THE WORK GROUP

Co-worker relations include all interpersonal relations, both positive and negative, that occur within the work situation. It may include among others, the competence, friendliness, helpfulness, and co-operation of fellow employees (McCormick & Ilgen, 1985).

According to Hodson (1997) such social relations constitute an important part of the “social climate” within the workplace and provide a setting within which employees can experience meaning and identity. Luthans (1992) further holds that the work group serves as a source of support, comfort, advice, and assistance.

Therefore, for most employees, work also fulfils the need for social interaction. Consequently, it is not surprising that literature consistently indicates that having friendly and supportive colleagues’ leads to increased job satisfaction (Aamodt, 1999; Larwood, 1984; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Robbins, 1998). Landy (1989) is further of the opinion that employees will be satisfied with colleagues who are inclined to see matters in much the same way as they themselves do.

Research continues to lend support to the important role that co-workers play in either facilitating or hampering satisfaction within the organisation (Jinnett & Alexander, 1999). In one such a study, for example, results indicate that co-worker conflict is associated negatively with job satisfaction, while co-worker solidarity generates high levels of this

attitude (Hodson, 1997). These findings are substantiated by Ting (1997) who argues further that this association is likely to gain in importance as the tasks performed by individuals become increasingly interrelated.

Moreover, Ducharme and Martin (2000) point out that co-worker relations are a source of both affective and instrumental support, and that these prove beneficial in counterbalancing a relative lack of intrinsic or extrinsic rewards that the employee may be deriving from work. Workplace relationships may, however, also represent a source of satisfaction in and of themselves and may contribute directly to the employee's overall level of job satisfaction (Ducharme & Martin, 2000).

Luthans (1992), however, contends that satisfactory co-worker relations are not essential to job satisfaction, but that in the presence of extremely strained relationships, job satisfaction is more than likely to suffer.

Nevertheless, the growing body of literature on the subject seems to indicate that co-worker relations are taking on an ever-increasing role, not just in the realms of productivity, but also in determining the experience of work and its meaning (Hodson, 1997). These findings strengthen the argument that organisations should engage in the integration of employees so as to create group cohesion among employees and departments within the organisation (Lambert, et al. 2001).

2.4.3.6 WORKING CONDITIONS

Working conditions are another factor that has a moderate impact on the employee's job satisfaction (Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992). According to Robbins (1998) working conditions refer to such aspects of the work situation as temperature, ventilation, lighting, and noise.

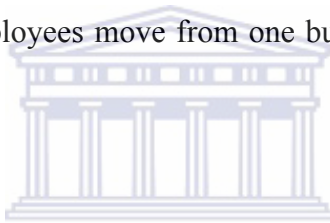
Landy (1989) is of the opinion that satisfaction is determined in part by the match between the working conditions of employees and their physical needs. According to Robbins (1998) employees are concerned with their work environment for both personal comfort and for facilitating good job performance. Studies have demonstrated that employees prefer physical surroundings that are not uncomfortable or dangerous. Furthermore, temperature, light, noise, and other environmental factors should not be at either extreme (Robbins, 1998). Luthans (1992) holds that under such conditions, employees will find it easier to perform their tasks.

Furthermore, research indicates that employees prefer to work relatively close to home, in clean and modern facilities, and to have adequate tools and equipment at their disposal (Robbins, 1998; Visser, 1990).

Literature, however, indicates that employees seldom give much consideration to their working conditions, and in fact, often take them for granted (Luthans, 1992; Visser,

1990; Vorster, 1992). Indeed, working conditions are only likely to have a significant impact on job satisfaction when:

- The working conditions are either extremely good or extremely poor (Luthans, 1992; Vorster, 1992); and when,
- Employees have some or other frame of reference or standards, which enable them to judge their present circumstances (Vorster, 1992). According to Visser (1990) such standards may become available when the working conditions change over a period of time. Such as when employees move from one building into another or when the employee changes jobs.



Additionally, numerous authors are in agreement concerning the fact that employee complaints regarding working conditions are, more often than not, actually manifestations of other, underlying problems (Luthans, 1992; Visser, 1990; Vorster, 1992). It has been found that such complaints often disappear when the underlying frustrations are identified and resolved.

According to Visser (1990) women are prone to attach greater importance to their working conditions than is the case with male employees. Moreover, the number of hours worked by employees is also an important factor. Satisfied employees are inclined to complain that they do not have sufficient time to perform all their duties. In contrast, dissatisfied employees are likely to want their workday done with as soon as possible.

In the study by Weaver (2009), the respondents postulated that they enjoyed the familiarization excursions or educational that are part of their jobs to enable them to sample the products that they need to sell to their clients, for example, a free trip in a helicopter around the peninsula. Familiarization excursions, a pleasant dimension of work in the tourism industry, are also evidence that it is vital for workers to assume the mentality of customers. Direct contact between service providers and consumers' motivations and needs. The experiences that graduates accumulate through these educational are designed to increase sales of tourism products and maximize customer satisfaction, but they are also held high in regard by graduates who have access to them.

For some graduates, there were intrinsic rewards associated with helping customers. Serving tourists can provide gratification (Weaver, 2009). Graduates believe that good jobs offer opportunities to learn, provide challenges, enable them to achieve a sense of accomplishment from completing concrete tasks, and involve important responsibilities. Opportunities to learn were valued because graduates seek intellectual stimulation from their jobs. Learning about the tourism industry was associated with positive professional development as this was seen as acquiring knowledge consistent with one's interests. The graduates in this study also gained a sense of accomplishment from making progress and finishing difficult tasks.

2.4.4 PERSONAL DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Studies investigating job satisfaction indicate that personal determinants such as age, gender, occupational level, tenure and educational level impact on job satisfaction.

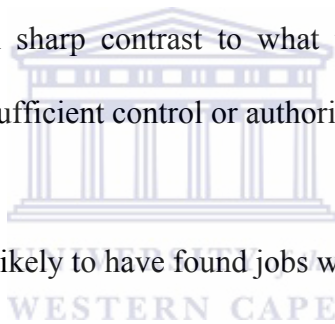
2.4.4.1 JOB SATISFACTION AND AGE

Research has consistently found age to relate to job satisfaction (Chambers, 1999; Cramer, 1993; Robbins, 2001; Staw, 1995; Tolbert & Moen, 1998). While studies have yielded mixed evidence in certain cases, the overwhelming body of research suggests a positive association, that is, older employees tend to experience higher levels of job satisfaction (Belcastro & Koeske, 1996; Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Cramer, 1993; Jones Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Larwood, 1984; Loscocco, 1990; Saal & Knight, 1988).

The positive relationship between age and satisfaction was also reported in a study by Oshagbemi (1997) involving 554 university teachers. Academics below the age of 35 years reported the lowest levels of satisfaction, followed by academics between the ages of 35 and 44 years. Academics above 55 years reported being the most satisfied with their jobs. Ting (1997), however, found age to only have significant effects on the job satisfaction of employees at lower job levels.

Numerous explanations may be presented for the positive association between employee age and satisfaction (Ting, 1997):

- Prestige and confidence are likely to increase with age, as a result older employees are more likely to report high levels of job satisfaction;
- Younger employees are likely to hold higher expectations that may remain unfulfilled, as jobs prove insufficiently challenging or meaningful;
- Young college or university graduates may, in certain cases, be overqualified for their jobs;
- Young employees may, in sharp contrast to what they previously experienced at home or in school, have insufficient control or authority over their work;
- Older employees are more likely to have found jobs with which they are content; and
- Instead of focusing only on employment for overall satisfaction, other factors, such as, family, friends, and involvement in civic organisations, are likely to take on a greater role as employees age (Hellman, 1997; Lambert, et al. 2001; Luthans, 1992).



In a correlation analysis, involving age and the separate subscales of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), Chambers (1999) found significant positive relationships between age and the work, co-worker, pay, and supervision subscales. However, a significant inverse relationship was reported between the promotions subscale and age, indicating that older employees were less satisfied with their opportunities for promotion than were their

younger counterparts. Moreover, Tolbert and Moen (1998) found that younger employees were significantly more likely to rank income and promotion opportunities as important job characteristics. Older employees attached a higher value to achieving a sense of accomplishment from a job.

While the majority of researchers are in agreement regarding a positive relationship between job satisfaction and age, certain studies have suggested a curvilinear relationship between these two variables, that is, high satisfaction among young and old employees and low satisfaction among middle-aged employees (Staw, 1995). Robbins (2001) suggests that this inconsistency may be due to the fact that studies have been intermixing professional and non-professional employees. When the two types are separated, satisfaction tends to continuously increase among professionals as they age, while it drops among non-professionals during middle age and then rises again in the later years.

Research results dealing with the relationship with age are seemingly consistent. Results continually signify that the younger the age at application to the organisation, the higher the turnover association (Chiu & Francesco, 2003; Jacobs, 2005). It has been reported (Hellriegel & White, 1973), however, that no consistent statistical differences were found, observed by Yin and Yang (2002) in a recent meta-analysis.

2.4.4.2 JOB SATISFACTION AND GENDER

Considering the increase in the number of women in the workforce, gender differences in job satisfaction warrant attention. This conclusion has particular bearing on the service industry, where the high percentage of women has shown to be particularly affected by job satisfaction (Sousa-Poza, 2000b). However, the literature on the impact of gender on job satisfaction has been inconsistent, with some studies finding that females have lower job satisfaction than males, others finding that males have lower job satisfaction, and numerous others finding no gender differences.

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

According to Loscocco (1990) women most value the type of job rewards that are more readily available from their jobs, such as relationships with co-workers. Consequently, they will be more easily satisfied than men who desire the less available autonomy and financial rewards. The same author also suggests that women may lower their job expectations because they are well aware of labour market realities. A further explanation for the higher levels of job satisfaction among women is offered by Lambert, et al. (2001). According to these authors men are more likely to stay in a job where they

are not satisfied because they are socialized to view themselves as the primary breadwinner. The same socialization process stresses that for women, family and children should take priority over work satisfaction.

In contrast to the above view, researchers such as Miller and Wheeler (1992), cited in Lim, Teo, and Thayer (1998), maintain that women are inclined to be less satisfied in their jobs because they tend to hold positions at a lower level in the organisational hierarchy where pay and promotion prospects are less attractive. The same argument is presented by Lim, et al. (1998) who found that female police officers experience lower levels of job satisfaction than do male police officers. The findings of the latter study must, however, be generalized with caution. Women who are employed in male dominated professions are likely to experience different work-related attitudes as compared to their male counterparts since they may have to do without same-sex role models or established norms.

Numerous studies across a variety of occupational settings have, however, found no significant gender differences in job satisfaction, despite the fact that women on average have inferior jobs in terms of pay, status, level of authority, and opportunities for promotion (Hull, 1999; Jones Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Rout, 1999). Various theories have emerged to account for what has often been referred to as the “paradox of the contented working woman”. One of the most popular explanations is that men and women attach value to different aspects of the job. In addition to placing greater emphasis on co-worker relations, women are also more inclined to assign priority to work

that provides them with a sense of accomplishment (Tolbert & Moen, 1998). Furthermore, women may compare themselves only with other women or with women who stay at home rather than with all other employees (Hull, 1999).

Saal and Knight (1988) as well as Scandura and Lankau (1997) substantiate the above-mentioned studies and indicate that gender differences in job satisfaction disappear when differences in perceived job characteristics, age, tenure, education, income, and occupational level are controlled.

2.4.4.3 JOB SATISFACTION AND OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL

According to Oshagbemi (1997) relatively few studies have been designed to investigate the nature of the relationship between job level and corresponding levels of satisfaction.

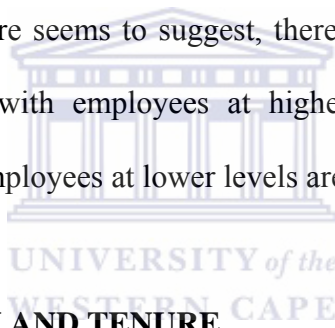
However, Miles, et al. (1996) found job level to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction. These researchers examined job level as a structural determinant of role behaviour and suggest that job level moderates the communication-job satisfaction relationship.

Several other researchers have also found support for a positive association between job level and satisfaction. Results from a study by Robie, Ryan, Schmieder, Parra, and Smith (1998) revealed a consistent and significant positive relationship between these two variables. Furthermore, Oshagbemi (1997) demonstrated that the job satisfaction of

academics increases progressively with each higher rank. Smither (1988) and Vecchio (1988) also support this view and state that job satisfaction tends to be lowest among employees who are employed in jobs that are characterized by hot or dangerous conditions.

Robie, et al. (1998) maintain that the positive correlation between rank and satisfaction may be attributed to the fact that higher-level jobs tend to be more complex and have better working conditions, pay, promotion prospects, supervision, autonomy, and responsibility. Vorster (1992) presents a similar argument.

The evidence from the literature seems to suggest, therefore, that job level is a reliable predictor of job satisfaction with employees at higher ranks being generally more satisfied with their jobs than employees at lower levels are.



2.4.4.4 JOB SATISFACTION AND TENURE

Tenure refers to the length of time for which the individual has worked for the organisation (Lim, et al. 1998). Extant research indicates that tenure is likely to have an impact on job satisfaction (Jones, Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Saal & Knight, 1988).

