

**THE IMPACT OF JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL
COMMITMENT ON INTENTION TO LEAVE AMONGST NON-ACADEMIC
STAFF AT A TERTIARY INSTITUTION IN THE WESTERN CAPE**

by

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NOVEMBER 2011

DECLARATION

“I declare that **The impact of job satisfaction and organisational commitment on Intention to leave amongst non-academic staff at a Tertiary institution in the Western Cape** is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.”

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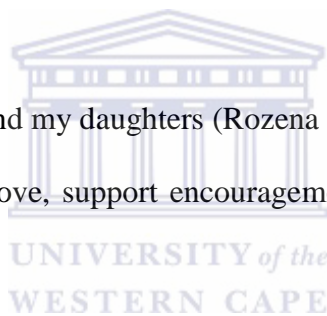
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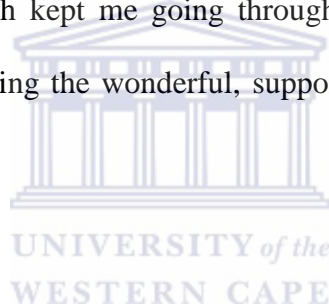
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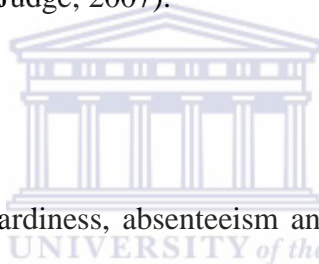


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ABSTRACT

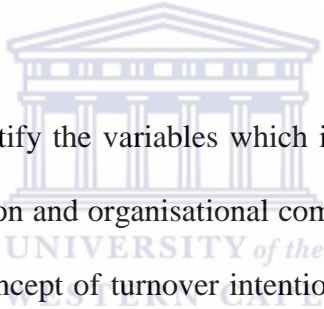
A critical feature of globalisation is to attract and retain intellectual capital to ensure that a cadre of highly skilled, independent, internationally marketable and mobile employees is achieved (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004). Bagraim and Sader (2007) concur by stating that South African organisations in an increasingly dynamic globalised economy, strive to increase the organisation's competitiveness by ensuring they need to retain and motivate skilled employees. The plethora of literature available on organisational commitment and job satisfaction is testament to achieving the above (Aamodt, 1999; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Robbins; 2001; Robbins & Judge; 2007).



Withdrawal behaviours such as tardiness, absenteeism and turnover have been found to be inversely related to both job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Bergh, 2011; Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Robbins, 2001). It is therefore believed that satisfied and committed employees are more likely to remain with an organisation and to perform at higher levels.

The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has particularly important implications for service organisations. In a recent study, conducted in a service environment, it was demonstrated that highly committed employees exerted more effort towards satisfying the needs of customers. The effort was found, in turn, to raise the level of customer satisfaction (Malherbe & Pearse, 2003). Moreover, the latter study lent strong support to the notion that increased job satisfaction is likely to stimulate greater commitment.

Since 1994 South Africa has undergone numerous changes not only in the country but also in the Higher Education sector, to rectify and redress the social injustices caused by apartheid in a move towards a democratic society (Cross, Mungadi & Rouhini cited in Rothman, 2005). In a hyper turbulent environment characterised by constant change, it has become important for Higher Education to change as well to ensure that tertiary institutions become internationally competitive. The importance of the current study therefore comes to the fore in terms of determining why individuals are leaving the institution. This is important because to remain competitive the institution needs highly competent, committed and experienced employees.



The present study aspires to identify the variables which influence turnover intentions. The mediating effects of job satisfaction and organisational commitment were investigated in this particular study to explore the concept of turnover intentions amongst a sample of 118 non-academic (administrative) staff members at a tertiary institution in the Western Cape.

A biographical questionnaire, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Turnover Intentions Questionnaire were administered to elicit responses from respondents to determine the impact of the variables job satisfaction and organisational commitment on turnover intentions. Both descriptive and inferential statistical methods (the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Co-efficient and Multiple Regression Analysis) were utilised during the statistical analysis phase.

Results indicate that a statistically significant inverse relationship exists between the independent variables job satisfaction and organisational commitment, respectively, and turnover intention. These findings are consistent with previous research findings (Appollis, 2010; Ben-Bakr, Al-Shammari, Jefri & Prasad, 1994; Pienaar, Sieberhagen & Mostert, 2007). Further to this a statistically significant relationship also exists between job satisfaction and organisational commitment which corroborates previous findings (Lok & Crawford, 1999; Mathieu & Zajac; 1999; McNeese-Smith, 2001; Price & Mueller, 1981; Williams & Hazer, 1986).

The study concludes with recommendations and implications for future research endeavours in the area of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions amongst non-academic employees from institutions of Higher Education.



KEYWORDS

Turnover Intentions

Job Satisfaction

Organisational Commitment

Non-Academic Staff

Tertiary Institution

Remuneration

Supervision


Work Content

Promotion

Benefits



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CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND AIM OF THE RESEARCH

1.1 Introduction

One of the most important factors to make a difference under the working conditions of the business environment in 2000's is a committed, productive, highly motivated and innovative human resource. With the increase of technological advances and changes, there is a need for organisations to address employee satisfaction, organisational commitment and work itself. The success, survival and competing power of organisations depend on the commitment of their members, supporting their individual developments and ensure their participations.

Higher education institutions are facing several challenges resulting from diminishing funds, globalisation and the rapid pace at which new knowledge is being created and utilised which require reforms in the management and governance styles of these institutions (Nyaigotti-Chacha, 2004). Consequently, the satisfaction and commitment of higher education employees under such challenging work environments has become imperative.

A critical feature of globalisation is to attract and retain intellectual capital to ensure that a cadre of highly skilled, independent, internationally marketable and mobile employees is achieved (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004). Bagraim and Sader (2007) concur by stating that

South African organisations in an increasingly dynamic globalized economy, strive to increase the organisation's competitiveness by ensuring they need to retain and motivate skilled employees. The plethora of literature available on organisational commitment and job satisfaction is testament to achieving the above (Aamodt, 1999; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Robbins; 2001; Robbins & Judge; 2007). In addition, further emphasis is placed on how organisational effectiveness and employee productivity is influenced by these work attitudes (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007).

Withdrawal behaviours such as tardiness, absenteeism and turnover have been found to be inversely related to both job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Bergh, 2011; Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Robbins, 2001). It is therefore believed that satisfied and committed employees are more likely to remain with the organisation and to perform at higher levels. More recent studies (Robbins, 2001; Tett & Meyer, 1993) maintain that organisational commitment is a better predictor of the above mentioned withdrawal behaviours than what job satisfaction is, further to this Luthans (1992) postulates that it displays a stronger link with job performance. Indeed, certain researchers argue that organisational commitment moderates the relationship between satisfaction and productivity (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992) and between satisfaction and employee withdrawal (Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid & Sirola, 1998).

The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has particularly important implications for service organisations. In a recent study, conducted in a service environment, it was demonstrated that highly committed employees exerted more effort

towards satisfying the needs of customers. The effort was found, in turn, to raise the level of customer satisfaction (Malherbe & Pearse, 2003). Moreover, the latter study lent strong support to the notion that increased job satisfaction is likely to stimulate greater commitment. It therefore becomes clear that neither job satisfaction nor organisational commitment can be viewed in isolation. In fact, from the perspective of the organisation, it is likely that commitment is the more important of the two work-related attitudes, precisely because of its stronger and more direct impact on employee behaviour.

The relationship between satisfaction and commitment could provide an important vehicle for the behaviour of employees if the above is taken into account (Spector, 2003). Further to this, increasing the satisfaction of employees can be used to influence these behaviours due to the stronger impact organisational commitment has on withdrawal, productivity and effort. Consequently, the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment becomes of great importance to all organisations, but particularly may be considered more imperatively in the service industry. Given the important contribution that such a relationship may make to the objectives of the organisation, it becomes necessary that it be investigated (Robbins & Judge, 2007). By acquiring a better understanding of the dynamics involved in this relationship, a clearer picture may also emerge as to how the organisation might best be able to optimize the potential benefits that it offers.

Since 1994 South Africa has undergone numerous changes not only in the country but also in the Higher Education sector, to rectify and redress the social injustices caused by apartheid in a move towards a democratic society (Cross, Mungadi & Rouhini cited in Rothman, 2005). In

a hyperturbulent environment characterised by constant change, it has become important for Higher Education to change as well to ensure that tertiary institutions become internationally competitive. The importance of the current study therefore comes to the fore in terms of determining why individuals are leaving the institution. This is important because to remain competitive the institution needs highly competent, committed and experienced employees. Employee turnover is defined as either voluntary or involuntary exiting of an organisation (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004). For the purposes of this study turnover intention will be viewed as the voluntary exiting of the organisation.

1.2 Problem Statement



It is a global phenomenon and undeniable fact that the transformation of Higher Education is taking place in most countries in the world (Fourie, 1999). Green and Hayward (1997, p. 3) argue that “although higher education is often seen as slow to change or downright resistant, it has undergone rapid transformation in the last 25 years and may be in a period of unprecedented change”. Indeed, the university at which the current research was undertaken, has developed an Institutional Operational Plan (IOP) designed to address some of these changes. One of the critical pillars of this IOP relates to the attraction, development and retention of a suitably qualified and competent administrative cadre. Hence, a fundamental principle of the IOP refers to human resources development.

Arnolds (2005) concurs with the above by stating that the restructuring of South African Higher Education institutions are not a unique phenomenon as restructuring of these

institutions have been seen in many countries. Governments diminishing ability to subsidise education, the restructuring of global capitalism and the emergence of neo-liberal macro-economic systems has been stipulated as some of the many reasons for the restructuring of higher education worldwide (Kraak, 2004; Mok, 2003; Woodard, 1997).

Empirical results from a survey conducted in 1996 utilising data from 14 countries worldwide have shown that changes in higher education institutions affected staff in numerous ways (Viljoen & Rothmann, 2009). Anvari and Amin (2011) postulate that universities in Iran are experiencing high turnover rates which in turn leads to higher costs and lower service quality. Empirical research has demonstrated that an individual's commitment to an organisation can be considerably influenced by the organisations managerial practices.

Altbach (1996) continues by saying that the survey reflects significant changes in higher education occurring. Demands for greater accountability, value for money, efficiency and quality and an increase in remote and autocratic management styles are but some of the changes listed. Employees have also witnessed the gradual erosion in remuneration and job security with the advent of an increase in the appointment of staff on fixed-term contracts and the obliteration of tenure in the 1980's.

The levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment have now been impacted by these changes (Viljoen & Rothmann, 2009). A recent study conducted amongst academics from Australia, Germany, Hong Kong, Israel, Mexico, Sweden and the UK investigated the

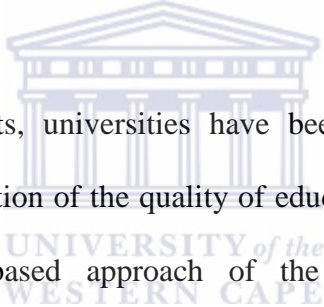
job satisfaction levels of the respondents and revealed that 50% of British academics were generally satisfied with their jobs (Lacy & Sheehan, 1997).

A plethora of research examining organisational commitment has been conducted by industrial organisational and occupational psychologists (Mueller, Wallace & Price, 1992). Very little research has been conducted within educational settings when investigating the variable organisational commitment. Malik (2011) similarly found an overabundance of literature on job satisfaction, but more specifically on academics at higher education institutions. On the contrary though Schulze (2006) could locate only 8 articles when typing in the key words 'job satisfaction' and 'higher education' when searching for articles in the ISAP-index for South African periodicals for publications between 1987 and 2004.



McInnis, (1998) on the other hand finds the lack of systematic research on the roles and values of university administrative staff remarkable and even goes as far as saying that it was time to remedy this. Castleman and Allen (1995, p. 165) concur in stating that “the literature and data on academic staff has vastly overshadowed that on general staff”. General staff appears to be an afterthought when considering the number of references made in most government publications (Dobson, 2000). The author continues by enlightening administrative and general staff to the point that these employees within institutions of higher education are being taken for granted. Finally, Conway (2002) states that the silence in public forums and reports as to the role of administrators is concerned is deafening. The author continues by postulating that there is more to running universities than purely teaching and learning and academic staff.

Universities are expected to make contributions to national development through the training and development of human resources in various professions for the labour market. Consequently, these institutions have been faced with the challenging task of motivating their employees through provision of attractive working conditions and competitive remuneration. In addition, they have had to face the reality of their employees, whom they have invested heavily to train, seeking alternative, more competitive opportunities in the private sector or abroad (Mwiria & Ngethe, 2007). These unfavourable working conditions have jeopardised the loyalty of administrative employees towards their universities as they increasingly engage in moonlighting activities in order to supplement their earnings.



In order to admit more students, universities have been forced to modify their entry requirements resulting in the dilution of the quality of education (Mutula, 2002; Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). The business-based approach of the universities has had negative consequences for the universities autonomy. As they develop products to meet the consumers need, public universities have had to become more business-like and less concerned with the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake.

In light of all of the above aspects, the current research was conducted to determine the impact of job satisfaction and organisational commitment levels on turnover intention of non-academic (administrative) staff at a tertiary institution.

1.3 Research Objective

The objectives of the study include:

- i. To determine the relationships between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to leave amongst non-academic staff members at a tertiary institution in the Western Cape.
- ii. To determine the levels of job satisfaction amongst non-academic staff members at a tertiary institution in the Western Cape.
- iii. To determine the impact of supervision on intention to leave.
- iv. To determine whether there is a significant statistical relationship between job satisfaction and work content, remuneration, promotion, recognition, benefits, employees working, personal and general conditions.



1.4 The Hypotheses

To determine the impact of the independent variables job satisfaction and organisational commitment on the dependent variable turnover intentions the following hypotheses were developed:

Hypotheses 1: Job satisfaction has an inverse relationship with turnover intentions

Hypotheses 2: There will be a significant relationship between work, remuneration, supervision, promotion and co-workers respectively with Turnover intention amongst non-academic staff members at a tertiary institution in the Western Cape.

Hypotheses 3: There is a significant relationship between biographical variables (namely: age, gender, educational level and tenure) and turnover intentions amongst non-academic staff at a tertiary institution in the Western Cape.

Hypotheses 4: Organisational commitment has an inverse relationship with turnover intentions.

Hypotheses 5: Job satisfaction has a direct relationship with organisational commitment.

1.5 Definitions of Important Constructs

The following important constructs were defined to facilitate the understanding of the various terminology utilised within the study.

1.5.1 Job Satisfaction



According to Pinder (1984) job satisfaction in modern times is without a doubt the work-related attitude which attracted the most attention. Crafford, Moerdyk, Nel, O'Neill, Schlechter and Southey (2007) define job satisfaction as the employees' positive or negative view of the job. Baron (1998, p. 683) simply defines job satisfaction as the "individuals attitude toward their work or jobs". According to Schermerhorn (1993) the following important aspects of a job which could influence satisfaction include:

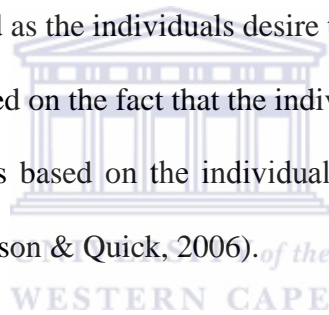
- i. Satisfaction with pay,
- ii. Satisfaction with assigned tasks,
- iii. Satisfaction with quality of supervision,
- iv. Satisfaction with co-workers,

- v. Satisfaction with the work setting, and
- vi. Satisfaction with promotion and advancement opportunities.

1.5.2 Organisational Commitment

Bergh and Theron (2010) define organisational commitment as the degree with which the employees identify with the organisation and its goals. Nelson and Quick (2006) merely define organisational commitment as the strength of the individuals identification with the organisation. Bergh (2011) identifies three forms of organisational commitment namely,

- i. Affective which is defined as the individuals desire to remain with the organisation,
- ii. Continuance which is based on the fact that the individual cannot afford leave, and
- iii. Normative commitment is based on the individuals' perceived obligation to remain with the organisation (Nelson & Quick, 2006).



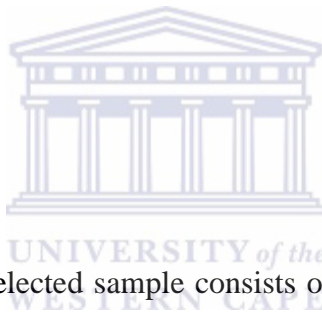
1.5.3 Turnover Intention

According to Ali (2008) turnover intention is defined as the employees' intention to quit the organisation. Gbadamosi and Chinaka (2011) define turnover intentions as the employees' thoughts to voluntarily resign from the organisation. Turnover intent is defined by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino (1979) as the cognitive process of thinking, planning and desiring to leave a job. The most important and immediate antecedent of actual turnover is turnover intent (Gbadamosi & Chinaka, 2011).

1.5.4 Turnover

Robbins (1998) states that turnover intention is defined as either the voluntary and involuntary withdrawal from the organisation. Moorhead and Griffin (1998) simply define it as people quitting the organisation or jobs. The resignation from an organisation is how Johns (1996) defines turnover.

1.6 Limitations of the Study



- The fact that the selected sample consists of staff members employed at only one tertiary institution in the Western Cape.
- Furthermore, only non-academic as opposed to both non-academic and academic staff members was approached to complete the questionnaires.
- The fact that the research being quantitative in nature presents a limitation as it could have been combined with qualitative methods and therefore would possibly have added more credence to the outcome of the study into the levels

of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of non-academic staff members.

- Another recognised limitation is that all the data collection instruments were self-report measures and purely rely upon the integrity of respondents.

1.7 Summary of the Chapter

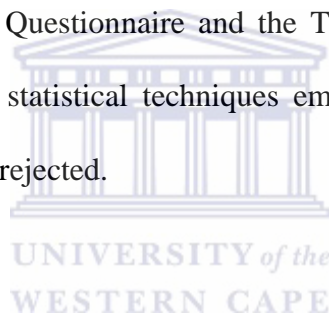
The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of job satisfaction and organisational commitment on turnover intention amongst non-academic staff at a tertiary institution in the Western Cape. Insight into the motivation and background for the research was stipulated. The research objectives, key constructs and hypotheses were highlighted. The chapter concluded with the limitations of the present study. An overview of each chapter will be provided next.

1.8 Overview of the Chapters

Chapter one provides the rationale, context and framework of the research and also includes highlighting the limitations of the study.

Chapter two is a detailed literature review that provides the theoretical basis, which formulates the premise of the study. Reference was made to the various definitions and where applicable theories relevant to job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions are presented.

Chapter three provides an overview of the research design utilised to execute the research. In particular, the selection of the sample, data collection methods, psychometric properties of the instruments and statistical techniques are delineated. Furthermore, the self-report research instruments included, a self-developed biographical questionnaire, the Job Descriptive Index, the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire and the Turnover Intentions Questionnaire. The chapter concludes with the statistical techniques employed to determine whether the hypotheses would be accepted or rejected.



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

Chapter five provides a discussion of the results obtained in the study. Conclusions were drawn based on the obtained results as well as some practical implications of the research findings are highlighted. Finally, the chapter concludes with recommendations and suggestions that may add value for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 JOB SATISFACTION

2.1.1 Introduction

Tensions and lack of respect for administrative staff are commonplace in university settings. For instance, administrators from Australian universities are resentful of the manner in which they have been described by their government. According to Szekeres (2004, p. 7), the Australian government has defined academic staff as “those members of staff employed to perform the functions of teaching-only, research-only or teaching-and research” while administrative staff are described as “not one of the three types specified for the academic classification, they are classified as having a non-academic classification”. As a result, Rodan (1997) cited by Dobson (2000, p. 205) argues that “progressive members of the non-general staff would accept that defining people by what they are not is totally unacceptable”.

The role of administrative staff has also been downplayed in most universities resulting in Szekeres (2004) labelling this group as “the invisible workers” while Dobson (2000) marvels at the propensity for general (that is, non-academic) staff to be ignored and acknowledges the existence of the “them and us” attitude. Conway (2000, p. 199) while discussing the role of administrators in Australia reports that “university administrators are used to being ignored

... by government, by the institutions which employ them and by the academics with whom they work with on a day-to-day basis”.

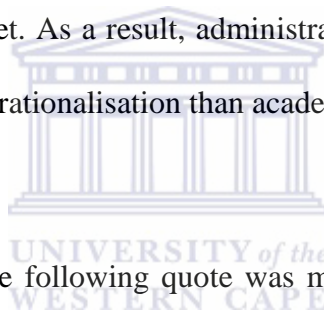
Similarly, McInnis (1998, p. 161) citing Evatt Foundation (1994) reported that knowledge of the Australian professional administrators was virtually nil, since they “have been traditionally treated as the ‘poor relations’ of the university system, not worthy of sustained research or analysis by academics or management”. McInnis (1998) who undertook a study of 1,281 senior administrators regarding their job satisfaction, morale, work atmosphere, work values and how they viewed academic work, found that the greatest complaint of the senior administrators was a lack of respect from academic staff.

McInnis (1997) cited by Dobson (2000, p. 205) reported that “the most obvious source of tension and potential for everyday conflict in the workplace derives from the lack of acknowledgement administrators feel they got for their increasingly specialist skills and knowledge”. Similarly Kuo (2009), in a study of administrators and academics in the United States, reports that in order to achieve collaboration, there is need for academic and administrative employees to understand how and why their cultural perspectives are similar, different or divided and what factors or challenges affect their interactions. In this regard, Swenk (1999) cited by Kuo (2009, p. 52) reports that “when both administrators and faculty ignore their cultural differences, the results are generally bad for the institution”. Similar tensions between academic and administrative employees have been found to exist in universities in the United Kingdom, Finland and Netherlands (Dobson, 2000).

The differences in the commitment and job satisfaction levels of academic and administrative staff can also be explained by the nature of their work. Academic employees have more

autonomy, have task variety and do not have the pressure of constant supervision like administrative staff. This is supported by studies which have shown that academics derive satisfaction from considerable degree of autonomy they enjoy in their work, task variety, flexibility of working hours, interactions with students, intellectual challenge they get from their jobs and ability to produce new knowledge (Adriaenssens, De Prins & Vloeberghs, 2006).

Academic employees are more likely to find it easier to change jobs due to the high qualifications and specialised knowledge and skills they have, unlike administrative employees who tend to settle in their jobs because their skills are more general and may not be in demand in the labour market. As a result, administrative employees are more likely to be victims of redundancy or staff rationalisation than academic employees.



According to Szekeres (2006) the following quote was made by a general (administrative) staff member, “I am general staff, therefore I am not”. Szekeres (2004) considers administrative staff as the invisible group of employees at tertiary institutions. Castleman and Allen (1995) consider general staff as the neglected group of employees at higher education institutions. The reason for this is that research literature and data about academic staff strongly outweighs that of general staff. The author’s research further suggests that managers often overlook general staff member issues. Szekeres (2006) further postulates that until recent times both academic and non-academic literature on the working lives of general staff members was a fairly closed book. The silence of the administrative staff members’ roles in public forums and reports are deafening (Conway, 2002).

Szekeres (2004) maintains that Australia's tertiary institution sector has experienced a vast amount of change in the past twenty years. Whitchurch (2006) considers the internal and external boundaries of tertiary institutions as more fluid because of more complex missions involving both regional and international markets as well as mass higher education. McInnis (1998) concurs by stating that the new, more complex tertiary institutions require an expanding array of specialist administrative staff members in achieving more comprehensive institutional missions. Since the abolishment of apartheid in South Africa and in recent years several policy and legal initiatives have been implemented to transform higher education (Du Toit, 2001). Kistan (1999) lists the following, the change from an elite to a mass education system in higher education, new developments in teaching and learning, alternate methods of education growing as well as market place changes and new demands and societal needs are the other changes that higher education institutions are experiencing or expected to undergo.



Considering the above mentioned views of administrative staff and also the changes experienced by institutions of higher learning, the research being undertaken therefore attempts to determine the job satisfaction levels of the administrative staff members.

2.1.2 Who Are the NON-ACADEMICS?

Specialised administrative staff are unofficially assigned the role of maintaining the organisation and this is considered a unique characteristic of modern day bureaucracy's (Blau, 1970). In achieving the organisational goals these employees' contributions are seen as indirect. According to Gumport and Pusser (1995) in research of higher education institutions

no clear or uniform definition of what constitutes administrative functions or administration is offered. Pickersgill, van Barneveld and Bearfield (1998) state that the Australian government distinguishes academic from administrative staff on the following basis: Academics are said to perform the following duties, roles or responsibilities, namely that of only teaching, only doing research or a combination of both teaching and research, whereas administrative staff do not fulfill any of these roles, therefore being classified as non-academics.

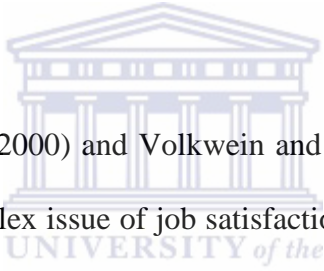
Szekeres (2004) believes in rather defining administrative staff in terms of what they are and do rather than in terms of what they are not. Therefore, Szekeres defines administrative staff as playing an administrative and support role to academic staff and students on non-academic matters within higher education institutions. Whitchurch (2006) states that functions such as academic administrators, general managers and accredited specialists are held by administrative staff. Whitchurch (2006) further postulates that these employees not only work across boundaries, they also play a huge role in the formation of new fields of knowledge.

Szekeres (2006) claims that administrative staff are positioned throughout university structures, from research centres, departments, schools, faculty officers and even chancellery through to central administrative units. Further to this, the following jobs or roles of responsibility are held by administrative staff, which ranges from legal, library, maintenance, security, secretaries, receptionists, resource managers and even registrars. Johnsrud (2002) believes this group of staff plays a support role in achieving the primary missions of the institution and these include the numerous advisers, technicians and professional staff

members. Academic support, student development and activities, external affairs and business and administrative services are the administrative units in which these staff members are normally employed and are accordingly defined by.

Alvesson and Deetz (2000) as cited in Szekeres (2006) support the silenced and marginalized voices of administrative staff and applaud the critical tradition which challenges that status quo. As with Szekeres (2004) this research focuses solely on white collar staff and will exclude those categorized as “academic managers.”

2.1.3 Defining Job Satisfaction



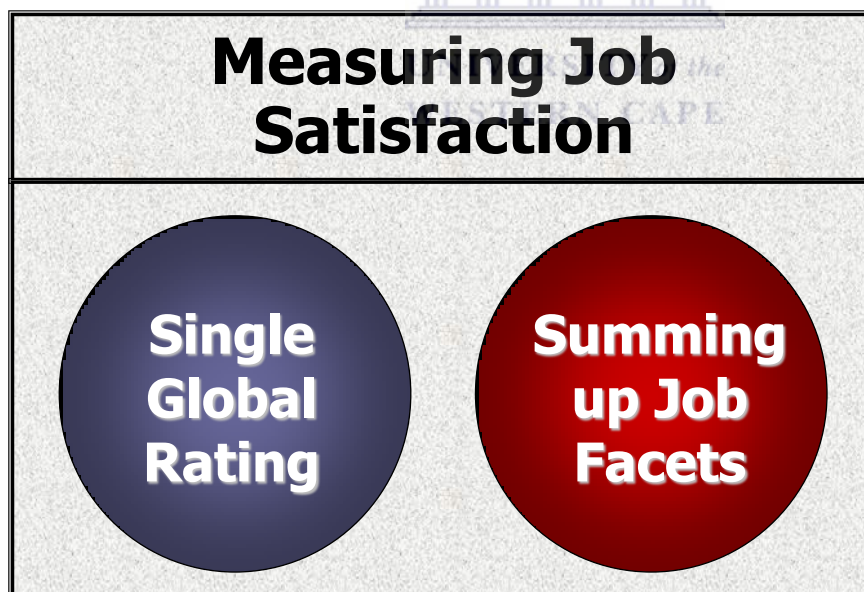
As with Volkwein and Parmley (2000) and Volkwein and Zhou (2003) the current research being undertaken to has the complex issue of job satisfaction as its core. Landy (1989) states even though over the past 30 years job satisfaction has been extensively researched, it only came to the fore in the mid 1930's as a formal area of research. Locke (1976) projected approximately 3 350 articles or dissertations have been written on the topic of job satisfaction. Oshagbemi (1997) predicts that if a count be done today of how many articles or dissertations have been written on the topic it would probably have doubled.

Oshagbemi (1999) defines job satisfaction as the positive emotional reactions of individuals towards a specific job. Arnold, Silvester, Patterson, Robertson, Cooper and Burnes (2005, p. 623) define job satisfaction as “A pleasurable or positive emotional state arising from the

appraisal of one's job or job experiences". "A positive feeling about one's job resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics" (Robbins & Judge, 2007, p. 30).

Spector (1997) defines job satisfaction as how employees feel about their jobs or various aspects of their jobs. Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) concur with this view and see it as the extent to which individuals like their jobs. Cherrington (1994) differentiates between two aspects in understanding job satisfaction namely facet and overall satisfaction. These two aspects, depicted in figure 2.1, can be defined or explained as follows:

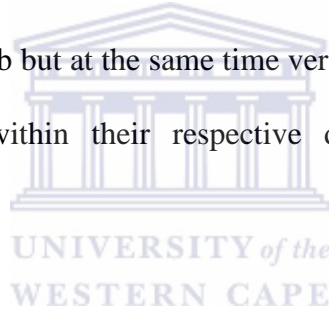
Figure 2.1: Measuring job satisfaction



Source: Robbins (1998)

2.1.3.1 Facet satisfaction

According to Groot (1999) a significant increase in the literature on facet satisfaction has occurred in recent years. When various aspects or facets of an employee's job lead to satisfaction it is considered to be facet satisfaction (Johns, 1988). The following are listed as possible aspects or facets that could lead to employee satisfaction namely: employees' attitudes towards pay, the job itself, and whether or not it is challenging, stimulating and or attractive enough as well as managerial or leadership style and the competency levels of managers. According to Kanter (1977) employees can demonstrate satisfaction in some aspects or areas of their jobs but none in others. For example, employees can be extremely happy with the content of their job but at the same time very unhappy with the lack of growth or promotional opportunities within their respective departments or the organisation holistically.



