

**THE IMPACT OF PUSH FACTORS ON THE INTENT TO  
QUIT AMONGST PRIVATE SECURITY OFFICERS**

**CHRISTOPHER JUAN WILLIAMS**

**Mini-thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the**

**degree of Magister Commercii in the Department of Industrial**

**Psychology, Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences,**

**University of the Western Cape**

**SUPERVISOR: RUKHSANA JANO**

**NOVEMBER 2011**

## DECLARATION

I declare that “the impact of push factors on the intent to quit amongst private security officers” is my own work and has never been submitted for any other degree, or any other examination in any other university, and that all sources I have used and quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references. It is submitted for the degree of Magister Commercii at the University of the Western Cape.

Full Name: Christopher Juan Williams



Date: November 2011

Signed: .....

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To our heavenly Father, who gave me the strength, courage, wisdom and health to complete this mini-thesis,

My wife Audrey, thank you for believing in me at times that I did not even believe in myself.

My children, Chrisshanda, Juan and Kaylin. Thank you for allowing me the time to complete this mini-thesis. You made so many sacrifices on my behalf.

My parents, Willie and Jessie Williams, who have taught me the importance of a good education.

My supervisor, Rukhsana Jano. Without your dedication, guidance and advice this mini-thesis would not have been possible. Thank you for the numerous hours you have spent to proof read this document and in the process giving unselfishly of yourself. Your willingness to assist and your above friendly attitude made my task so much easier. It was a great pleasure to have worked with you.

Mr. Karl Heslop, thank you for your statistical expertise and assistance.

A special thank you to Ms. Linda Hendricks who, despite the short timeframe, was willing to assist me.

All the lecturing and support staff (both past and present) in the Department of Industrial Psychology at the University of the Western Cape who have nurtured my love for industrial

psychology and who made me a better student. A special thank you to Ms. Dianne Ferrus, who encouraged me to pursue master's studies and who fought many battles on my behalf.

My family, friends and colleagues at both the University of the Western Cape as well as the Cape Peninsula University of Technology who had no direct contribution towards this study but who showed interest and encouraged me. A special thank you to my colleague, Mrs. Eveleen Cloete, for all her support and encouragement.





## ABSTRACT

The primary objective of the current study was to establish the impact that certain push factors (namely, job satisfaction and organizational commitment) have on the intent to quit amongst private security officers. Literature indicate that a strong negative relationship exist between both job satisfaction and organizational commitment and the employee's intent to quit his or her employing organization. Moreover, a number of studies indicate that push factors, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, are antecedents to turnover intentions and that both these variables are negatively related to intent to quit (Chen, 2006; Elangovan, 2001; Slattery & Selvarajan, 2005).

“For too long, private security has been rated an inferior job” (Potgieter, Ras & Nesar, 2008, p. 39). Berg (2007) proffers that government officials have frequently commented on the poor treatment of security officers in terms of the long hours, low pay and job instability. The current study investigates whether security officers are satisfied with their jobs, and if not, which facets of satisfaction they are least satisfied with.

Furthermore, the current study attempted to establish which of the two variables (namely, job satisfaction and organizational commitment) predicts intent to quit better. The literature presents opposing views with regards to this, however, various researchers (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Ben-Bakr, Al-Shammari, Jefri & Prasad, 1994; Slattery & Salvarajan, 2005; Elangovan, 2001) postulate that organizational commitment predicts intent to quit better than job satisfaction. Despite the differences in views in the literature, there is overwhelming evidence that both job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment are strong

predictors of intent to quit (Chen, 2006; Firth, Mellor, Moore & Loquet, 2004; Igarria & Greenhaus, 1992; Slattery & Selvarajan, 2005; Tumwesigye, 2010) and it is a topic worthwhile investigating, especially in a South African private security industry context.

Purposeful sampling was used to select the sample for the current study. Security officers with a grade 10 qualification and higher were selected whilst those with qualifications lower than grade 10 were excluded from the selection process as the researcher felt that respondents may have found it difficult to interpret the questions as a result of their literacy level which, in turn, might have an impact on the results of the study. The sample of the current study consisted of (n=143) private security officers employed at a private security organization operating in the Northern suburbs of the broader Cape Town area.

Three standardized questionnaires and a self-developed biographical questionnaire were used to collect the data for the current study. The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) which was developed by Spector in 1985 was used to assess an employee's attitude towards his/her job and which facet of his/her job he/she is satisfied or dissatisfied with. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Porter and Smith in 1970 but further developed later by Mowday, Steers and Porter in 1979 was used to measure a respondent's commitment to his/her employing organization. Intent to quit was measured by making use of the Intent to Quit Questionnaire which was developed by Roodt (2004). All of the measuring instruments possess sound psychometric properties with respect to validity and reliability.

The results of the study indicate that both job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment is negatively related to intent to quit. The results further indicate that private

security officers are least satisfied with their pay followed by promotional opportunities and that they are most satisfied with coworkers followed by communication. With regard to the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to quit and the strength of the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to quit, the results of the current study indicate that organizational commitment is a stronger predictor of intent to quit which is in line with the results of previous studies.

The current study has a number of limitations. These limitations as well as recommendations for future research and the organization are put forth.



**KEYWORDS:**

**Job satisfaction**

**Organizational commitment**

**Intent to quit**

**Push factors**

**Private security industry**

**Private security officers**

**Pay**

**Promotion**

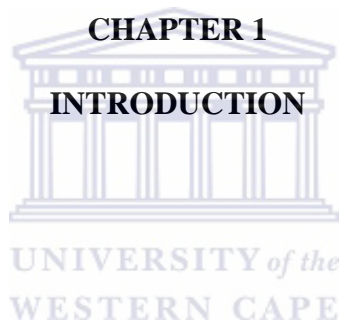
**Co-workers**

**Extrinsic factors**




## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE NO.
<b>DECLARATION</b>	<b>(i)</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b>	<b>(ii)</b>
<b>ABSTRACT</b>	<b>(iv)</b>
<b>KEYWORDS</b>	<b>(vii)</b>



<b>1.1 Background</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.2 Rationale</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>1.3 Research Objectives</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>1.4 Research Questions</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1.5 Hypotheses</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>1.6 Important Constructs Defined</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>1.6.1 Job Satisfaction</b>	<b>9</b>

<b>1.6.2 Organizational Commitment</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>1.6.3 Intent to Quit</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>1.6.4 Push Factors</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>1.6.5 Private Security Industry</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.6.6 Private Security Officer</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.7 Summary of the Chapter</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>1.8 Overview of the Chapters</b>	<b>12</b>
 <p><b>CHAPTER 2</b>  <i>UNIVERSITY of the</i>  <b>WESTERN CAPE</b>  <b>LITERATURE REVIEW</b></p>	
<b>2.1 Introduction</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>2.2 Private Security Industry</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>2.2.1 Definition of a Private Security Industry</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>2.2.2 Public Security Industry versus Private Security Industry</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>2.2.3 Private Security Personnel versus Public Security Personnel</b>	<b>19</b>
<b>2.2.4 Private Security Industry in South Africa</b>	<b>20</b>