In fact, literature overwhelmingly indicates that a positive correlation exists between tenure and job satisfaction, that is, employees with longer tenure are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs than employees with shorter tenure (Jinnett & Alexander, 1999; Jones, Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Staw, 1995; Vecchio, 1988). Robbins (2001, p.36)

shares this view, but states further that “when age and tenure are treated separately, tenure appears to be a more consistent and stable predictor of job satisfaction than is chronological age.”

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

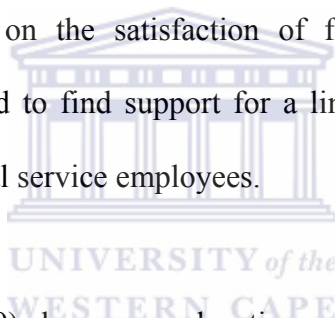
On the other hand, Lambert, et al. (2001) argues that an inverse relationship exists between tenure and job satisfaction. The reason the literature is both inconsistent and inconclusive in this regard may be because the relationship between these variables depends on the specific organisation and how tenure is viewed. In some organisations, senior employees are highly respected, while high tenure is viewed as a liability in other organisations (Lambert, et al. 2001).

2.4.4.5 JOB SATISFACTION AND EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Studies investigating the relationship between job satisfaction and educational level have produced mixed results (Camp, 1994; Loscocco, 1990; Ting, 1997; Vorster, 1992). Certain authors maintain that the relationship between education and job satisfaction is positive in nature (Larwood, 1984; Saal & Knight, 1988; Vorster, 1992). Vorster (1992)

found this association to be largely indirect, that is, the higher an individual's qualifications, the higher that individual's job level and, consequently, so too the employee's degree of satisfaction.

On the other hand, Lambert, et al. (2001) found education to have no significant effect on job satisfaction. The authors explain these results, however, by stating that the study considered a number of different occupations, and educational levels are likely to differ by occupation and organisation. Yet, other studies have supported the idea that no significant relationship exists between job satisfaction and education. Ting (1997) found education to have no effect on the satisfaction of federal government employees. Similarly, Rogers (1991) failed to find support for a link between the satisfaction and educational level of correctional service employees.



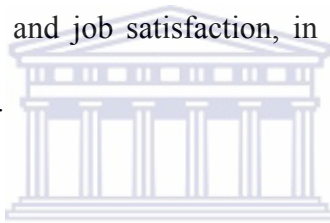
In a study by Loscocco (1990), however, education was found to exert a significant negative impact on the job satisfaction of women, but not on that of men. This could be explained by the fact that the educational experience is different for women than it is for men, thereby raising the job expectations of women to a greater extent. If these job expectations are not fulfilled, job satisfaction will be impacted on negatively.

Recent studies suggest, however, that educational level is positively related to job satisfaction, subject to a successful match being made between the individual's work and qualifications (Battu, Belfield, & Sloane, 1999; Jones, Johnson & Johnson, 2000). This implies, therefore, that better educated employees are only likely to experience higher

levels of job satisfaction when the duties performed by them are in line with their level of education.

2.5 CONCLUSION

The above chapter has focused on the three main variables of the current study, namely intention to quit, psychological capital and job satisfaction, as well as the various constructs (hope, self-efficacy, optimism and resilience) and dimensions (pay, co-workers, management, working conditions, occupational level and tenure) respectively linked to psychological capital and job satisfaction, in particular past literature review and research done on the above.



The following chapter will highlight the research methodology followed in the current research and identify the various measuring instruments used for the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on how the research problem was investigated by discussing the sampling methods, data gathering instruments and the statistical techniques that were utilized to test the hypotheses for the present study.

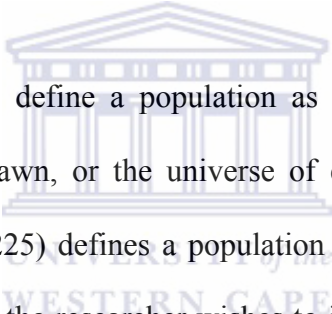
The sample for the present study was drawn from a selection of employees within the tourism industry in the Western Cape. The measuring instruments included a questionnaire with four sections, namely a biographical questionnaire, the PsyCap Questionnaire, the Job Description Index (JDI), and the Turnover Intention survey. These instruments were used to gather the data for the present study.

Consent was obtained from the General Manager: Human Resources of the selected tourism division to administer the surveys. This was done through group sessions with each of the subsidiaries, thus ensuring optimal return rates. Participants were ensured of their anonymity and confidentiality as they did not provide their names.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution or implementation of the research. Research designs are plans that guide “the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure” (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002, p. 29).

3.2.1 Population



Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999) define a population as the universe of elements from which sample elements are drawn, or the universe of elements to which we want to generalize. Sekaran (2001, p. 225) defines a population as “the entire group of people, events or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate.” The population for the present study consisted of employees in the Tourism Industry of a leading tour operation within the Western Cape.

3.2.2 Selection of the Sample

Sampling is defined by Serakwane (2005) as a process of using a small number of items or parts of a larger population to make conclusions about the whole population. Roberts (2005) defines sampling as the process by which a researcher selects a sample of participants for a study from the population of interest.

According to Cooper and Schindler (2003, p. 179), “the basic idea of sampling is by selecting elements in a population we may draw conclusions about the entire population”. Convenience sampling was used during this research, since the most easily accessible members were chosen as subjects. This method is quick, convenient and less expensive, but on the other hand not generalisable at all (Sekaran, 2001).

3.2.3 Sampling Size

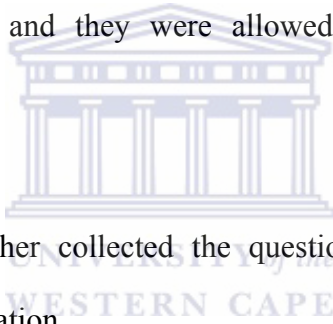
According to Sekaran (2001), a response rate of thirty percent is acceptable for most studies. A convenience sample will be used, which according to Roberts (2005) refers to a sample of participants that are readily available. Such samples, she postulates, are used because they are easy to obtain and not representative of the populace in general. Therefore the finding of studies, such as the current one which utilizes convenience sampling, will be low in generalisability. Of the 105 administered, a total of 70 questionnaires were collected, yielding a 67% response rate. Administering questionnaires within a group was convenient and the response rate was quite high.

3.3 PROCEDURE FOR DATA GATHERING

Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the General Manager: HR, an executive member of the tourism group chosen. Once permission was granted, the researcher contacted the Head of the Inbound Tourism division explaining the purpose of the research and to request permission to personally administer the survey to the

employees. The management team agreed and confirmed that they will obtain consent from their employees for the proposed research. It was easy for the researcher to approach employees since the researcher is an employee of the organisation as well. The verbal brief to all employees confirmed the purpose of the research and the ethical considerations of confidentiality and anonymity of participants.

The research was conducted over a week period, involving group sessions. On arrival, the researcher reiterated the purpose of the research to employees, after which the questionnaires were handed to participants. The researcher briefed the participants regarding the questionnaires and they were allowed 20 minutes to complete the questionnaires.



After completion the researcher collected the questionnaires from participants and thanked them for their participation.

3.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

For purposes of the present study, questionnaires were considered appropriate data gathering instruments. According to Sekaran, (2001), there are specific benefits to utilizing questionnaires:

- The researcher is able to establish rapport and motivate the respondent
- Any doubts the respondent has can be clarified
- The process is less expensive when administered to groups of respondents

- The anonymity of the respondent is high
- Almost 100% response rate is guaranteed

The questionnaire that was used for the present study consisted of four sections, namely:

Section 1 – Biographical questionnaire

Section 2 – Psychological Capital Questionnaire

Section 3 – Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

Section 4 – Turnover Intentions Questionnaire

3.4.1 BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE



A self developed biographical questionnaire was administered. The biographical questionnaire contained the following personal information to be completed by the respondents:

- 1) Age
- 2) Highest qualification
- 3) Gender
- 4) Number of years worked in the organisation
- 5) Job Level
- 6) Division within Tourism Industry

3.4.2 JOB DESCRIPTION INDEX (JDI)

3.4.2.1 Nature and Composition of the JDI

The JDI has 72 items that measure five facets of job satisfaction, namely (1) work in present job, (2) Present Pay, (3) Supervision on present job, (4) Present opportunities for promotion, and (5) People in your present job. Each scale is composed of single-word or phrase descriptors, some of which are intended to be purely descriptive and some of which are affective and evaluative – for example, under people in your present job, “stimulating”, “boring” and “fast”. Two scales, Present Pay and Present opportunities for promotion, consist of nine items each, while the other scales each have eighteen items. Respondents indicate their agreement or disagreement with the application of an item descriptor to their jobs by marking “Y” if they agree with the descriptor, “N” if they do not, and “?” if they cannot decide.

3.4.2.2 Reliability of the JDI

The reliability of a measure refers to the consistency with which it measures whatever it measures. The deduction can thus be made that reliability is linked to the consistency of measurement (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2001).

The internal consistency reliabilities of the five JDI scales range from .80 to .88, was determined by corrected split-half correlations as determined in the Cornell studies by

Smith, Hulin, Kendall & Locke, (1974). In this study the JDI demonstrated adequate internal reliability and was relatively free from obvious response biases such as acquiescence.

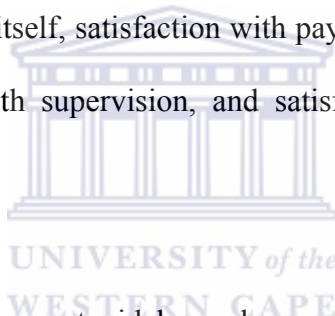
In a study by Ramayah, Jantan and Tadisina (2001), where the authors conducted an empirical study on the JDI to see if the measure is reliable, the inter-item consistency reliability was measured by using Cronbach's alpha, with the range of 0.73 to 0.84, which was considered as high.

3.4.2.3 Validity of the JDI

Foxcroft and Roodt (2001) describe validity as that what the test measures and how well it does so. In the Cornell studies by Smith, et al. (1974) it was determined that there is no single general criterion measure which could be used to validate a measure of job satisfaction. The approach used was to study (a) relations of the various JDI scales to other measures of job satisfaction, (b) the influence of situational characteristics on these scales, and (c) the relations between the scales and individual differences thought to be related to job satisfaction. These studies indicated that the JDI yields measures of satisfaction with five different aspects of jobs which are discriminably different from each other. The scales correlated highly with other measures of satisfaction (average $r = .70$) and hence the JDI has validity as a measure of job satisfaction. The JDI appears to be valid in the sense that it is representative of other types of measures of satisfaction and discriminates well among the various job areas.

3.4.2.4 Rationale for Inclusion

The most used method to measure job satisfaction is the Job Description Index (JDI). Marzabadi and Tarkhorani (2007) postulate that it is the most popular instrument to gauge job satisfaction. This instrument was used because in the organisational science literature it is generally regarded as the most frequently used job satisfaction instrument (Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek & Frings-Dresen (2003). The scale provides a faceted approach to the measurement of satisfaction in terms of specific identifiable characteristics related to the job. It measures five aspects of an employee's satisfaction, namely satisfaction with work itself, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with opportunities for promotion, satisfaction with supervision, and satisfaction with co workers (Bull, 2005).



The JDI has remained one of the most widely used measures of job satisfaction due to the strong emphasis psychometric rigor and its frequent updates over the years (Lake, Gopalkrishan, Sliter and Withrow, 2010). In a study conducted by Pennington and Riley (1991), the JDI emerged as an ideal instrument for the present study since it was highly regarded and well-documented as valid and reliable. The authors postulate that the JDI “possesses good content validity, impressive construct validity, and adequate reliability”, and “very few instruments in industrial-organisational psychology have received the attention of researchers that the JDI has” (p. 22).

The JDI has demonstrated reliability, validity and is based on a facet as well as global rating of job satisfaction. Bull (2005) also sites the work of Conradie (1990), in which it is reported that the JDI has been standardized and found suitable for use in the South African Context.

The conciseness of the JDI instrument and of its individual descriptors, most of which are one word; the emotional, suggestive nature of many of the items; and the simple, three-way answer choice (Y = yes, N = no, ? = not sure) supports a quick, off-the-top-of-the-head answer (Pennington and Riley, 1991).

In addition, the JDI yields scores on five different areas of job satisfaction and it is short, easily administered, and easily scored.



3.4.3 PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL (PSYCAP) QUESTIONNAIRE

3.4.3.1 Nature and Composition of the PsyCap Questionnaire

The PsyCap Questionnaire used in this study was developed by Luthans and colleagues (2007) which includes 6 items for each of the four components of hope, efficacy, resilience and optimism measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. These six items represented each of the four components that make up PsyCap. Sample items are as follows: efficacy – “I feel confident analyzing a long term problem to find a solution”; hope – “If I should find myself in a jam at work,

I could think of many ways to get out of it”; resilience – “I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work”; and optimism – “When things are uncertain for me at work, I usually expect the best”.