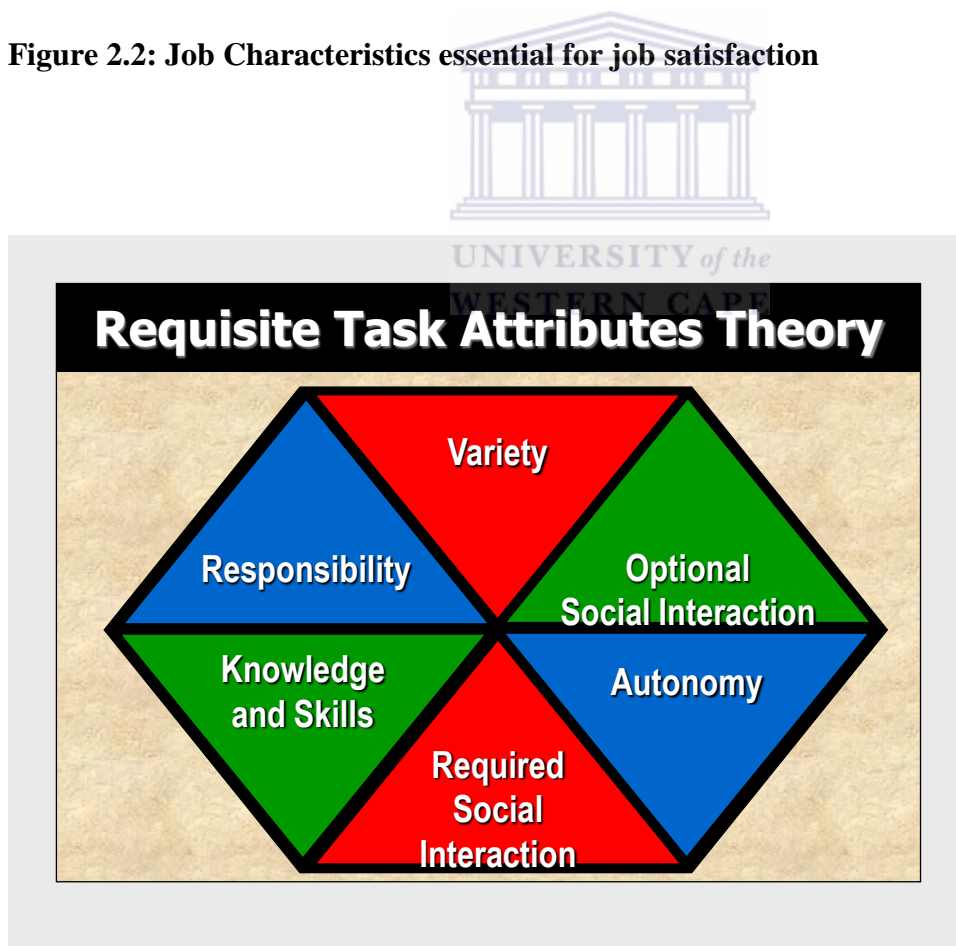
2.1.3.2 Overall Satisfaction

Cherrington (1994) defines overall satisfaction as an individual's general internal state of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. A positive internal state is created by positive experiences such as having friendly colleagues, a good salary, compassionate managers or superiors, as well as attractive jobs. On the other hand a negative internal state develops from negative experiences such as low salaries, criticism and less stimulating jobs. The intensity and frequency of negative and positive experiences therefore determines the level of overall satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

2.1.4 Motivation Theories

Present day theories confirm that work motivation theories form the basis of job satisfaction theories (McWatts, 2005). Mullins (1996, p. 520) asserts that “motivation is a process which may lead to job satisfaction”. Motivational theories demonstrate the relationship between motivation and job satisfaction even though it is not clear how this relationship comes about. Robbins (1998) maintains that the following factors, as illustrated in figure 2.2, contribute job satisfaction.

Figure 2.2: Job Characteristics essential for job satisfaction



Source: Robbins (1998)

Calder (2000) states that motivational theories are divided into two broad categories which are either content or process theories. Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weik (1970) concur by stating that job satisfaction theories are categorized into either content or process theories.

Cronje, Du Toit, Marais and Motlatta (2003) postulate that content theories highlights the factors which guide individuals behaviour, opposed to process theories which concentrates on why individuals make certain choices and then evaluates their satisfaction after their goals have been met.

2.1.4.1 Content Theories

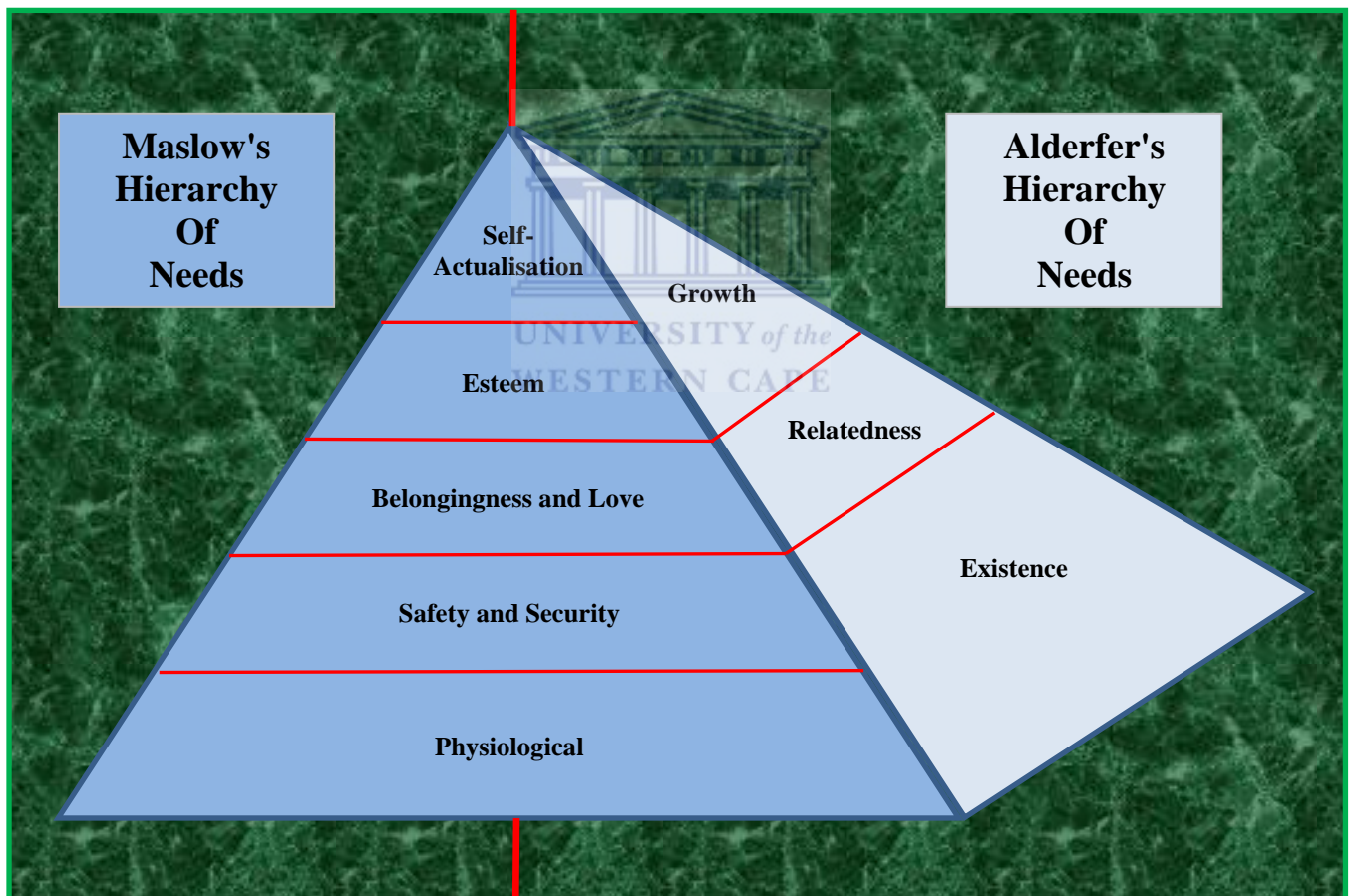


2.1.4.1.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Luddy (2005) postulates that the area of work motivation and satisfaction has been widely researched by many a psychologist in an attempt to explain it in terms of particular needs, interest and values. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is one such theory that has explored these factors. Maslow postulates that individuals are unique and continually strive to satisfy a hierarchy of needs in an attempt for self-actualization (Moorhead & Griffin, 1998).

Robbins and Judge (2007) posit the view that Maslow's hierarchy of needs comprise five levels of needs which human beings strive to satisfy, as demonstrated in figure 2.3. Robbins (1998) further postulate that lower level needs need to be met first and by achieving this, the next level is activated until self-actualization occurs. Managers should therefore contrive programmes which will require employees to satisfy unmet needs as satisfied needs lose their motivational potential (Gordon, 1999).

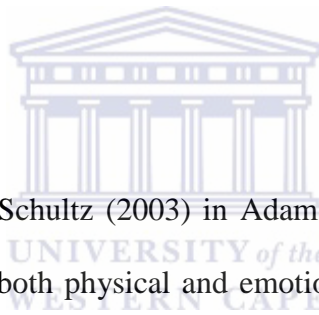
Figure 2.3: Maslow's and Alderfer's hierarchy of needs



Source: Gordon (1999)

According to Gordon (1999) Maslow's hierarchy of needs, ranges from very basic low level needs to high level ones for individuals. Lower order needs include level one needs' (that is physiological) and level two needs (that is safety and security). Robbins and Judge (2007) state that the higher order needs comprise of social, esteem and self-actualisation needs.

Physiological needs (Level 1) are comprised of basic needs which are considered crucial for survival which includes food, water, shelter and even sex. Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2002) suggest that organisations could ensure that a "comfortable" salary is paid to employees as well as by creating a comfortable working environment in an attempt to satisfy these level one needs.

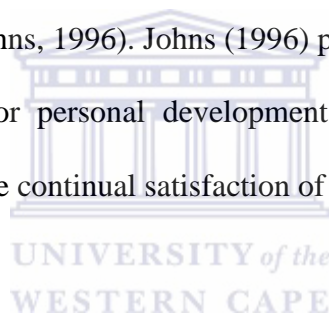


Safety and Security (Level 2): Schultz (2003) in Adams (2007) contends that individuals require feeling protected against both physical and emotional harm within the environment. Organisations must therefore provide a safe and ergonomically healthy working environment as per legislative and regulatory requirements. Grobler *et al.* (2002) further suggest appropriate salaries and benefits to be paid and increasing employees' levels of job satisfaction to meet level two needs.

Social Needs (Level 3): This is the first level of higher-order needs and includes affection, sense of belonging, association, affiliation and acceptance by others (Meyer & Kirsten, 2005 in Adams (2007)). Grobler *et al.* (2006) state that by fostering team work and close personal leadership this level of needs could be met.

Self-Respect and Esteem (Level 4): According to Robbins (1998) this is the level at which the psychological touch (intrinsic) and physical touch (extrinsic) needs are activated. Positive reinforcement programmes, providing symbols for recognition and by include lower level employees in strategic processes and decision making could serve as a means of satisfying these needs (Grobler *et al.*, 2002).

Self-Actualization (Level 5): Truth, beauty, justice, individuality, meaningfulness and perfection constitute the motivational factors that individuals strive for when they reach or are at this level of motivation (Johns, 1996). Johns (1996) proposes that organisations provide employees with opportunities for personal development as well as rewarding them for exceptional performance to ensure continual satisfaction of this level of needs.



The following are listed as reasons for its popularity amongst managers: its simplicity, clear implications, conditions are created in which employees' lower order needs are met thereby keeping them motivated or striving to reach their full potential and a clear pathway is provided towards self-actualization (Roberts, 2005).

Roberts (2005) further suggests that organisations rather focus on satisfying lower order or basic needs of employees first before developing or creating complex reward or recognition programmes. Dissatisfaction could occur amongst employees if their lower order or basic needs are not met first.

Even though the theory is extensively used, it is also widely criticized as lacking empirical evidence to substantiate the theory (De Cenzo & Robbins, 1998). Steers and Porter (1991) further concur by stating that no evidence supports the existence of five categories of needs being in any order as reflected in the hierarchy.

2.1.4.1.2 Alderfer's ERG theory

Johns (1996) lists that another needs-based theory, namely the Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG) theory which was developed by Alderfer. Maslow's five needs were collapsed into three levels, existence, relatedness and growth as depicted in figure 2.1 (Gordon, 1999). Spector (2000) further contends that Alderfer developed the ERG theory in an attempt to fix some of the difficulties experienced with Maslow's hierarchy of needs model. Greenberg and Baron (2000) purport that, unlike Maslow's model, the ERG theory is not necessarily activated in a specific order. It is also maintained that the ERG theory is much less restrictive than Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. According to Greenberg and Baron (2000) even though the two theorists Alderfer and Maslow, do not agree on the number of needs and the relationship amongst them, agreement is reached that satisfying human needs is an important motivational factor on the job.

The ERG theory is not arranged in a hierarchy but rather on a continuum, thereby allowing individuals to move back and forth from one category of need to another (Spector, 2000).

Maslow's physiological and safety needs make up the existence need of the ERG theory, relatedness corresponds with Maslow's belongingness and love and Maslow's esteem and self-actualisation corresponds with growth needs of the ERG theory (Gordon, 1999; Greenberg & Baron, 2000, Johns, 1996; & Robbins & Judge, 2007).

The three categories of the ERG theory are listed, defined and explained.

- (i) Existence needs;
- (ii) Relatedness needs; and
- (iii) Growth needs (Robbins, 1998).

EXISTENCE NEEDS



Johns (1996) states that some material substances or conditions are what satisfy existence needs. Similar to Maslow's physiological needs, these include needs such as food, shelter, pay and working conditions. Spector (2003, p. 191) further concurs by stating that existence needs "involve material objects as well as those that address physiological desires and the necessities for basic survival, such as food and water." Robbins (1998) maintains that this group of needs is concerned with delivering the basic material existence requirements.

RELATEDNESS NEEDS

This need is defined as the desire to maintain important interpersonal relationships (Robbins, 1998). Family members, friends, co-workers and supervisors are only some of the significant other people individuals strive to maintain relationships with under the relatedness needs (Spector, 2003). Johns (1996) further postulates that open communication and the exchange of feelings and thoughts with other organisational members is what satisfies this need. Alderfer further stresses that open, accurate and honest interaction is what satisfies this need rather than uncritical pleasantness.



GROWTH NEEDS

Spector (2003) states that here the individual is fully utilising the capabilities and is even developing new and additional ones. Creativity or productivity within oneself and in the environment is what is of importance with this group of needs. In the work setting this need is satisfied or fulfilled by strong personal involvement (Johns, 1996). “The full utilisation of one’s skills and abilities and the creative development of new skills and abilities” is what is involved here. Johns (1996) further postulates that growth needs correspond to Maslow’s self-actualisation and esteem needs, but only the needs concerning achievement and responsibility.

2.1.4.1.3 Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

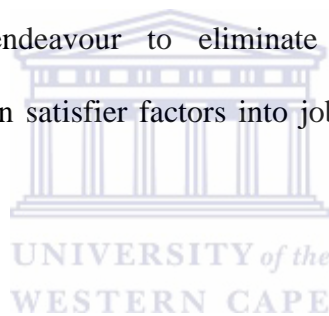
Job satisfaction has been significantly influenced by Herzberg's two factor theory (McWatts, 2005). Studies conducted by Herzberg (1966) amongst employees from various sectors established that a number of elements within the job as well as the job environment contributed to satisfaction or lack thereof. According to Nagy (n.d.) cited in Luddy (2005) "hygiene" and "motivator" factors are the two dimensions that form the framework of Herzberg's two factor theory.

If not present, the hygiene factors (also known as extrinsic factors) lead to dissatisfaction, but if present it will simply lead to a neutral position of job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1959 cited in Luddy, 2005). Supervision, interpersonal relations, benefits, job security, salary and working conditions are the job factors included under hygiene (extrinsic) factors. According to Herzberg, hygiene factors merely minimize dissatisfaction and do not motivate employees but rather serve as a departure point for motivation.

The satisfying motivator needs which relate to job tasks, the content of the job and other intrinsic aspects related to the job leads to job satisfaction, the absence thereof, however, leads to job dissatisfaction (Robbins, 1993). Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2003) state that Herzberg found that the intrinsic and extrinsic factors suggested that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction as previously hypothesized. The results of the investigation conducted revealed that "no satisfaction" (motivators) was the opposite of satisfaction and that "no dissatisfaction" (hygiene factors) was the opposite of dissatisfaction.

Limited empirical evidence for Herzberg's two factor theory exists as only Herzberg's unique method of critical interviews have been utilised to obtain or collect data (Nagy, n.d. as cited in Luddy, 2005). Other criticisms leveled at the theory are that it oversimplifies the construct of work motivation (Abdullah, 2002). Herzberg however still managed to extend Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and ensured that it was more applicable to work motivation.

According to Schermerhorn (1993) to gain an understanding of satisfaction and related issues of job performance Herzberg's two factor theory serves as an important point of reference for managers. Managers should endeavour to eliminate poor hygiene sources of job dissatisfaction thereby building in satisfier factors into job content resulting in maximizing opportunities for job satisfaction.



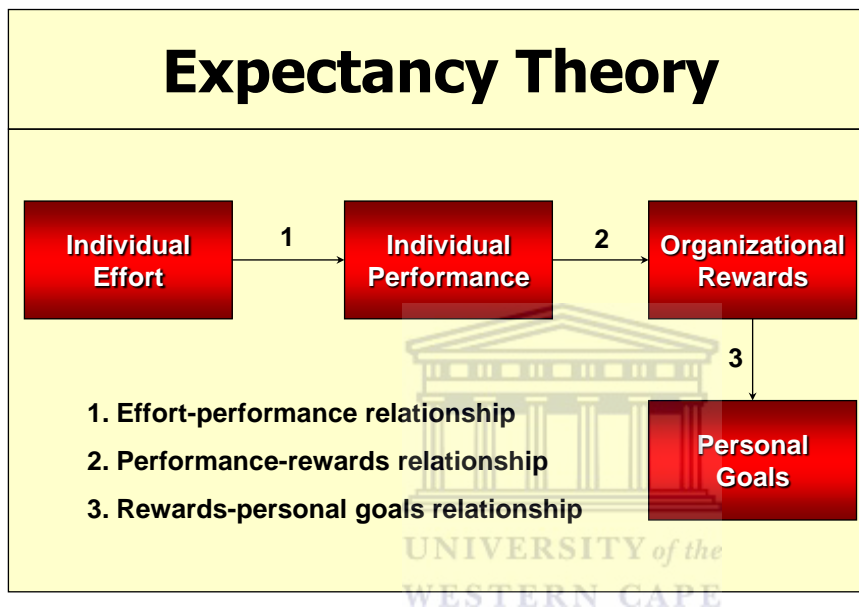
2.1.4.2 Process Theories

2.1.4.2.1 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

The simplicity of Maslow's Hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's two factor theory troubled Vroom who constructed a model which constituted the concepts of valence (V), instrumentality (I) and expectancy (E) (Abdullah, 2002). Vroom's theory is also known as the VIE theory which explains the scope of motivation as a process governing choices amongst

various forms of voluntary activity. The VIE theory, as reflected in figure 2.4, states that individuals or employees voluntarily control most of their behaviours.

Figure 2.4: Expectancy theory



Source: Robbins (1998).

According to Dessler (1988), the outcome value should be high and individuals or employees need to believe that the task being undertaken is achievable and that it will lead to the predicted outcome. These are the two factors which shall determine the level of motivation derived or achieved. Luthans (2002) therefore believes that Vroom established a link between expectation and task accomplishment and the probability of recognition. Individuals believe

that the amount of effort exerted will result in a certain level of performance or reward and this is what expectancy refers to (Nel, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono & Werner, 2004).

Bottomley (1987) criticizes the theory as follows by stating that Vroom failed to convert motivation to perform an act into the actual performance of that act. Dessler (1988) however states that no matter the criticisms, empirical evidence supports Vroom's expectancy theory.

2.1.4.2.2 Equity Theory

Dessler (1988) defines the equity theory of motivation as individuals displaying a strong desire to strike a balance between perceived inputs or contributions and expected rewards. The effort individuals put into their work (that is inputs) are compared to what they get out (that is outputs). This is called the input-outcome balance and individuals compare their input-outcome ratio to those of others to determine their levels of job satisfaction. If the input-outcome ratio is equal to those individuals with whom they are comparing themselves then equity is achieved as well as job satisfaction (Robbins, 1993). Robbins (1993) further clarifies by stating that when perceived equity exist satisfaction occurs and when perceived inequity exist dissatisfaction arise.

Robbins (1998) elaborates on the theory by stating that equity exists when an individual's job inputs compared to their job outputs in relation to others are equivalent (cf. figure 2.5). Fairness is thus said to exist when this situation occurs. Previous jobs held by employees,

friends, neighbours, co-workers, colleagues in other organisations are all possible relations employees might assess themselves against. Robbins and Judge (2007) agree with the above by stating that job inputs (such as their contribution, experience, education and competence) are utilised by employees when drawing comparisons between their outputs (that is salary levels, salary increases and recognition) in relation to others.

Figure 2.5: Equity theory

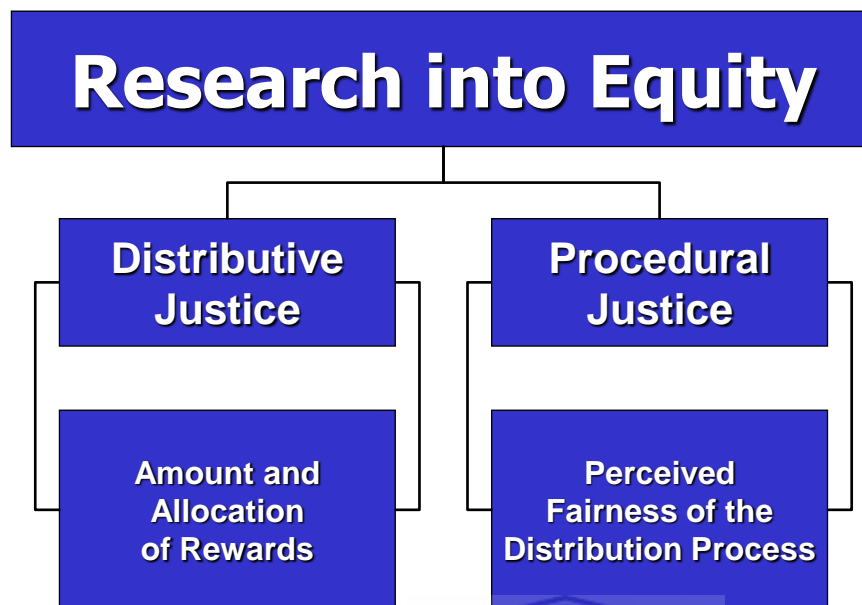
Equity Theory	
Ratio Comparison*	Employee's Perception
$\frac{\text{Outcomes A}}{\text{Inputs A}} < \frac{\text{Outcomes B}}{\text{Inputs B}}$	Inequity (Under-Rewarded)
$\frac{\text{Outcomes A}}{\text{Inputs A}} = \frac{\text{Outcomes B}}{\text{Inputs B}}$	Equity
$\frac{\text{Outcomes A}}{\text{Inputs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

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

Source: Robbins (1998).

Dessler (1988) in Luddy (2005) states that when employees perceive that they are under-rewarded in relation to others or over-rewarded in relation to their job outputs, inequity is said to exist.

Figure 2.6: Research into Equity Theory



Source: Robbins (1998)



Therefore being of the opinion that they are being underpaid employees would probably contribute less in the workplace. On the other hand, employees would probably increase their contributions if they believe the job pays well for the outputs being delivered (cf. figure 2.6).

2.1.5 Factors/Variables Affecting Job Satisfaction

Volkwein, Malik and Napierski-Prancl (1998) state that a number of factors contribute to job satisfaction, but these authors specifically draw attention to Herzberg’s two factor theory that differentiates between intrinsic factors such as feelings of accomplishment, recognition and

autonomy and extrinsic factors such pay, security and physical working conditions on the other hand. As mentioned before the following are the factors that will be covered in this research topic namely; remuneration (pay), work content, recognition, promotion, benefits, and supervision, working, personal and general conditions.

2.1.5.1 Work Content

The degree to which the job provides individual employees with stimulating tasks, personal growth and learning opportunities, responsibility and are held accountable for results, is what (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2003) view as the work itself or work content. When employees engage in tasks that are mentally and physically stimulating it is said that those employees derive satisfaction from the work itself (Lacey, 1994). Johns (1996) opposes this view by stating that some employees rather prefer less challenging, demanding, stimulating and repetitive jobs.

The nature of the work executed by employees is seen to significantly impact the level of job satisfaction (Luthans, 1992). Volkwein and Parmley (2000) postulate that employees from the public sector primarily derive job satisfaction from the social aspects of their jobs and secondarily from the work or work content itself. Locke (1995) postulates that employee job satisfaction is dependent on satisfaction with the job components, such as the work itself.

Empirical research completed on employees in a management information systems environment discovered that a statistically significant relationship exists between work content and job satisfaction do exist (Vitell & Davis, 1990). Research further suggests that the work content variable can result in either job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Oshagbemi, 1999).

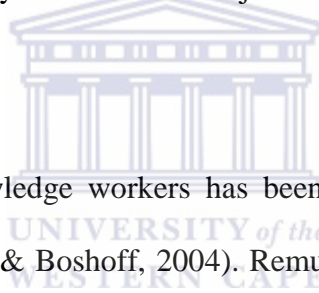
2.1.5.2 Remuneration (Pay)

Smith, Kendall and Hulin, (1969) define pay as the financial compensation received and to what extent it is perceived to be equitable. Luthans (1998) concurs with this definition of pay and further adds that it is a complex and multidimensional factor in job satisfaction. Further, salaries do not only ensure the attainment of basic level needs, but are also considered influential in fulfilling the higher levels of needs. Empirical research has revealed monetary compensation to be a major variable contributing to job satisfaction (Voydanoff, 1980). Taylor and West (1992) further found via their research that when public sector managers compared their salaries to their counterparts in the private sector, significantly lower levels of job satisfaction were experienced.

Boone and Kuntz (1992) postulate that the main objectives of any compensation system should be to commensurately, fairly, adequately and reasonably compensate employees for their efforts and inputs offered to the organisation. Benefit items such as medical aid contributions, provident and pension fund schemes, bonuses, paid leave and for more senior

level staff member's car, fuel and entertainment allowances are also to be included in employee's compensation packages.

According to Bassett (1994) empirical research suggests a lack of evidence that pay alone neither improves job satisfaction nor reduces dissatisfaction. The author contends that the nature of an individual's job, even though that employee is well paid, could still lead to dissatisfaction if the employee cannot enter a more satisfying job. Further research conducted in the public sector found no relationship between pay and satisfaction (Young, Worchel & Woehr, 1998). Similarly another study conducted amongst postdoctoral researchers found a very weak association between pay and benefits and job satisfaction (Brainard, 2005).



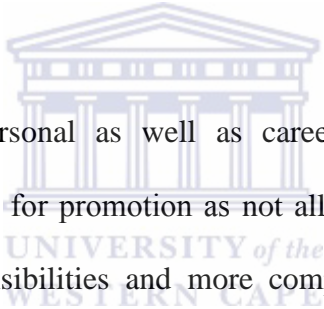
A significant influence on knowledge workers has been found to exist in terms of both reward and recognition (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004). Remuneration is viewed as an indicator as to how the organisation values its employees. Nel *et al.* (2004) also state that employees compare themselves to others in terms of the inputs offered to the organisation for the relevant outputs received.

2.1.5.3 Promotion

Job satisfaction is likely to be influenced by the promotional opportunities available or granted to employees (Moorhead & Griffin, 1998). Increased responsibility, social standing

and opportunities for personal growth are achievable through promotional opportunities (Robbins, 1998).

When employees' expectations of future prospects are good, it is believed that many of them experience job satisfaction (Drafke & Kossen, 2002). This could lead to personal growth or promotional opportunities within the current organisation or the possibility of alternate employment in another organisation. The authors uphold the view that job satisfaction may decrease if individuals feel limited in terms of their career advancement or development opportunities.



Visser (1990) contends that personal as well as career aspirations will determine an individual's capacity or readiness for promotion as not all employees wish to be promoted. Promotion entails greater responsibilities and more complex tasks for which individuals might not be prepared, therefore leading to higher stress levels resulting in a decrease in job satisfaction.

2.1.5.4 Recognition

Locke (1976) as found that being praised for work is valued by most employees, and has also been found to be the single most frequently cited variable to be associated with satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Gruneberg (1979) postulates those tangible methods such as promotions and

salary increases or verbal ones, such as praise can be offered as ways of recognizing employees for their inputs and efforts.

Gruneberg (1979) speculates that sooner rather than later, many individuals require external validation (recognition) for their achievements for satisfaction to be sustained. Individuals' self-esteem is increased as success leads to a series of externally validated rewards, thereby increasing job satisfaction levels whereas failure to recognise or verbally praise, could lead to dissatisfaction.

2.1.5.5 Working Conditions



Matching employees' physical needs with their working conditions in part determines their levels of job satisfaction (Landy, 1989). Working conditions that are exceptionally good or exceptionally poor for example are said to likely have a significant effect on job satisfaction (Vorster, 1992). Luthans (1992); Visser (1990) and Vorster (1992) posit that manifestations of underlying problems are usually the cause for employees complaining about their working conditions. Resource allocations more often than not affect working conditions which in turn results in employees levels of job satisfaction being affected (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002).