<b>2.3 Job Satisfaction</b>	<b>22</b>
<b>2.3.1 Introduction</b>	<b>22</b>
<b>2.3.2 Defining Job Satisfaction</b>	<b>24</b>
<b>2.3.3 Motivational Theories</b>	<b>27</b>
<b>2.3.3.1 Content Theories</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>2.3.3.1.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>2.3.3.1.1.1 Physiological Needs</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>2.3.3.1.1.2 Safety Needs</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>2.3.3.1.1.3 Social Needs</b>	<b>31</b>
<b>2.3.3.1.1.4 Esteem Needs</b>	<b>31</b>
<b>2.3.3.1.1.5 Self-Actualization Needs</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>2.3.3.1.2 Herzberg's Two Factor Theory</b>	<b>33</b>
<b>2.3.3.1.3 Alderfer's ERG Theory</b>	<b>34</b>
<b>2.3.3.1.4 McClelland's Need Theory</b>	<b>35</b>
<b>2.3.3.1.4.1 Achievement</b>	<b>36</b>
<b>2.3.3.1.4.2 Power (Authority)</b>	<b>36</b>

2.3.3.1.4.3 Affiliation	37
2.3.3.2 Process Theories	37
2.3.3.2.1 Vroom’s Expectancy Theory	37
2.3.3.2.2 Lock’s Goal Setting Theory	40
2.3.3.2.3 Adams’ 1963 Equity Theory	41
2.3.4 Causes of Job Satisfaction	42
2.3.4.1 Intrinsic Factors	42
2.3.4.1.1 Job Variety	43
2.3.4.1.2 Skills Utilization	44
2.3.4.1.3 Autonomy	44
2.3.4.1.4 Person-Fit	45
2.3.4.1.4.1 Person–Environment Fit	46
2.3.4.1.4.2 Person–Job Fit	47
2.3.4.1.4.3 Person–Group Fit	47
2.3.4.1.4.4 Person–Organization Fit	48
2.3.4.1.4.5 Person–Vocation Fit	49
2.3.4.1.4.6 Person–Supervisor Fit	49



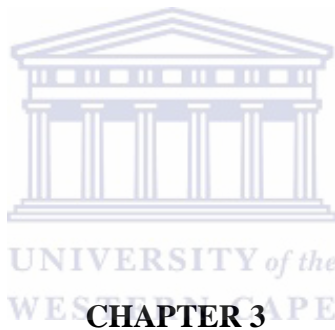


2.3.4.1.5 Disposition Personality	50
2.3.4.2 Extrinsic Factors	51
2.3.4.2.1 Nature of Work Itself	51
2.3.4.2.2 Promotion Satisfaction	52
2.3.4.2.3 Pay Satisfaction	53
2.3.4.2.4 Supervision	55
2.3.4.2.5 Coworker Satisfaction	56
2.3.4.2.6 Working Conditions	57
2.3.4.2.7 Fairness	58
2.3.4.2.8 Organizational Policies	58
2.3.4.2.9 Communication Satisfaction	59
2.3.5 Consequences of Job Satisfaction	60
2.3.5.1 Turnover	60
2.3.5.2 Productivity	61
2.3.5.3 Absenteeism	61
2.3.5.4 Low Morale	62
2.3.5.5 Physical and Psychological Consequences	63

<b>2.4 Organizational Commitment</b>	<b>64</b>
<b>2.4.1 Introduction</b>	<b>64</b>
<b>2.4.2 Defining Organizational Commitment</b>	<b>64</b>
<b>2.4.3 Theories and Models</b>	<b>66</b>
<b>2.4.3.1 Becker’s Side-Bet Theory</b>	<b>66</b>
<b>2.4.3.2 Meyer and Allen’s Three Component Model</b>	<b>67</b>
<b>2.4.3.2.1 Affective Commitment</b>	<b>69</b>
<b>2.4.3.2.2 Continuance Commitment</b>	<b>70</b>
<b>2.4.3.2.3 Normative Commitment</b>	<b>71</b>
<b>2.4.4 Motivation and Commitment</b>	<b>72</b>
<b>2.4.5 Consequences of Organizational Commitment</b>	<b>73</b>
<b>2.4.5.1 Turnover</b>	<b>74</b>
<b>2.4.5.2 Morale</b>	<b>74</b>
<b>2.4.5.3 Absenteeism</b>	<b>75</b>
<b>2.4.5.4 Productivity</b>	<b>75</b>
<b>2.5 Intent to Quit</b>	<b>76</b>
<b>2.5.1 Introduction</b>	<b>76</b>



<b>2.5.2 Defining Intent to Quit</b>	<b>77</b>
<b>2.5.3 An Intent to Quit Model</b>	<b>79</b>
<b>2.5.3.1 Mobley et al,'s Turnover Model</b>	<b>80</b>
<b>2.5.4 Factors relating to Intent to Quit</b>	<b>81</b>
<b>2.5.5 Research Findings on Organizational Commitment and Intent to Quit</b>	<b>82</b>
<b>2.5.6 Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Intent to Quit</b>	<b>84</b>
<b>2.6 Summary of the Chapter</b>	<b>88</b>

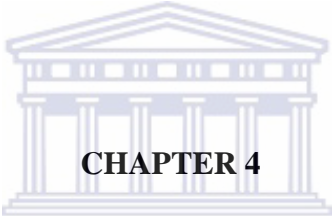


## **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

<b>3.1 Introduction</b>	<b>90</b>
<b>3.2 Research Design</b>	<b>90</b>
<b>3.3 Population</b>	<b>91</b>
<b>3.4 Sample</b>	<b>92</b>
<b>3.5 Procedure for Gathering Data</b>	<b>92</b>
<b>3.6 Measuring Instruments</b>	<b>93</b>

<b>3.6.1 Biographical Questionnaire</b>	<b>94</b>
<b>3.6.2 Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)</b>	<b>95</b>
<b>3.6.2.1 Nature and Composition of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)</b>	<b>95</b>
<b>3.6.2.2 Scoring of the Job Satisfaction Survey</b>	<b>96</b>
<b>3.6.2.3 Psychometric Properties of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)</b>	<b>98</b>
<b>3.6.2.3.1 Reliability</b>	<b>98</b>
<b>3.6.2.3.2 Validity</b>	<b>99</b>
<b>3.6.3 Organizational Commitment Questionnaire</b>	<b>101</b>
<b>3.6.3.1 Nature and Composition of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)</b>	<b>101</b>
<b>3.6.3.2 Psychometric Properties of the OCQ</b>	<b>101</b>
<b>3.6.3.2.1 Reliability</b>	<b>101</b>
<b>3.6.3.2.2 Validity</b>	<b>102</b>
<b>3.6.3.2.3 Mean and Standard Deviation</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>3.6.4 Intent to Quit Questionnaire</b>	<b>104</b>
<b>3.6.4.1 Nature and Composition</b>	<b>104</b>

3.6.4.2 Psychometric properties of the Intent to Quit Questionnaire	104
3.6.4.2.1 Reliability and Validity	104
3.6.5 Rationale for using the Questionnaires	105
3.6.6 Statistical Techniques	106
3.6.6.1 The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation	106
3.6.6.2 Multiple Regression Analysis	106
3.7 Summary of the Chapter	107