Examples of items from the subscale hope include: “There are lots of ways around any problem”, and “Right now I see myself as being pretty successfully at work.” Examples of items used in the efficacy subscale include questions such as “I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution” and “I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues”. The resilience subscale included questions for example, “I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work” and “I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job”. Examples of items measuring the subscale optimism include “I’m optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work” and “I approach this job as if ‘every cloud has a silver lining’”.

3.4.3.2 Reliability of the PsyCap Questionnaire

Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999) define reliability as the extent to which observations or measures are dependable or constant.

In a study by Avey, Wernsing and Luthans (2008), reliability coefficients for all the components were greater than 0.70, as was the overall PsyCap instrument, which was 0.95.

Similar to the reliabilities found in the construct validation study of the PCQ-24 (Luthans, et al. 2007), the reliability for the sample of a study conducted by Avey, et al. (2010), was $\alpha = 0.93$ (hope $\alpha = .87$, efficacy $\alpha = .87$, resilience $\alpha = .72$, optimism $\alpha .78$). In the study by Avey, Patera and West (2006), reliability was acceptable at 0.90. The reliabilities of the sub-scales were also acceptable by general standards with the exception of optimism which was lower than expected. The results were as follows for each subscale: self-efficacy = 0.82; hope = 0.81; resilience = 0.78 and optimism = 0.65.

In another study, the CFA results support that the four PsyCap components do represent an underlying latent, core construct of overall PsyCap (Luthans, Avey & Patera, 2008).

3.4.3.3 Validity of the PsyCap Questionnaire

Validity is defined as the degree to which what was observed or calculated is the same as what was professed to be observed or measured (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 1999).

Luthans, et al. (2007) mention that in constructing the PCQ, based on content and face validity, six items were selected by an expert panel from each of the four standard measures, the wording was adapted as needed for the workplace and to be state-like, and responses were put into a 6-point Likert scale.

A confirmatory factory analysis (CFA) was also conducted on the PsyCap instrument using maximum likelihood techniques. Previous research has shown strong factor-analytic fit for the PsyCap questionnaire across multiple samples (Avey, et al. 2008).

Both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis and reliabilities across four diverse samples provided promising psychometric support for this questionnaire in the initial development of it (Luthans, et al. 2007). The authors posit that it is through the discriminant validity across the individual PsyCap capacities that each capacity adds unique variance and becomes additive to PsyCap overall. Emerging basic research on PsyCap provide substantial evidence for the convergent validity of the four POB criteria-meeting capacities of self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resiliency.

A confirmatory analysis was also conducted in a study by Avey, et al. (2006), even though the purpose was not to validate the PsyCap measures, in order to confirm previous psychometric support from existing studies. Strong support was found for the proposed factor structure and along with previous POB research, preliminary support for the assertion that these four capacities may symbolize an underlying hidden factor. This study also confirmed that PsyCap was best understood as a second order factor.


3.4.3.4 Rationale for Inclusion

Published research on PsyCap has found that it is linked to multiple performance outcomes in the workplace, lower employee absenteeism, less employee cynicism and

intentions to quit, and higher job satisfaction, commitment, and organisational citizenship behaviours. Research has also found PsyCap can be improved by a supportive work climate. The PCQ-24, a measure of PsyCap, has undergone extensive psychometric analyses and support from samples representing service, manufacturing, education, high-tech, military and cross cultural sectors. Each of the four components in PsyCap is measured by six items. The resulting score represents an individual's level of positive PsyCap (Luthans, Avolio & Avey, 2007).

3.4.4 INTENTION TO QUIT

3.4.4.1 Nature and Composition of the Intention to Quit Questionnaire



The measure of the Turnover Intentions Questionnaire was measured using an unpublished questionnaire developed by Roodt, which consists of 14 items that were measured on a seven-point intensity response scale anchored at extreme poles, (for example, “never” 1 – low intensity, to “always” 7 – high intensity) (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008).

Examples of items included in this questionnaire (Roodt, 2004), were: “How often have you recently considered leaving your job” and “How frequently have you been scanning newspapers for new job opportunities?”

3.4.4.2 Reliability of the Intention to Quit Questionnaire

The result obtained from the iterative reliability analysis of the Intention to Quit questionnaire, yielded a Cronbach Alpha of 0.913 which was obtained in a study conducted by Jacobs and Roodt (2008), indicating an acceptable reliability. According to Cortina (1993), a Cronbach Alpha of 0.70 or higher is considered acceptable. Various researchers make a distinction between intention to search and intention to quit (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Sager, Griffeth & Hom, 1998). A question such as “How frequently have you been searching for job vacancies in newspapers” will measure intention to search, whereas a question such as “How often have you considered leaving your job” will probably measure an individual’s intention to quit (Roodt, 2004). To assess the reliability of the Intention to Quit Questionnaire conducted in a recent study by Sadien (2010), Cronbach alpha of 0.77 was obtained, again being regarded as acceptable.

3.4.4.3 Validity of the Intention to Quit Questionnaire

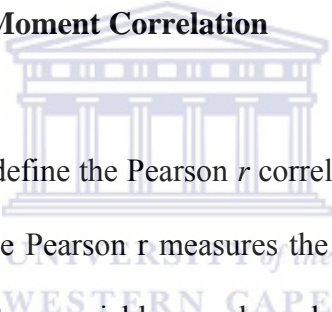
The turnover literature lacks formally validated scales to represent turnover cognitions (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). The authors posit that the motivation to develop this questionnaire was that most instruments in the literature measure turnover intentions on only a relatively small number of items. The researchers’ further mention that the approach to use single-item indicators to measure turnover intentions is criticized as construct validity is unknown.

3.4.4.4 Rationale for Inclusion

Although the turnover literature lacks formal validated scales to represent turnover cognitions (Sager, et al. 1998 cited in Roodt, 2004), the reliability results were considered acceptable. The above mentioned questionnaire was developed and conducted in a South African context, hence is suitable for use as it has been tried and tested.

3.5 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

3.5.1 The Pearson Product Moment Correlation



Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999) define the Pearson r correlation coefficient as the standard index of linear relationship. The Pearson r measures the strength of association (that is, the degree of relatedness) of two variables, such as height and weight. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to determine the strength of association between all the variables. In the case of this research, the relatedness to be measured was the relationship between psychological capital and job satisfaction, as well as job satisfaction and intention to quit.

3.5.2 Multiple Regression Analysis

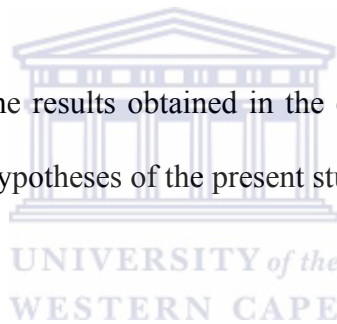
Multiple regression is a method of studying the separate and collective contributions of several independent variables to the variation of a dependent variable (Tredoux &

Pretorius, 1999). In this research study the focus was on the relationship between the dependent variable, turnover intention and independent variables, psychological capital and job satisfaction.

3.6 CONCLUSION

In summary, this chapter explained the research design, the sampling design, the data gathering procedure and the statistical techniques that were employed to answer the research questions of the present study.

The next chapter focuses on the results obtained in the empirical analysis with specific reference to the testing of the hypotheses of the present study.

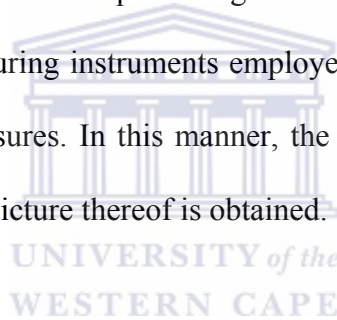


CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The current chapter outlines the results obtained in the study and provides a comprehensive discussion of these results. To facilitate ease in conducting the empirical analyses, the results of the descriptive analyses are presented first, followed by the inferential statistical analysis. The data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the three measuring instruments employed, are summarized by means of calculation of descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data clearly emerge and an overall picture thereof is obtained.



The statistical programme used for the analyses and presentation of data in this research is the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18. Thereafter, the analyses of the constructs relevant to the study, that is, job satisfaction psychological capital and turnover intentions, are presented with the aid of inferential statistical procedures. Conclusions are then drawn on the basis of the obtained results.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated on the basis of the variables included in the biographical questionnaire. The demographic variables that receive attention are gender, age, designated group, highest qualification, tenure. Descriptive statistics, in the form of frequencies and percentages, are subsequently presented graphically for each of the above-mentioned variables based on the characteristics of the research sample (n = 70).

4.2.1 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

The results of the analysis of the biographical questions are presented in graphical format, with a brief description of the respondents with respect to the personal data detailing their age, gender, educational levels, tenure, job levels and divisions within the tourism industry.