In the United Kingdom, a study was undertaken to determine job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction at an institution of higher learning and this study revealed the importance of working conditions in effecting employees' levels of satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 1997). A

comparative study between academics and their managers revealed that working conditions lead to a significantly higher level of job satisfaction for the managers than that of the academics (Oshagbemi, 1999). It was found that big offices and sophisticated equipment and so on that formed part of a manager's appointment privileges, could have led to higher levels of job satisfaction compared to academics. This however, could not justify why support staff in Turkey experienced higher levels of job satisfaction compared to academics (Küskü, 2003).

2.1.5.6 Supervision

Empirical research suggests that when supervisors provide support and co-operate with employees to complete their tasks, high levels of job satisfaction are likely to be achieved (Ting, 1997). Further empirical research conducted by Koustelios (2001); Peterson, Puia and Suess (2003); Smucker, Whisenaut and Pederson (2003) positively associate job satisfaction and supervision. Billingsley and Cross (1992) and Cramer (1993) concur having found similar results in their research. The above authors posit that dissatisfaction with management supervision results in or is a significant predictor of job dissatisfaction. Staudt (1997) indicated that social workers who reported satisfaction with supervision also reported satisfaction with their jobs in general.

Research conducted by Packard and Kauppi (1999) demonstrated that managers with a democratic management style achieved higher levels of job satisfaction amongst employees than did managers with an autocratic or laissez-faire management styles. Bassett (1994)

contends that managers, who display a human and considerate attitude towards their employees, contribute towards the levels of job satisfaction of their employees.

2.1.6 Antecedents of Job Satisfaction

It is argued that job satisfaction levels can only be increased by organisations and the subsequent benefits thereof reaped once the factors which are causing and influence this attitude are identified (Straw, 1995). Satisfaction is said to be both a function of the person as well as the environment within which the person operates. The current research will only be focussing on intrinsic factors determining job satisfaction which include, age, tenure, educational level and gender.

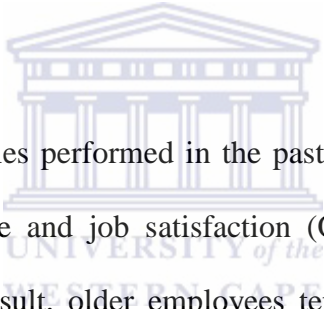


2.1.6.1 Personal Determinants

Certain personal or demographic characteristics have shown to influence job satisfaction in a plethora of studies. These personal or demographic characteristics which will be included in this study includes, age, tenure, educational level and gender.

2.1.6.1.1 Age

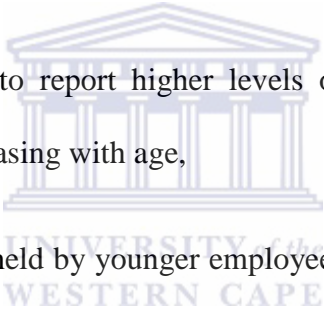
Trimble (2006) postulates that the job satisfaction and age relationship has proved elusive. Numerous researchers have found age and job satisfaction to be uncorrelated (Bedeian, Ferris, & Kacmer, 1992; Bilgiç, 1998; Decker & Borgen, 1993) yet while others found a U-shaped relationship between the two indicating that younger and older employees are more satisfied than those of an intermittent age (Clark, Oswald, & Warr, 1996; Hochwarter, Ferris, Perrewé, Witt, & Kiewitz, 2001; Kacmar & Ferris, 1989;). This therefore results in the relationship between age and job satisfaction being unclear.



A wide variety of empirical studies performed in the past fifty years have acknowledged a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction (Okpara, 2006). Kh Metle (2003) continues by stating that as a result, older employees tend to report higher levels of job satisfaction compared to younger employees. It was discovered by researchers that older employees were more likely to balance personal needs and jobs or organisations compared to younger employees. A more cognitive justification to remain with the organisation was demonstrated by older employees due to the limited employment opportunities as well as greater costs of leaving the current employer compared to younger employees. Due to these more positive attitudes, for example, satisfaction with their jobs are developed by older employees (Lewis, 1991).

In a study conducted involving 554 university teachers Oshagbemi, (1997) reports a positive correlation between age and job satisfaction. The author further provides the following evidence to support this relationship; academics younger than 35 years of age reported the lowest levels of satisfaction, followed closely by academics aged between 35 and 44 years. The most satisfied group of academics was aged above 55 years.

Numerous explanations may be exhibited for the positive correlation between an employee's age and job satisfaction:

- 
- Employees are more likely to report higher levels of job satisfaction as a result of prestige and confidence increasing with age,
 - Higher expectations may be held by younger employees and may remain unfulfilled due to jobs proving insufficiently challenging or meaningful,
 - In certain cases, young university or college graduates may be overqualified for specific jobs or positions,
 - In sharp contrast to what young employees may previously have experienced at home or in school demonstrate insufficient control or authority over their work.

- The likelihood that older employees might have found jobs with which they are more content is great, in comparison to younger employees.

- Other factors such as, family, friends and involvement in civic organisations will probably take on a greater function as employees age instead of just focussing on employment for overall satisfaction (Hellman, 1997; Lambert, Hogan, Barton, & Lubbock, 2001; Luthans, 1992).

2.1.6.1.2 Tenure



Lim, Teo, and Thayer (1998) define tenure as the length of time for which an employee worked for an organisation. Tenure and job satisfaction are positively related (Bedeian *et al.*, 1992).

Feinstein and Vondrasek (n.d.) on the other hand found tenure to have a significant effect on the level of general satisfaction. The authors continue by stating that tenure displayed a significant effect on a number of the facets of job satisfaction.

Employees who remained with one organisation for an extended period of time, exhibited higher levels of job satisfaction compared to those individuals who job hopped (Oshagbemi,

2000). Chambers (1999) concurs by establishing that employees were more satisfied with the work itself and the level of pay remained for longer with the organisation. It is possible that benefits such as security and experience increase with time resulting in an important influence on employee satisfaction.

However, boredom could result from longer tenure leading to lower levels of job satisfaction (Savery, 1996 cited in Sarker, Crossman, & Chinmeteeptuck, 2003). Clark *et al.* (1996) similarly maintain that increased levels of job satisfaction do not necessarily result from longer tenure. External labour market conditions and low job mobility are cited as possible factors which could contribute to lower levels of job satisfaction.

Lambert *et al.* (2001) continue by arguing that an inverse relationship exists between tenure and satisfaction. Both inconsistency and inconclusiveness is cited in the literature as possible reasons in this regard based on how the specific organisations view tenure. Senior employees are highly respected in some organisations while in others, tenure is viewed as a liability.

2.1.6.1.3 Educational Level

Rogers (1991) maintains that numerous researchers discovered a positive association between educational levels and job satisfaction. This implies that when the duties performed are in line with the educational levels of employees, better educated employees are inclined to

experience higher levels of job satisfaction (Battu, Belfield, & Sloane, 1999; Jones, Scarpello, & Bergmann, 1999).

Kh Metle (2003) purports that no consistent pattern was found in studies conducted on the relationship between the level of education and job satisfaction. Crossman and Abou-Zaki (2003) conducted an investigation amongst Lebanese banking sector employees and discovered weak, albeit not statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and educational level.

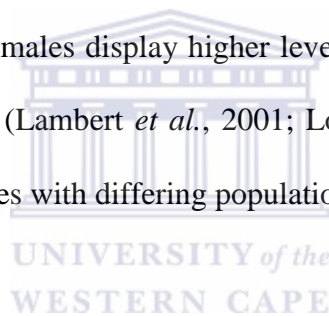
Loscocco (1990) discovered in a study conducted that education exerted a significantly negative impact on the levels of job satisfaction for women but not for men. Educational experiences are different for women than men and this could probably explain the above mentioned result. The author continues by stating that job satisfaction will be negatively impacted if these expectations remain unfulfilled.

Belt (2002) conducted a study amongst call centre agents and found that those agents with qualifications are inclined to move onto jobs which exhibit better prospects. The author further surmises that well educated, young middle class and single employees from both gender groups and even more so, university graduates tend to move quickly out of the call centre environment. Graduates tend to have higher expectations of the possible jobs or careers they could possibly achieve.

2.1.6.1.4 Gender

It has become imperative to understand how men and women differ in job attitudes since the influx of women into the workplace has increased (Booyesen, 2008). Attempting to explain the gender-job satisfaction relationship has sparked a growing interest amongst numerous researchers. It has, however, been found that research in this regard has not been consistent. Males are reported more satisfied in some research, while others still further surmise that females are more satisfied (Booyesen, 2008).

Numerous studies suggest that females display higher levels of job satisfaction compared to males across most work settings (Lambert *et al.*, 2001; Loscocco, 1990; Ma & MacMillan, 1999). Furthermore, several studies with differing populations support the above argument.



Women's satisfaction has reportedly declined substantially in the past two decades while men's has subsequently remained fairly constant (Souza-Poza, 2003). Murray and Atkinson (1981) argue that females attach more importance to social factors while males tend to place greater value on aspects such as pay, advancement and other extrinsic components. In support of the above, a difference was discovered between males and females in terms of job dimensions which impact on job satisfaction. The results determined that males showed a higher satisfaction with remuneration and females tended to demonstrate higher satisfaction with co-workers (Tang & Talpade, 1999).

Women still generally report higher levels of satisfaction compared to men even though women's jobs are notably and often significantly worse than men's in terms of job security and content, promotional opportunities and sexual harassment (Clark, 1997).

2.1.7 Job Satisfaction in a Higher Education Context

Job satisfaction research, in the higher education context primarily focused on faculties (Austin & Gamson, 1983). Hagedorn (1994) applied a casual model on faculty employees at various stages of career development and determined that satisfaction with their salary, total working hours as well as support from their colleagues impinged on individuals' levels of stress, thereby impacted the levels of job satisfaction. Volkwein, Malik and Napierski-Prancl (1998) found the best indicators of job satisfaction were the perceptions of teamwork and interpersonal work stress.

Amongst mid-level administrators it found the best explanatory variables of job satisfaction to be the perceptions of recognition, discrimination, external relations and mobility (Johnsrud & Rosser, 1999). The current study however, will only look at the following variables in determining job satisfaction namely: pay, work content, recognition, promotion, benefits, and supervision, working, personal and general conditions.

2.1.8 Organisational Perspective

Volkwein and Parmley (2000) state that in general organisational literature anticipates an array of campus and environmental characteristics to significantly exert influences on the workplace. Aldrich (1979); Hall (1995); Lawrence and Lorsch (1967); Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) further state that perspectives from the organisation theory emphasize the importance of the organisation's structure and its environment. Empirical evidence suggests that colleges or universities no matter how small or large demonstrated that their missions, size, wealth, complexity and selectivity extensively influence a variety of internal transactions and outcomes (Austin & Gamson, 1983; Hall, 1995; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991; Volkwein *et al.*, 1998).

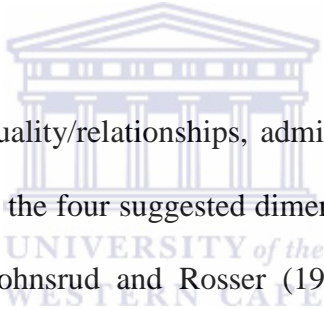


It is believed by researchers and accrediting bodies alike that satisfied employees are produced by effective organisations (Volkwein & Zhou, 2003). Cameron (1978) further believes that employee satisfaction is increasingly being utilised as a gauge for organisational effectiveness. Administrators' perceptions could possibly further be influenced by occurrence of trade or labour unions (Volkwein & Zhou, 2003). The organisational culture, philosophy, climate and outcomes of the work environment were found to be viewed or perceived more negatively by union affiliated staff members as opposed to non-union members (Vander Putten, McLendon & Peterson, 1997).

Higher education literature noted that the climate and values between those parts of the professional organisation which engaged in teaching and research (academic affairs) versus

those considered to be more bureaucratic and engaged in support functions (that is business and finance, personnel and student services) were found to be strikingly different (Birnbaum, 1988; Etzioni, 1964; Mintzberg, 1979 & Volkwein, 1999).

Johnsrud (2002) states that the collective administrative workforce at an institution of higher learning may reflect a particular organisational climate even when individual employees perceptions vary significantly. Hagedorn (2000) further adds to this by stating that similar characteristics, interests and responsibilities can be formed by subcultures of employees from various administrative departments or units.



Collegial relationships, student quality/relationships, administrative relationships as well as institutional climate or culture are the four suggested dimensions which influence faculty job satisfaction (Hagedorn, 2000). Johnsrud and Rosser (1999) recognized that nine factors contributed to the morale of midlevel administrative employees. The following four were listed as the most important ones namely perceptions regarding recognition, discrimination, external relations and mobility.

2.1.9 Individual Perspective

Research amongst managers of both colleges and universities suggests that a number of personal as well as organisational variables tend to exert influences on their levels of job

satisfaction (Volkwein & Parmley, 2000). Spector (1997) includes physical and mental health as some of the personal characteristics.

Research further suggests that the following personal characteristics directly impact job satisfaction age, retirement proximity, sex or gender, level of education, length of service, administrative rank and administrative area (Austin, 1985; Austin & Gamson, 1983; Bamundo & Kopelin, 1980; Glick, 1992; Hagedorn, 1996; Lee & Wilbur, 1985 Martin & Shehan, 1989; & Solomon & Tierney, 1977;).

2.1.10 Conclusion



Institutions of higher learning are continually undergoing change as a result of legislation, internal restructuring, trade union action and new management. The requirement pressures are therefore that these institutions produce a more competent and highly motivated workforce (McWatts, 2005). Therefore it is becoming essential for these institutions to determine which factors impact on the satisfaction of their non-academic staff members.

On review of the literature, it is evident that job satisfaction has been extensively researched and it is considered imperative for both employees and organisations alike. The literature therefore concludes by saying that job satisfaction is relevant to ensure employees physical and psychological health and for organisational productivity.

2.2 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

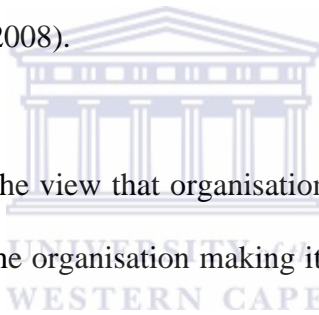
2.2.1 Introduction

An increasingly important challenge for organisations is that of employee retention as the age of knowledge workers unfolds (Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane & Ferreira, 2011). Highly committed and engaged employees are required by an organisation to have a sustained competitive advantage in the product and labour markets (Joo & Park, 2009). Lesabe and Nkosi (2007) concur that in today's highly competitive world, no organisation can perform at peak levels unless each and every employee is totally committed to the organisation's objectives and strategic goals. Greenberg and Baron (2000, p. 183) state that "people who feel deeply committed to their organisations behave differently than those who do not." According to Rubin and Brody (2005) organisational commitment is considered vital for both organisations as well as the country as committed employees are inclined to put in more effort than their uncommitted counterparts. Retention of these valuable and skilled employees is of extreme importance to employers to guarantee the organisation's performance and success (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2008).

In historically black colleges and universities a dearth of empirical research exists regarding organisational commitment in institutions of higher learning (Brown & Gaylor, n.d.). Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) called for more work examining organisational commitment across divergent samples and demographics. It is against this backdrop that the current research study will endeavour to address these issues.

2.2.2 Defining organisational commitment

According to Mowday et. al., (1982) it becomes apparent that little consensus exists with respect to the meaning of the term organisational commitment. Iverson and Buttigieg (1998) concur by stating that much disagreement still exists amongst various researches regarding the definition of organisational commitment. Lumley (2010) further states that considerable interest has been attracted in attempting to clarify and understand the intensity and stability of an employee's dedication to an organisation. A common theme emerged across all deviations that organisational commitment is considered to be a bond or linkage of an individual to an organisation despite the lack of consensus on the various definitions, conceptualisations and measurements (Martin & Roodt, 2008).



Allen and Meyer (1990) proffer the view that organisational commitment is a psychological link between the individual and the organisation making it less likely that the individual will leave voluntarily. Personal sacrifices, performances beyond normal expectations, working selflessly and contributions to the organisations overall effectiveness are all aspects that are made by committed employees. Organisational commitment is defined as one who stays with the organisation through thick and thin, attends work regularly, puts in a full (and maybe more), protects company assets, share company goals and so on (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Organisational commitment has also been defined as the way in which employees act to meet the organisations interest as a result of the totality of internalised normative pressure (Wiener, 1982).

Robbins (1998); Greenberg and Baron (2000); Robbins and Judge (2007), define organisational commitment as the degree to which employees identify with the organisation

and its goals and want to remain in that organisation. Johns (1996) is concerned with the linkage or relationship between employees and an organisation and the strength of that linkage or relationship. Johns (1996) further states that researches Meyer and Allen (1997) identified three different types of organisational commitment. In more recent times Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) developed a three-component conception of commitment. The three different types of organisational commitment identified are:

- (i) Affective commitment
- (ii) Continuance commitment,
- (iii) Normative commitment.

A detailed description of the three types or components of commitment and their finer details will be provided.

2.2.2.1 Affective Commitment



Bergman (2006) advocates that the most widely studied component of organisational commitment is affective commitment. According to Boshoff, van Wyk, Hoole and Owen (2002) affective commitment appears rather similar to what Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) defined as attitudinal commitment. Porter *et al.* (1974) defined attitudinal commitment as reflecting an employee's identification and involvement in a specific organisation and which consisted of the following three aspects; (i) accepting and believing in an organisation's goals and values, (ii) willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation to achieve its aims and goals, and (iii) expressing a desire to maintain membership in a specific organisation.

Allen and Meyer (1990) define affective commitment as the employee's emotional attachment to and identification and involvement with an organisation. Affective commitment develops when an employee becomes involved in, recognizes the value-relevance of and derives identity from the organisation due to the employee's attachment to social relationships and that of the organisation (Smeenk, Teelken, Eisinga & Dorewaard, 2009). Perryer *et al.* (2010, p. 913) summarise affective commitment succinctly as "an attachment based on a sharing of values with other members of the organisation". Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007) postulate that affective commitment is a state which arises from a sense of emotional attachment.

Viljoen and Rothmann (2009) maintain that employee's with high levels of affective commitment remain with the organisation because they want to do so. Borghei, Jandaghi, Matin and Dastani (2010) concur by stating that employees of a specific organisation with a strong sense of affective commitment towards the organisation will choose to remain a member of that organisation because they want to. Mowday *et al.* (1982); Meyer and Allen (1991) further advocate that affective commitment stems from work experiences which satisfy employees' needs to feel comfortable within the organisation and in turn contribute to the employee's feelings of competence in the work role.

It was found in numerous studies that affective commitment declines in the first year of employment (Meyer & Allen, 1987, 1988; Mowday *et al.*, 1982). Unrealistic expectations are what new employees enter the organisation with, thereby leading to the decline in affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1993). According to Xu and Bassham (2010) many employees leave the organisation during this early period. Mowday *et al.* (1982) contend that a precedent is set for future work experiences as a result of the development of affective commitment

during this early period. The plethora of research studies suggest that desirable outcomes such as retention, attendance and performance are strongly linked to affective commitment and it is the most consistent as well in terms of the relationship (Bergman, 2006; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

2.2.2.2 Continuance Commitment

Becker (1960) asserts that continuance commitment is derived from the “side bets” theory, which refers to the employees’ sacrifices such as losing seniority or pension benefits on terminating employment. The employee therefore becomes aware of the costs associated with departing the organisation. The cost associated with leaving the organisation is what is referred to as continuance commitment (Durham, Grube & Castaneda, 1994). Shaw, Delerey and Abdullah (2003) cited in Gunlu, Aksarayi Percin (2010) state that extraneous interest such as pensions, and family concerns are why an employee is committed under continuance commitment and not because of a general positive feeling. Smeenk *et al.* (2009, p. 594) define continuance commitment as the commitment which “involves social roles and positions from which individuals derive their perception of the costs associated with leaving the organisation and the rewards related to participation in the organisation.” Ahmad, Shahzad, Rehman, Khan and Shad (2010) and Lahiry (1994) concur by stating that it is the employee’s perception of the cost associated with leaving a job in the organisation. Perryer *et al.* (2010) define the term as an employees’ perception of not having a realistic choice or viable alternative other than to remain with the organisation.

Becker (1960) claim that employees believe they have to stay with an organisation if they have a strong affinity for continuance commitment. When the cost of leaving the organisation is simply too high because the employees' primary link to the organisation is based on strong continuance commitment, the employees will elect to stay (Meyer & Allen, 1997). All things being equal, do not expect that such employees will demonstrate a particularly strong desire to contribute to the success of the organisation.

Continuance commitment is the cost such as reduction in pay, pension, benefits or facilities with which the employee associates when leaving the organisation (Hebiniak & Alluto, 1972). Meyer and Allen (1997) hypothesise that any action taken by management or any organisational event which increases the cost of leaving the organisation leads to the development of continuance commitment.

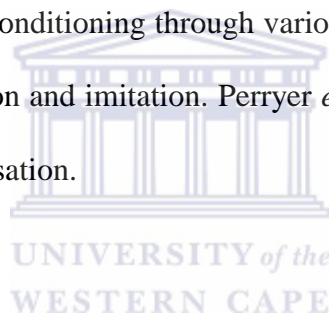
Meyer *et al.*, (2004) suggest that those employees with high levels of continuance commitment perceive their options as limited and would therefore be motivated to only satisfy the minimum requirements of employment, for example, minimise work attendance and task performance to ensure maintaining the job.

2.2.2.3 Normative Commitment

Spector (2000; 2003) states that normative commitment is commitment which originates from an employee's values. Further to this, remain with an organisation out of a sense that it is the correct thing to do due to the feeling that they owe it to the organisation. Greenberg and Baron (2000) state that employees elect to stay with the organisation as a result of feeling

obliged because of the pressures of others. As a result of moral and ethical reasons, the employee may feel obliged to remain with the organisation (Robbins & Judge, 2007). An example of normative commitment is that the employee would feel that leaving the organisation would be letting down the employer if that employee was spearheading a new initiative or project.

Meyer and Allen (1991) define normative commitment as the organisational pressures placed on the employee to remain with the organisation as a result of organisational obligations. Wiener (1982) proposes that this form of commitment is learnt from family, one's culture or the organisation in the shape of conditioning through various ways for example; rewards and punishment or through observation and imitation. Perryer *et al.* (2010) define it succinctly as a sense of obligation to an organisation.



Meyer and Allen (1991) further postulate that those with strong normative commitment remain with the organisation because they feel they ought to do so. Smeenk *et al.* (2009) advocate that this form of commitment concentrates on the internalisation of values, norms and inner convictions of employees. Allen and Meyer (1996) cited in Smeenk *et al.* (2009) further aver that a positive, negative and even no relationship appears to exist with normative commitment and job performance in numerous research studies. According to Meyer and Allen (1991) normative commitment is the one least known about of the three forms of organisational commitment.

2.2.3 Antecedents of Organisational Commitment

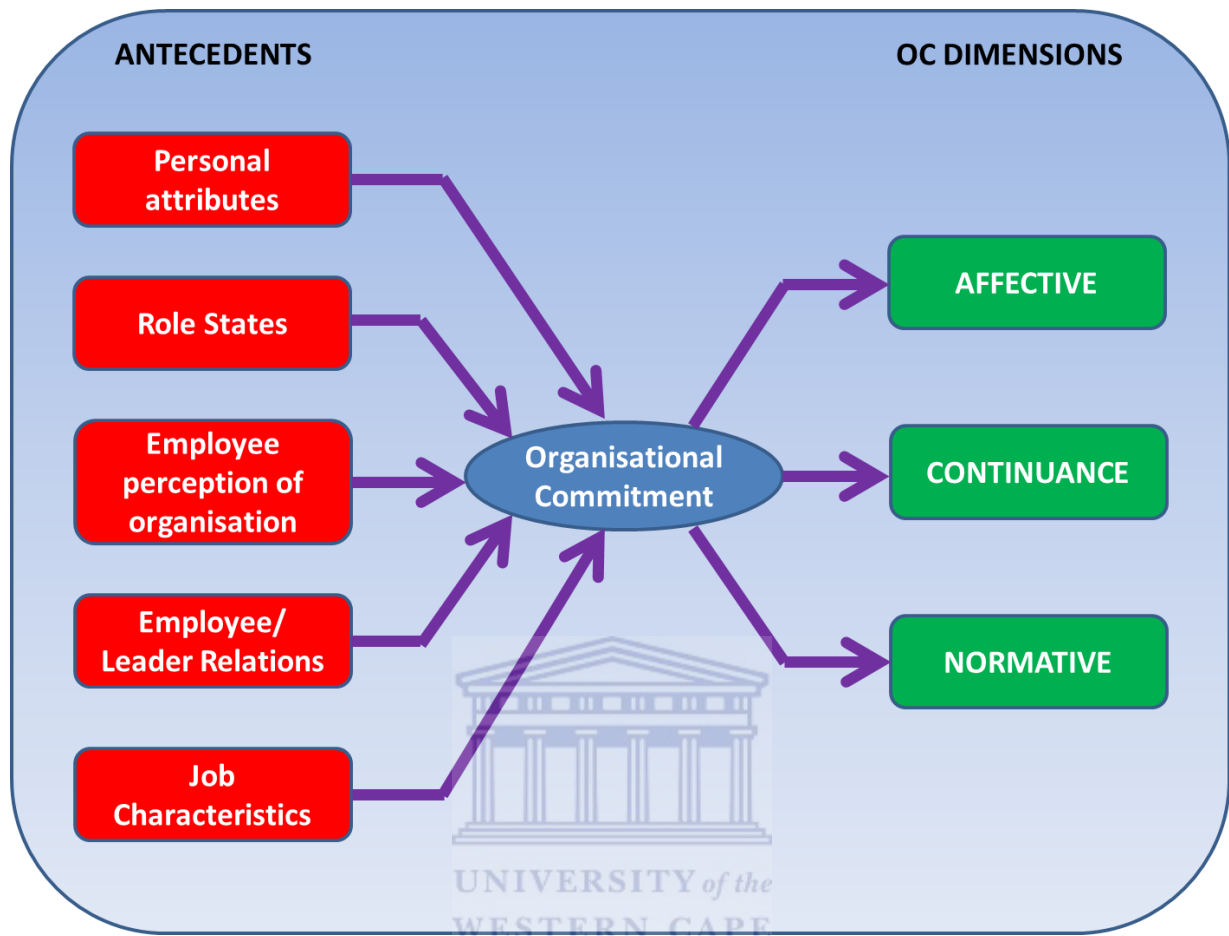
The topic of organisational commitment is represented by a rich collection of findings when surveying empirical studies with regards to the antecedents and consequences of the construct (Porter et. al., 1982). Personal characteristics, job or role related characteristics and work experiences were the three categories suggested to have a major influence over organisational commitment. This study however will only elaborate on the one category namely personal determinants.

2.2.3.1 Personal determinants



According to Porter *et al.* (1982) a plethora of studies have measured the effects of age, tenure, educational level, gender, race and numerous other personal characteristics on organisational commitment. Bakalis and Joiner (2006) further conclude that one of the most commonly tested antecedents of organisational commitment has been personal or demographic characteristics. The personal characteristics included in the current study are age, tenure, gender, race, and educational level. On closing investigation of figure 2.6 a number of antecedents influence organisational commitment resulting in an effect on the various dimensions of organisational commitment. The current study will only be looking at the effect of one of the groups of antecedents namely personal attributes. The above mentioned personal characteristics are included in this specific group of antecedents.

Figure 2.7: Relationships between the Antecedents and Organisational Commitment



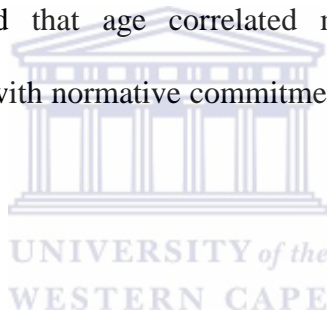
Source: Camilleri (2005)

2.2.3.1.1 Age

A study conducted by Bull (2005) found a statistically significant relationship between age and organisational commitment amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape. Mcwatts (2005) conducted a study amongst academics and non-academics at a tertiary institution in the Western Cape which support the above findings. The study conducted by Brimeyer, Perrucci and MacDermaid Wadsworth (2010) for a sample of unionised factory

workers manufacturing plastic bags also found age to be a significant determinant of organisational commitment.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) established a medium positive correlation between age and organisational commitment through conducting a full meta-analysis. Similarly Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2001) conducted a meta-analysis and found a positive, although weak correlation between age and all three forms of commitment. The studies by Meyer *et al.* (2001) (conducted within and outside North America) revealed and highlighted some interesting differences when being compared. The studies conducted outside North America showed that age correlated more strongly with continuance commitment while less strongly with normative commitment compared to the results attained within North America.



Chughtai and Zafar (2006) conducted a study amongst Pakistani university teachers and found that age was not related to organisational commitment. Bashir and Ramay (2008) similarly found a very weak and insignificant correlation between age and organisational commitment in a study conducted on information technology professionals in Pakistan. According to Yew (n.d.) age did not have a direct influence or a significant correlation on affective, continuance and normative commitment when researching employees in the tourism industry in Sarawak, Malaysia.

Iqbal's (2010) findings are consistent with the above mentioned research as the study conducted amongst employees in the Pakistani knitwear industry also yielded no significant correlation between age and organisational commitment. Döckel *et al.* (2006) also concurs by stating that age had no correlation with any of the organisational commitment components. Iqbal (2010) postulates that there are many reasons for the findings mentioned above, but the most obvious is the high employee turnover experienced in the knitwear industry in Pakistan.