**CHAPTER 4**  
**PRESENTATION OF RESULTS**

UNIVERSITY of the  
WESTERN CAPE

4.1 Introduction	108
4.2 Descriptive Statistics	109
4.2.1 Biographical Characteristics	110
4.3 Results of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire	119
4.4 Inferential Statistics	120
4.5 Conclusion	126

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

<b>5.1 Introduction</b>	<b>127</b>
<b>5.2 Discussion of Results</b>	<b>127</b>
<b>5.2.1 Demographic Information about the Sample</b>	<b>127</b>
<b>5.3 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction and the Intent to Quit</b>	<b>128</b>
<b>5.4 Relationship between Organizational Commitment and Intent to Quit</b>	<b>140</b>
<b>5.5 Strength of the Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment</b>	<b>145</b>
<b>5.6 Limitations of the Research and Recommendations for Future Research</b>	<b>152</b>
<b>5.7 Recommendations for the Organization</b>	<b>155</b>
<b>5.8 Conclusion</b>	<b>157</b>
<b>REFERENCE LIST</b>	<b>159</b>

## LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	PAGE NO
2.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	29
2.2 The Expectancy Theory model	40
2.3 Three Component Model of Organizational Commitment	68
2.4 Mobley et al.'s (1978) Turnover Model	80
2.5 Partially Mediated Model of Commitment	87
4.1 Age of Respondents	110
4.2 Gender of Respondents	111
4.3 Race of Respondents	112
4.4 Marital Status of Respondents	113
4.5 Educational Level of Respondents	114
4.6 Tenure of Respondents	115
4.7 Grade of Respondents	116
4.8 Shift work of Respondents	117



## LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE NO
3.1 Facets of the Job Satisfaction Survey	96
3.2 Subscale Contents for the Job Satisfaction Survey	97
3.3 Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities for the JSS	99
4.1 Descriptive Statistics for Job Satisfaction	118
4.2 Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Commitment	119
4.3 Pearson Correlation between Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention	121
4.4 Pearson Correlation between Organizational Commitment and Turnover Intention	122
4.5 Multiple Regression: Job satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Turnover Intention	123
4.6 Reliability of the Job Satisfaction Survey, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire and the Turnover Intention Questionnaire	125
4.7 Summary of Hypotheses	126

## APPENDICES

Appendix A	Letter of Request to Complete Questionnaires
------------	--



<b>Appendix B</b>	<b>Questionnaire Cover Letter</b>
<b>Appendix C</b>	<b>Biographical Questionnaire</b>
<b>Appendix D</b>	<b>Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)</b>
<b>Appendix E</b>	<b>Organizational Commitment Questionnaire</b>
<b>Appendix F</b>	<b>Intent to Quit Questionnaire</b>



# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 BACKGROUND


The security industry in South Africa is one of the fastest growing industries. According to de Waard (1999), the private security industry in South Africa has grown rapidly since 1990 with an estimated value of just under 6 billion rand. de Waard (1999) further alluded that by 1997 there would be approximately 3 345 private security companies in South Africa with a total number of 363 928 registered security officers. Berg (2004) added that by mid 2002 there were about 636 private security companies operating in the Western Cape with just under 30 000 officers in their employ by 2004. The Western Cape constitutes 12% of the entire private security industry in South Africa.



According to Securitas (2007 cited in Abrahamsen & Williams, 2009, p. 1), “worldwide, the commercial private security market is now valued at \$165 billion, and its growth is forecast to continue at an annual rate of 8% for the foreseeable future.” Abrahamsen and Williams (2006 cited in Abrahamsen & Williams, 2009) also allude that when measured as a percentage of the GDP, South Africa is home to the largest private security market in the world. Despite the rapid growth of the private security industry in South Africa many security officers however, leave their employing organizations. Berg (2007) postulated that by March 2005 there were 638 181 registered but inactive security personnel in South Africa indicating the high turnover of security officers entering and leaving the industry.

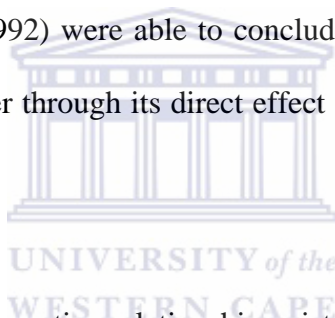
Very little has actually been done and there is minimal research conducted to understand the reasons why security officers leave their employing organizations. Despite the paucity of research, especially within a South African context, Mcbey and Karakowsky (2000) delineate that an aspect that forces an individual into leaving his or her employing organization would be an important factor such as job satisfaction. In this regard, Ali Shah, Fakhr, Ahmad and Zaman (2010, p. 170) postulate that “push factors are aspects that push the employee towards the exit door.”

Ali Shah et al. (2010, p. 169) posit that a “...review of various research studies indicated that employees resign for a variety of reasons.” The researchers classify these reasons as follows:

- 
- (i) **Demographic factors** namely, age, marital status, gender, number of children, education, experience and employment tenure;
  - (ii) **Personal factors** namely, health problems, family related issues, children’s’ education and social status; and
  - (iii) **Push factors** namely, organizational factors (salary, benefits and facilities, location of organization, size of organization, etcetera), attitude factors (job satisfaction and job stress), organizational commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment) and pull factors (these are factors that attract an employee to a new job or organization).

The current study focuses on certain push factors such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment and the impact these two variables have on the intent to quit amongst private security officers.

Lum, Kervin, Clarck, Reid and Sirola (1998) report that both intrinsic factors such as autonomy, respect and recognition as well as extrinsic factors such as pay, shift work and workload have been cited as variables relating to job satisfaction, and that overall job satisfaction including satisfaction with work itself, pay satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision and organizational commitment are negatively related to turnover. Lum et al. (1998) and Irvine and Evans (1992) were able to conclude empirically that job satisfaction had an indirect effect on turnover through its direct effect on turnover formation of intent to leave.



Literature indicate that a strong negative relationship exist between both job satisfaction and organizational commitment and have shown to be key determinants in an employee's intent to quit his or her employing organization. In a recent study by Tumwesigye (2010) it was found that a strong negative relationship exists between all three dimensions of organizational commitment (namely, affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment) and the intent to leave. Findings of a study conducted by Slattery and Selvarajan (2005) revealed that a number of past investigations have shown that job satisfaction and organizational commitment is antecedents to turnover intentions and that both these variables are negatively related to intent to quit. Other studies conducted (Chen, 2006; Elangovan, 2001) yielded the same results as that of previous studies and found that

both job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment are negatively related to intent to quit.

However, there has been opposing views as to which of the two variables (namely, job satisfaction and organizational commitment) predict intent to quit better. Although conflicting views exist in the literature as to which variable is a better predictor, Bateman and Strasser (1984); Ben-Bakr, Al-Shammari, Jefri and Prasad (1994); Slattery and Selvarajan (2005) and Elangovan (2001) postulate that organizational commitment predicts intent to quit better than job satisfaction.

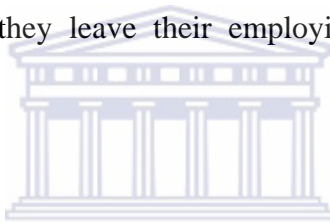
Despite the differences in views in the literature, there is overwhelming evidence that both job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment are strong predictors of intent to quit (Chen, 2006; Firth, Mellor, Moore & Loquet, 2004; Igbaria & Greenhaus, 1992; Slattery & Selvarajan, 2005; Tumwesigye, 2010) and it is a topic worthwhile investigating, especially in a South African private security industry context.