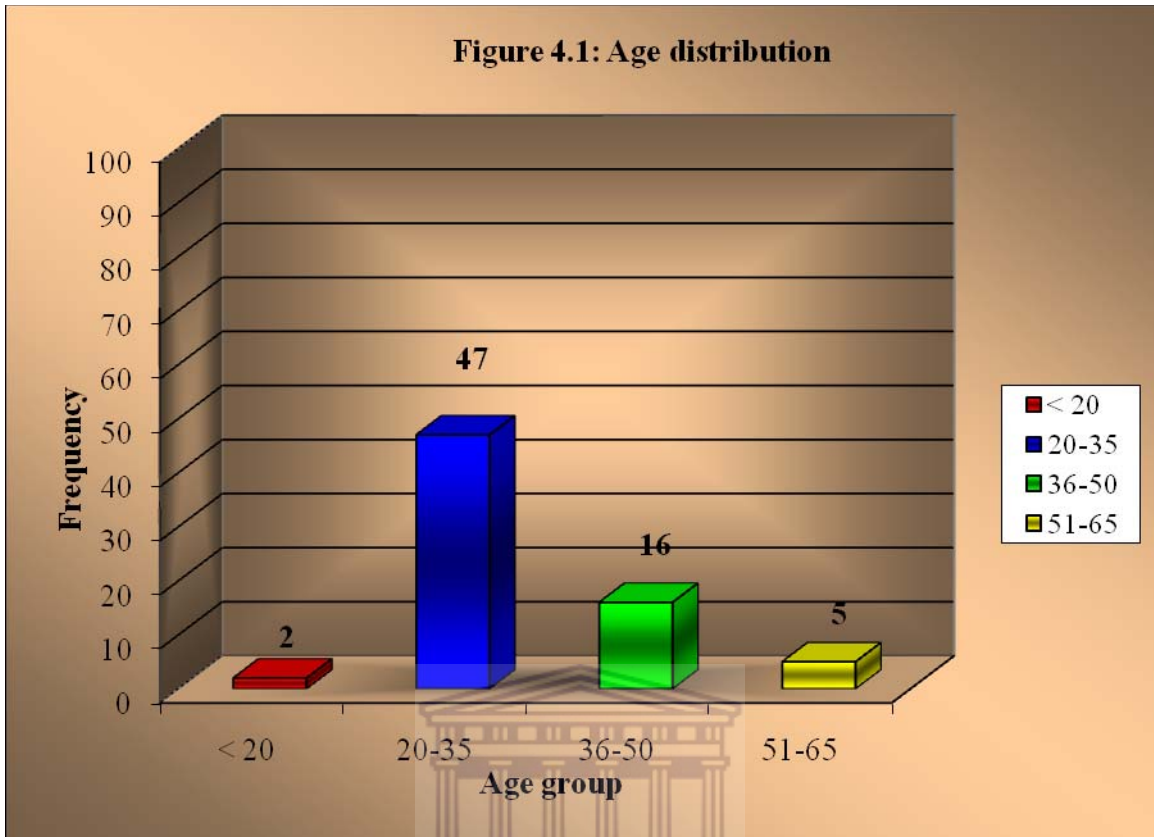
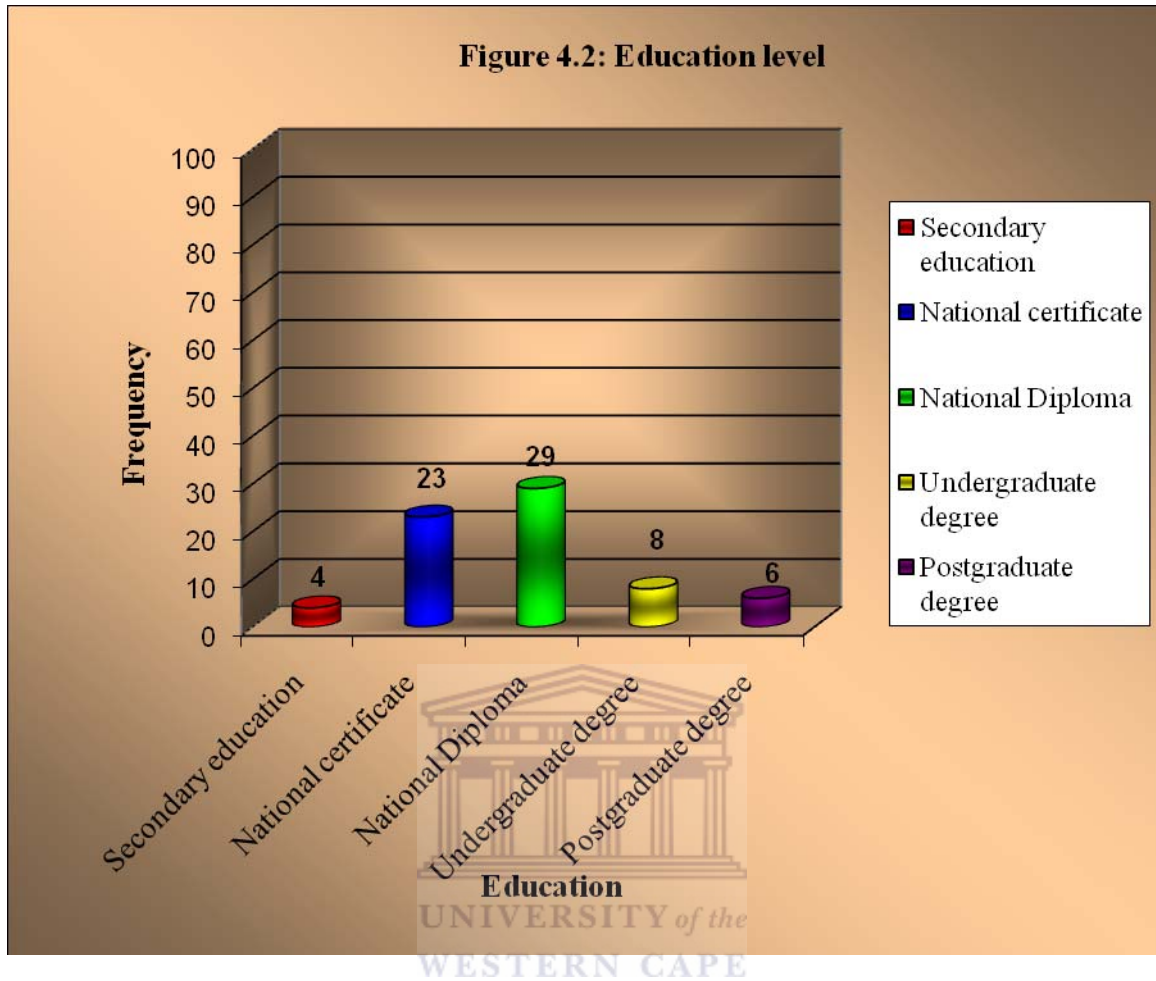
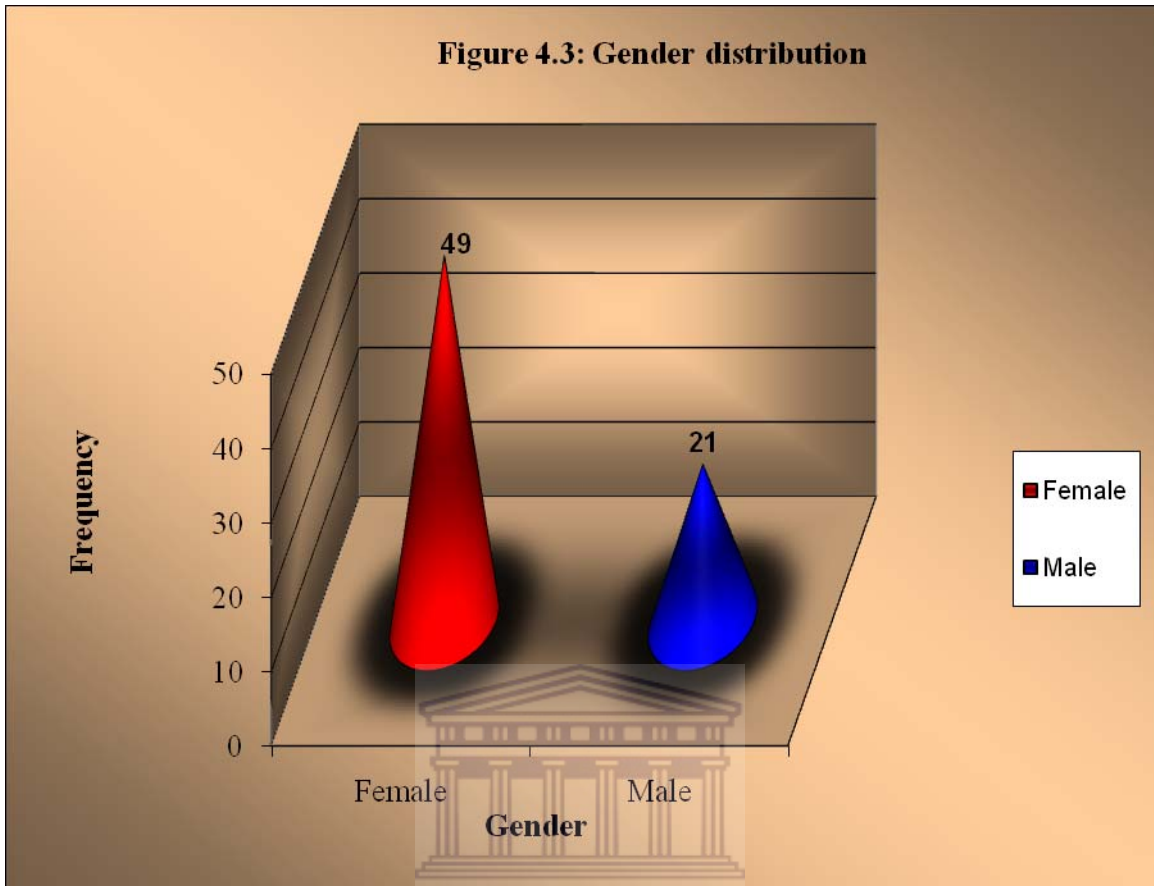


Figure 4.1 indicates that the majority of the respondents, that is 67% (n = 47) is in the age group 20-35 years, while 23% (n = 16) is in the age group 36-50. A further 7% (n = 5) is between the ages 51-65. The smallest proportion is represented by those in the age category under 20 which constitutes the remaining 3 percent (n = 2).

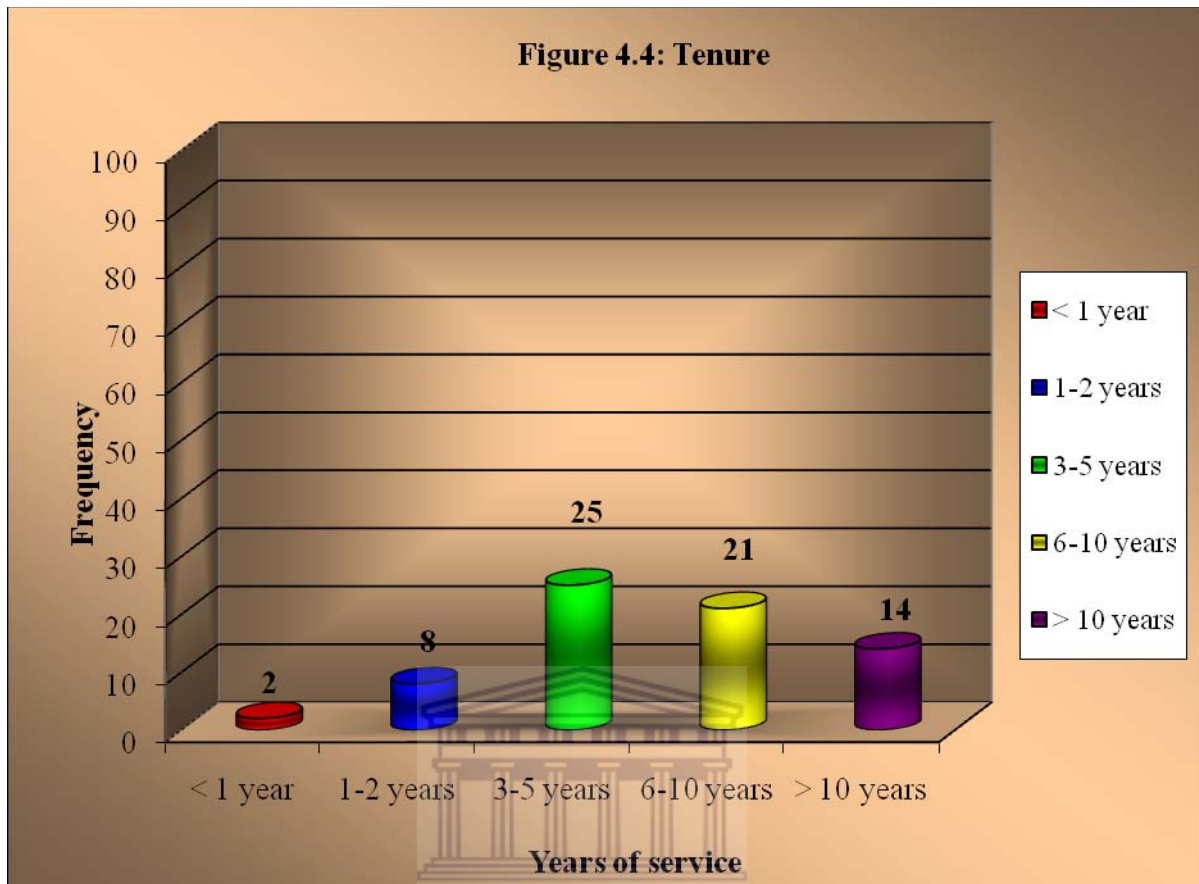


The majority of the respondents has a National Diploma ($n = 29$) representing 41% of the participants, while those with a National Certificate constituted a further 33% ($n = 23$). Those with an undergraduate degree comprised 11% ($n = 8$) of the respondents, and respondents with a postgraduate qualification represented a further 9% ($n = 6$). Individuals with a secondary education comprised the minority ($n = 4$), representing 6% of the participants.



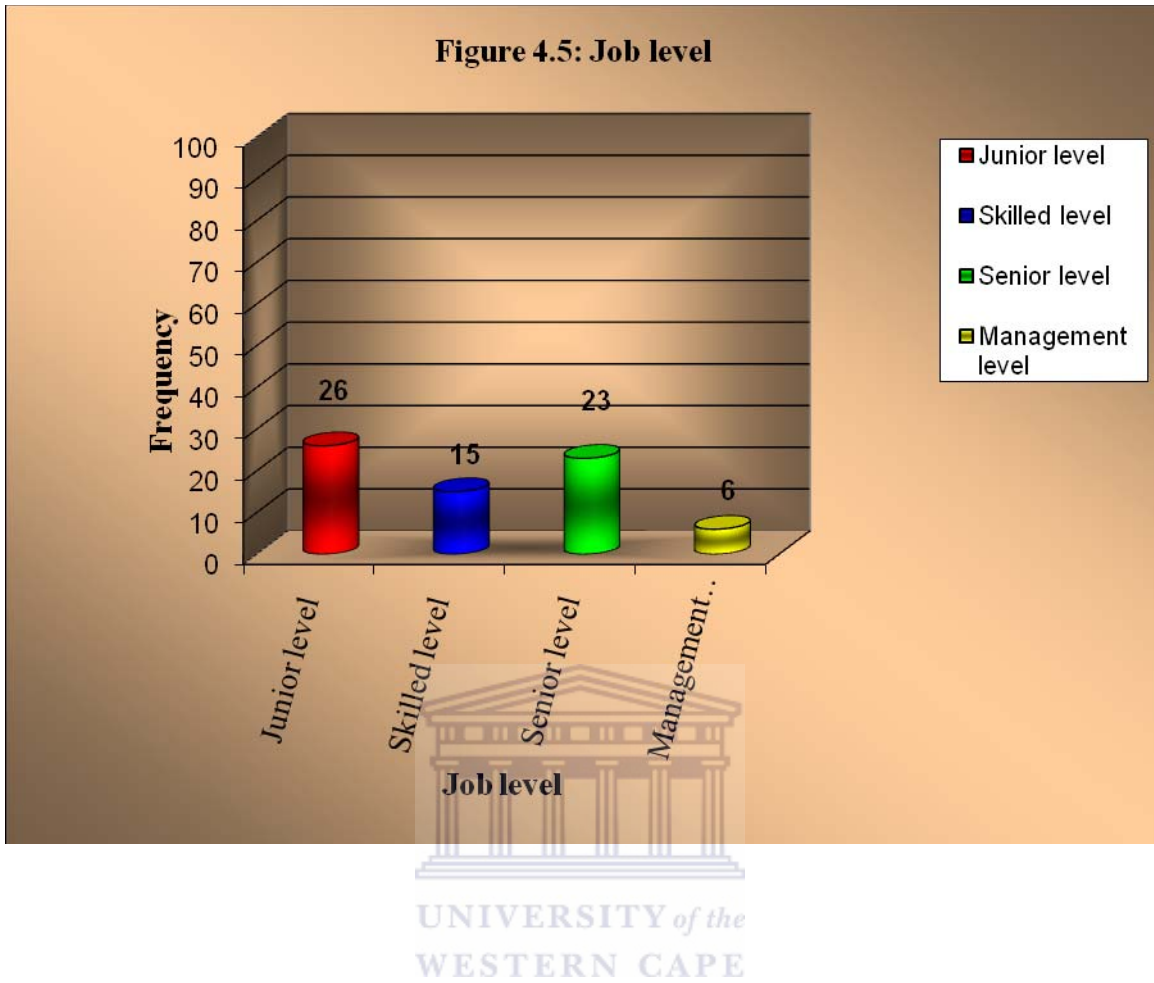
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The majority of the respondents constituting 70% of the sample was female (n = 49), while the remaining respondents (30%) were male (n = 21).