2.2.3.1.2 Tenure

Sinclair, Martin and Michel (1999) define tenure as the length of time since the employee had joined the organisation. Mowday *et al.* (1982) implies that according to previous research tenure is one of the strongest predictors of commitment. The authors further state that a number of explanations exist as to why continued employment is a strong influence on the development of commitment.

A study conducted by Iqbal (2010) in the knitwear industry in Pakistan found a significantly positive correlation between organisational commitment and length of service. Lin and Fong (2009) found in the study conducted amongst salespersons in the retailing services industry that organisational commitment and tenure showed a significant and positive effect on continuance commitment. Camilleri (n.d.) concurs in the study conducted on public sector employees with the bivariate correlation showing a positive correlation between

organisational commitment and tenure. The dimensions' of affective and normative commitment were further also found to have a strong positive correlation with tenure.

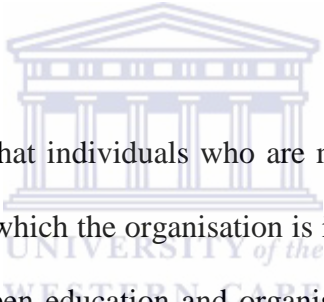
Tenure related differences in job status and quality or alternatively, attempts on the part of senior employees to justify having remained with the organisation for so long, are seen as possible reasons for the positive relation between commitment and tenure (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Döckel *et al.* (2006) however found to the contrary as tenure displayed no correlation with any of the commitment components, and for this reason excluded it from the multiple linear regression model. No relationship between organisational commitment and tenure was found in a study conducted amongst personnel in the Central Organisation for the Ministry of health in turkey (Uygur & Kilic, 2009).

According to Bashir and Ramay (2008) tenure was also included in the correlation analysis of the study conducted amongst information technology professionals but demonstrated a very weak and insignificant relationship with organisational commitment. The study conducted by Chughtai and Zafar (2006) amongst university teachers in Pakistan also found that tenure was not related to organisational commitment. Camilleri (2002) further states that other research has provided inconsistent results.

2.2.3.1.3 Educational Level

Camelleri (2002) stated that inconsistent and contradictory results were provided by other research. Angle and Perry (1981) stated that educational levels correlate negatively with organisational commitment. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) concur having found a small yet negative correlation with organisational commitment. Iqbal (2010) also revealed a negative correlation between organisational commitment and educational level. Yew (n.d.) found a significantly negative relationship between affective commitment and highest academic qualification.



Mowday *et al.* (1982) postulate that individuals who are more highly educated have higher expectations of the organisation (which the organisation is incapable of meeting) as the result for the inverse relationship between education and organisational commitment. It is further stated that highly educated individuals may be more committed to the respective profession or trade as opposed to the organisation. It therefore becomes increasingly difficult for organisations to compete successfully for the psychological involvement of these individuals in the organisation.

In the study conducted by McWatts (2005) amongst academics and non-academics at a tertiary institution it was reported that no significant relationship exists between organisational commitment and educational level. Chughtai and Zafar (2006) concur with the above results, as the study conducted amongst university teachers revealed no relationship

between educational level and organisational commitment. Uygur and Kilic (2009) similarly reports no statistically significant exists between organisational commitment and educational level, in the study conducted amongst personnel in the central organisation for the ministry of health in Turkey.

Bakan, Büyükbeşe and Erşahan (2011) report significant statistical differences between affective, continuance and normative commitment and educational levels. Lin and Fong (2009) however report that educational level has a slightly positive effect on continuance commitment but the effect however was not significant.

2.2.3.1.4 Gender



According to Uygur and Kilic (2009) a plethora of research studies were conducted to reveal the relationship between organisational commitment and gender with no consensus being reached between the organisational commitment levels of males and females. Similarly Camilleri (2002) states that numerous studies conducted by utilising bivariate analysis yielded inconsistent results. A study conducted amongst personnel in the Central Organisation for the Ministry of Health in Turkey demonstrated no significant levels of variation between organisational commitment and gender (Uygur & Kilic, 2009).

Danny, Bellenger and Boles (2009) state that at a deeper level, the possibility exists that characteristics associated with the organisation may interact with the gender-commitment relationship rather than the scale used to study the relationship. In a study conducted by Tyagi and Wotruba (1998) cited in Danny *et al.* (2009) amongst salespersons, it was found that female salespersons demonstrated higher levels of job commitment when compared with male salespersons. It was suggested that the reason for these results was that the organisational climate was more highly perceived by females and a stronger emphasis was also placed on organisational identification by females compared to males. Danny *et al.* (2009) further postulate that besides only organisational associations, specific job characteristics may also exist which would bring about the varying levels between the two genders.



In a study conducted amongst lower level bus service employees it was found that females were more strongly committed to the organisation than the male employees were (Angle & Perry, 1981). Petersen (2010) and Bull (2005) also reported that a strong relationship exists between organisational commitment and gender amongst retail employees. Camilleri (n.d.) concurs by reporting a positive correlation exists between organisational commitment and gender in a study conducted amongst public sector employees. Davenport (2010) however, found to the contrary as it is reported in the study that no relationship existed between organisational commitment and gender.

2.3 TURNOVER INTENTIONS

2.3.1 Introduction

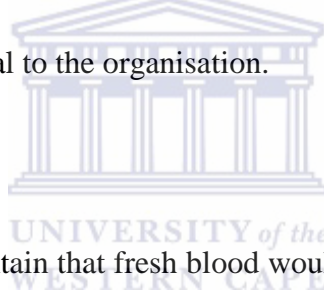
Voluntary employee departures are generally considered undesirable, disruptive and costly for both the organisation and its customers (Buck & Watson, 2002).

According to Mobley (1982) turnover intention is considered a major organisational phenomenon as it is about people leaving organisations. Joo and Park (2010, p. 483) agree as can be seen by the following statement “the turnover issue has long been a critical organisational issue.” Buck and Watson (2002) concur and describe employee turnover in higher education as a frustrating reality associated with managing personnel in this sector. Due to the unexpected nature of employee’s departures administrators are forced to spend valuable time on recruiting, selecting and training replacements. Ongori (2007) further surmises that employee turnover need to be minimized at all costs by managers as a lot is invested in employees in terms of induction, training, developing, maintaining and retaining employees.

Grobler, Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2002) estimate the cost of employee turnover to be several million rands per annum for industry in South Africa. Johns (1996) further states that to replace a nurse or bank teller who resigns, costs several thousand dollars. Robbins (1998) conservatively estimates the cost of replacing an employee to be about fifteen

thousand dollars per employee. A top information technology company estimates that it cost forty thousand dollars to replace one middle-level manager (Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2005). A substantial portion of a higher education institution's resources are therefore forced to be committed to the replacement of staff (Buck & Watson, 2002).

George and Jones (1996) however believe that turnover can be beneficial for the organisation even though all the costs associated with turnover can be significant. The authors further purport that it depends on which employees are leaving. If poor performing employees are leaving and high performers are staying, then it would benefit the organisation. Grobler *et al.* (2002) further postulate that turnover is unavoidable and to a degree a certain amount is expected and considered beneficial to the organisation.



Grobler *et al.* (2002) further maintain that fresh blood would be injected into the organisation with the appointment of new employees. This would introduce new ideas, methods and innovative, more effective ways of doing things in the organisation. Additionally, poor hiring and placement decisions could be rectified by turnover. Grobler *et al.* (2002) refer to this type of turnover as functional turnover. Dysfunctional turnover occurs as a result of excessive turnover bringing about an unstable workforce and increase in human resource costs and organisational ineffectiveness (Phillips & Connel, 2003). Buck and Watson (2002) further more postulate that research demonstrates a decline in morale and productivity amongst remaining employees correlates with dysfunctional turnover.

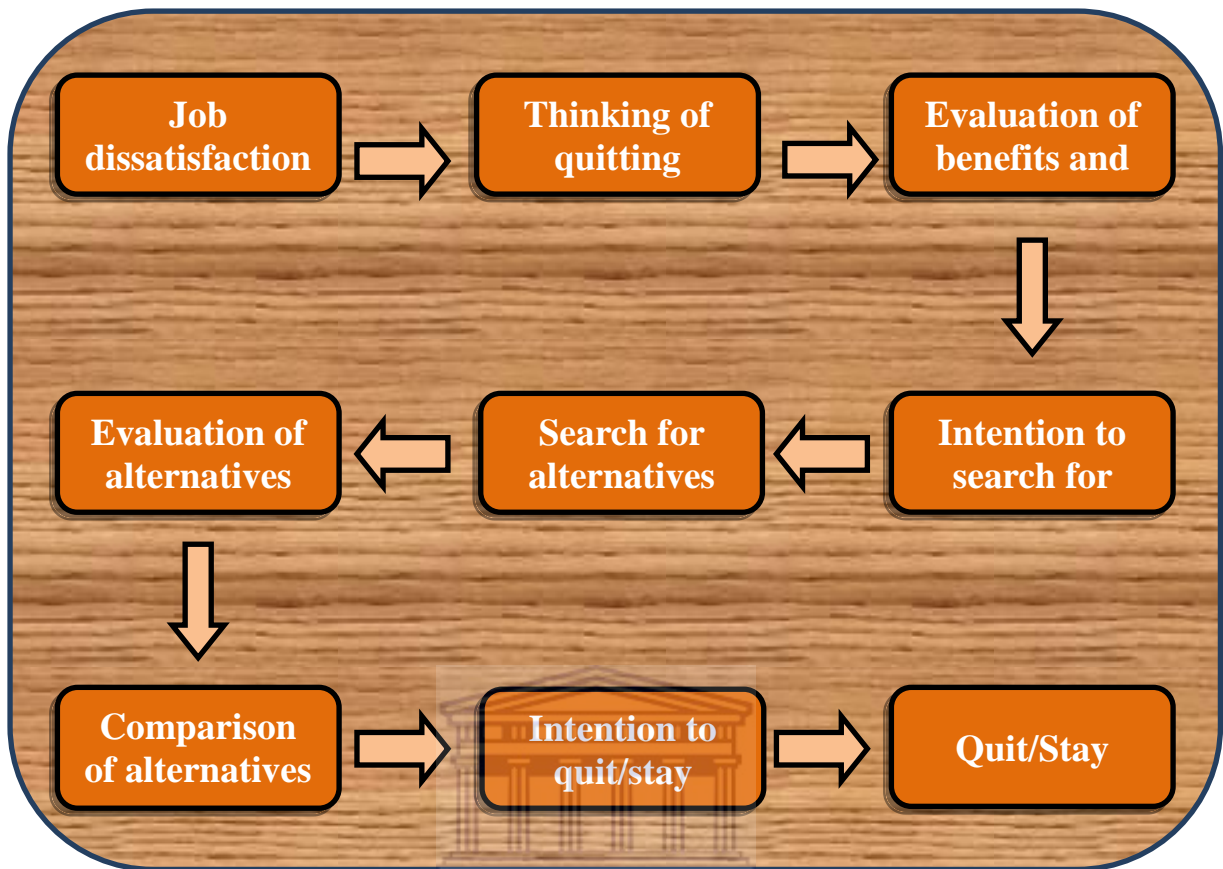
2.3.2 Defining Turnover Intentions

According to Joo and Park (2009) it has emerged that turnover intention is the strongest antecedent to turnover. The authors further contend that a plethora of research studies confirm a linkage between turnover intention and the actual behaviour of leaving.

Aydogdu and Asikgil (2011) define turnover intention as an individual's behavioural attitude to withdraw from the organisation. The authors further continue to define turnover as the actual separation from the organisation. Behavioural intention is a good predictor of actual behaviour as suggested by the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The intention of employees to quit the organisation is how (Ali, 2008) defined turnover intention. Martin and Roodt (2008) postulate turnover behaviour to be a multistage process which includes behavioural, decisional and attitudinal components as seen in figure 2.3 below.

According to Tett and Meyer (1993, p. 262) "turnover intention was conceived to be a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organisation." Mobley (1977) clearly indicates in figure 2.7 below that intention to quit is a good predictor of employee turnover. The author continues by stating that if the comparisons of alternatives are favourable then it will lead to intention to quit resulting in the employee actually quitting.

Figure 2.8: Mobley's (adapted) Model of the Turnover Process



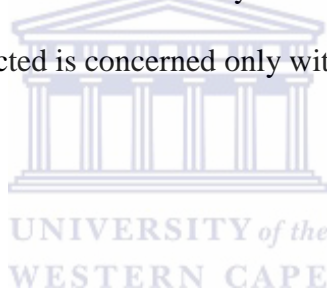
Source: George and Jones (1996)

2.3.3 Defining Employee Turnover

Moorhead and Griffin (1998) define employee turnover as people quitting the organisation or jobs. Price (1977) postulates that turnover is the degree of individual movement across the membership boundary of a social system. Turnover is defined as the cessation of membership by an individual in an organisation to whom the organisation paid monetary compensation (Mobley, 1982). George and Jones (1996) define turnover as the permanent withdrawal from the employing organisation by the employee or worker. The authors continue by postulating that unlike absenteeism as a form of withdrawal is temporary, turnover is permanent.

Therefore the decision to quit is a carefully thought out process which is not made lightly by the quitting employee.

Price (1977) distinguishes between voluntary and involuntary employee turnover. The author further continues and defines voluntary turnover to be initiated by the employee and is the movement across the membership boundary of a social system. Labour turnover is classified by Sutherland and Jordaan (2004) as either voluntary or involuntary in the literature. Phillips and Connell (2003) define voluntary turnover as departure initiated by the employee from the organisation. Employer initiated turnover due to retrenchment or dismissal for disciplinary or performance related reasons is known as involuntary turnover (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004). The current research being conducted is concerned only with voluntary turnover.



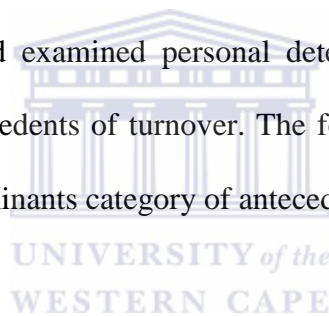
2.3.4 Theories of Turnover

Numerous studies on the literature of labour turnover have attempted to categorize the plethora of labour turnover models developed over the last half-century. Morrell, Loan-Clarke and Wilkinson (2001) identified two schools of thought. The first is the labour market or economic school. The highlights here are the labour supply and demand, job search theory and techniques and objective opportunities. The “psychological school” is the second school of thought looking at aspects such as decision making and the impact of job dissatisfaction and organisational commitment are investigated here.

Rouse (2001) distinguishes between rational and instinctual models. A linear progression towards turnover intention is believed to be followed under the rational model. It is believed that the process starts with the employee being dissatisfied. “Shock” is considered the precipitating event which results in employees leaving the current employer, employees are relatively satisfied with their job but as a result of the “shock” event ends up leaving under the instinctual model (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004).

2.3.5 Antecedents of Turnover

A plethora of studies conducted examined personal determinants, role related and work experience determinants as antecedents of turnover. The following study however will only be examining the personal determinants category of antecedents.



2.3.5.1 Personal Determinants

Boshoff *et al.* (2002) postulate that during the 1980’s numerous studies focussing on the antecedents of intention to quit were conducted. The following personal determinants of turnover intentions will be included in the current study namely, age, tenure, educational level and gender.

2.3.5.1.1 Age

A study conducted at a tertiary institution by Martin and Roodt (2008) found age to have a significant relationship with turnover intention. The authors further postulate that intention to stay improved as age increased. Liu, Liu and Hu (2010) concur in a study conducted among Chinese public sector employees stating that as age increased, turnover intention decreased.

Shields and Wheatley Price (2002) report a significantly negative relationship exists between intention to quit and a respondent's age in research conducted in a British setting. The above researchers further report that nurses over the age of fifty were less likely to indicate an intention to leave the hospital in comparison to nurses under the age of thirty four years. Cotton and Tuttle (1986) also agree that age is negatively related to turnover in a study using meta-analytic techniques. Yin-Fah, Foon, Chee-Leong and Osman (2010) maintain that younger employees had a higher turnover rate in comparison to the older employees in a study conducted amongst private sector employees. Lu, Lin, Wu, Hsieh and Chang (2002) also found in a study performed amongst 2197 nurses from Taiwan that younger nurses demonstrated a greater propensity to leave the hospital than did older employees.

Chan and Morrison (2000) however found that no significant relationship exists between age and stayers and leavers in research conducted in a Singapore hospital. In a study undertaken amongst nurses in a Gauteng hospital it was observed that age did not play a significant role amongst respondents' decision to leave or stay with the hospital (Stanz & Greyling, 2010). Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino (1979) conclude by saying that age alone contributes

little to the understanding of turnover behaviour as it is correlated with numerous other variables as well.

2.3.5.1.2 Tenure

Employees with a longer tenure with an organisation show a greater probability to stay compared to employees with fewer years in the organisation (Milman, 2003).

Lambert (2006) hypothesised a relationship between tenure and turnover, postulated that a negative relationship is likely to exist between turnover and tenure due to the aspect of “sunken costs”. Sunken costs are defined as the investment made by the employee having spent more and more time in the organisation. In a meta-analysis conducted it was found that tenure was negatively related to turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). In research conducted amongst Information technology professionals a significant relationship was found between turnover intentions and tenure (Moore, 2000). Trimble (2006) is of the opinion that greater attention must be given to longer tenured employees as opposed to new employees within the organisation.

Kawara (2009) found no significant relationship between tenure and turnover amongst employees from Hwange Colliery in Zimbabwe. Chan and Morrison (2000) concur with the above finding in a study conducted amongst nurses in Singapore that no significant difference exists in turnover intention and the proportion of stayers and leavers.

2.3.5.1.3 Education Level

According to Freund (2005) the higher an employees' educational level, the more likely it is that the employee's intends to leave the organisation. Lambert (2006) agrees by stating that those with a college degree are more likely to leave the organisation. The author continues by saying that those employees who are more educated might feel greater opportunities exist as opposed to those individuals without a degree. Research conducted amongst employees from a television station also found that higher educational levels could contribute to intention to quit (Berg, 1991).



Boshoff *et al.* (2002) however found to the contrary with employees with 12 years of schooling demonstrated higher levels of intention to quit compared to employees with a master or doctoral degrees. The findings were similar for those employees who had a post-school diploma compared to employees who had a bachelor's degree. This therefore means that a negative relationship emerged between intention to quit and educational level. The study conducted by Ma, Lee, Yang and Chang (2009) amongst nurses in Taiwan concurs with the above findings as was demonstrated by nurses with junior college degrees being more likely to quit as opposed to those who had a bachelors' degree. Freund (2005) concludes by saying that this variable significantly influences tendencies to leave.

Stanz and Greyling (2010) found no significant relationship between educational qualifications and a respondents' decision to stay or leave the organisation. Moreover Lambert, Hogan and Barton (2001) concur in a study conducted amongst a sample of American employees that no relationship exists between turnover intentions and educational level.

2.3.5.1.4 Gender

Research demonstrates that a number of variables could impact gender and intention to leave (Mor Barak, Nissly & Levin, 2001). Cotton and Tuttle (1986) infer that women are more likely to leave the organisation as opposed to men. Maueller and Wallace (1996) concur that women are more likely to leave the organisation as compared to men. The reason for the significant difference in gender is that women are disadvantaged in the workplace, discriminated against and also face remuneration inequalities resulting in less satisfaction, and consequently resign from the organisation.

Stumpf and Dawley (1981) state that very few studies found gender differences and even mentioned that males are more likely to leave than females. In a sample of male pharmacists in Great Britain, Seston, Hassell, Ferguson and Hann (2009) found that males were more likely to leave the pharmaceutical professions than females.

Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner (2000) report that women's quit rate is comparable to that of males in a meta-analysis conducted. Kawara (2009) agrees by stating that it is now likely that intention to leave between females and males is similar as a result of employees facing the same hurdles and are therefore seeking organisations which are supportive.

Researchers Stanz and Greyling (2010) however found that no significant relationship exist between gender and intention to quit. Kawara (2009) concurs in the study conducted in Zimbabwe which reports that no significant relationship between gender and intention to leave was found.

2.3.6 Consequences of Turnover Intentions



Numerous studies have consistently demonstrated the impact of both job satisfaction and organisational commitment on turnover intentions (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Absenteeism is another aspect which could impact turnover (Steers & Porter, 1979). Absenteeism, however, is treated as subsidiary interest as the majority of the research emphasise the topic of turnover. Darnold and Zimmerman (2009) found a significantly negative relationship between performance and intention to quit. The present study however will only be investigating the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention.

2.3.6.1 Turnover and Job Satisfaction

Lambert (2006) found job satisfaction to have a greater impact than organisational commitment did on turnover intent. According to Mudor and Tooksoon (2011) job satisfaction plays an important role when investigating employee turnover. Pierce, Hazel and Mion (1996) continue by stating that turnover rates will lower as employee job satisfaction levels increase. This therefore demonstrates that job satisfaction and turnover are negatively related (Amah, 2009; Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000).

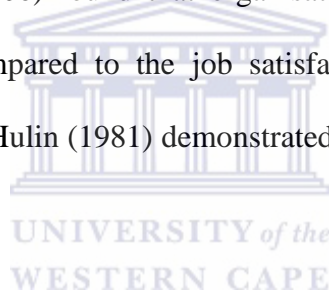
In a study conducted amongst private sector college lecturer's Ali (2008) found a significantly negative correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intent. Aydogdu and Asikgil (2011) also confirm the negative relationship through the use of regression analysis. The authors continue by stating that a significant yet negative relationship between internal and external facets of job satisfaction and turnover had been exhibited.

Hackett and Guion (1985) claim that numerous researchers determined that more satisfied employees will be absent less, and Carsten and Spector (1987) continue by asserting that less would leave. Higher commitment as well as greater job satisfaction is displayed leading to a greater propensity to stay when employees are promoted or when promotional opportunities are due (Popoola, 2005).

When employees are highly satisfied with the current job and employment, very low levels of turnover intentions are expected to develop as both intrinsic and extrinsic needs are being fulfilled (Carmeli & Freund, 2009). Hellman's (1997) meta-analysis provides support for this by stating that the more dissatisfied employees become, the more likely they are to consider alternate employment opportunities.

2.3.6.2 Turnover and Organisational Commitment

Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner (2000) found that organisational commitment was the better predictor of turnover when compared to the job satisfaction. However, the latest meta-analysis conducted by Hom and Hulin (1981) demonstrated that turnover intent still remained the best predictor of turnover.



Boshoff *et al.* (2002) conclude that a significant role is played between the various components of the construct organisational commitment and the attachment of employees to employing organisations. The authors elaborate by articulating that when individual employees experience a positive effective relationship with the employing organisation, the trend exhibited, would be one that is less likely to want to leave the employers.

A study conducted amongst correctional offices to determine turnover intent found organisational commitment to have a highly significant and negative impact on turnover

intent (Lambert, 2006). When comparing committed and uncommitted employees it was found less likely that committed employees would leave an organisation (Angle & Perry, 1981). A study conducted amongst university employees by Anvari and Amin (2011) similarly found that more committed employees to the university demonstrated lower turnover intentions compared to those employees with lower levels of organisational commitment. According to Mathieu and Zajac (1990) more committed employees are less likely to plan to leave the organisation, let alone actually leave the organisation (Netemeyer, Burton & Johnston, 1990).

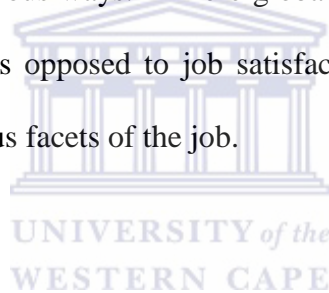
Mathieu and Zajac (1990) continue by stating that in the meta-analysis conducted commitment demonstrated much larger correlations with two turnover-related intentions namely, intention to search for job alternatives and intention to leave the job. The results further show no relationship between organisational commitment and employees' perceptions of job alternatives.

Research conducted by Hsu (2009) found no significant relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention. Contrary to the above finding most researchers report a significantly negative relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention (Addae, Parboteeah, & Davis, 2006; Bravo, 2007; Pare & Tremblay, 2007; Zhao, Wanyne, Glibkowski). To conclude, in a study conducted amongst academia Gbadamosi and Chinaka (2011) a negative and high correlation was found in the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention.

2.3.6.3 Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

Feinstein & Vondrasek (n.d.) postulate that a chicken-and-egg debate over the issue regarding a relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment still continues. Numerous researchers hypothesise that job satisfaction is a predictor of organisational commitment (Porter *et al.*, 1974; Price, 1977; Rose, 1991).

According to Mowday, *et al.* (1982) differences between commitment and job satisfaction as job attitudes are viewed in numerous ways. A more global response to the organisation, this is how commitment is viewed as opposed to job satisfaction, which is seen as more of a response to the job itself or various facets of the job.



As a significant contributor satisfaction with the job compared to organisational commitment has been well documented (Flynn & Solomon; 1985; Testa, 2001). According to Loong (2011) today's managers find it extremely difficult to ignore the issue of job satisfaction. Martin and Roodt (2008) proved organisational commitment and job satisfaction to positively correlate with one another. Numerous studies conducted have indeed shown that a positive relationship exist between organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Deconinck and Bachman, 1994; Fletcher and Williams, 1996; Liou, 1995; Mayer and Schoorm, 1992; Meyer *et al.*, 1989; Ward and Davis, 1995).

Numerous studies conducted by various researchers have viewed the relationship between job satisfaction and commitment as reciprocal (Farkas & Tetrick, 1989; Lance, 1991; Mathieu, 1991; Mottaz, 1988). With the exception of the Farkas and Tetrick (1989) study above, an asymmetric relationship existed in three of the four studies, demonstrating satisfaction to have a stronger effect on commitment rather than the reverse. Similarly, studies conducted in the United States of America and Japan (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1990) observed a significantly reciprocal relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The results from a three-wave longitudinal study conducted by Farkas and Tetrick (1989) between the variables satisfaction and commitment found a reciprocal relationship but the results did not favour one causal direction over the other. João and Coetzee (2011) merely state that a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment was observed. Other studies infer that the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment is spurious at best due to the multiple causes which lead to this relationship based on findings which demonstrate that no significant causal relationship exist between these variables (Curry, Wakefield, Price & Mueller, 1986)

2.3.6.4 The impact of the facets of job satisfaction on turnover intention

Koh and Goh (1995) scrutinised past research on job satisfaction and found that most studies only concentrated on the effect of overall satisfaction on turnover citing only a few which investigated the relationship between turnover and specific aspects of job satisfaction. These factors or facets include the work itself, remuneration, supervision, promotion and co-

workers. The authors continue by postulating that the vital effects of these job satisfaction facets on turnover are concealed by the use of overall satisfaction.

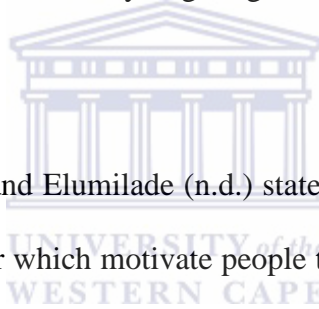
2.3.6.4.1 The work itself

Hissom (2009) highlights the lack of projects or assignments which requires an employee's full potential as a possible source for employee turnover. Handlesman (2009) concurs by stating that another reason for employees potentially leaving their jobs is the mismatch between the job and the employees' skills. The author further elaborates by saying that jobs which are too difficult or underutilises employees' skills could become discouraging resulting in those individuals quitting the organization. Hissom (2009) continues by stating that if employees are merely place on the "bench" and are not allowed to obtain the required work experience those individuals would surely leave.

Due to the greater affluence and higher educational levels of employees the nature of work is becoming an important consideration (Khattri, Bubhwar, & Fern, n.d.). The kind of work performed by the previous generation was not given much attention or thought. In a sample of clerical employees in the banking sector a negative relationship was found between the nature of work and turnover intention (Koh & Goh, 1995). The authors further surmise that this relationship will hold true for other jobs as well as industries.

2.3.6.4.2 Remuneration

According to Khatri et. al., (n.d.) pay is considered one of the most important factors influencing turnover in Singapore based on personal experiences and anecdotal evidence. Price (1977) concurs by stating that higher levels of salary are almost always found to exert a negative influence on turnover by those who study the variable turnover. Campbell and Campbell (1997) avow that the younger generation in Singapore are thought to be very materialistic therefore believing that job hopping has become acceptable in an attempt to earn higher salaries. Further to this Idson and Feaster (1990) state that higher wages and better chances for advancement can be provided by large organisations.



According to Ologunde, Asaolu and Elumilade (n.d.) state that economic rewards such as an increase in salary is the one factor which motivate people to stay on at the organisation when looking at the employment situation.

Employees are usually in search of jobs which pays well resulting in the most common reason for the employee turnover rate being so high due to salary scales (Hissom, 2009). Handlesman (2009) argues that the major reason for voluntary turnover most of the time is salary. Hissom (2009) state that while there is support for this view, the importance of this has been greatly exaggerated as it is widely held that most of the time salary is cited as the most convenient reason for leaving thereby not revealing the more personal reasons for leaving.

2.3.6.4.3 Supervision

Debrah (1993) notes that employees will be quickly be driven away by supervisors with poor interpersonal skills and who is also inflexible. Moderate support for a negative relationship between satisfaction with supervision and turnover has been offered in numerous studies concluded (Mobley et. al., 1979). A negative relationship means that the higher satisfaction with supervision the lower the level of turnover.

In a study conducted amongst textile sector workers in Pakistan a strong negative correlation was found between supervision and employee turnover intention. Similarly in a study amongst lecturers a significantly negative relationship was found between supervision and turnover intention (Ali, 2008). Westlund and Hannon (n.d.) concur as the study conducted amongst software developers found a significantly negative relationship between supervision and turnover intention.

Research conducted amongst prison warders found no relationship between supervisory status and turnover (Camp, 1993).

2.3.6.4.4 Promotion

According to Hissom (2009) high turnover rates can be caused by lack of growth or opportunities for advancement in any organization. The author continues by stating that if a job is basically a “dead-end” proposition employees’ are bound to resign.