## **1.2 RATIONALE**

“For too long, private security has been rated an inferior job” (Potgieter, Ras & Naser, 2008, p. 39). Berg (2007) comments on the treatment of private security officers by their employers and delineate that government officials have frequently commented on the poor treatment of security officers in terms of the long hours, low pay and job instability. Berg (2007) postulates that the State had to some extent attempted to enforce the labour law rights

of private security employees through regulating working hours, overtime and the payment thereof, regulating meals and rest intervals, etcetera, but that security officers are still expected to perform in less than optimal conditions for relatively low pay or incentives.

Potgieter et al. (2008) point to the 2006 security industry strike where approximately 35 000 security officers embarked on the biggest and bloodiest union-inspired strike demanding higher salaries. Despite the above mentioned conditions and the fact that security officers demonstrate their dissatisfaction through strike action, organizations do very little to understand the underlying reasons why security officers are not satisfied with their working conditions and why it is that they leave their employing organizations or the security industry.



According to DeConinck and Stilwell (2004 cited in Jacobs & Roodt, 2008), most of the studies concentrating on job satisfaction and organizational commitment as antecedents for turnover intentions indicated significant relationships. The rationale behind the current study is to investigate the impact that job satisfaction and organizational commitment have on the intent to quit from a private security industry perspective. Although the relationship between these three variables has been investigated across a number of industries, a paucity of studies exist amongst private security employees.

Nedd (2006) posits that turnover of employees can be costly for organizations due to hiring, training and maintaining staff. According to Will (2001 cited in Nedd, 2006), it cost an organization on average one-third of a new employee's annual salary to replace an

employee. Kaye and Jordan-Evans (2001 cited in Nedd, 2006) highlight that the role of administrators should be to strategize and to take the lead in designing systemic retention process to prepare line managers for the day-to-day responsibility of retaining employees. Will (2001 cited in Nedd, 2006) posit that the starting point for developing effective strategies is to understand why employees stay with the organization.

Based on the above premise and that not much research has been conducted on the private security industry in South Africa, the current study is an attempt to understand (i) why there is such a high turnover in the private security industry and (ii) why security officers are neither satisfied with their jobs or committed to their employing organizations which warrants the necessity for this research.



### **1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The objectives of this research are:

- (i) To establish the impact that job satisfaction has on the intent to quit the organization amongst private security officers,
- (ii) To establish the impact that organizational commitment has on the intent to quit the organization amongst private security officers,

- (iii) To establish whether private security officers are satisfied with their jobs and if not which facets of their jobs are they not satisfied with,
- (iv) To establish which of the two variables (job satisfaction or organizational commitment) predicts intent to quit better.

#### **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

- (i) Does a significant negative relationship exist between job satisfaction and intent to quit?
- (ii) Does a significant negative relationship exist between organizational commitment and intent to quit?
- (iii) Which facets of their jobs are security officers satisfied or dissatisfied with?
- (iv) Which of the two variables (job satisfaction or organizational commitment) will be a better predictor of intent to quit?





## **1.5 HYPOTHESES**

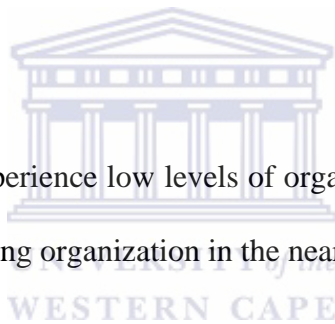
The following hypotheses have been formulated based on the objectives:

### **Hypothesis 1**

Private security officers who experience low levels of job satisfaction will show an intention to quit their employing organization in the near future.

### **Hypothesis 2**

Private security officers who experience low levels of organizational commitment will show an intention to quit their employing organization in the near future.



### **Hypothesis 3**

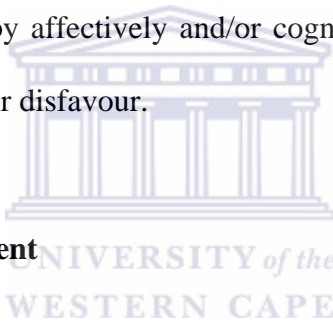
Organizational commitment will show a stronger relationship with intent to quit than job satisfaction will.

## 1.6 IMPORTANT CONSTRUCTS DEFINED

### 1.6.1 Job Satisfaction

Noe (2000 cited in Chang, Wunn & Tseng, 2003) defines job satisfaction as a pleasurable feeling that results from the perception that an individual's job fulfills or allows for the fulfillment of his/hers important job values.

Brief (1998 cited in Grandey, Cordeiro & Crouter, 2005) defines job satisfaction as an internal state that is expressed by affectively and/or cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree of favour or disfavour.



### 1.6.2 Organizational Commitment

Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982 cited in Payne & Huffman, 2005, p. 159) define organizational commitment as “the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization.” Meyer and Allen (1991 cited in Payne & Huffman, 2005) further conceptualized organizational commitment by positing that organizational commitment is a multidimensional construct which consist of three components namely, affective, continuance and normative commitment.

### **1.6.3 Intent to Quit**

Intent to quit will be used interchangeably with other terminology such as intent to leave, intent to turnover, and job withdrawal intention for the purpose of this study.

According to Kong, Wertheimer, Serradell and McGhan (1994), although different terminologies have been used, the construct intention to quit refers to the employee's intention to leave the employing organization voluntarily and excludes the situation in which an employee is fired.

According to authors such as Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino (1979 cited in Lambert, 2006), turnover intent is the cognitive process of thinking, planning, and desiring to leave a job.

Kahumuza and Schlechter (2008 cited in Mendes & Stander, 2011, p. 3) posit that “intention to leave is the strength of an individual's viewpoint that he or she does not want to stay with his or her employer.”

### **1.6.4 Push Factors**

Mcbeey and Karakowsky (2000) refer to aspects that push an individual into leaving his or her employing organization as push factors.

Ali Shah et al. (2010, p. 170) postulate that “push factors are aspects that push the employee towards the exit door.”

### 1.6.5 Private Security Industry

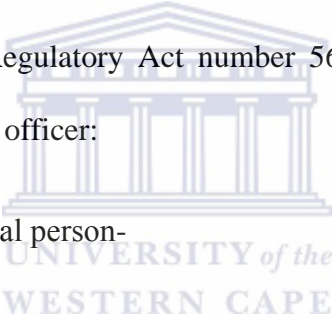
The Private Security Industry Regulatory Act Number 56 of 2001 (p. 4) provides the following definition of the private security industry:

“Private security industry means the industry conducted by security service providers.”