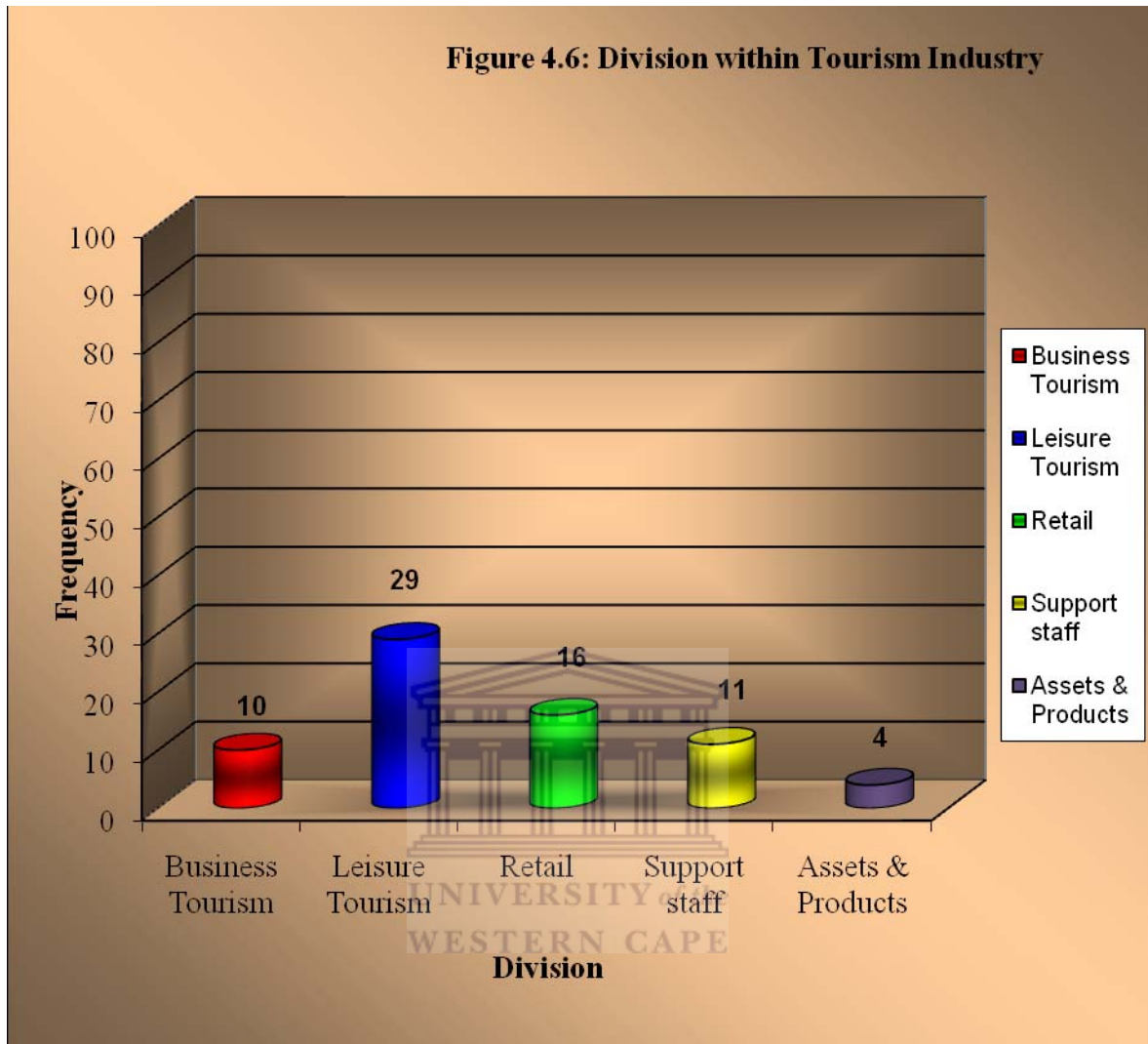
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The majority of the respondents (36%) were employed in the organisation for 3-5 years, while those employed for 6-10 years represent 30% of the respondents ($n = 21$). A further 20% of the sample was with the organisation for more than 10 years ($n = 14$). Respondents with tenure of 1-2 years constituted 11% ($n = 8$), while those with less than a years' tenure comprised 3% of the respondents ($n = 2$).



The figure depicts a sample that has comprises of more junior level staff in representing 37% of the sample ($n = 26$), with 33% employed on a senior level ($n = 23$). Fifteen (15) respondents (21%) of the respondents were employed on a skilled level, while those at management level comprised the minority (9%) of the respondents ($n = 6$).

Figure 4.6: Division within Tourism Industry



Respondents who worked within leisure tourism comprised 41% of the sample, and represented the majority ($n = 29$). Those employed in Retail ($n = 16$) comprised 23% of the respondents, while support staff ($n = 11$) represented a further 16% of the sample. While respondents working in Business Tourism ($n = 10$) comprised 14% of the respondents, those in Assets and products represented only 6% of the sample ($n = 4$).

4.2.2 MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY AND DISPERSION

This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated on the basis of the variables included in the questionnaire. The measures of central tendency and dispersion for the dimensions of job satisfaction are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Means, Standard deviation, Minimum and Maximum scores for the JDI

Variable	N	Mean	Std. dev.
Work Content	70	39.28	5.35
Payment	70	19.56	3.32
Promotion	70	17.42	6.27
Co-workers	70	24.39	5.28
Leadership/supervision	70	16.78	3.59

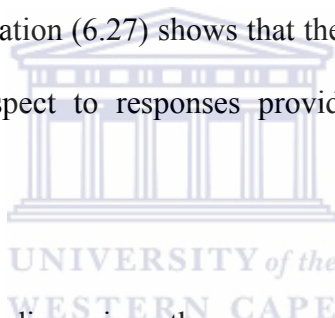
The range of scores for each facet of the JDI (pay, promotions, supervision, people or co-workers, and work) is 0–54. Mean scores of 32 or higher indicate satisfaction, mean scores of 22 and under indicate dissatisfaction, and mean scores between 23–31 indicate neutral satisfaction.

The mean score ($M = 39.28$) for **Work Content** indicates that subjects showed work content to be the dimension which provided the highest job satisfaction. The standard

deviation (5.35) shows that moderate variation in the responses were obtained with respect to Work content.

For the **Payment** dimension, the mean score ($M = 19.56$) indicated that respondents showed payment to be **one of the least satisfying**. The standard deviation (3.32) indicates that there was similarity in the responses obtained.

The mean score ($M = 17.42$) for **Promotion** opportunities indicates that subjects showed promotion content to be one of the dimensions which **provided the least job satisfaction**. The standard deviation (6.27) shows that the responses there were moderate variations with respect to responses provided with respect to promotion opportunities.



In terms of the **Co-workers** dimension, the mean score ($M = 24.39$) reveals that respondents rated co-workers to be one of the most satisfying aspects. The standard deviation (5.28) indicates that there were moderate variations in the responses obtained on this dimension.

For the **Leadership/supervision** dimension, the mean score ($M = 16.78$) indicated that respondents showed leadership/supervision to be one of the least satisfying dimensions. The standard deviation (3.59) indicates that there was similarity in the responses obtained.

Table 4.2 Means, Standard deviation for the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PsyCap)

Variable	N	Mean	Std. dev.
Self efficacy	70	38.17	3.62
Hope	70	34.79	2.32
Optimism	70	35.28	2.30
Resilience	70	36.80	4.28

The results indicate that employees within the tourism industry have high levels of confidence (**self-efficacy**) to take on and put in the required effort to succeed at demanding tasks ($M = 38.17$, $sd = 3.62$). They also are likely to make a positive attribution (**optimism**) about succeeding now and in the future ($M = 35.28$, $SD = 2.30$). In addition, they are likely to persevere toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (**hope**) in order to succeed ($M = 34.79$, $SD = 2.32$). They are also likely, when inundated by problems and hardship, to sustain and bounce back and even beyond (**resilience**) to achieve success ($M = 36.80$, $SD = 4.28$).

4.3 INFERENCE STATISTICS

The following section addresses the results obtained for the inferential statistics to ascertain the relationship between job satisfaction, psychological capital and turnover intention amongst staff in the tourism industry.

Table 4.3 Pearson correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intention

	Turnover Intention	
	Pearson	Sig (2-tailed)
Job satisfaction	-0.82	0.000**

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.3 indicates the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention among employees in the Tourism Industry. The results indicate that there is a strong, inverse relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst the sample of employees ($r = -0.82$, $p < 0.01$). This indicates that there is a statistically significant, inverse relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Employees who do not experience job satisfaction are hence more likely to intend leaving the organisation.

The hypothesis is therefore substantiated.

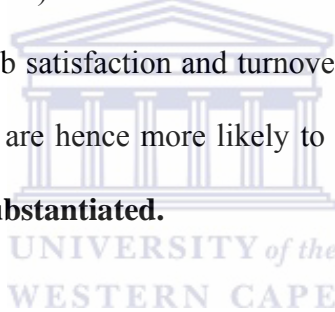


Table 4.4 Pearson correlation between psychological capital and turnover intention

	Turnover Intention	
	Pearson	Sig (2-tailed)
Psychological capital	-0.63	0.000**

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.4 indicates the relationship between psychological capital and turnover intention among employees in the Tourism Industry. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant, inverse relationship between psychological capital and turnover intention

among employees in the Tourism industry ($r = -0.63, p < 0.01$). **Hence, the hypothesis is substantiated.**

Table 4.5 Pearson correlation between job satisfaction and psychological capital

	Job satisfaction	
	Pearson	Sig (2-tailed)
Psychological capital	0.74	0.000**

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.5 indicates the relationship between job satisfaction and psychological capital amongst permanent tourism employees. The results indicate that there is a strong, direct relationship between job satisfaction and psychological capital amongst tourism employees ($r = 0.74, p < 0.01$). This indicates that individuals, who have hope, are resilient, have strong self-efficacy beliefs and are more optimistic, are likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction. **Hence the hypothesis is substantiated.**

Table 4.6 Multiple regression: job satisfaction, psychological capital and turnover intention among permanent tourism employees.

Multiple R	0.6743		
R Square	0.4547		
Adjusted R Square	0.4268		
Standard error	13.09434		
F	5.614764		
Sign F	0.00**		
Variable	Beta	T	Sig T
Job satisfaction	-0.87450	1.254	0.000**
Psychological capital	-0.742052	1.112	0.000**

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.6 presents the results of the regression analysis, regressing the two primary variables, namely job satisfaction and psychological capital turnover intentions. The results indicate that the multiple R-value is 0.6743, as indicated by Multiple R. The R-Squared value of 0.4547 indicates that approximately 45% of the variance in turnover intentions can be accounted for by these two variables.

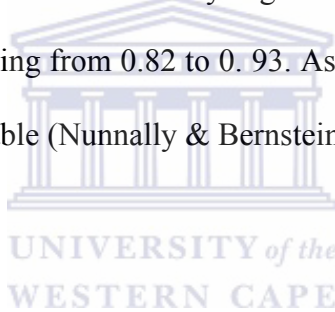
The F-statistic of 5.614764 is statistically significant at the 0.01 level. Hence, it may be concluded that the two variables of job satisfaction and psychological capital significantly explain 45% of the variance in turnover intentions.

With a Beta-value of -0.87450, job satisfaction is statistically significant at the 0.01 level, and is the best predictor of turnover intentions. Moreover, psychological capital is also a significant predictor of turnover intentions ($p < 0.01$). The results indicate that while 45% of the variance in turnover intentions can be attributed to psychological capital and job satisfaction, other variables which were not explored in the research study, could possibly serve as feasible factors that could mediate these relationships, for example, stress, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, job involvement which could act synergistically and/or antagonistically.

Table 4.7 Reliability of the Psychological Capital (PsyCap) Questionnaire, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Turnover Intentions Questionnaire

Dimension	Number of items	N	Cronbach
PsyCap	24	70	0.93
JDI	72	70	0.89
Turnover Intentions Questionnaire	14	70	0.82

The reliability of the data collection instruments which were administered were assessed using Cronbach’s alpha. This provides an indication of the stability, consistency and freedom from error. Table 4.7 shows that very high Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for all the scales, varying from 0.82 to 0.93. As all coefficients were above 0.7, they can be regarded as acceptable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).



4.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided an overview of the most salient findings obtained based on empirical analysis of the data. The data gathered from the questionnaires were statistically analysed by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Statistical analysis involved both descriptive and inferential statistics (Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and Multiple Regression Analysis).

Chapter five presents a discussion of the findings obtained and contextualizes the research findings based on previous research on job satisfaction, psychological capital

and turnover intentions among permanent tourism employees. Finally conclusions are drawn and recommendations are made.

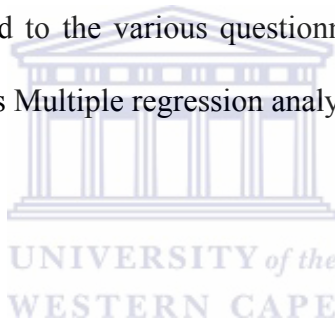


CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter discusses the prominent findings of the study and makes reference to relevant research to support the findings of the current study. The discussion include demographic information about the sample, results obtained from the measures of central tendency and dispersion related to the various questionnaires used, Pearson correlation between the variables as well as Multiple regression analysis.