A study conducted amongst private college lecturers revealed a significantly negative correlation between promotional opportunities and turnover intentions (Ali, 2008). Westlund and Hannon (n.d.) similarly found a significantly negative relationship between promotion and turnover intention amongst software developers.



2.3.6.4.5 Co-workers

Billikopf (2003) conducted two separate studies in 1953 and 1983 amongst dairy worker and results were consistent when looking at the relationship between co-workers and turnover intention. The author further reveals that workers either got along very well with co-workers and if these workers left they left as well or these employees did not get along with fellow employees at all resulting in the leaving the dairy farm.

Westlund and Hannon (n.d.) similarly found a significantly negative relation between co-worker and turnover intention in the study conducted amongst information technology

software developers. Ali (2008) concurs with this finding as seen in the study conducted amongst lecturers at a private college that co-workers was significantly negatively related to turnover intention.

2.3.7 Summary of the Chapter

The chapter commenced with the introduction, definitions and highlighted some of the motivational theories of job satisfaction. It further attempted to provide an overview pertaining to job satisfaction and its antecedents, whereby only the personal determinants were delineated as required for the present study.



This was followed by an exposition of organisational commitment focussing on the different types of commitment. Similarly to job satisfaction personal determinants were the only antecedents elaborated on.

The final part of the chapter dealt with the dependent variable turnover intention as well as the antecedents, with specific focus on personal determinants of turnover intentions. The various variables were then compared and contrasted with one another before the final summary of the chapter.

The subsequent chapter emphasises the research methodology followed in the present research venture as well as identifies the various instruments utilised.



CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The following chapter provides a framework of the research design utilised in determining the impact of job satisfaction and organisational commitment on turnover intentions amongst non-academic staff. A detailed exploration is provided into how the sample was selected, the measuring instruments used and the psychometric properties of these instruments. The chapter will further delineate the statistical techniques utilised during the analysis of the data. Questionnaires were the format used to gather the data. The battery of questionnaires comprised a biographical questionnaire to gather relevant demographic information, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) to measure the construct job satisfaction, the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) to measure individual's commitment to the institution and finally the Turnover Intention Questionnaire, to measure an individuals' intention to leave.

3.2 Research Design

According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) cited in Josias (2005) the basic path to follow when conducting a research project is called the research design. Hair, Babin, Money and Samouel (2003, p. 57), maintain that “the researcher should choose a design that will (1)

provide relevant information on the research questions and (2) will do the job most efficiently.” The basic design issues relate to the sample, sampling techniques, data collection methods and psychometric properties of the measuring instruments.

3.2.1 Population

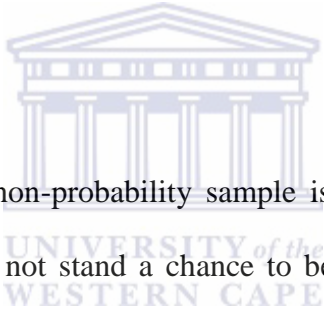
Babbie and Mouton (2008, p. 173) define a population as “the theoretically specified aggregation of study elements.” The research being embarked on aims to investigate whether or not a relationship exists between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to quit amongst non-academic staff members at a tertiary institution (which include all administrative, support, information technology and technical support staff). According to Sekaran (2003) each individual non-academic staff member is an element of the population. An element is seen as that unit about which information is gathered and from which the basis of analysis is obtained (Babbie & Mouton, 2008). The population size therefore comprises 1299 (elements) staff members that fall within the above categories of staff members employed at the institution.

3.2.2 Sample

According to Johns (1996) researchers wishing to ensure that results are generalisable beyond merely the current setting being investigated with the greatest confidence, could achieve this if the results are based on large random samples. The results obtained when utilizing large

samples further ensures that the individuals, groups or organisations are representative. The intended sample size is 297 as per Sekaran (2003) for a population of 1299 respondents. Sekaran (2003) further maintains that any sample larger than 30 but less than 500 could be considered appropriate for most research endeavours. To ensure the intended sample size of respondents is met, the researcher handed out 284 questionnaires. According to Sekaran (2000), a 30 percent response rate is considered acceptable for most research endeavours. A total of 118 questionnaires was returned by respondents, which resulted in a response rate of approximately 41.5 percent.

3.2.3 Sampling Procedure



According to Sekaran (2003) a non-probability sample is one where each element of the population in all likelihood does not stand a chance to be chosen as sample subjects. The findings of the sample cannot therefore be confidently generalised as the true values of the population (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999 cited in Carr, 2005). Sekaran (2003) further states that at times this method of gathering data is the only viable as well as inexpensive and swiftest method to gather data. The study conducted amongst non-academic staff members employed non-probability sampling, based on the method of convenience, as a number of questionnaires were delivered to various faculties, departments and units for staff members to complete.

With convenience sampling, as the name suggests, the elements within the intended sample are conveniently available to provide the researcher with the required information (Sekaran,

2003). The exploratory phases of research projects often employ this method of sampling as it is at times the best way to quickly and efficiently retrieve some basic information. The questionnaires of the current research were handed to a central employee within various faculties, departments and units who handed it to those individuals who were available on that day and were willing to complete it.

The advantages of the above method of sampling is that it is inexpensive, quick and convenient for when it is the only viable method of sampling or for when in the exploratory period or stage of research (Sekaran, 2003). The disadvantages however, include that it is the least reliable method when it comes to population generalisability.

3.2.4 Biographical Questionnaire



To obtain the relevant biographical and demographic information a self-developed questionnaire was administered to obtain this information. The following information namely, present designation, educational level, age, race, gender, language, salary, tenure and faculty, department or unit employed in, were included in the biographical questionnaire.

3.2.5 Measuring Instruments

3.2.5.1 Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) cited in Luddy (2005) state that the most carefully developed and widely utilised scale to measure the facet of job satisfaction is the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). According to Spector (2000) cited in McWatts (2005), the JDI attempts to determine employees' reactions to various identifiable or specific aspects of the job. These aspects would include:

- ❖ Satisfaction with the work itself (Work Content);
- ❖ Satisfaction with pay or remuneration;
- ❖ Promotional opportunities
- ❖ Supervision; and
- ❖ Relationship with co-workers.



3.2.5.1.1 Questionnaire Structure

The JDI comprises 72 items which includes the five facets of job satisfaction mentioned in the previous section. The facets promotion and pay consist of nine (9) items each, while the facets of work content, supervision and relationship/s with co-workers comprise eighteen (18) items each (Smucker & Kent, 2004, cited in Luddy, 2005).

According to McCormick and Ilgen (1985) cited in Bull (2005), each facet consists of numerous statements or items which respondents need to reply to as follows; (Y) for yes, (N) for no and (?) if unsure, as it relates to the employee's job. When combining all five facets a global measure of job satisfaction can be obtained (Saal & Knight, 1998 cited in Bull, 2005). According to Spector (1997) cited in McWatts (2005) each facet is scored as follows: for positive items (Y) = 3, (?) = 2 and (N) = 1 while for negatively discriminating items on the other hand are scored as (Y) = 1, (?) = 2 and (N) = 1.

3.2.5.1.2 Reliability of the JDI

Sekaran (2003, p. 203) states that “the reliability of a measure is an indication of the stability and consistency with which the instrument measures the concept and helps to assess the “goodness” of a measure”. Foxcroft and Roodt (2002, p. 41) provide further support by stating that “the reliability of a measure refers to the consistency with which it measures whatever it measures”. Various types of reliability methods could be utilised in determining

how reliable a measure “good” really is which are; test-retest, parallel form, split-half and inter-item consistency reliability (Sekaran, 2003).

Foxcroft and Roodt (2002) assert the Cronbach alpha coefficient indicates the consistency of responses to items in a measure. According to Schreider and Dachler (1978) cited in McWatts (2005) the test-retest reliability of the JDI ranges between 0.45 and 0.76. In support, Smith *et al.* (1969) cited in Luddy (2005) maintain that a Cronbach Alpha Coefficient when utilizing the JDI has exceeded 0.80.

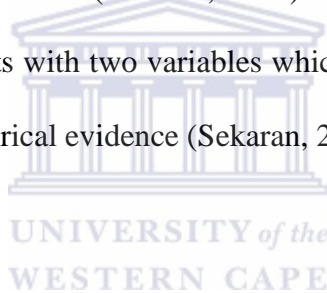
Further Johnson, Smith and Tucker (1982) cited in Bull (2005) found that the test-retest Cronbach Alpha Coefficients ranges from 0.68 to 0.88. To further support the use of the JDI in the present research endeavour the split half reliability coefficients ranging from 0.8 – 0.87 to substantiate the JDI’s reliability is provided (Smith *et al.*, 1969 cited in Bull, 2005).

3.2.5.1.3 Validity of the JDI

According to Babbie and Mouton (2008, p. 122) validity is defined as “the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration.” According to Anastasi and Urbina (1997, p. 8) cited in Luddy (2005) “validity refers to the degree to which the test actually measures what it purports to measure”. Face validity is when a measure appears on face value to measure what it is supposed to measure. In support Sekaran (2003, p. 206) confirms that by developing or using a questionnaire “how can we be

reasonably certain that we are indeed measuring the concept we set out to do and not something else?” Content, criterion-related and construct validity are the three broad headings under which validity can be grouped (Sekaran, 2003).

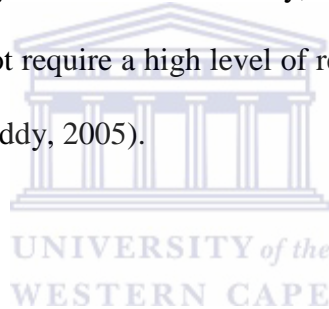
Construct validity confirms how well the results obtained fit the theory around which it is designed, for example in this study how well the JDI measures the facet of job satisfaction (Sekaran, 2003). Sekaran (2003) further states that convergent and discriminant validity are the methods utilised to determine construct validity. Convergent validity is achieved when two instruments measuring the same concept (for example, job satisfaction) are highly correlated based on the scores obtained (Sekaran, 2003). Discriminant validity occurs when the scores obtained on instruments with two variables which are predicted to be uncorrelated are indeed found to be so by empirical evidence (Sekaran, 2003).



In over 400 studies in which the JDI was administered empirical proof of convergent and discriminant validity exists (Nagy, 2002 cited in Luddy, 2005). The methods of factor and cluster analysis were utilised in a study conducted to validate the JDI (Smith *et al.*, 1969 cited in Luddy, 2005). The results reflected that high levels of convergent and discriminant were found to exist confirming the JDI to be valid. Supporting evidence of discriminant and convergent validity is provided by a study conducted by Futrell (Futrell, 1979 cited in Luddy, 2005). Correlations of between 0.36 and 0.75 were obtained in Futrell’s study thereby indicating convergent validity.

3.2.5.1.4 Rationale for Inclusion

This measure was selected on the basis of it being an existing questionnaire which measures facet job satisfaction of respondents. Another reason for selecting this questionnaire is that it has a proven track record of being reliable and valid (Smith, 1969 cited in Luddy, (2005). According to Bull (2005) the JDI further provides the researcher with both facet as well as a global rating on job satisfaction. Vorster (1992) cited in Bull (2005) provides evidence that the JDI was found suitable and has been standardised for use in South Africa. According to Vroom (1964) cited in Luddy (2005) the JDI is also the most carefully designed and developed instrument measuring job satisfaction. Finally, the JDI is reported to be the easiest measure to complete as it does not require a high level of reading ability (Heneman, Schwab, Fossum & Dyer, 1983 cited in Luddy, 2005).



3.2.5.2 Turnover Intention Questionnaire:

The Turnover Intention Questionnaire developed by Jacobs and Roodt, (2008) was utilised to measure the variable turnover intention.

3.2.5.2.1 Questionnaire Structure

The variable Intention to quit or leave was measured by utilizing an unpublished questionnaire namely the Turnover Intentions Questionnaire developed by Jacobs and Roodt

(2008). The measure comprises 14 items which is measured on a seven-point intensity response scale with extreme poles of (“Never” 1-being low intensity to “always” 7 which is high intensity (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008).

Examples of the items in the questionnaire included, “How often have you recently considered leaving your job?” also “How frequently have you been scanning newspapers for new job opportunities?” (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008).

3.2.5.2.2 Reliability of the Turnover Intention Questionnaire

An acceptable reliability was obtained in the study, which comprised a sample of 530 professional registered nurses, as a Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of 0.913 was obtained (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). Jacobs and Roodt (2011) through factor analysis obtained a Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of 0.839, which also indicates acceptable reliability. Cortina (1993) cited in Petersen (2010) state that a Cronbach Alpha coefficient equal to 0.70 or higher is considered acceptable.

According to Arnold and Feldman (1982); Sager *et al.* (1998) various researchers distinguish between “intention to search” and “intention to quit”. The question “How often have you recently considered leaving your job?”, would probably measure intention to leave or quit. While the question “How frequently have you been scanning newspapers for new job opportunities?”, would probably measure intention to search.

3.2.5.2.3 Validity of the Turnover Intention Questionnaire

Jacobs and Roodt (2008) posit that the available literature on turnover lacks formal validated scales to represent turnover cognitions. The motivation therefore to develop this questionnaire was because most instruments measuring turnover intentions in the literature did so, on only a relatively small number of items. According to Sager, Griffeth and Hom (1998) cited in Jacobs and Roodt (2008, p. 69) “the approach to use a single-item indicator to measure turnover cognitions is criticised as construct validity is unknown”.

3.2.5.2.4 Rationale for Inclusion



According to Sager *et al.* (1998) cited in Jacobs (2005) the reliability results were considered acceptable even though the turnover literature lacks the formal validated scales to represent turnover cognitions. The above questionnaire was found suitable as it has been developed and conducted within a South African context.

Jacobs (2005, p. 135) further postulates that “the motivation to use this questionnaire is that most instruments in the literature measure turnover intentions on only a relatively small number of items”. According to Guimaraes (1997); Lambert *et al.* (2001) cited in Jacobs (2005) found that only one item was utilised by various researchers. Criticism was leveled at the approach to only make use of single-item indicators to measure turnover cognitions as the

construct validity was unknown (Lee *et al.*, 2000; Sager *et al.*, 1998). Fox and Fallon (2003) and Lum *et al.* (1998) cited in Jacobs (2005) found only a few studies where more than three items were used.

3.2.5.3 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982) was utilised to gather responses on non-academic staff's commitment to the tertiary institution.

3.2.5.3.1 Questionnaire Structure



Mowday et al, (1982) defined organisational commitment as follows namely 1) a strong belief in accepting the organisation's goals and values, 2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and 3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. On the basis of the above definition, the OCQ was developed and comprises 15 items which tap into the three aspects.

Respondents are required to indicate their agreement with the 15 items on the OCQ on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from "Strongly disagree" – 1 to "Strongly agree" – 7. Scores are obtained by adding the responses and then dividing by fifteen. Six of the fifteen items are negatively phrased and reverse scored in an attempt to reduce response bias (Mowday *et al.*, 1982).

3.2.5.3.2 Reliability of the OCQ

Mowday et al, (1982) believed it to be of paramount importance to prove the psychometric properties of the OCQ by obtaining data from employees from various work environments to ensure that an adequate universal quantification of commitment is obtained. The psychometric properties of the OCQ were calculated in a study conducted on 2563 employees in a wide variety of jobs (Cooper & Schindler, 2003 cited in Basson, 2008).

Mowday et al (1982) calculated the internal consistency of the OCQ in three different ways, namely, by conducting an item analysis, factor analysis and also by calculating the Cronbach coefficient alpha. The Cronbach coefficient alpha was found to be acceptable ranging from 0.82 to 0.93, with a median correlation of 0.90 (Mowday *et al.*, 1982). A positive correlation resulted from an item analysis, reflecting that each item had a positive correlation with the total score of the OCQ. Mowday *et al.* (1982) further found through factor analysis that the items measured the underlying construct, organisational commitment as the results yielded a single factor solution.

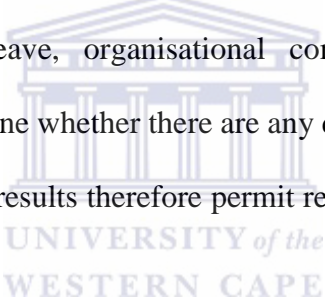
Mowday *et al.* (1982) found an acceptable level of test-retest reliability across a sample of 2563 employees which spanned across nine diverse public and private sector organisations. The levels ranged from $r = 0.53$ to 0.75 over periods ranging from two to four months. Reyers and Pounder (1993) also found that the OCQ correlates well with other affective measures with an average of $r = 0.70$. According to Reyers and Pounder (1993) this instrument has been tested on several groups from the public sector employees and university

employees with reliability correlations ranging from $r = 0.82$ to 0.93 , with median value of 0.90 .

3.2.6 Data Analysis Techniques

3.2.6.1 Inferential Statistics

According to Sekaran (2003) inferential statistics refer to how different variables relate to one another. The research being undertaken sought to determine the relationship between the three variables; intention to leave, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Furthermore, it could also determine whether there are any differences between two groups or more than two groups. Statistical results therefore permit researchers to draw inferences from a sample of the population.

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Listed below are the inferential statistical methods which were utilised to test the research hypotheses.

3.2.6.1.1 The Pearson Product Moment Correlation

Sekaran (2003) purports that the Pearson product moment correlation provides the researcher with the direction, strength and significance of the bivariate relationship between job

satisfaction and intention to leave, organisational commitment and job satisfaction and organisational commitment and intention to leave.

Sekaran (2003) postulates that these statistical findings determine whether relationships exist amongst the independent and dependent variables, the direction of the relationship and what the strength of the relationship is. A perfectly positive relationship could exist amongst variables which is denoted by 1.0 (plus 1) or a perfectly negative relationship denoted by -1.0 (minus 1). According to Anastasi and Urbina (1997, p. 88) cited in Luddy (2005) “the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient takes into account not only the person’s position in the group but also the amount of her or his deviation above or below the group”.

3.2.6.1.2 Multiple Regression analysis



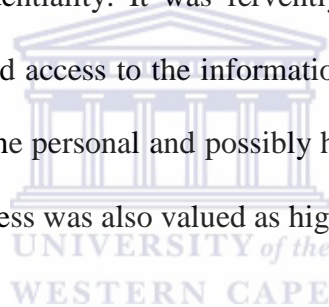
According to Cohen and Swerdlik (2002) cited in Luddy (2005), Multiple Regression analysis depicts the intercorrelations of all the variables involved. Further, the correlations among the predictor scores are also taken into account. Sekaran (2003) posits that the criterion variable is jointly regressed against more than one predictor that is what occurs under Multiple Regression Analysis.

Multiple regression analysis was utilised to determine the extent to which the various biographical variables explain the variance in intention to leave, organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

3.2.7 Ethical Issues

Whenever research is undertaken, irrespective of who the researcher is or for whom it is conducted, an ethical behaviour on the part of the researcher must be upheld, but this holds true for respondents as well.

Respondents earmarked to participate in the research undertaken were assured of a high degree of anonymity and confidentiality. It was fervently stated to respondents that only members of the research team had access to the information as a guarantee in providing this anonymity and confidentiality. The personal and possibly highly intrusive information which was gathered throughout the process was also valued as highly confidential.



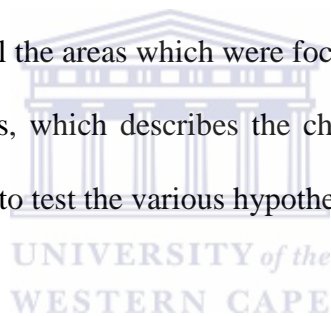
The researcher, who is employed as an academic employee at the tertiary institution assured respondents that data would not be misinterpreted, distorted or misrepresented. A further undertaking from the researcher was to not violate the self-esteem or self-respect of respondents participating in the study.

Respondents were also not forced by the researcher to complete the questionnaires and the researcher also communicated to those distributing the questionnaires on his behalf not to force anyone to complete the questionnaires. The researcher further undertook personal

responsibility to ensure that respondents were not exposed to situations that would subject them to physical or mental harm.

3.2.8. Conclusion

In this chapter, a detailed overview of the research methodology utilised during this study was provided in this chapter. The statistical techniques employed to test the various hypotheses which were developed, the population, sample selection, measuring instruments, the psychometric properties of the measuring instruments as well as the rationale for including these instruments are all the areas which were focused on. The statistical techniques used include descriptive statistics, which describes the characteristics of the sample, while inferential statistics were utilised to test the various hypotheses which were developed.



CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the research study based on the empirical analysis of the data solicited from the research respondents. The presentation proceeds with an analysis of the descriptive statistics on the variables under consideration. To facilitate ease in conducting the empirical analyses, the results of the descriptive analyses are presented first, followed by the inferential statistical analysis.



The statistical programme used for the analyses and presentation of data in this research is the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16. The descriptive statistics utilized are based on frequency tables and graphical illustrations to provide information on key demographic variables in this study. This was achieved through summary statistics, which includes the means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values which were computed for each of the variables in the study.

This is followed by presentation of the inferential statistics based on examination of each hypothesis formulated for the research. The upper level of statistical significance for null

hypothesis testing was set at 5%. All statistical test results were computed at the 2-tailed level of significance in accordance with the non-directional hypotheses presented (Sekaran, 2003).

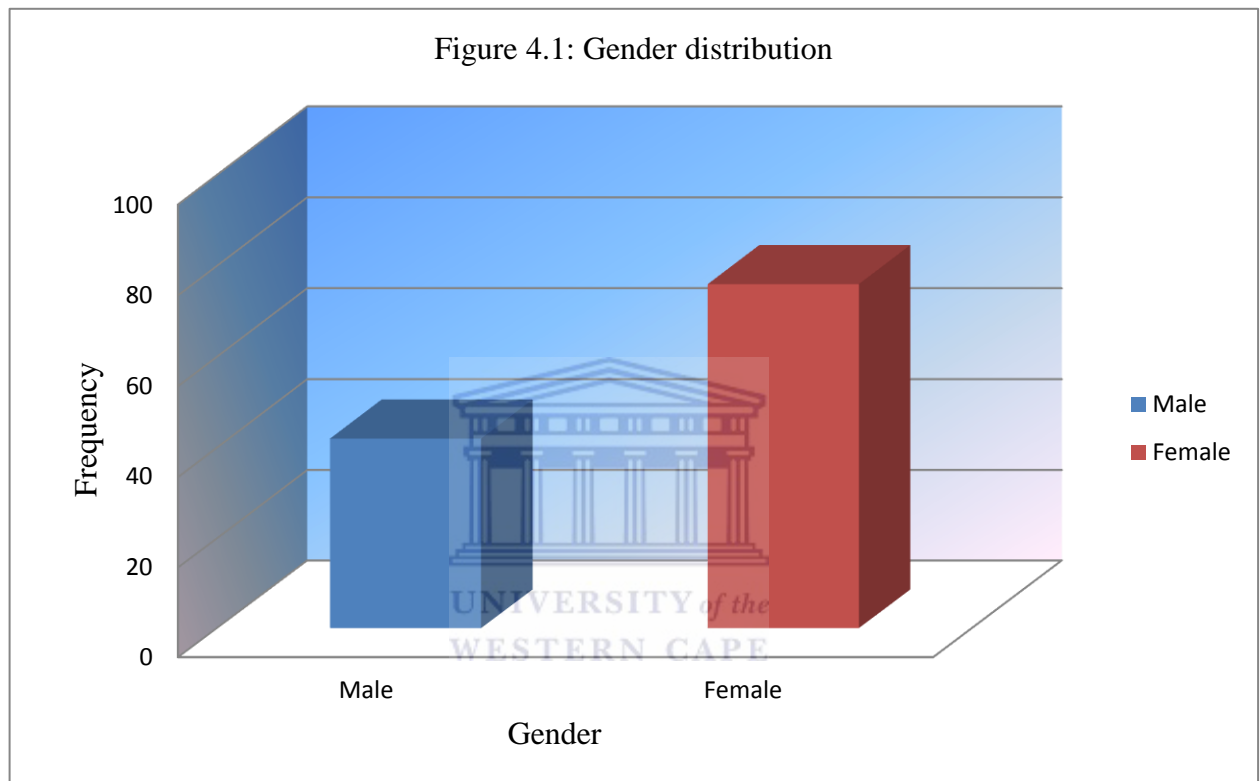
4.2 Descriptive Statistics

This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated as obtained by the variables included in the biographical questionnaire. Descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and percentages are subsequently graphically presented for each of the above-mentioned variables.



4.2.1 Biographical Characteristics

The respondents' gender is depicted in Figure 4.1.



In terms of Figure 4.1, the majority of the respondents ($n=76$) or 64% were female, while males represented 36% of the respondents ($n=42$).

The subjects' responses with regard to their ages are presented graphically in Figure 4.2.

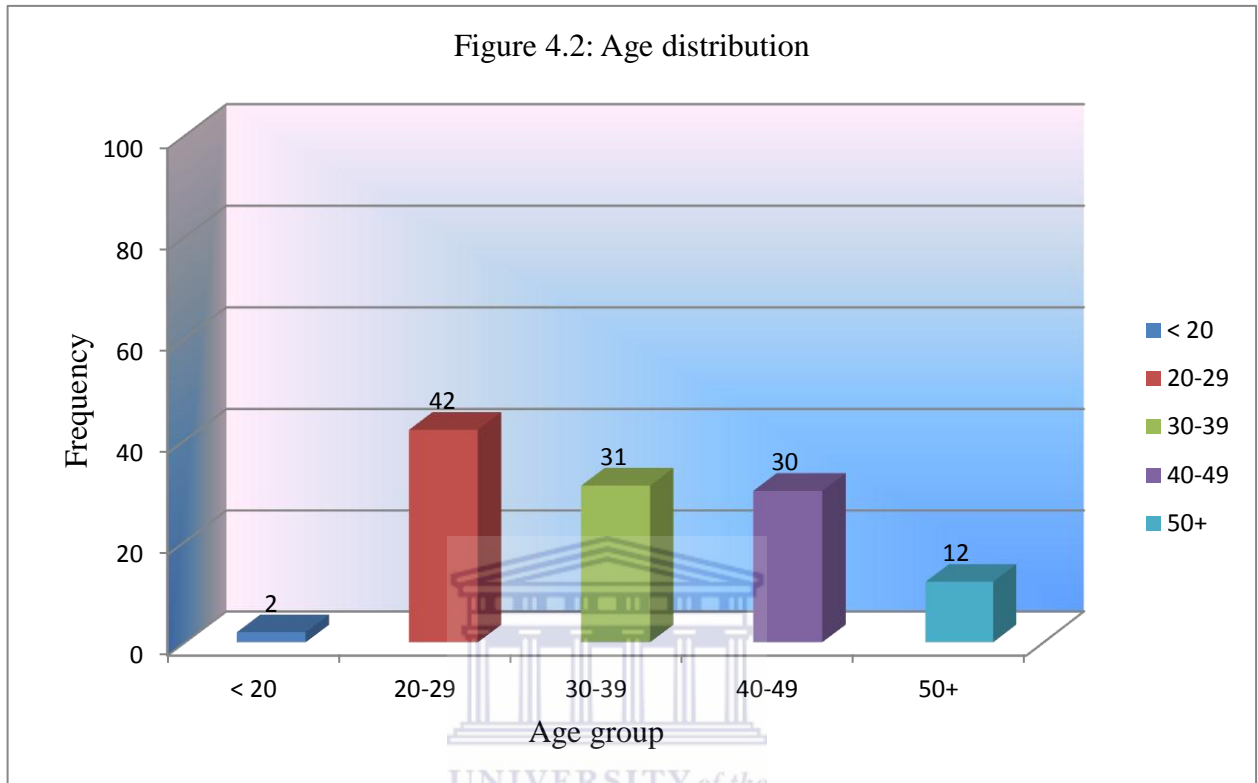
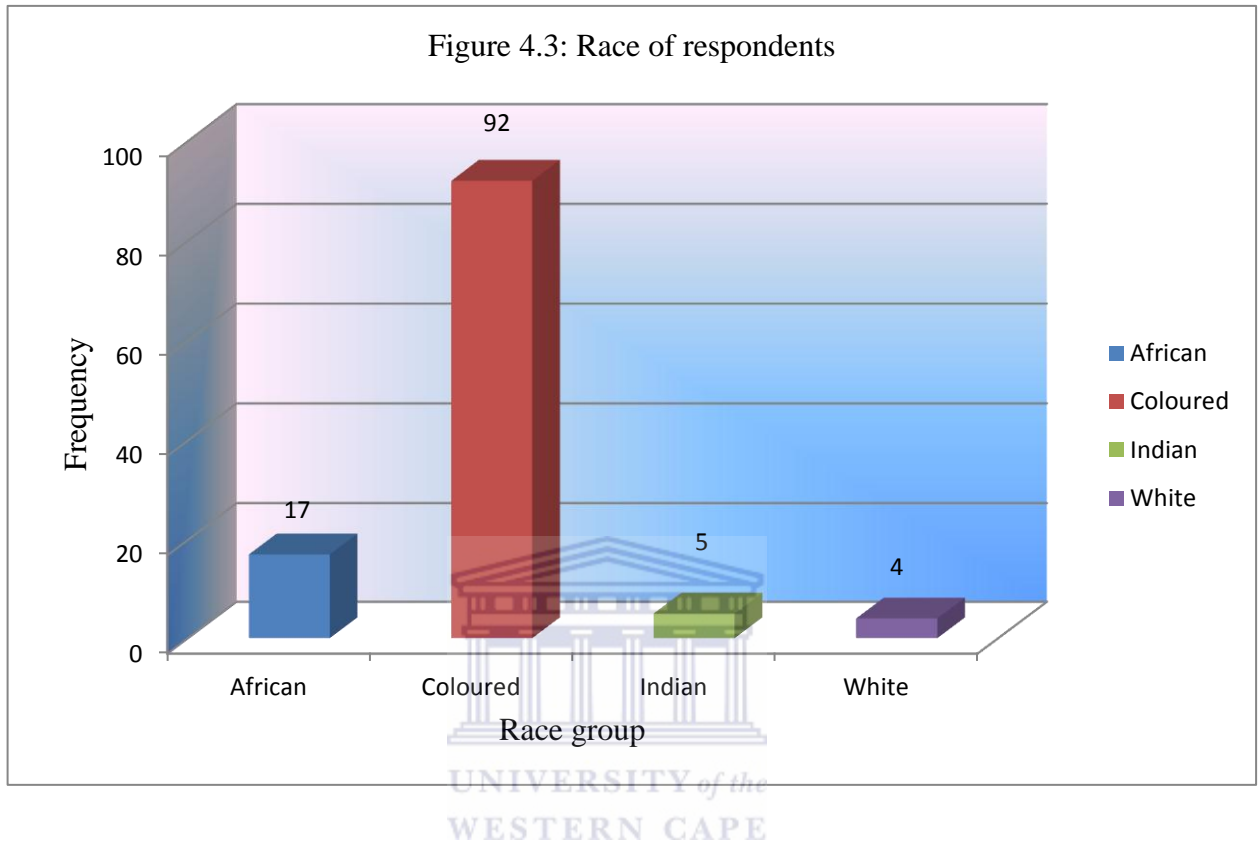


Figure 4.2 shows that the majority of respondents in the sample, (36%, n=42), are between the ages of 20-29 years old. This category is followed by the age group 30-39 years, into which 26% (n=31) of the respondents' fall. Only two (2) percent of the respondents were older than 50.