### 1.6.6 Private Security Officer

The Private Security Industry Regulatory Act number 56 of 2001 (pp. 4-5) provides the following definition of a security officer:

“security officer means any natural person-

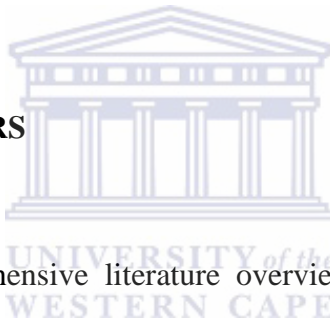
- 
- (a) (i) who is employed by another person, including an organ of State, and who receives or is entitled to receive from such other person any remuneration, reward, fee, or benefit, for rendering one or more security service; or
  - (a) (ii) who assists in carrying on or conducting the affairs of another security service provider, and who receives or is entitled to receive from such other security service provider, any remuneration, reward, fee, or benefit, as regards one or more security service;
  - (b) who renders a security service under the control of another security services provider and who receives or is entitled to receive from any other person any remuneration, reward, fee or benefit for such service; or

- (c) who or whose services are directly or indirectly made available by another security service provider to any other person, and who receives or is entitled to receive from any other person any remuneration, reward, fee or benefit for rendering one or more security service.”

## 1.7 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

Chapter 1 provides an overview of the background and the rationale for the study. It outlines the objectives, defines the main constructs of the study and highlights the hypotheses to be tested. The chapter concludes by providing an overview of the ensuing chapters.

## 1.8 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS



**Chapter 2** provides a comprehensive literature overview of the variables (namely, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intent to quit) pertaining to the study. The chapter defines the constructs being investigated, discusses models and theories and highlights how these constructs are linked. Furthermore, a brief overview of the South African private security industry is also addressed.

**Chapter 3** highlights the research methodology employed in this study. Aspects pertaining to the research design, how the sample was selected, the procedure followed in collecting the data and the statistical methods used in analyzing the data are presented. The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Intent to Quit Questionnaire with respect to their psychometric properties are also delineated.

**Chapter 4** presents and discusses the major findings from the data collected.

**Chapter 5** discusses the results by making reference to other research conducted. Furthermore, the limitations related to the research will be highlighted and the chapter will conclude with putting forth recommendations to both the organization and for future research.

The ensuing chapter provides a brief overview of the private security industry followed by a literature review on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intent to quit.



## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Before embarking on a literature review of the constructs being investigated in this research, an overview of the industry in which the study will be conducted as well as the difference between public and private security will be given to provide a context. Furthermore, various terminologies are used in the literature that refers to the private security industry, but the term “private policing” will be used interchangeably with the term “private security” for the purpose of this study. Similarly, the term “public policing” and “public security” will be used interchangeably when discussing the two sectors.



“Private security or private policing is a phenomenon that has re-emerged in force in the last half of the twentieth century” (Berg, 2003, p. 178). According to Potgieter et al. (2008), the evolution of the private security industry and its role in crime prevention has been recorded from ancient times right through the middle ages up to modern times. However, Europe but more particularly the United States, contributed much in recording the early history of the private security industry. Potgieter et al. (2008) allude that some interesting and worthwhile research contributions about the role and significance of the private security industry in South Africa had been documented during the 1990’s and the beginning of the new millennium.

Taljaard (2008) posit that according to the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA), there were 986 746 registered security officers (active and inactive) in South Africa by 2006. Taljaard (2008) highlights that a total of 689 845 of the above mentioned officers were inactive registered security officers whilst 296 901 were active registered security officers. According to Taljaard (2008), the number of registered active security officers has increased to over 300 000 by 2007 and the industry is valued at approximately 14 billion rand.

Despite the enormity of the private security industry in South Africa, security officers are not well presented. Taljaard (2008) highlights that private security companies have minimal level of unionization despite the existence of 15 trade unions and that during wage negotiations in 2006, security around the country was crippled by strike action. The security strike that crippled security services throughout South Africa was a direct result of security officers' complaints about poor working conditions and poor salaries.

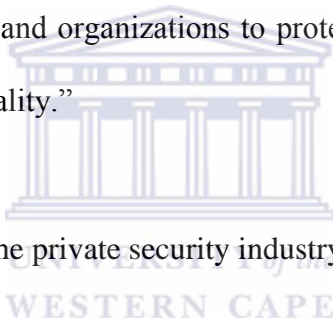
Potgieter et al. (2008) cites various researchers (Minnaar, 1999; Minnaar & Ngoveni, 2003; Berg, 2003; Minnaar, 2005; Ras, 2006; Pillay, 2007) who all conducted extensive research on the private security industry in South Africa but none addressed job related factors such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, etcetera in the security industry. It is thus the primary focus of this research to investigate the impact of push factors such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment on the intent to quit amongst private security officers.



## 2.2 PRIVATE SECURITY INDUSTRY

### 2.2.1 DEFINITION OF A PRIVATE SECURITY INDUSTRY

Siebrits (2001) proffers that the term private security industry refers to the encompassing group of functions and resources that are used to protect the assets and safety of the public by a public entity. Furthermore, the researcher postulate that in most cases this function takes place in association with similar functions provided by the government or in absence of the government functions. Bosch (1999 cited in Siebrits, 2001, p. 2) defines private security as: “... those efforts by individuals and organizations to protect their assets from lost, harm or reduction in value, due to criminality.”



According to de Waard (1999), the private security industry consists of four sectors, namely:

- (i) **Private security companies** which are organizations that perform a professional service to a third party. The main objective of these organizations is the preservation of the security of persons and property or the maintenance of public law and order. “This is also known as contract-security” (de Waard, 1999, p. 144).
- (ii) **Private in-house security services.** de Waard (1999) defines private in-house security services as organizations that perform security functions for their own organizations.

- (iii) **Private central alarm monitoring stations** perform functions for a third party on a professional basis by using detectors that transmit findings via telecommunication links to one or more central points where the findings are recorded and evaluated. This sector mainly delivers services such as alarm monitoring services and armed response services.
- (iv) Lastly, **private high security transport companies** transport limited quantities of cash and other valuables for a third party on a professional basis.

It is important to mention that the private security sectors (services) defined above can at times be delivered by one organization, especially in a South African context. A security company for example will (1) provide contract security personnel to a third party; (2) provide in-house security services whereby their own security personnel may provide security services at, for example, their offices or premises owned by the company; (3) provide high security transport to a third party and; 4) provide alarm monitoring and armed response services to a third party.

The current research will focus on the private security industry.

### **2.2.2 PUBLIC SECURITY INDUSTRY VERSUS PRIVATE SECURITY INDUSTRY**

The security industry can be divided into two categories namely, (i) the private security/policing industry which consist of privately owned security companies who serve and are contracted to private clients and (ii) public security/policing industry which are

publicly owned and serves the broader public or community. Examples of private security/police agencies include ADT Security, Coin Security, Security Wise, etcetera, whilst public security/policing agencies include the South African Police Service, Metro Police, Municipal Law Enforcement, etcetera. “Public security would automatically imply the law enforcement agencies of a specific country” (Siebrits, 2001, p. 52).

Simonsen (1998 cited in Potgieter et al., 2008) posits that the private security industry, unlike the South African Police Service are responsible for the policing of common law crimes and violations of statutory prescriptions, strives towards loss prevention and assets protection in both the private and business environments and thus serves the interests of specific clients. However, Minnaar (2005) delineates that private and public policing these days serves similar interests but that the difference between the private policing agents and the public policing agents are the clients or public that they serve. Minnaar (2005) alludes that whilst the private security/private policing serve the narrow interest of a contracting organization or client, the public security/policing serves the interest of the wider community or public, both broadly aiming to reduce crime and prevent client losses. Another clear distinction that can be drawn between private security/policing and public security/policing is that the public police are more offender-orientated and more focused on the different effects of prosecution whilst, the private security/policing focus is more aimed at victim protection, loss prevention and risk management.