5.2 DISCUSSION

5.2.1 Demographic information about the sample

The sample consisted of 70 permanent tourism employees within the Western Cape. Leisure tourism employees made up the greater number of respondents that participated in the study (n = 29 or 41%). The majority of respondents were female (n = 49 or 70%). Most of the respondents were between the ages of 20 – 35 (n = 47 or 67%), whilst the educational level of the majority of respondents had acquired a National Diploma (n = 29 or 41%). The majority of respondents have worked between 3 – 5 years (n = 25 or 36%), and fall in the Junior level job category (n = 26 or 37%).

5.2.2. Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of job satisfaction

The results in table 4.1 indicate that employees in the tourism industry in the Western Cape, where the research was conducted, are most satisfied with their work content (mean = 39.28; SD = 5.35), followed by their co-workers (mean = 24.39; SD = 5.28) and payment they receive (mean = 19.56; SD = 3.32). They are however, less satisfied with promotional opportunities (mean = 17.42; SD = 6.27) and least satisfied with the leadership and supervision (mean = 16.78; SD = 3.59).

5.2.2.1 Discussion of the dimensions of job satisfaction

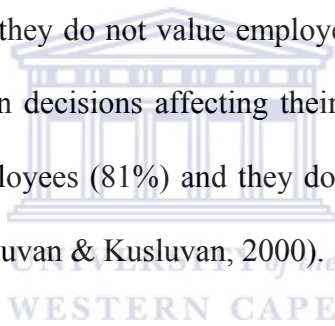


Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) conducted a study on the perceptions and attitudes of 396 undergraduate tourism students in Turkey using a newly developed multi-dimensional and multi-item attitude scale. The findings of the study concluded that there was a very negative attitude towards pay and benefits dimension of working in the tourism industry. Seventy eight percent (78%) of students indicated that the pay for most tourism jobs was not enough to maintain a satisfactory (normal) life, and 83% of responding students indicated that the fringe benefits received like bonuses, leisure time, meals and holidays were insufficient.

The researchers findings were that over two-thirds of respondents believed that promotion opportunities are not handled fairly (77%), the opportunity of getting

promoted to managerial positions was limited (69%), it was very difficult to get promoted without knowing someone in a higher position to do the referral (69%) and that promotions were unsystematic (81%). More than half of respondents perceived that promotions were not based on merit in the tourism industry (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000).

Moreover, over two-thirds of the students perceived that managers do not value employees (71%), they do not put an effort in gaining the commitment of employees (66%), they do not delegate authority (70%), most managers do not have an educational background in tourism (69%), they do not value employees' suggestions (74%), they do not let employees participate in decisions affecting their particular jobs (69%), they do not behave fairly towards employees (81%) and they do not put efforts towards the job satisfaction of employees (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000).



One hundred and seventy (170) bank officers from 6 commercial banks in the northern region (Penang and Kedah) of Malaysia voluntarily completed a survey questionnaire distributed by Desa (2002) to test the hypothesis that relations between perceived leadership behaviour and job satisfaction are affected by the type of task that subordinates performed. The researcher measured Leadership behavioural behaviours with 30 questions to assess how subordinates perceived the ways immediate superiors dealt with subordinates. The Job Characteristics Inventory (JCI) and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) were used to measure task characteristics and job satisfaction respectively. The results of the one-way ANOVA suggest that there was a significant difference

among the three styles of leadership behaviour, namely autocratic, nurturant and participative. The study revealed that a leader who adopted the nurturant behaviour (M = 5.17) would lead to the highest level of effectiveness in supervision, followed by participative (M = 5.16) and autocratic (M = 4.33).

Contrary to some previous research in hospitality using a variety of generic job satisfaction instruments, which found intrinsic motivators to be of little concern in terms of job satisfaction, the study of 746 chefs and cooks working in 109 foodservice operations, found that the intrinsic motivator of creativity scored consistently higher than the extrinsic motivators of pay and working conditions (Robinson & Beesley, 2010). This corroborates recent occupationally-specific findings of Chuang, et al. (2009).

In a study to investigate the job satisfaction of middle and upper level managers working in 5-star hotels and first-class holiday villages and to note interests of tourism professionals regarding the subject of job satisfaction, 102 middle and upper-level managers in the Antalya region of Turkey were assessed using the Job Descriptive Index. The top four average scores in the study related to “having promotion possibility” equal to “personal skills”, “having morale awards beside financial ones”, “having enough salary for the future”, and finally “having satisfaction from working hours and extra working hours”. “Having decision of leaving the establishment” realised an average score of 1.81, showing that sampled managers are loyal to their establishments and do not want to leave them (Aksu & Aktaş, 2005).

5.2.3. Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of the Psychological Capital

Questionnaire

Table 4.2 depicts the results of respondents within the tourism industry where the research was conducted and highlights that respondents have high levels of self-efficacy (mean = 38.17; SD = 3.62), that is they have the certainty about their abilities to gather together the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to successfully complete a specific task within a given context.

The results further establish that respondents are able to bounce back and beyond from setbacks, and hence have resilience (mean = 36.80; SD = 4.28), indicating the ability to rebound from adversity, conflict, failure, or even positive events, progress and increased responsibility.

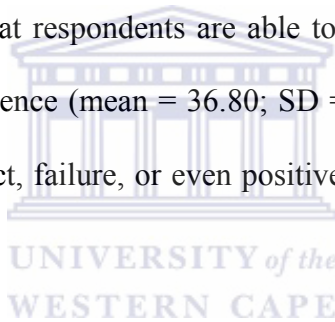


Table 4.2 highlights that respondents are the least optimistic (mean = 35.28; SD = 2.30) having a tendency to take on a hopeful view, and even less hopeful (mean = 34.79; SD = 2.32) having the willpower and the pathways to accomplish goals successfully.

5.2.4 INFERENCE STATISTICS

5.2.4.1 Pearson Correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intention

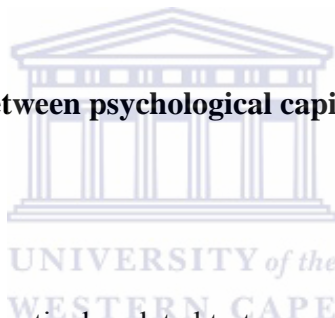
Hypothesis H1

Job satisfaction will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

The results of table 4.3 indicate the relationship between respondent's response to the dimensions of job satisfaction and turnover intention. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant and inverse relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention ($r = -0.82$, $p < 0.01$). Employees who do not experience job satisfaction are therefore more likely to intend leaving the organisation.

Hence the hypothesis H1 is substantiated.

5.2.4.2 Pearson correlation between psychological capital and turnover intention



Hypothesis H2

Psychological capital will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Table 4.4 indicates the Pearson's correlation matrix between psychological capital and turnover intention amongst employees in the Tourism industry. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant, inverse relationship between psychological capital and turnover intention among employees in the Tourism industry ($r = -0.63$, $p < 0.01$).

Hence, the hypothesis H2 is substantiated.

5.2.4.3 Pearson correlation between job satisfaction and psychological capital

Hypothesis H3

Job satisfaction will be associated with psychological capital.

From table 4.5 it can be seen that the Pearson correlation measure between job satisfaction and psychological capital among permanent tourism employees indicate a strong, direct relationship between job satisfaction and psychological capital ($r = 0.74$; $p < 0.01$). This is indicative of individuals who have hope, are resilient, have strong levels of confidence and are more optimistic, are likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction.

Hence, the hypothesis H3 is substantiated.



5.2.4.4 Multiple Regression Analysis: Job Satisfaction, Psychological Capital and Turnover Intention amongst permanent tourism employees.

Hypothesis H4

Job satisfaction and psychological capital will not explain the variance in intention to quit.

From table 4.6 it can be seen that the multiple correlation among the dimensions of job satisfaction, psychological capital and turnover intention is 0.6743, as indicated by Multiple R. Furthermore, given the R Square value of 0.4547, it may be deduced that only 45.47% of the variance in psychological capital and job satisfaction can be accounted for by these two variables. The results indicate that although 45% of the

variance in turnover intentions can be attributed to psychological capital and job satisfaction, other variables which were not explored in the research study, could possibly account for the factors that could mediate these relationships, for example, stress, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, job involvement, which could act synergistically and / or antagonistically.

5.2.5 JOB SATISFACTION AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

Despite South Africa's potential to compete globally, numerous challenges remain. Skills shortages and the high unemployment rate have had a negative impact on the availability of competent people in the country (Van Schalkwyk, et al. 2010). Staff costs are rising because of the shortage of skilled individuals and the "brain drain" characterised by the emigration of highly skilled people to Europe, the United States of America and Australia (Peralta & Stark, 2006).

The social context in organisations has been consistently connected to individuals well-being. Other people at work, especially the supervisor, can affect the way individuals feel about themselves and their work. (Van Schalkwyk, et al. 2010). Poor supervisor-subordinate relationships, poor communication, as well as lack of feedback, impact negatively on the well-being of employees.

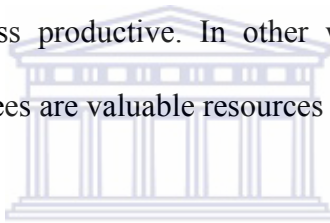
The hospitality industry is characterised by notoriously poor wages, low job security, long working hours, and seasonality (Deery & Shaw, 1999; Worcester, 1999). Not only is

it unlikely that these job attributes will attract the most qualified candidates for exceptional customer service, but they greatly contribute to the industry's high turnover rate (Dawson & Abbott, 2009).

Chuang (2009) postulates that when hospitality employees are satisfied with their job, they are willing to:

- Provide service that exceeds customers' expectations
- Positively influence guests' attitude toward the image of the hotel.

In contrast, employees who are dissatisfied with their job are likely to have more occupational stress and be less productive. In other words, highly committed, high performing, and happy employees are valuable resources to the hospitality industry.

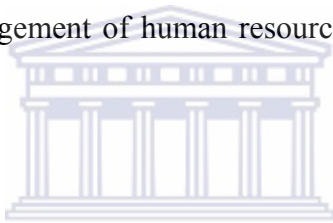


The relationships between PsyCap and desirable attitudinal outcomes such as job satisfaction, work happiness, and organizational commitment have been empirically supported in various studies (Luthans, Avolio et al. 2007; Luthans, Norman et al. 2008). Higher levels of PsyCap capacities such as hope and optimism have been shown to trigger positive emotions (Snyder, Harris et al. 1991) as a byproduct of positive appraisals and increased probabilities of success and goal accomplishment.

Larson and Luthans (2006) investigated the potential added value that psychological capital may have for employee attitudes of satisfaction and commitment. Using a sample of 74 manufacturing employees, they found a significant relationship between PsyCap and job satisfaction ($r=.373$) and organization commitment ($r=.313$). Importantly, the

employees' PsyCap had a significant added impact over human and social capital on these work attitudes.

Luthans, et al. (2007) conducted two studies to analyse how hope, resilience, optimism and efficacy individually, as well as the higher-order construct, PsyCap, predicted work performance and satisfaction. The first study utilised three samples of management students with an age range that could be termed up-and-coming adults, and the second study used two separate samples of employees in both service and high-technology manufacturing environments. Findings from this study highlighted practical implications for the development and management of human resources' motivational propensities in the workplace.



Employees who are more hopeful, optimistic, efficacious, and resilient may be prone to “weather the storm” of the kind of dynamic, global environmental contexts confronting a good number of organisations better than their counterparts with lower PsyCap. The study further revealed that although sustained investment in financial, human, and social capital is needed, it may no longer be adequate. The investment in psychological capital may capitulate substantial returns further than the other more traditional forms of capital investment (Luthans et al. 2007).

A study using secondary data from a continuing longitudinal study conducted by the Texas Protective Services Training Institute, found that job satisfaction, supervisors' support and worker's self-efficacy were significant factors linked with worker retention

(Chen & Scannapieco, 2010). The authors further postulate that a substantial relationship exists between individual's self-efficacy and work. Workers of higher work related self-efficacy may distinguish their working environments to be less challenging and more controllable as compared to workers of low work related self-efficacy.

5.2.6 PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AND TURNOVER INTENTION

A variety of studies demonstrate a clear linkage between the positive psychological capacities of employees and desirable workplace outcomes. However, to date, little empirical research exists which has examined this relationship. Iverson and Deery (1997) report findings from a study designed to examine the important linkage between nurses' self-reported positive psychological capital (PsyCap) and their "intentions to stay" as well as their supervisors' ratings of their commitment to the mission of the organisation. The authors found a highly significant positive relationship between PsyCap and the "intentions to stay" and commitment to the mission, values, and goals of the hospital.