The racial classification of respondents is represented in Figure 4.3.



In terms of Figure 4.3, it can be seen that the majority of the respondents are Coloured (n=92), representing 78% of the respondents. This was followed by African respondents comprising a further 14% of the sample (n=17) and Indian respondents comprising 4% (n=5). White respondents represented the lowest proportion of respondents, constituting 3% (n=4) of the sample.

The marital status of respondents is represented in Figure 4.4.

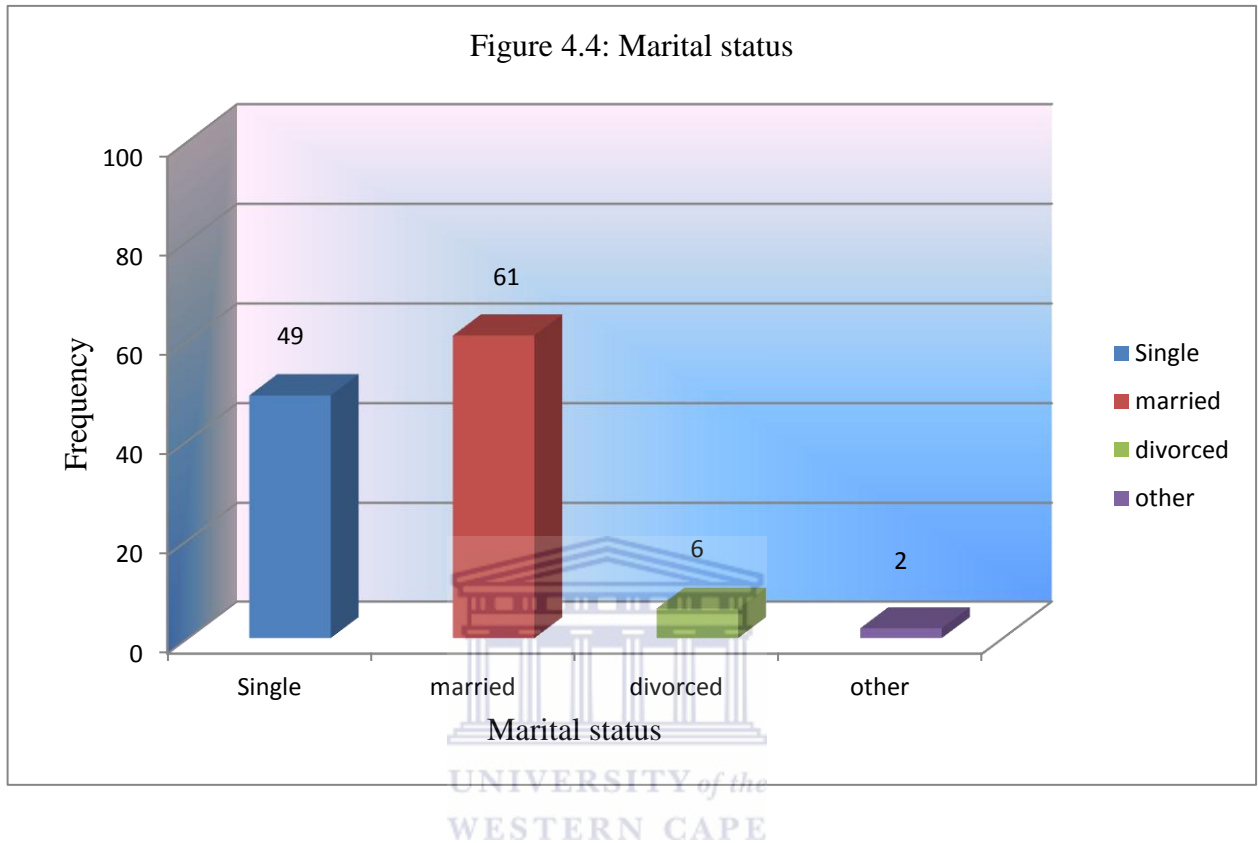
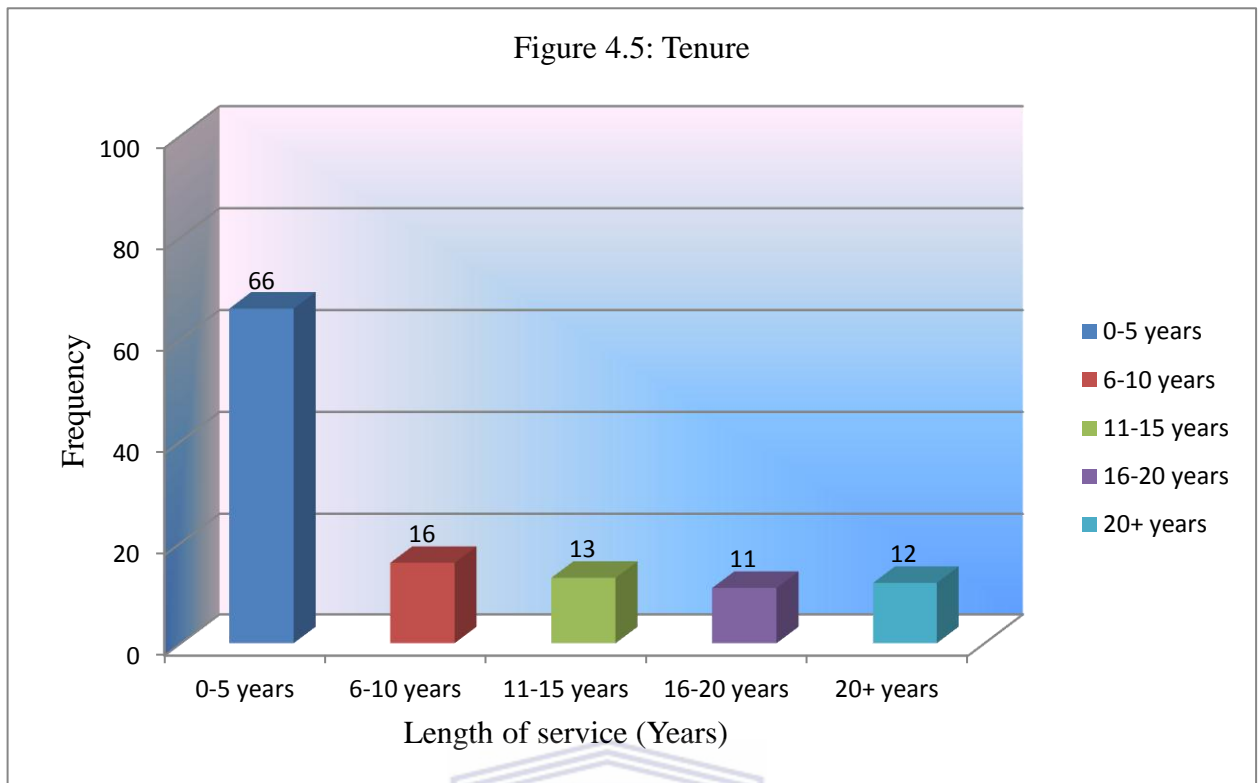
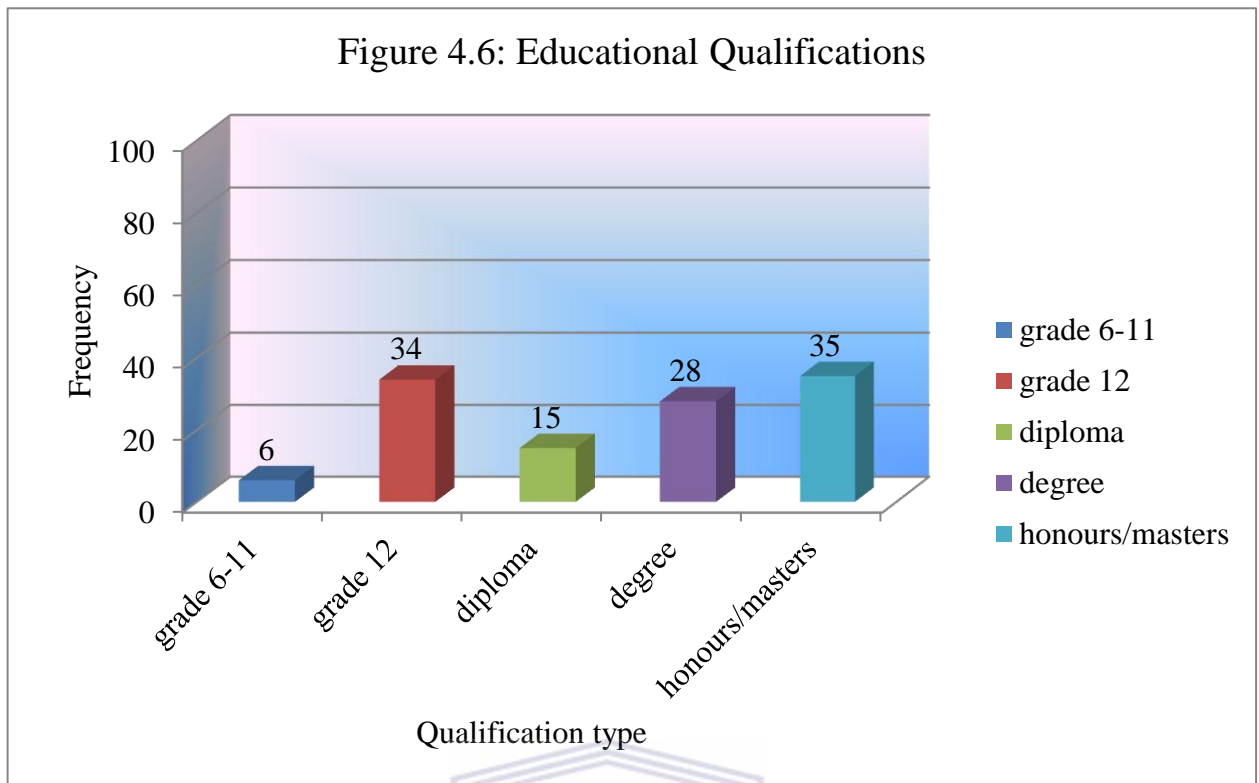


Figure 4.4 indicates that the majority of the respondents are married (n=61), representing 52% of the respondents. A further 42% (n=49) of the respondents were single employees. Respondents that are divorced comprised 5% of the sample (n=6), while those classified as other constituted the smallest proportion (n=2), representing only 2% of the respondents.



With respect to tenure, Figure 4.5 indicates that the majority of the respondents (n=66) or 56% of the respondents worked for between 0-5 years. A further 14% (n=16) worked at the organisation for between 6-10 years. Only 11 employees or 9% had worked for the organisation for a period between 16-20 years.



According to Figure 4.6, the majority of the respondents had completed an honours / masters degree (n=35, 30%), while a further 29% (n=34) had completed grade 12. Those with degrees comprised 24% of the sample (n=28). Only 5 respondents (4%) had completed grade 6-11.

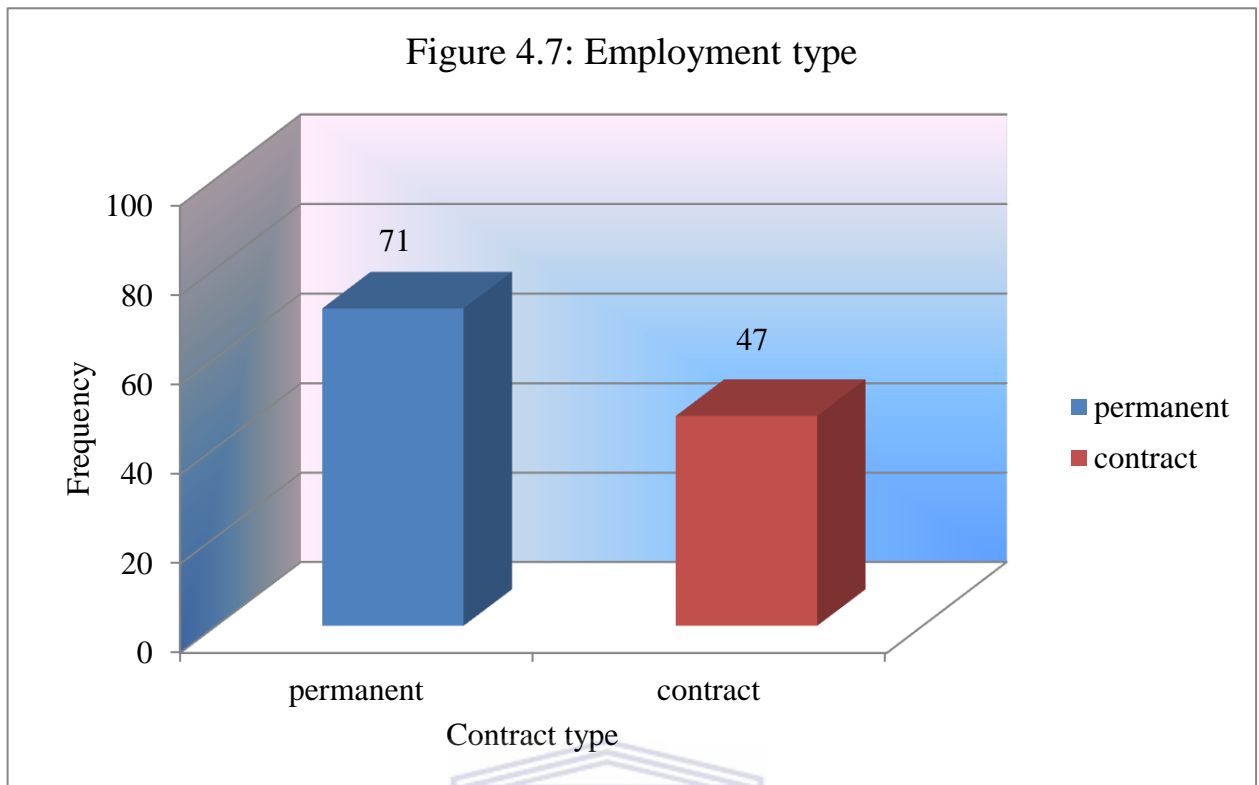


Figure 4.7 depicts the contract type of the respondents. Permanent employees occupied the majority of positions (n=71) or 60% of the respondents. A further 40% were in contract positions (n=47).

The subjects' responses with regard to their salary levels are presented graphically in Figure 4.8.

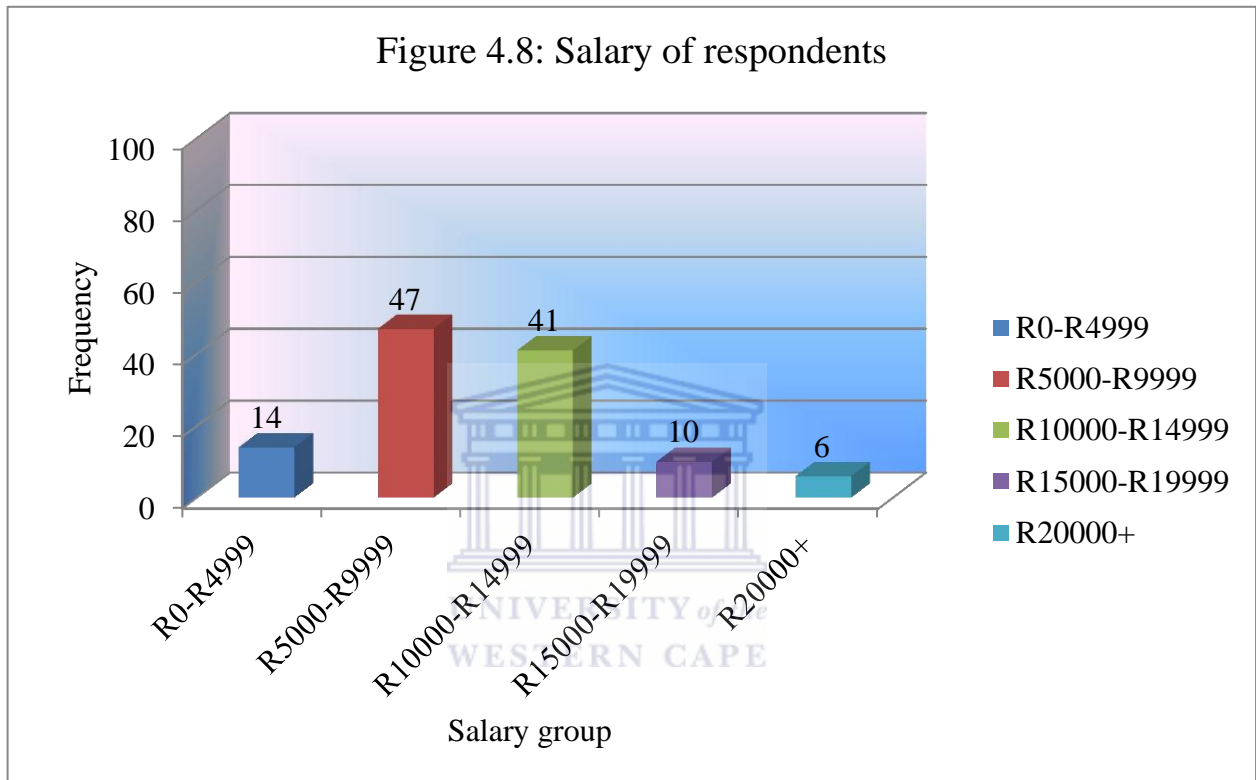


Figure 4.2 shows that the majority of respondents in the sample, (40%, n=47), earn between R 5000 and R9999 per month, with a further 35% earning between R10 000 and R14 999 per month (n=41). This category is followed by those earning R 15 000- R19 999 per month, into which 9% (n=10) of the respondents' fall. Five (5) percent of the respondents earned more than R20 000 per month (n=6).

4.2.2. Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. That is, the data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the three measuring instruments employed, are summarised by means of graphic representation and the calculation of descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data clearly emerge and an overall picture thereof is obtained.

4.2.1 Measures of Central Tendency and Dispersion

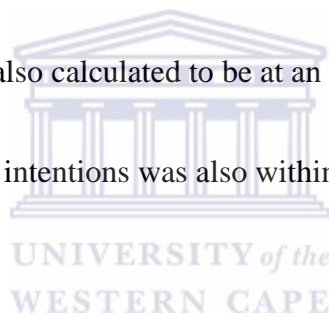
This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated on the basis of the variables included in the questionnaire. The measures of central tendency and dispersion for job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions, are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions

Variable	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. dev.
Job satisfaction	118	1	3	149.34	24.18
Organisational commitment	118	1	5	72.42	18.85
Turnover intention	118	1	5	53.11	20.09

Table 4.1 indicates that the arithmetic mean for the total job satisfaction of the sample is 149.34 with a standard deviation of 24.18. Based on the fact that an average level of job satisfaction, as measured by the JDI, would be represented by a mean of approximately 144, it may be concluded that the overall job satisfaction of the sample is average. The standard deviation for the overall level of job satisfaction is also not high, indicating that most respondents are close to the mean on this dimension.

Organisational commitment was also calculated to be at an average level (Mean = 72.42, s.d. = 18.85), and turnover intentions was also within the average range (Mean = 53.11, s.d. = 20.09)



4.3 Inferential statistics

In the sections that follow the results of the inferential statistics employed in the study are presented. For the purposes of testing the stated research hypotheses, Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was calculated and hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed. With the aid of these statistical techniques conclusion are drawn with regards to the population from which the sample was taken and decisions are made with respect to the research hypotheses.

Table 4.2: Pearson correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

	Job Satisfaction	
Turnover intentions	-.418	.000**

** p < 0.01

In order to determine whether there are significant relationships between job satisfaction and turnover intentions, Pearson's product moment correlation was computed. There was a significant correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intentions ($r = -.418, p < 0.01$).

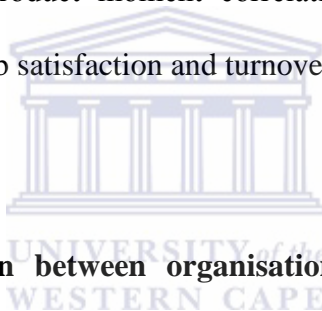


Table 4.3: Pearson correlation between organisational commitment and turnover intentions.

	Organisational Commitment	
Turnover intentions	-.421	.000**

** p < 0.01

The results indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction ($r = -.421, p < 0.01$).

Table 4.4: Pearson correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

	Job Satisfaction	
Organisational Commitment	.548	.000**

** $p < 0.01$

The results indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction ($r = .548, p < 0.01$).

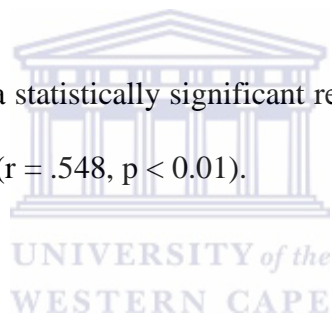


Table 4.5 Stepwise regression for the facets of job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Multiple Regression	0.491			
R squared (R2)	0.241			
R squared (Adjusted R2)	0.208			
Standard error	17.891			
			F = 7.130	Significant F = 0.00**
Variables in the equation	B	Std Error for B	T	P
Work content	-1.170	.304	-.473	0.000**
Payment	-.560	0.430	-.126	0.195
Promotion	0.131	0.357	.047	0.713
Co-workers	-.479	0.468	-.102	0.308
Supervision	.372	.381	.116	0.975

The results shown in Table 4.5 suggest a moderate percentage of the variation in perceptions of Turnover intentions explained by the dimensions of job satisfaction entered in the equation ($R^2 = 24.1\%$; R^2 (adjusted) = 20.8%). Thus 21% of the variance in turnover intentions can be explained by the job satisfaction dimensions.

The F-ratio of 7.130 ($p = 0.00$) indicates the regression of these dimensions expressed through the adjusted squared multiple (R^2 (adj.) = 20.8%) is statistically significant. These variables account for 21% of the variance in turnover intentions and suggests that other unexplored variables could potentially influence the results.



Table 4.6: Stepwise regression for the biographical variables and turnover intentions.

Multiple Regression	0.231			
R squared (R2)	0.053			
R squared (Adjusted R2)	0.002			
Standard error	20.076			
			F = 1.044	Significant F = 0.401
Variables in the equation	B	Std Error for B	T	P
Gender	4.553	3.788	.112	0.232
Age	-2.308	2.330	-.124	0.324
Race	-2.807	3.230	-.082	0.387
Marital status	5.881	3.230	.197	0.071
Tenure	1.231	1.712	.086	0.474
Education	-.390	1.444	-.026	0.787

The results shown in Table 4.3 suggest a negligible percentage of the variation in perceptions of Turnover intentions explained by the biographical variables entered in the equation (R2 =

5.3 %; R2 (adjusted) = 2%). Thus 2% of the variance in turnover intentions can be explained by the biographical variables.

4.3. Reliability Analysis

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

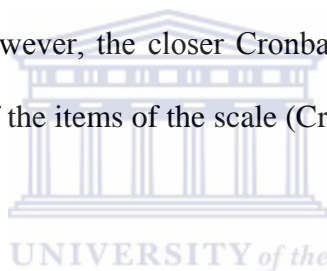


TABLE 4.7: Cronbach’s Coefficient Alpha for the JDI, OCQ AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS Questionnaires.

Reliability Coefficient					
JOB SATISFACTION		ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT		TURNOVER INTENTIONS	
No. of cases	118	No. of cases	118	No. of cases	118
Alpha	0.927	Alpha	0.667	Alpha	0.901

According to research, such a score can be regarded as excellent in terms of the reliability of the instrument. George and Mallery (2003) argue that coefficients above 0.8 can be considered to be good indicators of the reliability of an instrument. With the exception of the OCQ, these levels were attained.

4.5 Summary

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

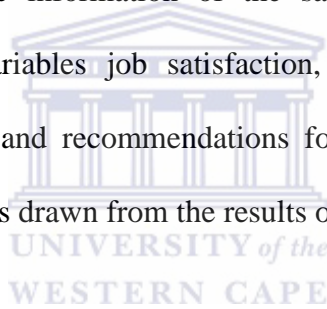


CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The prominent findings of the current study are discussed in this chapter and reference is made to relevant research from several environments to corroborate the findings of the present study. The demographic information of the sample, results obtained from the descriptive statistics for the variables job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. Limitations and recommendations for future research endeavours are proposed based on the conclusions drawn from the results obtained.



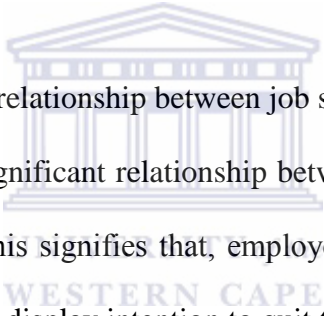
5.2 Demographic information about the sample

The sample comprised 118 employees at an institution of Higher Education in the Western Cape. The majority of the sample was female ($n = 75$, that is 64%). The sample being more representative of Coloured employees ($n = 92$, or 78%) followed by African ($n = 13$, that is 13.6%) then Indians ($n = 5$, or 4.2%). Most of the respondents were between the ages of 20 – 29 ($n = 42$ that is 36%) followed by 30 – 39 ($n = 31$ or 26%) and 40 – 49 ($n = 30$ that is 25%). The majority of the respondents had acquired an Honours or Master's degree ($n = 35$ or 30%) whilst the bulk of the respondents have worked for the institution between 0 – 5 years ($n =$

66, that is 60%). A large proportion of the sample was employed on a permanent basis (n = 69, or 59%) with the majority earning between R5000 – R9 999 (n = 47, or 40%) followed by R10 000 – R14 999 (n = 41, that is 35%). The majority of the respondents were married (n = 61, or 52%).

5.3 The Relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention

Hypothesis 1: Job satisfaction has an inverse relationship with turnover intentions.



The results of table 4.2 report the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. The results show a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention ($r = -0.418$, $p < 0.01$). This signifies that, employees who experience low levels of job satisfaction, are more likely to display intention to quit tendencies.

Hence the null hypothesis is rejected.

In a sample of 70 tourism industry employees, results indicate a strong, inverse relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention (Appollis, 2010). The main purpose of the study was to determine why employees in the tourism industry quit as well as the relationship between the variables turnover intention, job satisfaction and psychological capital. A

convenience sampling method was utilised over a period of a week to gather the required data.

Further support for the significantly negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention was found in a sample of 442 employees in Saudi Arabian organisations (Ben-Bakr *et al.*, 1994). The study investigated the predictive strength of job satisfaction, organisational, value and continuance commitment with respect to turnover. The snowball non-probability sampling method was utilised to collect the data as it was thought to be the most effective, practical and culturally acceptable manner in Saudi Arabia.

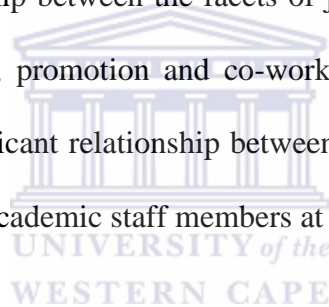
Pienaar, Sieberhagen and Mostert (2007) similarly discovered a significantly negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions amongst a sample of 206 mining sector employees. A cross sectional survey design was utilised to determine the role that social support may play in the translation of employees' role overload and job satisfaction on their turnover intentions.

Amongst a sample of 122 IT outsourcing employees from an IT outsourcing organisation in Bangkok, it was found that job satisfaction has no effect on turnover intention (Sangroengrob & Techachaicherdchoo, 2010). Similarly Msweli-Mbanga (2004) found an insignificant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

5.4 The relationship between the factors affecting job satisfaction and turnover intention

Hypothesis 2: There will be a significant relationship between work, remuneration, supervision, promotion and co-workers, respectively with Turnover intention amongst non-academic staff members at a tertiary institution in the Western Cape.

Table 4.5 indicates the relationship between the facets of job satisfaction (namely, the work itself, remuneration, supervision, promotion and co-workers) with turnover intention. The results therefore indicate a significant relationship between the facets of job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst non-academic staff members at the institution.



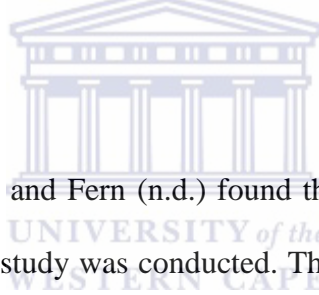
Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

5.4.1 The work itself and turnover intention

Campbell and Campbell (2003) report a significantly negative correlation between the work itself and intention to quit. Janssen, de Jonge and Bakker (1999) similarly report a significantly negative relationship between the quality of job content or the work itself and turnover intention. Further support for the significantly negative relationship between the

work itself and turnover intention was found in a sample of 252 first line managers and supervisors in the textile industry in Pakistan (Bodla & Hameed, 2007). The study was conducted to investigate which controllable and uncontrollable factors impacted turnover intentions.