Despite the differences between the private security/policing and the public security/policing there exist a number of similarities between the two, the main focus being both aim to

maintain order and protect their respective clients. Consequently the role of private and public policing has become increasingly blurred” (Minnaar, 2005, p. 87).

### **2.2.3 PRIVATE SECURITY PERSONNEL VERSUS PUBLIC SECURITY**

#### **PERSONNEL**

Shearing and Stenning (1981) distinguishes between private security personnel and public security personnel by alluding that private security personnel are individuals that are firstly privately employed and secondly, that their job involves the principle component of some security function. According to Shearing and Stenning (1981), it is the aforementioned that distinguishes private security personnel from public security personnel (public security personnel would be government guards, investigators and public police). Hence, private security personnel are privately employed by a private security organization and the latter by the government or state.

Shearing and Stenning (1981) believe that it is not always easy to distinguish between private security personnel and public security personnel. Their view is that a grey area exists when it comes to security personnel working for quasi-public institutions, for example, some universities, transportation and utility agencies.

## 2.2.4 PRIVATE SECURITY INDUSTRY IN SOUTH AFRICA

Minnaar (2005) postulate that private policing is not a new form of policing that has developed over the last decade or two but that it has been around for many years. According to the researcher, Collins, Ricks and Van Meter (2000) highlighted that security and crime prevention have been present in the earliest known forms of prehistoric civilization. “Guilds, merchants’ associations and other businesses would also appoint “security officers” to prevent the theft of goods and to protect their trade routes” (Minnaar, 2005, p. 86).

“Early forms of private security in South Africa during the fifties and sixties had been observed in the form of African guards (*aMantshingelane*) at shopping complexes who kept themselves warm during winter nighttimes with a drum containing a fire (*iMbawula*)” (Potgieter et al., 2008, p. 39). Potgieter et al. (2008) posit that these guards were usually low skilled employees with no knowledge of private security work.

According to Berg (2007), the private security industry in South Africa started developing during the 1980s due to a number of factors, namely: (i) The rise of insecurities associated with apartheid activities; (ii) the apartheid state’s willingness to accept the security as an adjunct to the state police and; (iii) the apartheid state’s attempts to professionalize the industry through the enactment of various pieces of legislation.

Siebrits (2001) alludes that the historic development of the private security industry in South Africa can basically be divided into three distinct periods namely, the period before 3 April

1989, when the Security Officers Act (Act 92 of 1987) was promulgated, the period after the establishment of the Security Officers Board in September 1989 and lastly, the period after the establishment of the Interim Board in February 1999 which included the process of drafting the new regulatory framework for the regulation of the private security industry.

According to de Waard (1999), South Africa opted for a narrow and fairly comprehensive approach in regulating the private security industry through a single statutory body namely, the **Security Officer's Board (SOB)** which had been however, far from effective in maintaining adequate standards of regulation. de Waard (1999) cites a number of key weaknesses of the Security Officer's Board (SOB) and delineate that the Board cannot be considered as an independent body as it exclusively represent the interest of the private security industry. Furthermore, the Security Officer's Board lacked the power to enforce regulations and there existed a lack of sanctions for breaches of conduct. de Waard (1999) further stresses that the Security Officer's Board (SOB) was solely funded by the private security industry and that led to the undermining of the interests of the Security Officer's Board (SOB) by the private security industry.

In an attempt by the South African Government to regulate the ever growing private security industry and to address the above mentioned key weaknesses of the Security Officer's Board (SOB), the **Private Security Industry Regulatory Act no. 56 of 2001** was passed in 2001. This act was drafted "to provide the regulations of the private security industry; for that purpose to establish a regulatory authority; and to provide for matters connected therewith" (The Private Security Industry Regulatory Act no. 56 of 2001, p. 1). Chapter two subsection

(1) of the Private Security Industry Regulatory Act no. 56 of 2001 provides for the establishment of a **Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA)** to regulate the private security industry in South Africa. Despite the implementation of the aforementioned Act and regulatory body, the minimum wage and maximum working hours of security officers are not being dictated by legislation but rather through a sectoral determination by the minister of labour.

## **2.3 JOB SATISFACTION**

### **2.3.1 INTRODUCTION**

Studies around the topic of job satisfaction have received a lot of attention over the last few decades and according to Locke (1969), research on the topic of job attitudes have especially increased since the publication of Roethlisberger and Dickson's Management and the Worker and Hoppock's Monograph on Job Satisfaction in the 1930's. As early as the 1930's and up until today, a number of researchers have been fascinated by job satisfaction as a variable. Johnston, Futrell, Parasuraman and Black (1990 cited in Howard, Donofrio & Boles, 2004) posit that job satisfaction has been linked to increased organizational commitment. Howard et al. (2004) also allude that job satisfaction is an important construct for a variety of reasons. Yousef (2002) indicates that a reason for the construct being so overwhelmingly researched might be its significant association with several other variables such as life satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, absenteeism and employee turnover.

According to Carmeli and Weisberg (2006), scholars have been directing much effort over the last few decades to investigate employees' turnover intentions towards their employing organizations. Carmeli (2004) and Carmeli and Schaubroeck (2005) all cited in Carmeli and Weisberg (2006) highlight the importance of retaining human capital in an ever increasing competition to employ the most valuable employees in the marketplace as well as detecting the motivational factors that would diminish an employee's intention to leave the organization. According to Maertz and Campion (1998 cited in Brough & Frame, 2004), the identification of the variables that contribute to turnover intentions are considered to be effective in reducing actual turnover levels. Cotton and Tuttle (1986 cited in Brough & Frame, 2004) identifies three groups of variables that have been associated with turnover intentions, namely: (i) organizational variables such as job satisfaction, occupational stress and gender discrimination; (ii) individual demographic variables such as gender, marital status and tenure; and (iii) external variables such as the availability of alternative employment. The current study is particularly interested in the first group of variables, namely, job satisfaction and its impact on the intent to quit.

According to Locke (1976 cited in Lambert, 2001, p. 67), "the reaction to something that is satisfying is to embrace it, while the reaction to something that is dissatisfying is to withdraw from it." Roseman (1981 cited in Lambert, 2001) highlights that highly dissatisfied employees will be more likely to voice their intentions to leave as to alleviate their negative feelings. Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu and Hua (2009, p. 157) "refer to intent to quit as a person's subjective probability that they are permanently leaving their employer in the near future and captured the last series of withdrawal cognitions that also include thoughts about



quitting and searching for alternative employment.” Hellman (1997 cited in Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006, p. 194) posit that the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to quit “implies that every unit of decrease in job satisfaction reflects approximately a one-half standard deviation increase in intent to leave” and that “the more dissatisfied employees become, the more likely they are to consider other employment opportunities.”