Individuals who are higher in PsyCap are likely to have lower turnover intentions for several reasons. Their higher levels of optimism regarding the future and confidence in their ability to succeed in their current job will motivate them to take charge of their own destinies (Seligman, 1998), self-select into challenging endeavors (Bandura, 1997), engage the necessary efforts and resources, and persevere in the face of obstacles (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), rather than become "quitters." In addition, due to higher levels of resilience, even when they experience negative events in the workplace, high

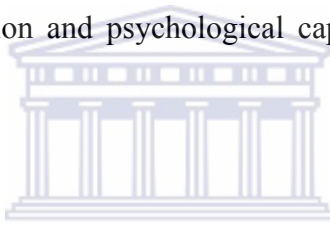
PsyCap individuals are more likely to positively adapt and bounce back from those events, preventing the escalation and development of intentions to quit. Finally, those higher in the hope capacity are more able to derive multiple pathways to be successful in the present job, further reducing the perceived need to leave the organisation.

Although for some, a viable pathway might be changing jobs (turnover), high hope tends to motivate approach goals, in which a person chooses to actively pursue positive outcomes, rather than avoidance goals, in which negative or threatening situations are simply shunned. Moreover, turnover intentions have been conceptualised as a function of job satisfaction and future expectancies in current versus alternative jobs, which in turn are based on economic and labor market conditions (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979). Given the support to-date for a positive relationship between PsyCap and job satisfaction (Luthans, et al. 2007), it follows that high PsyCap would be a negative, rather than a positive predictor of turnover intentions, especially given the negativity of the recent economic environment.

In order to look for explanatory variables to determine employees' turnover intention, Sun and Yu (2001) analysed the relationship between psychological capital and turnover intention, and also further studied the moderating effect of psychological capital on the relationship between job burnout and turnover intention. Their results indicate an inverse relationship between PsyCap and turnover intention.

5.2.7 JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION

The results of the current research indicate that there is a strong, inverse relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst employees in the tourism industry. Moreover there is a statistically, significant, inverse relationship between psychological capital and turnover intention among employees in the tourism industry. The results of the current research indicate that there is a strong, direct relationship between job satisfaction and psychological capital amongst tourism employees (n=70). Results emanating from the current research indicate that turnover intentions can be accounted for by job satisfaction and psychological capital amongst employees in the tourism industry.



Van Schalkwyk, Du Toit, Bothma and Rothmann (2010) conducted a study of employees working in a petrochemical laboratory (n = 168) to investigate the relationship between job insecurity, leadership empowerment behaviour, employee engagement and intention to leave their jobs. The motivation for the study was to determine the effects of job insecurity and leadership on employee engagement and turnover intention in order to contribute to improved talent management. The Job Insecurity Inventory (JII) was used to measure job insecurity. Intention to quit was measured by two items, namely, ‘How often do you think about leaving the job?’ and ‘How likely are you to look for a new job within the next year?’ The findings concluded that a negative relationship was found between engagement and intention to leave. Furthermore, employees who experience higher levels of engagement are expected to be less inclined to leave the organisation.

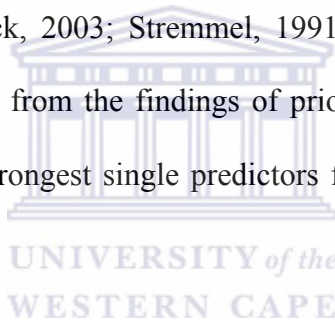
Many studies conducted in different settings found a significant negative correlation between the facets of job satisfaction and turnover intention. Rahman, Naqvi and Ramay (2008) established that job satisfaction had a negative effect on turnover intentions of IT professionals. Khatri and Fern (2001) postulate that there was a modest relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions, whilst Korunka, Hoonakker and Carayon (2005) concluded that there is a significant negative association between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. A further study by Brough and Frame (2004) concluded that job satisfaction is a strong predictor of turnover intentions.

In a study by Ali (2008), 212 lecturers of private sector colleges of NWFP, using the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) were tested to determine the factors affecting overall job satisfaction and turnover intention. The researcher concluded that four factors were very important for turnover intention, namely, pay, promotion, contingent rewards and fringe benefits. The author further recommended that management should give special attention to these four dimensions of job satisfaction in order to increase employees' level of satisfaction, and decreasing the level of turnover intention.

Chen (2006) conducted a study to determine the effects of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and individual factors on flight attendants' turnover intentions. The sample consisted of attendants from a Taiwanese airline company (n = 156), using self-administered questionnaires. The results from the analysis revealed that wage (pay), marital status, 'job-itself satisfaction', 'normative commitment' and 'continuance commitment' were major factors affecting flight attendants' turnover intentions. The

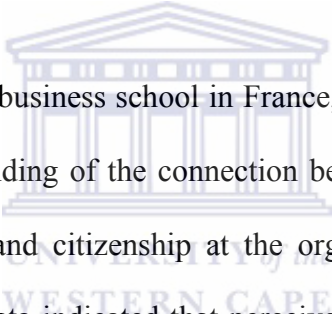
study also revealed that job satisfaction and organisational commitment had negative impacts on turnover intentions. This suggests that enhancements in job satisfaction and organisational commitment can be expected to reduce flight attendants' intentions to quit.

In the past, improving worker's job satisfaction has been used as a solution for retention (Jayaratne & Chess, 1984). Not only because literature showed job satisfaction was an important correlate for employee retention (Mor Barak, Nissly & Levin, 2001), turnover was also found to be strongly predicted by employees' dissatisfaction with their salaries, benefits, and promotion (Weiner, 1980; Phillips, Howes & Whitebook, 1991; Scannapieco & Connell-Carrick, 2003; Stremmel, 1991). Meta-analytic study by Mor Barak, et al. (2001) concluded from the findings of prior studies further confirmed job dissatisfaction as one of the strongest single predictors for worker's turnover in human service working environments.



Karatepe, Uludag, Menevis, Hadzimehmedagic and Baddar (2006) examined the effects of selected individual characteristics on frontline employee performance and job satisfaction. They examined (i) the effects of trait competitiveness, self-efficacy, and effort on performance; (ii) the effects of self-efficacy and effort on job satisfaction; and (iii) the effects of performance and job satisfaction on intention to leave. The study used a sample of frontline employees in Northern Cyprus hotels. Job satisfaction was found to be negatively associated with intention to leave, while performance was not. In addition, various demographic variables such as gender, age, education, and organisational tenure showed a relationship with job satisfaction and intention to leave.

Iverson and Deery (1997) analyzed self-report data from 300 non-supervisory resort employees to evaluate whether dealing with customers and a bona fide career interest would significantly increase the predictability of organisational commitment and turnover beyond that of resort job satisfaction. Voluntary turnover was tracked for a period of one year. Dealing with customers was significant in its positive correlation to organisational commitment. Resort job satisfaction and a bona fide career interest interacted when regressed on turnover such that those employees who were low on both variables were almost twice as likely to leave their jobs than those who were high on either one or both variables.



In a survey of 355 alumni of a business school in France, including 182 women and 173 men, to gain a better understanding of the connection between perceived support, trust, satisfaction, intention to quit and citizenship at the organisational level, Paillé, et al. (2010) concluded that, while data indicated that perceived organisational support (POS) increases organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), POS did not explain the intention of employees to leave their organisation. This result is in contrast to other empirical studies by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) and Chew and Wong (2008) where a positive link is reported between POS and intention to leave the organisation. An explanation for this could be as a result of the inclusion of the variable trust, which is the process of exchange where one party (employee) believes that the other party (employer) is fulfilling its obligations.

Chalkiti and Sigala (2010) in a survey of 63 Greek tourism enterprises, concluded that staff turnover levels were not found to be homogenous across organisational hierarchical levels; respondents claimed that staff turnover was primarily instigated by factors beyond the control of management and that staff turnover negatively affects service quality levels, costs and time related to staff recruiting and training, while it improved idea generation. Strategies reported to be used by the respondents for managing turnover demonstrated a shift from people retention strategies to strategies involving knowledge retention.

Avey, Luthans and Jensen (2009) conducted a study of 416 working adults from a variety of jobs and industries from volunteers for a research study on motivation in the - workplace under the funding of a large Midwestern university. The PCQ was used to measure psychological capital and the measure for intention to quit and job search behaviours was used by Crossley and colleagues (in press) and demonstrated adequate internal alphas in this study ($\alpha = 0.92$ and 0.94 respectively). This study offered research findings with implications for combating occupational stress. Stress was measured with 7 stress items from the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale. The study revealed a negative relationship between PsyCap and intentions to quit and job search behaviours. There was support for PsyCap as it was negatively related to employee intentions to quit ($\beta = -0.24$; $p < 0.01$).

PsyCap, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment measures were assessed through a secure on-line server at the participant's convenience over the course of one week. A

sample of 105 engineering managers participated in this study by Avey, et al. (2006), from a large Fortune 100 firm that specializes in high tech manufacturing. The absenteeism data for respondents was obtained from the human resources department records. The data was provided in multiple forms from the most recent 12 months including vacation, sick leave, and leave without pay. The data was split into two types of absenteeism following the typology of voluntary and involuntary absenteeism provided by Sagie (1998). For the hypothesis stating that “overall PsyCap will have a negative relationship with involuntary and voluntary absenteeism” (2006, p. 8), the finding was that full support was given to the hypothesis as PsyCap was negatively related to both voluntary ($r = -.252, p < 0.5$) and involuntary ($r = -.332, p < .01$) absenteeism.

5.3 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

One limitation of the present study is that the sample group ($n=70$) was very small and it will be difficult to generalise the results for the whole population. Thus increasing the size of the sample group, could further yield and increase statistically significant results. As concern is necessary with regard to the generalisability of the present findings to all divisions within the tourism industry, it is suggested that for future research a stratified random sample be used to compare several divisions using a bigger sample. Various authors maintain that stratified random sampling is the most suitable technique in that it presents greater reliability and enables greater rigour and results in greater precision and control with respect to the sample.

For the purpose of this research, a non-probability sampling technique was used. A convenience sampling method was used as this particular sampling method makes no pretence of identifying a representative subset of a population, and may be appropriate for less demanding research problems.

The researcher made use of self-report measures which are subject to response biases and limit the responses of the participants to the items used in the scale, which do not capture the richness and variety of possible responses (Sulsky & Smith, 2005). Participants might have responded to questions in socially desirable ways. Therefore for future research, interviews can also be conducted with tourism employees.

It is also recommended that future research consider analyzing data using the t-test to determine whether employees within different divisions, example, business and leisure tourism relate to the fact that psychological capital will mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

In addition, longitudinal research is recommended to establish whether causal relationships exist among job satisfaction, psychological capital and intention to leave.

Another consideration would be that in relation to the current study, future researchers include organisational commitment as an additional variable, as many studies have been done on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions (Billingsley, 1992; Chen, 2006; Paillé, et al. 2010; Schwepker, 2001; Shore & Martin, 1989; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

The majority of the respondents in this research were females which constituted 70% of the sample and the remaining (30%) were male. Therefore it is recommended that future research takes into account the potential for gender bias.

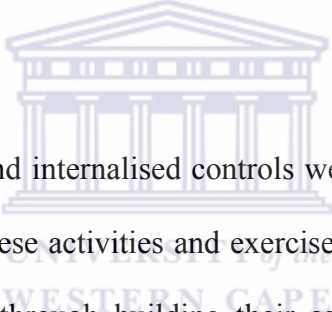
A further recommendation for future researchers is that instead of the JDI, though a popular device for measuring job satisfaction, the Measure of Job Satisfaction (MJS) a multi-dimensional instrument is used to measure job satisfaction. In a study by Van Saane, et al. (2003) where reliability and validity of instruments measuring job satisfaction was analysed, the MJS included most of the work factors that were considered necessary for good content validity.

There is limited literature on the mediating role between job satisfaction, psychological capital and the intention to quit in the tourism industry in the Western Cape, therefore reference was made to other service professions / organisations as well.

Finally, it is recommended that more research be conducted on the issue of job satisfaction, psychological capital and the intention to quit, in addition with other sub variables of psychological capital, such as trust, emotional intelligence, eustress, as long as these concepts meet the criteria for inclusion in the positive psychological capital model, that is, that the construct is unique, measurable, and open to development.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE INDIVIDUAL

Youssef and Luthans (2007) have identified short training interventions intended to build up positive psychological resource capacities. This involves developing hope in the training of participants through having them set goals and “stepping” subgoals, produce practical pathways emphasizing imminent desirable results rather than avoiding undesirable ones, and engage in contingency planning for overcoming probable obstacles. As participants connect in these activities, a positive explanatory style also begin to develop, as negative events were predicted and plans for avoiding or managing them were fashioned.