Wong (1989) found the work itself to be significantly negatively correlated with intention to leave. The sample comprised 275 secondary school teachers from Hong Kong. A study conducted by Ali (2008) investigating the level of job satisfaction and its impact on turnover intention amongst a sample of 212 private sector college lecturers found a significantly negative relationship between the nature of the work and turnover intentions.



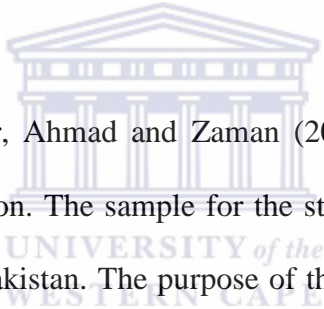
On the contrary Khatri, Budhwar and Fern (n.d.) found the nature of the work insignificant across all industries in which the study was conducted. The three industries studied included the retail, food and beverage and marine and fishing industries. The study investigated whether turnover was due to poor management or bad attitudes on the part of employees.

5.4.2 Remuneration and turnover intention

Lukea Bhiwajee, Naidoo and Ramseook-Munhurrin (2003) found in a study conducted amongst a sample of licensed aircraft engineers that remuneration is significantly negatively correlated with intention to quit. The study was done to determine why licensed aircraft engineers intended to quit or why these employees had already quit as well as to establish

what could be done to retain these employees. Data was collected over a two week period utilising a convenient-non-probability sampling technique.

Justus, Kombo, Murumba and Edwin (2011) similarly discovered that employees would leave their company in favour of a better salary. Further support of this was found in a study conducted amongst employees of several industries in Bangladesh (Shamsuzzoha & Shumon, 2006). Results revealed that 33% of the respondents indicated that they would leave the present employer as a result of receiving a lesser salary and 10% due to irregular payment of salaries.



On the contrary Ali Shah, Fakhr, Ahmad and Zaman (2010) found no relationship exists between pay and turnover intention. The sample for the study comprised 100 teachers from the Higher Education sector in Pakistan. The purpose of the study was to measure the push, pull and personal factors that would affect turnover intention.

Wong (1989) similarly found that the correlation between remuneration and intention to leave was trivial and insignificant in the sample of 275 secondary school teachers in Hong Kong. Khatri, Budhwar and Fern (n.d.) further support these findings in a study conducted in Singapore across the retail, food and beverage and marine and shipping industries. It was found that pay was insignificant in both the food and beverage and marine and shipping industries.

5.4.3. Supervision and turnover intention

Kahumuza and Schlechter (2008) conducted a study to determine the mediating effects of perceived support on turnover intentions. The study comprised a non-random (convenience) sample of 187 employees from a retail bank in the Western Cape. The results indicated that a significantly negative (indirect) relationship ($r = -0.525$, $p = 0.000$) was found between perceived leadership support and intention to leave.

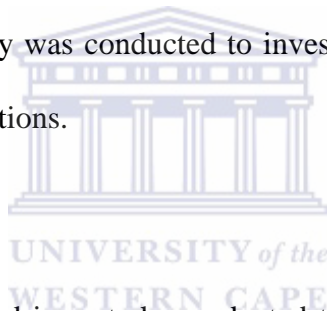
Shamsuzzoha and Shumon (2006) concur in their study conducted in various industries in Bangladesh. In a sample of 44 respondents that were interviewed, results indicated that numerous employees would leave the organisation due to improper management. Campbell and Campbell (2003) similarly reported a significantly negative correlation between supervision and turnover intent amongst a sample of 1138 Singaporean male and female managers and non-managers.

Further support was found for the relationship between supervisory support and turnover intentions even though it was only of medium effect (Pienaar *et al.*, 2007). The data of the sample of 206 employees from the mining sector in South Africa was collected through a cross-sectional survey design. The study was undertaken to investigate the turnover intentions by role overload, job satisfaction and social support moderation.

5.4.4 Promotion and turnover intention

Justus *et al.* (2011) found that managers would leave due to a lack of upward growth. The sample comprised 98 managers in a Sugar Company in Kenya. Shields and Ward (2001) found that the largest dissatisfaction was with poor career advancement opportunities resulting in a far stronger impact quantitatively than pay and workload.

Similarly Ali Shah *et al.* (2010) found a significantly negative relationship between promotion and turnover intentions amongst a sample of 100 teachers from Higher Education Institutions in Pakistan. The study was conducted to investigate the effect of push, pull and personal factors on turnover intentions.



Further support for this was found in a study conducted to determine the global and facets predictors on intention to quit amongst a sample of 1138 Singaporean male and female managers and non-managers (Campbell & Campbell, 2003). The authors reported a significantly negative relationship between promotion and turnover intention.

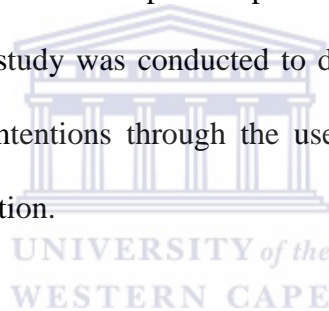
5.4.5 Co-workers and turnover intention

Billikopf (2003) reported on two studies conducted in 1953 and 1983 respectively. The study was conducted to determine the reasons for dairy workers leaving. The researcher conducted interviews with more than hundred dairy workers and found a significant relationship

between co-workers and turnover. The researcher continues by stating that employees could not get along with co-workers and ended up leaving the dairy farm.

Further support for this relationship is found in a study amongst 206 employees from the mining sector (Pienaar *et al.*, 2007). A random cross sectional survey design was used to gather the data.

Kahumuza and Schlechter (2008) similarly found a medium negative correlation ($r = -0.349$; $p = 0.000$) with turnover intention. The sample comprised of a 187 employees from a retail bank in the Western Cape. The study was conducted to determine the mediating effects of perceived support on turnover intentions through the use of a non-random (convenience) sampling technique of data collection.

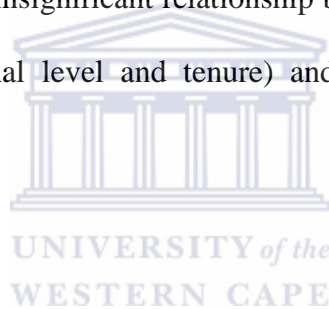


Janssen *et al.* (1999) however report an insignificant yet negative relationship between colleague support in the study conducted amongst 156 Dutch nurses. The study was conducted to investigate the determinants of intrinsic work motivation, burnout and turnover intentions of the above sample. A self-report questionnaire was administered to those nurses who were conveniently available to complete the questionnaire.

5.5 The relationship between biographical variables and turnover intention

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant relationship between biographical variables (namely: age, gender, educational level and tenure) and turnover intentions amongst non-academic staff at a tertiary institution in the Western Cape.

Table 4.6 indicates the results between the biographical variables and turnover intentions. The results therefore indicate an insignificant relationship between the biographical variables (namely, age, gender, educational level and tenure) and turnover intention ($R = 0.231$, $p < 0.01$).



Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted.

The results indicate that age and education were the strongest significant predictors of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic and administrative staff. Among academic employees, only gender and positional tenure were significant predictors of normative commitment and intrinsic job satisfaction while job tenure predicted turnover intentions. On the other hand, gender, marital status and tenure (both position and job) were significant predictors of organisational commitment and job satisfaction among administrative employees.

Research suggests that age is a positive predictor of organisational commitment and job satisfaction and a negative predictor of turnover intentions. Unlike younger employees, older employees are likely to be more committed to their universities, satisfied with their jobs and less likely to quit because of the investments they may have in their universities, the experiences they had accumulated over the years, limited alternative employment opportunities and due to declining expectations from their jobs (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Carson & Carson, 2002; Cetin, 2006; Smerek & Peterson, 2007). These results are contrary to studies which found that organisational commitment and job satisfaction decreased with increase in age (Al- Qarioti & Al-Enezi, 2004).

With regard to gender, female administrative staff may have higher levels of affective commitment and overall organisational commitment than their male counterparts. These findings are contrary to studies by Aven et al., (1993) which did not find any relationship between gender and attitudinal commitment. Crosby (1982) cited by Mulinge (2001, p.113) referred to this scenario as ‘the paradox of the contented female worker’ whereby women who hold jobs in which they experience fewer rewards, poorer working conditions, less autonomy and authority than men were just as satisfied with their jobs and committed to their employers as their male colleagues.

Consistent with previous studies, married administrative employees are not likely to risk quitting their jobs because of the great financial burdens they have due to family responsibilities (Carson & Carson, 2002; Cetin, 2006).

Job tenure was a positive predictor of normative commitment and overall organisational commitment among administrative staff. Consistent with the literature, administrative

employees who had worked in their universities for a long time became more committed and loyal to their universities because chances of getting alternative jobs diminish with increased age and tenure (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Administrative employees who had stagnated in the same position for a long time, are likely to have high costs associated with leaving their jobs (Carson & Carson, 2002). Since these were likely to be older employees, they risked losing their seniority, pension plans, disrupting their families, and losing their retirement benefits among others.

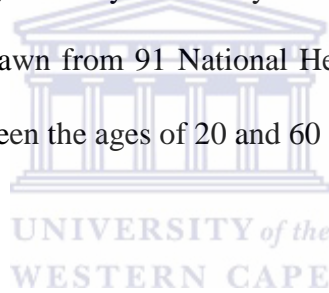
5.5.1 Age and turnover intention

In a study conducted amongst nurses in Taiwan to examine the employees' perceptions of organisational climate, levels of organisational commitment and intention to leave as well as the relationship between the three variables. The study will also attempt to determine the demographic differences on these three variables as well as the mediating effects of organisational commitment on the relationship between organisational climate and turnover intention. The sample comprised 486 registered nurses from 8 different hospitals in Taiwan and a cross-sectional descriptive design was used to gather the data. The results demonstrated that nurses above the age of 35 years had the lowest levels of organisational commitment and highest scores on intention to leave the current hospital employed in.

Further support is provided in a study conducted by Cho, Johanson and Guchait (2009) to determine whether the predictors which decrease intention to leave will also increase intention to stay amongst a sample of 416 hospitality employees. Results indicate a

significantly negative relationship between age and turnover intention. Data was collected from the population of 828 non-managerial employees from 13 mid-to-upscale restaurants representing four different organisations and four different upscale hotels in the United States of America through a convenient non-probability technique.

Similar to previous studies Shields and Ward (2001) also reported turnover to be greatest amongst nurses under the age of thirty years in their study to improve the retention of nurses in the National Health Service in England as well as to determine the impact of job satisfaction on intentions to quit. A U-shaped relationship exists between age and intention to leave with older nurses being significantly less likely to report turnover cognitions over the next 3 years. The sample was drawn from 91 National Health Service employers in Britain and comprised 9 625 nurses between the ages of 20 and 60 years.



Shields and Wheatley Price (2002) concur in their study which investigated the determinants of perceived racial harassment as well as the impact on job satisfaction and turnover cognitions amongst ethnic minority nurses. The findings indicate that nurses under the age of 30 and in the 30 – 34 categories were more likely to demonstrate turnover intentions compared to nurses over the age of 50 who were less likely to leave. The reported findings were based on a sample of 1203 nurses registered with the National Health Service in England.

Carbery, Garavan, O'Brien and McDonnell (2003) found partial support for the relationship between age and turnover intention in their study to predict hotel managers turnover cognitions. The findings were based on a sample of 89 hotel managers.

5.5.2 Gender and turnover intention

Campbell and Campbell (2003) propose that inconsistent findings have been found in prior studies relating to gender and turnover intention.

A study conducted amongst a sample of 416 non-managerial employees in the hospitality industry in the United States of America found a significant relationship between gender and turnover intentions (Cho *et al.*, 2009). A convenient non-probability sampling technique was utilised for the data collection process.

On the contrary, Shields and Ward (2001) reported no effect of gender on turnover intention amongst the sample of 9 625 nurses. The study investigated how to improve the retention of nurses in the National Health Service in England by determining the impact of job satisfaction on turnover intentions. Similarly Carbery, Garavan, et al. (2003) found no support for the relationship between gender and intention to quit amongst a sample of 89 hotel managers. Further support of the above findings is provided by Shields and Wheatley Price (2002) that no significant relationship exists between gender and intentions to quit.

5.5.3 Educational level and turnover intention

Cho *et al.* (2009) investigated whether the predictors which decreased employee intention to leave will also increase intention to stay amongst a sample of 416 employees from 13 mid-to-upscale restaurants representing four different companies and four upscale hotels in the United States of America. The authors report a significant relationship between educational level and intention to leave.

On the contrary Shield and Wheatley Price (2002) found that educational level was not significantly associated with quitting intentions amongst a sample of 1203 nurses who were registered with the National Health Service in England. The study was established to investigate racial harassment in the workplace and how this impacted on job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Reports indicate that experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace decrease job satisfaction and in turn lead to turnover cognitions amongst nursing staff.

5.5.4 Tenure and turnover intention

Shield and Ward (2001) reported a U-shaped relationship between tenure and turnover intentions albeit a very small effect. The sample involved 9625 nurses from 91 employers from Britain's National Health Service. The study was done to improve the retention of nurses as well as to determine the impact of job satisfaction on quitting intentions. Cho *et al.* (2009) reported a significantly negative correlation between tenure and intent to leave

amongst a sample of 416 employees in 13 mid-to-upscale restaurants in the United States of America.

5.6 The relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention

Hypothesis 4: Organisational commitment has an inverse relationship with turnover intentions.

The Pearson correlation matrix between organisational commitment and turnover intention amongst non-academic employees at a Tertiary institution in the Western Cape is depicted in table 4.3. The results indicate a statistically significant inverse relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention ($r = -0.412, p < 0.01$). The result of this is that employees that are not committed to the institution will in all likelihood display intention to quit cognitions.

Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Kim and Chang (2006) attempted to determine the relationship between occupational and organisational commitment of employees in sports organisations on their turnover intentions and organisational citizenship behaviour. The sample consisted of 183 employees from 8 different sports organisations. The results indicated a significantly negative relationship

between organisational commitment and turnover intention. Chughtai and Zafar's (2006) research concurs in that organisational commitment was significantly negatively related to turnover intention.

Ahmad, et. al., (2010) also found organisational commitment to be significantly negatively correlated to turnover intention amongst a sample of 114 call centre personnel in Pakistan. The study was performed to conclude the impact of organisational commitment and citizenship behaviour on turnover intentions. Joo (2010) used a sample of 516 employees from a conglomerate headquartered in Korea comprising numerous diverse industries namely, manufacturing, finance, construction and trading. Results emanating from the research indicate a significantly negative correlation was found between organisational commitment and turnover intention. Joo and Park (2010) similarly found a significantly negative correlation between organisational commitment and turnover intention. The significantly negative relationship that all of the above findings have in common means that as organisational commitment increases turnover intentions decrease amongst employees (Ali & Baloch, 2002).

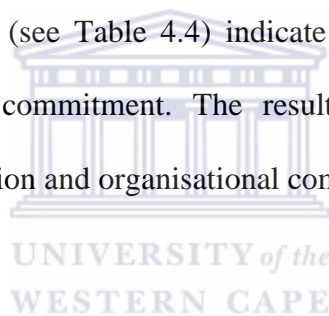
On the contrary, Sangroengrob and Techachaicherchoo (2010) found that no relationship existed between organisational commitment and turnover intention amongst a sample of 122 IT outsourcing employees. Arnolds and Boshoff (2004) concurred in the study conducted by them to determine the impact of restructuring (mergers) intervention on organisational commitment, job performance intent to resign of tertiary education staff. Empirical evidence

revealed a significant and strongly negative result between organisational commitment and intent to resign.

5.7 The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Hypothesis 5: Job satisfaction has a direct relationship with organisational commitment.

The results of the current study (see Table 4.4) indicate the relationship between the job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The results portray a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment ($r = 0.548, p < 0.01$).



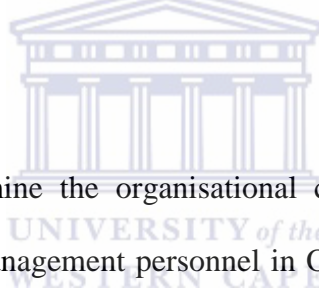
Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

A positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment was reported by several researchers (Lok & Crawford, 1999; Mathieu & Zajac; 1999; McNeese-Smith, 2001; Price & Mueller, 1981; Williams & Hazer, 1986).

Maharaj and Schlechter (2007) reported a positive relationship between total commitment and job satisfaction amongst a sample of 102 trainee and qualified chartered accountants in a multinational public accounting firm. The sample was chosen according to the convenience

non-probability sampling method. The study investigated the relationships between meaning (both of work and experienced in life), job satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour in a public accounting organisation.

Further support for the significantly strong positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment was found in a study conducted in a multinational organisation to establish the impact of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction on organisational commitment (Theron, 2010). In line with current findings, Bull (2005) also found a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and overall organisational commitment amongst high school teachers from disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape.



In a study conducted to determine the organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions of records management personnel in Ondo State Civil Service in Akure, Nigeria a significantly positive relationship was found between organisational commitment and job satisfaction. A sample of 240 respondents was drawn using a simple random sampling technique from a population size of 275 records management personnel.

Volkwein and Zhou (2003) in a survey study of 1,178 administrators from 122 American universities found that intrinsic satisfaction was lower among administrators who worked in a controlled work environment, had job insecurity, and experienced interpersonal conflict. Extrinsic satisfaction was negatively influenced by job insecurity, external regulation, job stress and pressure, and inadequate facilities and funding. Teamwork positively influenced extrinsic, intrinsic and interpersonal satisfaction. Volkwein and Zhou suggested that

university presidents should respond to the intrinsic needs of their managers by creating opportunities for them to be creative, to exercise their initiative and match their talents to their job responsibilities.

Similarly, Smerek and Peterson (2007) in a study of 1,987 non-academic respondents from a public American university examined the relationship between employees' personal characteristics, job characteristics, perceived work environments and job satisfaction. Testing Herzberg et al.'s (1959) duality theory, the study found that 'motivator' factors (that is, work itself, opportunity for advancement and responsibility) and 'hygiene' factors (namely, effective senior management, supervisory support and satisfaction with salary) were the strongest predictors of job satisfaction. Age was the only personal characteristic to predict job satisfaction. The researchers concluded that the perceived work environment variables were more important than personal characteristics in predicting job satisfaction.

Küskü (2003) from a survey study of 100 administrative employees from a state university in Turkey found that administrative employees were satisfied with the relationship with their colleagues, their work environment and their salary. Chughtai and Zafar (2006) in a survey study of 125 teachers from Pakistani universities, found that distributive justice, trust in management, satisfaction with actual work undertaken, job involvement and satisfaction with training opportunities were the strongest positive predictors of organisational commitment. Contrary to previous studies, procedural justice was not a significant predictor of organisational commitment.

Onen and Maicibi (2004) in a study of 267 non-academic staff respondents found that over 70% of the respondents were dissatisfied with their basic salary and other allowances,

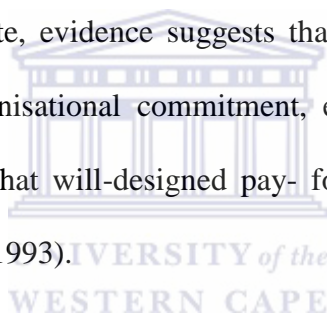
resulting in low motivation among the staff. The study also found that employees were dissatisfied with their promotional and training opportunities.

5.8 Discussion

Numerous studies have continually shown the effect of both job satisfaction and organisational commitment on turnover intentions. Organisational commitment and job satisfaction are viewed as an essential component of turnover models because their empirical relationship with voluntary turnover has been established through numerous meta-analyses, in which a negative relationship with turnover intentions has continually been illustrated (Cohen, 1993; Lee, Carswell & Allen, 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Tett & Meyer, 1993; and Yin & Yang, 2002). The greater the job satisfaction, the less the likelihood that the individual will leave the organisation, and, the higher the commitment levels of the employee, the lower the predicted turnover intentions.

There is a plethora of research which has been conducted that attempts to link employee attitudes with behavioural factors (Zhao et al., 2007). In fact, affective organisational commitment plays a central role in the turnover literature. Two recent meta-analyses conducted by Griffeth et al. (2000) and Meyer et al. (2002) confirm that organisational commitment is well established as an important antecedent of withdrawal behaviours. They also showed that intention to leave is an important antecedent to actual turnover. Committed employees have been found to be less likely to leave an organisation than those who are uncommitted (Pare & Tremblay, 2007).

Lane (1993) examined the relationship between benefit satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intention. He found that benefit satisfaction was positively related to organisational commitment and negatively associated with turnover intention. Tosi and Tosi (1986) found anecdotal evidence to suggest that workers will be more satisfied with the compensation that they receive in a pay-for-knowledge plan. Job enrichment, also known as work redesign, attempts to increase an individual's work motivation through changes in individual jobs, which in turn lead to organisational commitment (Jamshidiyan, 2007). Pay-for-knowledge strategies can help organisations design such intrinsically motivating works especially with regard skill variety, task identity and task significance, autonomy, and feed back (Martocchio, 2009). To date, evidence suggests that pay-for-knowledge programmes lead to increased affective organisational commitment, enhanced work motivation, these result probably due to the fact that well-designed pay-for-knowledge plans promote skill variety and autonomy (Caudron, 1993).



Organisational commitment researchers agree that there is no consensus over the definition of organisational commitment which has been extensively defined, measured and researched, and as a result, has been criticised for a lack of precision (Meyer & Allen, 1991). This lack of precision has given rise to inconsistent results from various studies. In this regard, Meyer and Allen (1997) advise researchers to specify the definition being used before discussing organisational commitment so as to avoid any confusion. Other problems related to the study of organisational commitment concerns its dimensionality, that is, whether it is unidimensional or multidimensional (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Although past researchers have conceptualised it as a unidimensional construct, (Mowday et al., 1982; Wiener, 1982), recent studies have shown that it is a multidimensional construct (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Studies have identified various employee and work-related factors as antecedents of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Lambert, 2004). Demographic characteristics such as age, tenure, education, gender and marital status have been found to play a significant role in enhancing employees' commitment and job satisfaction (Al-Qarioti & Al-Enezi, 2004). Job characteristics and role stressors have also been found to be important predictors of employee commitment and job satisfaction. Employees are likely to exhibit high levels of commitment, job satisfaction and turnover less when they perform challenging and meaningful jobs characterised by factors such as skills variety, autonomy and feedback among others (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

On the other hand, stressful work conditions have been found to negatively affect job satisfaction and organisational commitment and increase propensity to turnover (Ngo, Foley & Loi, 2005). Similarly, various studies have stressed the central role that HRM practices play in creating and maintaining commitment and job satisfaction (Gould-Williams, 2004).

5.9 Limitations

Granted that the current study has made a small contribution to the vast body of knowledge on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions, it is worthy to heed a number of limitations of the study.

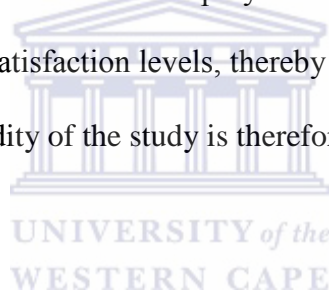
The first limitation is that the selected sample consisted of staff members employed at only one tertiary institution in the Western Cape. Furthermore, only non-academic as opposed to both non-academic and academic staff members was approached to complete the questionnaires. The generalisability of the study is therefore only applicable to the one institution and even within the said institution because so many other staff members were excluded a further problem to the generalisability is highlighted. In future an attempt should be made to include staff members from numerous tertiary institutions in the Western Cape as well as across all work functions within these institutions of higher learning.

Even though the proposed sample consisting of 118 respondents though adequate to meet the minimum requirement of 30% response rate for statistical testing, as Sekaran (2003) states that sample sizes larger than 30 and less than 500 are adequate for most research endeavours it is still considered too small to ensure generalisability. Therefore in future research endeavours into the job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention levels of non-academic staff a sample equal to or greater than 297 respondents should be achieved to ensure generalisability of the results.

The literature review conducted revealed a lack of research into the job satisfaction levels of non-academic staff at tertiary institutions. A fair amount of literature is available on the job satisfaction levels of “academic” and management staff in tertiary institutions. Future research should emphasize the non-academic staff members at tertiary institutions to increase the amount of literature available.

The research was quantitative in nature which presents a limitation as it could have been combined with qualitative methods and therefore would possibly have added more credence to the outcome of the study into the levels of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention levels of non-academic staff members. Having stated this, future researchers could possibly explore following a triangulation approach when conducting research into this topic.

Furthermore, similarly as to McWatts (2005) the extraneous variables such as marital status, personality characteristics, role conflict, role ambiguity and so forth were not controlled, which could possibly have influenced the employee's commitment to the organisation, thereby negatively affecting job satisfaction levels, thereby affecting staff members' intention to leave or stay. The internal validity of the study is therefore drawn into question.

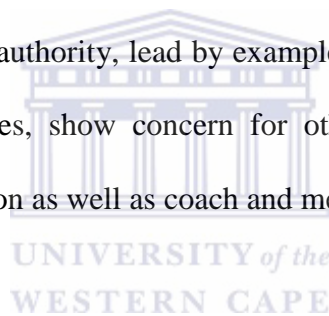


Another important aspect which could be considered a limitation is that a non-probability sampling method was used to collect data. Convenience sampling only collects data from those individuals who are conveniently available to complete the questionnaire. The researcher is employed at the tertiary institution and therefore has rapport with numerous senior staff members in faculties who acted as drop off points for the questionnaires and these staff members ensured that employees completed the questionnaires. This further created problems as the researcher could not guarantee that these staff members acted ethically in not forcing employees to complete said questionnaires. Another problem is that these members were not part of the research team and therefore would not have been able to provide

assistance if so required from staff members. As a result of this particular groups may have been under represented.

5.10 Recommendations and implications

According to Maharaj and Schlechter (2007) turnover is a burning issue as it is essential for any organisation to maintain its skilled workforce at all times. Environments should be created by organisations where people can optimise their skills and potential to add value to the organisations (Stander & Rothmann, 2008). Managers themselves should be coached and developed to be able to delegate authority, lead by example, hold employees accountable for outcomes, encourage subordinates, show concern for others feelings, allow participative decision-making, share information as well as coach and mentor people.



Bordin, Bartram and Casimir (2007) concur by stating that supervisors should be more communicative and sensitive to the needs of subordinates, willing and empathetic listeners and understanding and approachable. The authors continue by saying that time should be budgeted for the development of employees by managers.

Maharaj and Schlechter (2007) believe that organisations need to foster job involvement thereby reducing unnecessary turnover. The author's further postulate that every endeavour needs to be made as innovative ways need to be found to achieve these objectives as it is crucial for the success of every organisation.

Maharaj and Schlecter (2007) further elaborate that the work and life boundary has become blurred and that it is an organisation's responsibility to create work-life balance to further ensure a decrease in employee turnover.

Organisations and managers also need to find ways to increase job satisfaction thereby increasing employee's commitment to the organisation and in so doing decrease turnover intentions and actual turnover. To ensure employees are satisfied in their work, organisations need to delve deeper into the facets of job satisfaction to further establish which of the facets motivates individual staff members and meet those requirements where possible.



5.10.1 Employee participation

Participation in decision making is the act of sharing decision making with others to achieve organisational objectives (Scott-Ladd & Marshall, 2004). Townley (1994) has suggested that information provided to employees which is narrow in scope, restricted to the task at hand or disjointed and unrelated will not assist in the promotion of commitment to the organisation. On the other hand, communication which is open, interactive, persuasive, co-ordinated and integrated with other HR policies is more likely to promote identification with and commitment to the organisation (Thornhill, Lewis & Saunders, 1996). Organisations that share information on matters such as financial performance, strategy and operational measures convey to its employees that they are trusted (Pfeffer & Veiga, 1999).

Studies have found that participation in decision making is a positive predictor of organisational commitment and job satisfaction (McElroy, 2001). According to McElroy (2001) participation can increase affective and normative commitment when employees are involved in the decision making process. Organisations that give their employees more responsibility and autonomy are perceived to show trust in their employees thus creating a sense of attachment and obligation on the part of the employee. Scott-Ladd and Marshall (2004) argue that although employees' contributions to decisions affecting their work improve their ability to be effective, it also adds to their workload.

Cotton et al. (1988, p. 17) found that the highest satisfaction, commitment and performance outcomes were derived from participation whereby employees had a "voice" or "say" in decisions that affected them at the work place. Therefore, organisations that change from a system of hierarchical control to one in which employees are encouraged to demonstrate initiative clearly shows that the organisation is supportive of its employees and values their contributions (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

5.10.2 Training and development

Training and development represents an area within HR practices that can have a significant impact on employee commitment to the organisation. Although training and development programmes may act as inducements, they may also be viewed as investments in the relationship between organisations and individuals which can contribute to employees' organisational commitment. Recent research suggests that 'high commitment' HR practices,

such as employee development affect organisational outcomes by shaping employee behaviours and attitudes (Whitener, 2001).

Provision of training opportunities may be interpreted by employees as an indication of the organisation's commitment to its human resources leading to a strong psychological bonding with the organisation and a willingness to expend extra effort to increase the organisation's effectiveness (Wood & de Menezes, 1998). Through training, employees may develop a positive self-concept and a sense of competence resulting from the employment relationship, leading to greater identity with the organisation (Randall & O'Driscoll, 1997).