### **2.3.2 DEFINING JOB SATISFACTION**

Hersen (2004) delineates that the English word “*satisfaction*” comes from the Latin words “*satis*” which means “*enough*” and “*facere*” which means “*to make*”, “hence the dictionary definitions: (1) to fulfill the needs, expectations, wishes, or desires of; (2) to meet or answer the requirements of” (Hersen, 2004, p. 470). Hersen (2004) further advocates that there exist two basic definitions of satisfaction namely, satisfaction as fulfillment versus satisfaction as evaluation. The first definition a deficit exists and that it is being filled by satisfaction whilst in the second definition, certain criteria or requirements must be met and these criteria or requirements being met is satisfaction.

Job satisfaction had been defined in a number of ways by various researchers over the last number of years. Earlier scholars such as Locke (1969) defines job satisfaction as an emotional state resulting from appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values. According to Lock (1969), job dissatisfaction is the unpleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as frustrating or blocking the attainment of one’s job values or as entailing disvalues. “Job satisfaction and

dissatisfaction are a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it as offering or entailing" (Lock, 1969, p. 316).

Another earlier scholar, Kalleberg (1977) stresses that in order to empirically examine the process underlying the notion of job satisfaction it is necessary first to state explicitly what is implied by this concept. The researcher states that job satisfaction refers to an overall affective orientation on the part of the individual towards his or her work roles which they are presently occupying, and that this conceptualization of job satisfaction implies that job satisfaction is a unitary concept and that individuals may be characterized by some sort of vaguely defined attitude toward their total job situation. Kalleberg's (1977) position was to say that job satisfaction is a unitary concept but it did not however, imply that the cause of this overall attitude is not multidimensional and that it should be obvious that a person may be satisfied with one dimension of the job and dissatisfied with another.

Spector (1985) refers to job satisfaction as a cluster of evaluative feelings about the job. He identifies nine facets about job satisfaction that are measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey namely, pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedure, coworkers, nature of work and communication. Both Kalleberg (1977) and Spector (1985) sees job satisfaction not as a unitary concept but consisting of multiple dimensions or a cluster of evaluative feelings.

According to Cranny, Smith and Stone (1992 cited by Egan, Yang & Bartlett 2004), job satisfaction is typically defined as an employee's affective reactions to a job based on comparing desired outcomes with actual outcomes. In other words, it is the employee's reaction to what he or she desires from a particular job and what he or she actually

experiences. It can thus be derived from the above statement that if an employee's expectations are met, he or she will be satisfied whilst the employee will be dissatisfied if his or her expectations are not met.

Knights and Kennedy (2005) refer to job satisfaction as an attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs. They allude that job satisfaction consists of many facets and when an employee experiences a discrepancy between what was expected and what was received, he or she may experience a decrease in job satisfaction. Pietersen (2005) however, points out that managers and industrial and organizational psychologists tend to define job satisfaction as a job attitude along with other attitudinal concepts such as moral, job involvement and organizational commitment.

Chen (2008) states that job satisfaction describes individual feelings, attitudes or preferences regarding a job and based on individual differences, the job satisfaction of different employees are affected by different factors.

Noe (2000 cited in Chang et al., 2003) sees job satisfaction as a pleasurable feeling that results from the perception that an individual's job fulfills or allows for the fulfillment of the individual's important job values. Price (2001 cited by Lu, While & Barriball, 2005) point out that job satisfaction is the affective orientation that an employee has towards his or her work. Furthermore, that job satisfaction can be considered as a global feeling about the job or it can be seen as a number of related attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job.

Oshagbemi (1999); Wanous, Reichers and Hudy (1997 cited in Faragher, Cass and Cooper, 2005) state that a global debate has arisen as to whether job satisfaction is a global concept or whether it is composed of facets of satisfaction with various aspects of an individual's job.

According to Lu et al. (2005, p. 212), “the global approach is used when the overall attitude is of interest while the facet approach is used to explore which parts of the job produce satisfaction or dissatisfaction.” The researchers believe that an employee will follow the global approach when he or she looks at his or her job as a whole, whilst he or she will follow the facet approach when looking at various facets or aspects that make up the job.

### **2.3.3 MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES**

Steers, Mowday and Shapiro (2004) delineate that the earliest approaches to understanding human motivation can be dated back to the time of the Greek philosophers where the concept of hedonism was seen as the principle driving force in behaviour. They further stipulate that individuals focused their efforts on seeking pleasure and avoiding pain and that this principle was later refined and further developed in the works of philosophers such as Locke, Bentham, Mill and Helvetius in the seventeenth and eighteenth century.

Steers et al. (2004) posit that at the beginning of the 1960’s a new approach to the studying of work motivation emerged and theories generated during the 1960’s and 1970’s made this period something of a “golden age” of work motivation theories. According to them, the theories that were formulated in the 1960’s and 1970’s have been refined and further developed in the 1980’s but during the 1990’s the intellectual interest in motivational theories have declined judged by the number of journal publications during this period.

Similarly, Bassett–Jones and Lloyd (2005) postulate that formative research on motivation was mostly undertaken during the 1960’s and 1970’s. Their view is that research on

motivation can be divided into two categories namely, **content theories of motivation and process theories of motivation**. Segal, Borgia and Schoenfeld (2005) point out that content theories search for specific things within individuals that initiate, direct, sustain and stop behaviour whilst process theories on the other hand, explain how behaviour is initiated, directed, sustained and stopped.

Oyedele (2009) alludes that there are many competing theories that attempt to explain the nature of motivation and this is due to the multifaceted nature of motivation and the fact that there is no single answer of what best motivate people at work. According to Oyedele (2009, p. 181), “people’s behaviour and performance are influenced by many motives as shown by different theories over the years.”

Locke and Latham (2004) believe that in order to progress further on the topic of work motivation, it needs to be studied from new perspectives.

A brief look at some of the major motivational research and theories follows.

### **2.3.3.1. CONTENT THEORIES**

#### **2.3.3.1.1 MASLOW’S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS**

According to Koltko–Rivera (2006), the hierarchy of human needs outlined by Maslow (1943, 1954) is one of the most enduring contributions to psychology. Similarly, Gambrel and Cianci (2003) concur that Maslow’s hierarchy of needs model is one of the most referenced and discussed motivational theories. Maslow was the first to develop a theory of

human needs and did so by integrating into a single theory the partial truths he saw in Freud, Adler, Jung, Levvy, Fromm, Horney and Golstein (Oleson, 2004). According to Oleson (2004, p. 83), “Maslow believed that in most humans there is an active drive towards health, growth and actualization.” Maslow developed a general theory of human motivation which emphasized a concept of needs and that these needs arrange themselves in a hierarchical order whereby lower level needs first need to be satisfied before there can be advancement to the next higher level. “In other words, as basic human needs (for example, food and water) become sufficiently satisfied, another category of needs soon emerges to take their place” (Oleson, 2004, p. 84). According to Khan (2005), the lower needs in Maslow’s hierarchy of needs are initially the most important but the higher needs become more important as the lower needs are satisfied. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is depicted in figure 2.1 below.