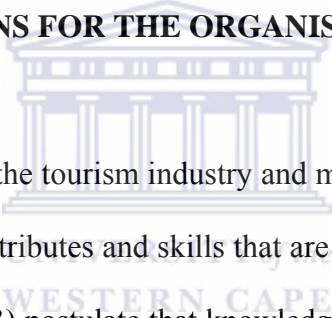
Facilitated positive self-talks and internalised controls were general factors in both hope and optimism development. These activities and exercises also activate the development of the participants’ resilience through building their assets (example, confidence and social support), constructing their risk management strategies (contingency planning), and most importantly, facilitating cognitive, emotional and behavioural adaptational processes. These resilience processes were improved through developing and changing the participant’s perceptions of influence in the application to current examples of work-related setbacks the training participants had encountered (Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

Three specific development guidelines have been identified to develop hopeful leaders (Peterson & Luthans, 2003):

- To ease the agency components of hope, use participative techniques and empowerment to set specific stretch goals

- To facilitate the pathways component of hope require logical emergency plans and actions plans for attaining goals
- For overall hope progression, borrow from successful techniques such as the “stepping” method to break down complex, long-term strategies and goals into manageable substeps; develop through cases, experiential exercise, and modeling the skill of ‘regoaling’ to recognize the pointlessness of persistence in the face of complete goal blocker; and through cases and exercises practice the skill of mental rehearsals that will then transfer to important events on the job.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE ORGANISATION



Organisations that seek to lead the tourism industry and markets need to attract and retain talented employees who hold attributes and skills that are critical to their success. Brown, Duncan, Harris and Kelly (2003) postulate that knowledge-based economy, organisations with the largest talent bank have a competitive advantage, because the human component has become the most important predictor of organisational success.

In order to sustain a competitive advantage, organisations must recognize and manage the psychological mechanisms that extract both commitment and superior performance from talented employees, including mechanisms that prevent them from developing turnover cognitions (Kahumuza & Schlechter, 2008).

Job satisfaction is directly linked to intention to quit, implying that turnover is likely to be reduced when employees are satisfied with their jobs. The authors further suggest that performance could be increased and intention to quit would be reduced by making the work context more pleasant and supportive (MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Ahearne, 1998; Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997).

According to Turnipseed (2005) talent can only be managed effectively if managers understand the process by which the turnover decision is made. Determining the underlying factors that leads to the intention to quit is noteworthy as it is the most important antecedent of actual turnover (Firth, et al. 2004). Organisations have in the past made use of exit interviews as a tool to understand employees' reasons for quitting.

Understanding the cognitive process underlying the intention to quit and being able to identify the variables related to it, provides an opportunity for managers to act more proactively to prevent such intentions from forming and becoming a turnover decision (Pienaar, Sieberhagen & Mostert, 2007).

It is recommended that the industry representative bodies, such as Southern Africa Tourism Services Association (SATSA), Tourism Business Council of South Africa (TBCSA) and Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), gain thorough knowledge of the determinants of employees' intention to leave. This should enable them to identify turnover behaviours and to implement interventions to retain employees in a proactive manner.

To improve the job satisfaction of tourism employees, a new look at policies surrounding promotion should be undertaken. This would involve senior management input and greater communication strategy between all stakeholders.

Human resource development (HRD) strategies aimed at enhancing the components of employees' overall psychological capital or PsyCap (efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience) may reduce their perceptions of the symptoms of stress, as well as limit subsequent turnover (Avey, et al. 2009).

Deery (2008) examined the role that work-life balance (WLB) issues have in an employee's decision to stay or leave an organization in the hospitality and tourism industry. The research provides a theoretical framework for industry to develop strategies for reduced employee turnover, with a focus on the role that balancing work and family plays in these strategies. The findings from the research which focused on job attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment, personal attributes such as positive and negative affectivity, the role of WLB in employee turnover and, finally, the strategies provided to alleviate high turnover rates could prove useful in alleviating turnover. Recommendations emanating from the research by Deery (2008) include the need for legislation on maximum, as well as minimum working hours, good role models at the workplace, flexible working hours and arrangements, sound recruitment and training opportunities and company family friendly work policies.

Given that intention to quit has been demonstrated to predict turnover (Crossley, Bennet, Jex & Burnfield, in press), developing PsyCap may be an effective way to at least indirectly reduce turnover. Future research can also further investigate the mechanisms through which PsyCap contributes to turnover intentions and actual turnover.

In order to get motivated employees, management needs to give their employees responsibility and create platforms for feedback. By creating such a context, employees' intrinsic value will improve and they will be able to develop themselves in their occupational role. It is also of importance that management provides the employees with information, knowledge and training (Lundberg, Gudmundson & Andersson, 2009).

Researchers have consistently established an association between what have been called High Performance Work Systems, High Commitment HR Models, and High Involvement HR systems and firm financial performance. These systems have a certain uniqueness, and tend to include practices such as meticulous selection procedures, internal merit-based promotions, information sharing, participatory mechanisms, group-based rewards, and skilled-based pay. Dawson and Abbott (2009) further postulate that HR practices that include employee development reward, and retention plans encourage long-term employment relationships and promote strong internal labour markets, regular team-focused assignments, and an emphasis on firm-specific knowledge.

5.6 CONCLUSION

The central objective of this study was to determine if there is a relationship between job satisfaction and psychological capital and employees in the tourism industry's intention to quit. A literature survey was conducted to form the theoretical premise for the study.

The empirical findings from the study indicate that employees in the tourism industry in the Western Cape, where the research was conducted, are most satisfied with the work content, followed by their co-workers, and payment received. They however, indicated that they are less satisfied with the payment received, and least satisfied with the leadership / supervision experienced within the workplace.

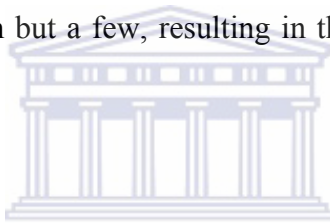
In terms of the stated research hypotheses the following specific empirical findings emerged from the investigation:

- Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between perceptions of psychological capital and turnover intention.
- Psychological capital will mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions.
- Psychological capital will be negatively associated with turnover intentions.
- There is a positive relationship between psychological capital and job satisfaction.

The results of the study should be interpreted with caution due to the limitations of the study. Cognisance should also be taken of the fact that the results obtained from the

research may be specific to the directorates where the investigation was conducted. This can be attributed to the fact that a non-probability sample in the form of convenience sampling was utilized in the study. Hence, the results acquired cannot be generalized with confidence to other tourism divisions, for example hospitality.

Another contributing factor impacting on generalisability is the fact that only the divisions such as business tourism, leisure tourism, retail, support staff and assets and products are targeted in the study. Therefore, the results of the study cannot be inferred to other divisions such as Meetings, Incentives, Conferencing and Events (MICE), and the hospitality industry, to mention but a few, resulting in the external validity of the study being compromised.



In the final analysis, Dawson and Abbott (2009) postulate that strategic human resource practices that enable a firm to facilitate a hospitality culture and climate for exceptional service, enhance organisational commitment, and recruit and retain the right people, have a significant chance of creating a sustainable competitive advantage. Highly committed employees have shown to exhibit a greater intent to stay with the organisation. Linking with the researchers Chalkiti and Sigala, Dawson and Abbott confirm that highly committed employees have a high level of firm-specific knowledge about the organisation as well as its customers needs and expectations.

Figure 5.1: The relationship between Job Satisfaction, Psychological Capital and Turnover Intention

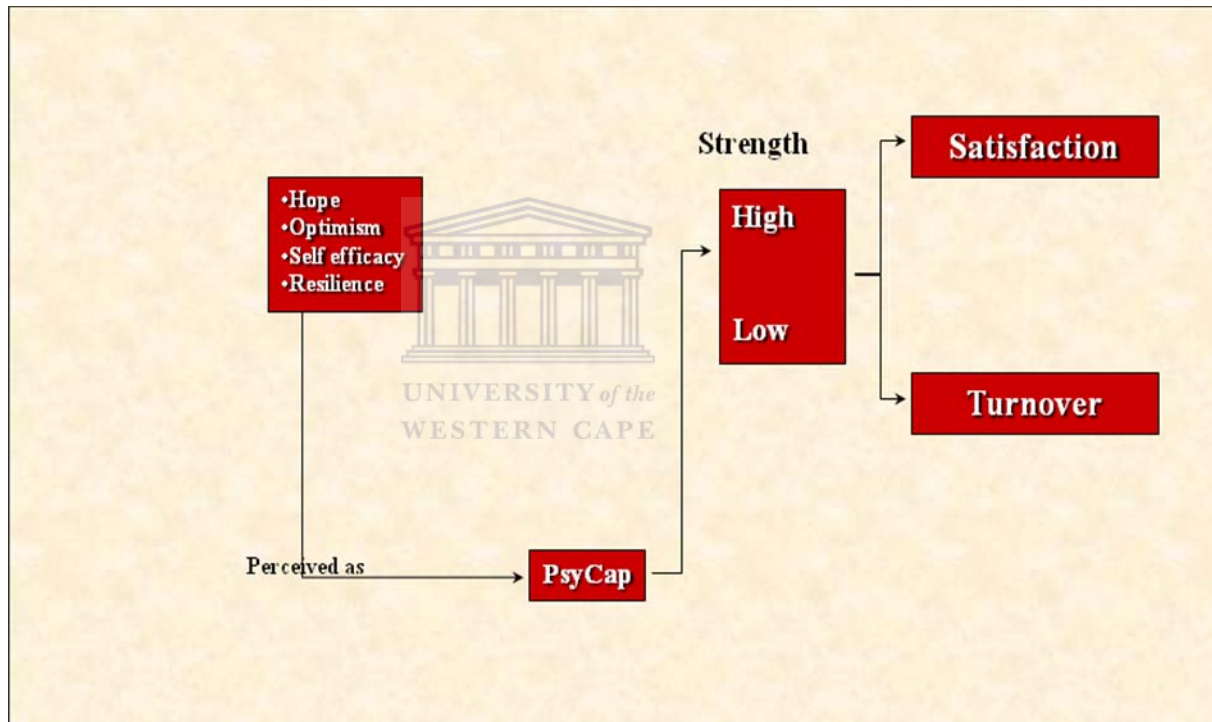


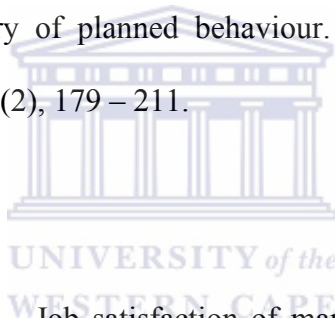
Figure 5.1 is an overview of the framework for understanding the relationship between job satisfaction, psychological capital and turnover intention.

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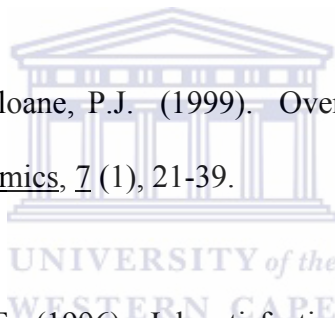
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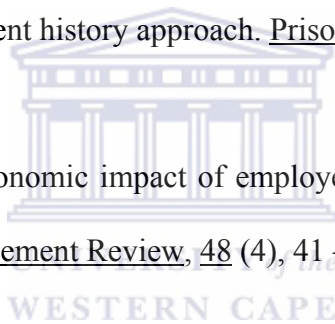
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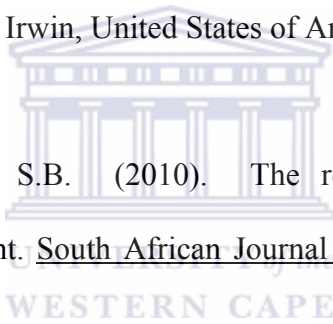
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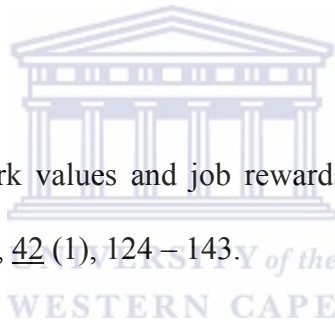
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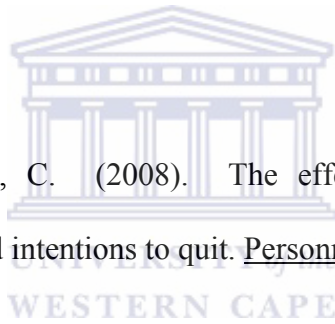
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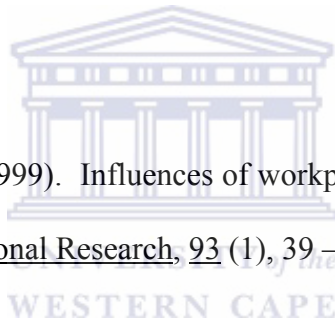
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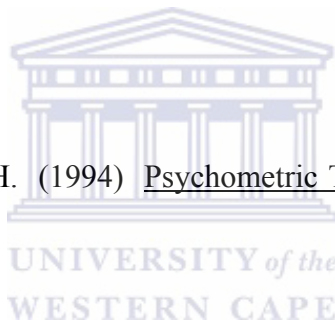
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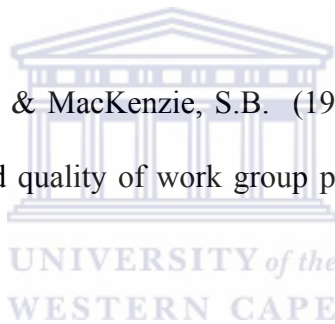
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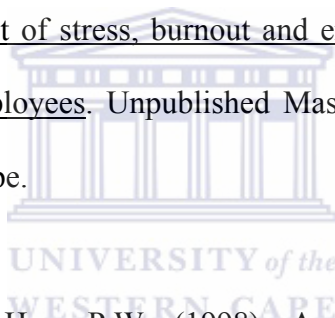
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