McElroy (2001) observes that organisations that extensively train their employees create a reputation for valuing and developing employees and are able to attract a cadre of highly skilled employees. Such organisations send a clear message to their employees that they are committed to the development of their people leading to high affective and normative commitment. However, organisations that provide company-specific training are likely to induce continuance commitment because the training makes employees more valuable to their existing employers than to potential employers (McElroy, 2001). Such skills constitute sunk costs in terms of time and effort that an employee stands to lose if he/she leaves the organisation. Such employees are 'betting' that the time and energy invested will pay off with continued employment in that organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Lee and Bruvold (2003) in a study of nurses from USA and Singapore, found that perceived investment in employee development had a strong positive correlation with affective commitment and a weaker correlation with continuance commitment. Failure by organisations to provide adequate training and development opportunities was likely to result

in low morale, decreased commitment and high turnover rates in the long-term. In addition, employees who quit the organisation take with them important knowledge which has taken years to develop. This scenario is made worse if the skills are scarce in the market and costly to develop.

5.10.3 Job security

An employee is considered to enjoy job security when he/she remains employed with the same organisation without a reduction of seniority, pay, pension benefits and other benefits (Yousef, 1998). However, since the late 1970s, economic recessions, industrial restructuring, technological changes and intensified global competition have dramatically changed the nature of work (Buitendach & De Witte, 2005).

These changes have forced organisations to improve effectiveness and streamline operations through downsizing, outsourcing and rationalisation, bringing to an end the promise of job security, lifelong employment and defined career paths. For many employees, these changes in working life have caused feelings of insecurity regarding the nature and future existence of their jobs, leading to negative employee work attitudes, increased job dissatisfaction, low organisational commitment and increased withdrawal behaviour (Buitendach & De Witte, 2005).

The provision of employment security under these conditions can, therefore, be perceived as a commitment by the employer to its employees (Pfeffer, 1999). Employees who are assured of employment security may develop commitment and be satisfied with their jobs because of

the longevity of the employment relationship (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999). Employees who are provided with job security will expend extra effort and are likely to develop stronger identification with the values and goals of the organisations. Pfeffer (1998, p. 66) states that laying off people too readily constitutes a cost for firms that have done a good job selecting, training and developing their workforce and that "... layoffs put important strategic assets on the street for the competition to employ". Organisations should therefore strive to reduce job losses where possible and treat workers as a critical asset and not as a variable cost (Marchington & Wilkinson, 2005).

McElroy (2001) found that employment security was likely to induce several forms of commitment. For instance, affective commitment may arise since continued membership with an organisation may result in increased belief in organisational values and therefore a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation. Normative commitment may develop if the employee feels obliged to return the loyalty exhibited by the organisation through the assurance of continued employment. Finally, continuance commitment may develop due to the fact that leaving the organisation would result in the loss of a secure employment relationship or result in unemployment due to the lack of alternative opportunities elsewhere.

5.10.4 Performance Appraisals

Performance appraisal is among the most important HR practices because of its ability to provide valuable performance information for a number of HR activities such as allocation of rewards, promotion, assessment of training needs and feedback on development (Kuvaas,

2006). Consequently, they enable organisations to retain, motivate and develop productive employees.

Studies have shown that satisfaction with performance appraisal has a significant influence on job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Paul & Anantharaman, 2003). Some of the characteristics of performance related practices that have been associated with employee commitment include the perceived accuracy of merit assessments and feedback concerning performance objectives (Oglivie, 1986). Despite the importance of performance appraisals to organisations, they continue to pose challenges to managers and the employees who use them. For instance, employees who know influential people in the organisation who can protect them, tend to be spared when performance appraisals are used to select workers for redundancy, thus placing politics and good interpersonal relationships above organisational goal-oriented performance.

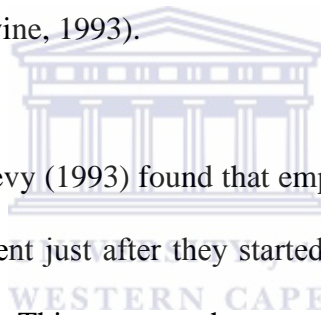


5.10.5 Pay

Employment represents an exchange relationship between an employer and an employee (Singh, Fujita & Norton, 2004). In pure economic terms, monetary compensation has been perceived as fundamental to the exchange relationship between employers and employees since it can be measured more objectively (Singh et al., 2004). Employees are therefore able to evaluate their perceptions of equity or justice in the organisational context. The equity theory posits that people evaluate fairness by comparing the inputs they contribute and the outcomes they receive to the corresponding inputs and outcomes of referent groups within the organisation and in the external market (Greenberg & Baron, 1990). A state of equity will be

attained if the perceived ratio of outcomes to inputs favourably compares to the outcome-input ratio of referent others (Lambert, 2003; Singh et al., 2004; Lambert et al., 2007).

Levine (1993) suggests that where inequity exists, employees may attempt to reduce the distress by changing the perceptions of either their own or reference group's inputs and outcomes, altering their inputs such as their effort or their outcomes. Further, whereas underpayment is likely to result in lower effort, dissatisfaction and low commitment, perceptions of overpayment will result in employees raising the evaluation of their own inputs to restore perceived equity. Studies have shown that pay is an important determinant of organisational commitment and satisfaction as they denote organisational support and dependability (Guthrie, 2001; Levine, 1993).



Morris, Lydka and Fenton-O'Creevy (1993) found that employee perceptions of pay or salary influenced employees' commitment just after they started work but this "wore" off as they progressed into their employment. This suggests that as employees move up the organisation ladder, the fulfilled extrinsic rewards (e.g. pay) are no longer motivators for job satisfaction. Studies have shown that pay is likely to induce different forms of commitment (Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Randall and O'Driscoll, 1999; McElroy, 2001).

Satisfactory pay may serve as an indication of how much an organisation values its people leading to high affective commitment. At the same time, employees who are paid high salaries may perceive a loss of control over their high compensation should they decide to leave the organisation resulting in high continuance commitment. Iverson and Buttigieg point out that merely introducing higher wages will increase an individual's perception of low job alternatives but has no effect on improving the alignment of employee's goals with the

organisation. However, pay is not likely to influence normative commitment since pay is earned due to employee's performance and not given. On the contrary, Meyer and Smith (2000) found that the provision of benefits is likely to be perceived by employees as part of the psychological contract, thus creating an obligation on the part of the employee to reciprocate, resulting in high normative commitment.

5.10.6 Distributive justice

Distributive justice is concerned with fairness in the allocation of outcomes such as pay and promotions. Discussion of distributive justice in an HR context is often grounded on Adam's (1965) equity theory (DeConinck & Johnson, 2009). The equity theory holds that employees bring inputs into the organisation such as education, effort, experience among others and in return, expect to receive fair outcomes from the organisation, such as pay, promotions, accurate and timely feedback or recognition among others (Lambert et al., 2007). As such, employees determine the fairness of their input/outcome ratio by comparing the ratio of their outcomes to the ratios of referent others such as co-workers. Therefore, perceptions of unfairness are likely to lead to frustrations and resentment resulting in loss of productivity, loyalty and attachment to the organisation or a decision to seek alternative employment elsewhere.

Studies have shown that distributive justice is not constrained to solely focusing upon employee rewards or favourable outcomes but is also concerned with punishment in a fair and just manner (Lambert et al., 2010). Hence, distributive justice would be achieved if the rewards system treats and punishes performers and under-performers equitably. The focus,

therefore, is based on fairness and not always whether this is applied positively. In this regard, distributive justice is based upon the exchange principle, such that “people look at what they give, in exchange for what they receive” (Lambert, 2003, p. 157). Employees are therefore likely to develop a positive attitude towards the organisation if the outcomes (pay, benefits, evaluation, job assignments and promotions among others) are realistically deserved.

Fairness by the organisation in the provision of employee rewards and other outcomes will have a significant impact on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and employee retention. Employees who perceive that their universities are fair and just in dealing with the workers are likely to encourage trust and loyalty, resulting in increased organisational commitment (Lambert, 2003). This means that perception of the university as being unjust, untrustworthy and unfair is unlikely to encourage any trust or commitment from its employees. In relation to job satisfaction, most employees have career aspirations and ambitions that they expect to be met by their universities over a period of time (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1990). However, with perceptions of unfairness of organisational outcomes, most employees may view their jobs as dead-ends, ultimately affecting their satisfaction with their jobs (Lambert, 2003).

In a survey study of 184 employees from the industrial sector in New Zealand, Haar and Spell (2009) found that distributive justice was significantly positively related to job satisfaction ($\beta = .64, p < 0.001$) and negatively related to turnover intentions ($\beta = -.48, p < 0.001$). This suggests that employees who perceive their rewards and pay system as fair and just will report greater satisfaction with their jobs and lower intentions to leave their organisation. Al-Omari et al. (2008) found that distributive justice had a positive indirect

effect on academics intent to stay through organisational commitment ($\beta = 0.076$, $p < 0.05$). This means that higher levels of distributive justice were associated with higher levels of commitment which in turn strengthened intent to stay. The findings suggest that unjust reward outcomes may result in a decline in faculty commitment and intent to stay.

5.10.7 Promotional opportunities

Promotional opportunities refer to the degree an employee perceives his or her chances to grow and be promoted within the organisation (Lambert, Hogan & Jiang, 2008). Some studies have found that promotion procedures and the presence of promotional opportunities or career paths have a positive relationship with organisational commitment (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999). Accordingly, employees expect to work in jobs that provide them with opportunities to be promoted to new and challenging positions (Lambert et al., 2008). Lawler (1971) contends that employees will only work hard to get promoted if they perceive that positions are available and awarded on the basis of work performance.

Perceptions of few or unfair promotional opportunities have been found to result in negative attitudes towards work or the organisation (Schwarzwald, Kolosowsky & Shalit, 1992). Perceptions of the fairness of promotion procedures can alienate employees who were passed over especially if they perceive the procedures to have been unfair. Therefore, employees who received a promotion are not only likely to experience equity regarding their treatment in the organisation but also reported higher levels of organisational commitment. McElroy, Morrow and Mullen (1996) in a study of 1029 respondents from a US state agency, found that mobility practices were related to work-related attitudes and therefore, underscored the

need to carefully manage the internal reassignment of employees and to assist employees in setting realistic internal mobility expectations.

McElroy and colleagues observed that meeting both mobility expectations and making sure that employees perceive the reason for denying their promotion request to be fair, had a positive effect on the employees work attitudes. Meyer et al. (1989) found that continuance commitment was higher among employees who were rated as less promotable by their superiors. Organisations that have firm internal labour markets (FILMs), characterised by availability of promotional opportunities and mobility up the organisational ladder, enhanced employee loyalty and attachment while absence or blockage of opportunities for advancement led to lower organisational commitment and was associated with other negative work attitudes and behaviours (Kalleberg & Mastekaasaz, 1994).



5.10.8 Career development

Increasing global competition in the business environment and rapid advances in technology have meant that organisations have had to restructure or enter into merger and acquisition programmes which have in effect removed the notion of “career-forlife” and introduced the rhetoric of the “new” career (Sturges, Guest & Mackenzie- Davey, 2000). Studies show that organisational careers are changing from the traditional full-time jobs which had clearly chartered career development programmes to becoming “portable” and “boundaryless” (Cappelli, 1999; Sturges et al., 2000).

Rajan (1997) found that the arrival of 'lean production' programmes requiring fewer staff, performance-related pay, fewer management layers, outsourcing of non-core activities among others, has undermined employee job security and career progression. Therefore, unlike the past when employees had clearly defined career paths and jobs-for-life, the trend now emphasises employability, self development and individual responsibility for career development. Employees are therefore expected to manage their own careers, even if this takes them outside the organisation (Rajan, 1997).

Studies adopting Allen and Meyer's (1990) multidimensional view of commitment found that career development practices were best predictors of affective and normative commitment because they were critical in preparing employees for a future in the organisation (Meyer & Smith, 2000). Employees with good career opportunities in their organisations were more likely to feel an obligation to their employing organisation and develop a strong emotional attachment to the organisation.

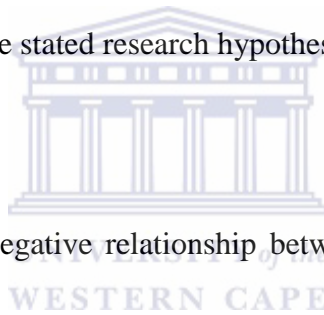


Meyer and Smith (2000) note that organisations that take an active role in helping employees to prepare for advancement in the organisation in a way that creates perception of support, might foster a stronger bond to the organisation than those that do not. Paul and Anatharaman (2003) found that career development had a direct influence on an employee's commitment to the organisation, which in turn affects employee retention and employee productivity. Sturges et al. (2000) observe that failure by organisations to meet employees' career development expectations is likely to have detrimental effects on the level of organisational commitment.

5.11 Conclusion

The principal intention of the current research study was to ascertain the impact of job satisfaction and organisational commitment on turnover intention of non-academic staff at a tertiary institution in the Western Cape. The theoretical foundation of the study was achieved through conducting a thorough literature survey.

The results from the study demonstrate a significantly negative relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment on turnover intention. The following empirical findings were highlighted from the stated research hypotheses:



- ❖ There is a significantly negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.
- ❖ There is a significantly negative relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention.
- ❖ There is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.
- ❖ There is also a significant relationship between the facets (namely, the work-itself, remuneration, supervision, promotion, and co-workers) of job satisfaction and turnover intention.
- ❖ Finally, there is an insignificant relationship between the biographical variables (namely, age, gender, educational level and tenure, respectively) and turnover intention.

On closer inspection of the hypothesis findings, it is critical for the organisation to find ways of increasing employee's levels of job satisfaction, and in so doing increasing organisational commitment. Management or the human resource department need to determine which facets of job satisfaction employees are most dissatisfied with and find means of meeting these requirements of staff. If these aspects are satisfied, it is likely that employees' intention to quit would decrease.



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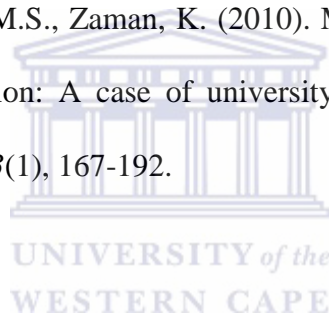
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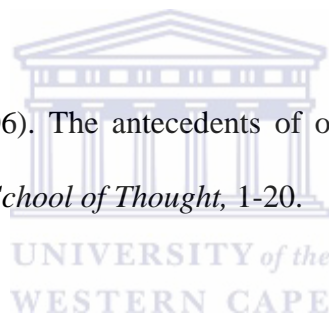
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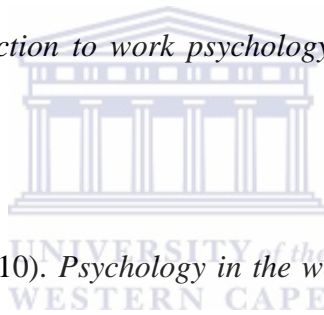
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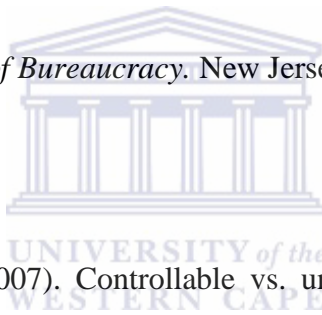
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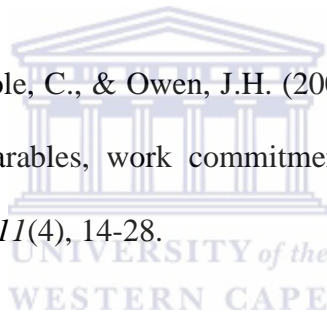
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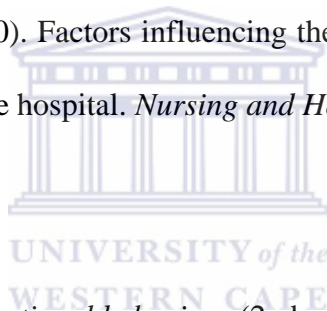
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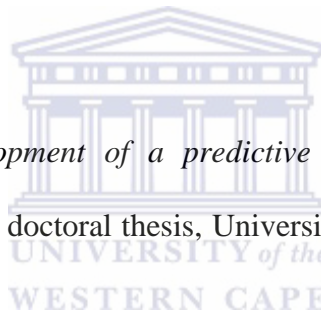
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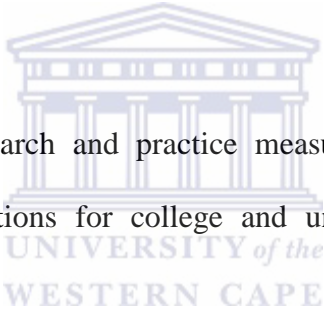
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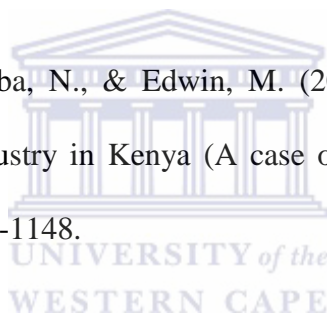
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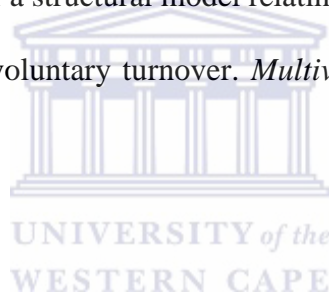
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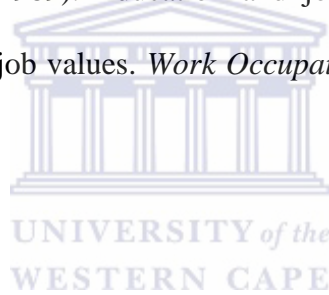
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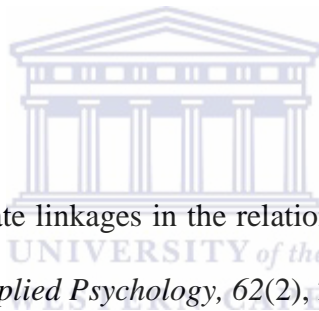
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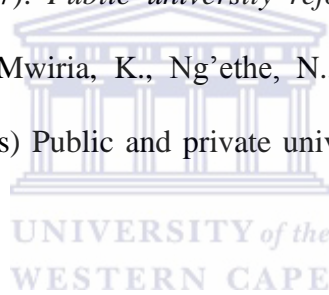
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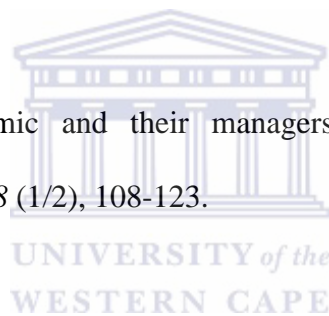
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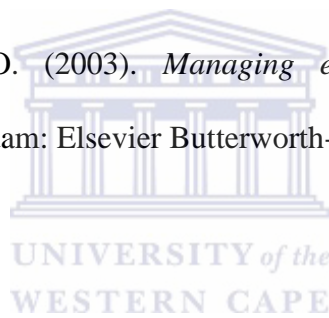
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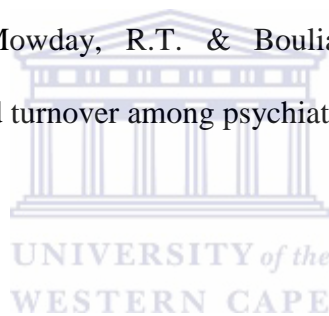
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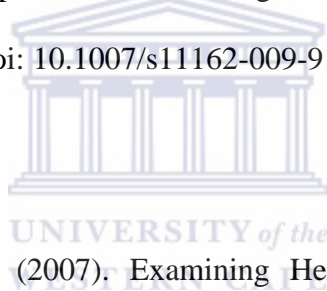
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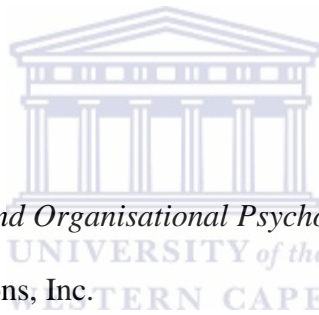
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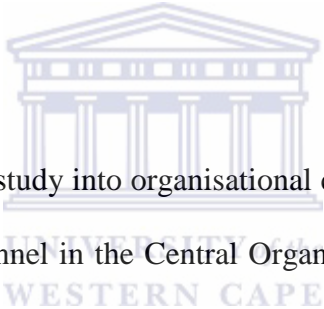
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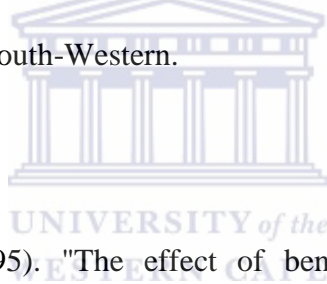
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APPENDIX

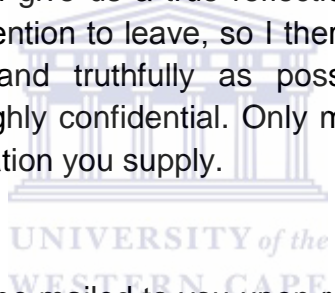
UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

Dear Participant

I, Rozario Oliver am a Masters student at the University of the Western Cape (Industrial Psychology Department) conducting research for my mini-thesis on Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Turnover Intentions. The aim of the study is to determine your level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment and how this impacts on non-academic staff members' intention to leave.

The attached questionnaires are designed to study job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions amongst non-academic staff members. The information you provide will help us determine what aspects of your job satisfy you, your commitment levels and how this possibly impacts on your intention to leave.

You are the only one that can give us a true reflection of these variables and how they impact on individual's intention to leave, so I therefore request that you answer the questions as honestly and truthfully as possible. Your response to the questionnaires will be kept highly confidential. Only members of the research team will have access to the information you supply.



A summary of the results can be mailed to you upon request after the data has been analysed. I sincerely thank you for your co-operation and appreciate your assistance in furthering my research endeavour.

Sincerely

.....

Rozario Oliver

Student

Biographical Questionnaire

**Please tick ✓ in the block most applicable to you.
Your responses will be treated as strictly confidential!**

1. Gender

Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
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2. Age

Under 20	<input type="checkbox"/>	20 - 29	<input type="checkbox"/>	30 - 39	<input type="checkbox"/>	40 - 49	<input type="checkbox"/>	50 yrs +	<input type="checkbox"/>
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3. Race

African	<input type="checkbox"/>	Coloured	<input type="checkbox"/>	Indian	<input type="checkbox"/>	White	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other	<input type="checkbox"/>
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If other, please specify

4. Marital Status

Single	<input type="checkbox"/>	Married	<input type="checkbox"/>	Divorced	<input type="checkbox"/>	Widow/Widower	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other	<input type="checkbox"/>
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If other, please specify



5. Number of years worked in the Present Organisation (Tenure)

0 - 5 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	6 - 10 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	11 - 15 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	16 - 20 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	21 yrs +	<input type="checkbox"/>
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6. Highest Level of Education

Grade 6 - 11	<input type="checkbox"/>	Grade 12	<input type="checkbox"/>	Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>	Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Honours/Masters	<input type="checkbox"/>
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7. Nature of employment

Permanent	<input type="checkbox"/>	Contract	<input type="checkbox"/>
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8. Salary (Net p/m)

R0 - R4999	<input type="checkbox"/>	R5000 - R9999	<input type="checkbox"/>	R10000 - R14999	<input type="checkbox"/>	R15000 - R19999	<input type="checkbox"/>	R20000+	<input type="checkbox"/>
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JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that you may have about your present job. There are no right or wrong answers.

Your responses will be treated as strictly confidential.

A. Think of your **present work**. What is it like **most of the time**? How well do the words below describe your work? Please **circle** the most appropriate response next to each word.

Y for **YES** if it describes your work
 N for **NO** if it does not describe your work
 ? If you cannot decide

WORK IN PRESENT JOB

1	Fascinating	Y	?	N
2	Routine	Y	?	N
3	Satisfying	Y	?	N
4	Boring	Y	?	N
5	Good	Y	?	N
6	Creative	Y	?	N
7	Respected	Y	?	N
8	Hot (temperature)	Y	?	N
9	Pleasant	Y	?	N
10	Useful	Y	?	N
11	Tiresome	Y	?	N
12	Healthful	Y	?	N
13	Challenging	Y	?	N
14	On your feet	Y	?	N
15	Frustrating	Y	?	N
16	Simple	Y	?	N
17	Endless	Y	?	N
18	Gives a sense of accomplishment	Y	?	N

B. Think of the **pay** you are receiving now. How well does each of the following words describe your present pay? Please **circle** the most appropriate response next to each word.

Y for **YES** if it describes your work
 N for **NO** if it does not describe your work
 ? If you cannot decide

PRESENT PAY

1	Income adequate for normal expenses	Y	?	N
2	Satisfactory profit sharing	Y	?	N
3	Barely live on income	Y	?	N
4	Bad	Y	?	N
5	Income provides luxuries	Y	?	N
6	Insecure	Y	?	N
7	Less than I deserve	Y	?	N
8	Highly paid	Y	?	N
9	Underpaid	Y	?	N

C. Think of the **supervision** you are receiving now. How well does each of the following words describe your present supervision? Please **circle** the most appropriate response next to each word.

Y for **YES** if it describes your work
 N for **NO** if it does not describe your work
 ? If you cannot decide

SUPERVISION ON PRESENT JOB

1	Asks my advice	Y	?	N
2	Hard to please	Y	?	N
3	Impolite	Y	?	N
4	Praises good work	Y	?	N
5	Tactful	Y	?	N
6	Influential	Y	?	N
7	Up-to-date	Y	?	N
8	Doesn't supervise enough	Y	?	N
9	Quick tempered	Y	?	N
10	Tells me where I stand	Y	?	N
11	Annoying	Y	?	N
12	Stubborn	Y	?	N
13	Knows job well	Y	?	N
14	Bad	Y	?	N
15	Intelligent	Y	?	N
16	Leaves me on my own	Y	?	N
17	Lazy	Y	?	N
18	Around when needed	Y	?	N

D. Think of the **opportunities for promotion** that you have now. How well does each of the following words describe your present opportunities for promotion? Please **circle** the most appropriate response next to each word.

Y for **YES** if it describes your work
 N for **NO** if it does not describe your work
 ? If you cannot decide

PRESENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION

1	Good opportunities for advancement	Y	?	N
2	Opportunities somewhat limited	Y	?	N
3	Promotion on ability	Y	?	N
4	Dead-end-job	Y	?	N
5	Good chance for promotion	Y	?	N
6	Unfair promotion policy	Y	?	N
7	Infrequent promotions	Y	?	N
8	Regular promotions	Y	?	N
9	Fairly good chance for promotion	Y	?	N

E. Think of the **majority of the people that you are working with** at the moment. How well does each of the following words describe these people? Please **circle** the most appropriate response next to each word.

Y for **YES** if it describes your work
 N for **NO** if it does not describe your work
 ? If you cannot decide

PEOPLE IN YOUR PRESENT JOB

1	Stimulating	Y	?	N
2	Boring	Y	?	N
3	Slow	Y	?	N
4	Ambitious	Y	?	N
5	Stupid	Y	?	N
6	Responsible	Y	?	N
7	Fast	Y	?	N
8	Intelligent	Y	?	N
9	Easy to make enemies	Y	?	N
10	Talk to much	Y	?	N
11	Smart	Y	?	N
12	Lazy	Y	?	N
13	Unpleasant	Y	?	N
14	No privacy	Y	?	N
15	Active	Y	?	N
16	Narrow interests	Y	?	N
17	Loyal	Y	?	N
18	Hard to meet	Y	?	N

PLEASE ENSURE THAT ALL QUESTIONS ARE ANSWERED!

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

<p>Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that you may have about the company for which you are working.</p> <p>With respect to your own feelings about the organisation for which you are now working please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by <u>circling</u> the number which is most applicable to you.</p>		STRONGLY DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	NEITHER DISGEE NOR AGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that is normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I feel very little loyalty to this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I find that my values and the organisation's values are very similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I could just as well be working for a different organisation as long as the type of work were similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organisation's policies on important matters relating to its employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I really care about the fate of this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Deciding to work for this organisation was a definite mistake on my part.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PLEASE ENSURE THAT ALL QUESTIONS ARE ANSWERED!

TURNOVER INTENTIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questionnaire measures your intention to quit

1	How often have you considered leaving your current job?	Never	1---2---3---4---5---6---7	Most of the times
2	How frequently do you scan newspapers for job opportunities?	Never	1---2---3---4---5---6---7	Most of the times
3	To which extent is your current job not addressing your important personal needs?	To no extent	1---2---3---4---5---6---7	To a large extent
4	How often are opportunities to achieve your most important goals at work jeopardised?	Never	1---2---3---4---5---6---7	Always
5	How often are your most important personal values at work compromised?	Never	1---2---3---4---5---6---7	Always
6	How frequently are you day-dreaming about a different job that will suit your personal needs?	Never	1---2---3---4---5---6---7	Always
7	What is the probability that you will leave your job, if you get another suitable offer?	Low	1---2---3---4---5---6---7	High
8	How frequently do you look forward to another day at work?	Always	1---2---3---4---5---6---7	Never
9	How often do you think of starting your own business?	Never	1---2---3---4---5---6---7	Most of the times
10	How often do only family responsibilities prevent you from quitting?	Never	1---2---3---4---5---6---7	Always
11	How often does only vested personal interest (pension fund, unemployment fund, etc.) prevent you from quitting?	Never	1---2---3---4---5---6---7	Always
12	How frequently are you emotionally agitated when arriving home after work?	Never	1---2---3---4---5---6---7	Always
13	How often is your current job affecting your personal well-being?	Never	1---2---3---4---5---6---7	Always
14	How often do the troubles associated with relocating, prevent you from quitting?	Never	1---2---3---4---5---6---7	Always

**PLEASE ENSURE THAT ALL QUESTIONS ARE ANSWERED AND THEN RETURN THE QUESTIONNAIRES AS ARRANGED.
THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND CO-OPERATION.**