**Figure 2.1: Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs**



Source: Urwiler & Frolock (2008, p. 84)

### **2.3.3.1.1 PHYSIOLOGICAL NEEDS**

According to Tikkanen (2007), the needs that are usually at the starting point for a motivation theory are the so-called physiological drives. Gordon-Rouse (2004) stipulates that physiological needs refer to needs such as food, water and sleep. Urwiler and Frolick (2008) posit that the most basic needs in Maslow's hierarchy are biological needs and that humans require oxygen, food, water and warmth to survive and should one of these basic needs be lost, the priorities of a person immediately shifts to satisfying the missing need. According to Benson and Dundis (2003), Maslow's model has the same five levels in the work setting but the definitions were modified by Maslow himself and the authors of a number of management books and texts. "At the base, the first basic level that must be satisfied is that of wages" (Benson & Dundis, 2003, p. 317). Benson and Dundis (2003) are of the opinion that basic survival needs must be met with wages which in turn, will provide shelter, food, water heat, clothing, etcetera and with adequate wages, employees will seek the next level which is safety on the job. The physiological needs have to be satisfied before the individual can shift to the next level of needs which is safety and security.

### **2.3.3.1.2 SAFETY NEEDS**

"Once physiological needs are met, the need for personal safety and security becomes apparent" (Urwiler & Frolick, 2008, p. 84). Urwiler and Frolick (2008) posit that safety and security needs can manifest itself in a variety of ways depending on environmental conditions and that at the most basic level the protection from physical endangerment becomes paramount when the state of personal security is threatened. According to Benson

and Dundis (2003), safety needs do not only include physical safety but mental safety as well and when Maslow's hierarchy of needs is translated in a work setting, a secure working environment can decrease anxiety which is brought about by adequate benefits, union contracts, etcetera.

#### **2.3.3.1.1.3 SOCIAL NEEDS**

“As comfort and safety needs are satisfied, individuals may then feel the need to belong to a social structure” (Urwiler & Frolick, 2008, p. 84). Urwiler and Frolick (2008) are of the opinion that the satisfaction of the need to be affiliated with a group or groups with which the individual identifies, provides a sense of belonging and validation and that the belonging needs can be satisfied through relationships with a single individual or a larger collection of individuals with whom a person can identify. According to Benson and Dundis (2003), the social level includes the need for belongingness, friendship and love and in a work environment context employees seek to find their place in formal and informal work groups by seeking a pleasurable work environment with co-workers, peers and others in the organizational hierarchy. Many people may join social or sports clubs to fulfill their social needs.

#### **2.3.3.1.1.4 ESTEEM NEEDS**

“A person who has met the needs for comfort, individual stability, and a sense of inclusion within certain groups often then strives to achieve a comfortable level of self-confidence” (Urwiler & Frolick, 2008, p. 84). Esteem needs can also be identified with achievement and



accomplishment in life and work, a person's status, etcetera. According to Benson and Dundis (2003), people on this level seek to feel competent, confident and self-assured. Urwiler and Frolick (2008) delineate that the degree to which an individual feels content with his or her achievements, confidence level, respect and status within the group that the person belongs or identifies with, can play a key factor in meeting the overall need for self-esteem. Benson and Dundis (2003, p. 317) posit that "self-esteem in the organization is generally based on the individual's successful performance appraisals, incentives, rewards received and recognitions obtained, all which enhance self-confidence."

#### **2.3.3.1.1.5 SELF-ACTUALIZATION NEEDS**

Schneider and Alderfer (1973, p. 489) state that Maslow (1954) defined self-actualization in a number of ways but his position is best summarized when he stated that self-actualization is "the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming." Gordon-Rouse (2004) defines self-actualization as a process of fulfilling one's potential and states that self-actualization requires increasing tension by going beyond a homeostatic state of being by doing something creative that reorganize one and create another higher-level homeostatic state. "Beyond the need to meet self-esteem needs is the need to reach self-actualization" (Urwiler & Frolick, 2008, p. 84). Urwiler and Frolick's (2008) view is that individuals at this level of the hierarchy are attaining all of what they feel they are capable of becoming, and they feel that they have reached the pinnacle of their potential.

### **2.3.3.1.2 HERZBERG'S TWO FACTOR THEORY**

Herzberg made a theoretical departure from the traditional continuum concept by suggesting that job satisfaction was hypothesized to operate on a continuum which ranged from high job satisfaction to no job satisfaction, whilst job dissatisfaction operated on another continuum which ranged from no job dissatisfaction to high job dissatisfaction and that these two continuums were hypothesized to be independent of each other (Maidani, 1991).

According to Manisera, Dusseldorp and van der Kooij (2005), Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory suggests that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are caused by different and independent sets of factors namely, the motivators and the hygiene factors. Manisera et al. (2005) posit that Herzberg found that when people are satisfied they attribute their satisfaction to the work itself (motivator factors), but when people are dissatisfied with their jobs they are concerned about the environment (hygiene factors) in which they work.

Nickson and Karp (1974) explain that the motivator-hygiene theory demonstrates that man has two separate and independent need systems that do not interact. The researchers delineate that the motivator continuum deals with man's need for psychological growth and that this need (psychological need) is met on the job through intrinsic job factors such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, opportunity for growth and enjoyment of the job itself. "It is the motivator factors that provide man with job satisfaction" (Nickson & Karp, 1974, p. 113).

The hygiene continuum on the other hand, deals with man's need to avoid pain from his environment and is met by increasing extrinsic job factors such as salary, status, company

policy and administration, good personal relationships, etcetera. “It is the hygiene factors that keep man from states of dissatisfaction” (Nickson & Karp, 1974, p. 113).

Although Herzberg developed his Two–Factor theory in the 1950’s, the theory is still widely accepted and used amongst researchers today.

### 2.3.3.1.3 ALDERFER’S ERG THEORY

Chang and Yuan (2008) state that the ERG theory, which was proposed by Alderfer in 1969, prioritizes users’ needs in a hierarchy. According to Alderfer (1969 cited in Chang & Yuan, 2008), these needs provide the basic elements in motivation.

The ERG theory is based on the work of Maslow (Chang & Yuan, 2008) but human needs are grouped into a hierarchy of three broad categories namely, existence, relatedness and valence (Khan, 2005). Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) define each as follows: (i) **Existence needs** include human basic needs necessary for existence namely, physiological and safety needs, (ii) **Relatedness needs** refers to man’s desire to maintain important interpersonal relationships and includes man’s social, acceptance, belongingness and status desires and (iii) **Growth needs** “represent man's desire for personal development, self-fulfillment and self-actualization” (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2002, p. 698).

Chang and Yuan (2008) delineate that Alderfer’s ERG theory differs from that of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs in three ways, namely (i) the ERG theory allows different levels to be pursued simultaneously; (ii) it allows the order of needs to be different for different people

and (iii) the ERG theory allows a person to regress to a lower level which are easier achieved when a higher level is not satisfied or unfulfilled.

Khan (2005) further adds that Alderfer's ERG theory of motivation also suggests that those who are unable to satisfy a higher need become frustrated and can regress back to the next lower need level.

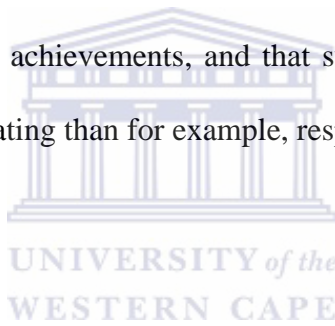
Robbins (1998 cited in Arnolds & Boshoff, 2002) is of the opinion that Alderfer attempted to address the shortcomings of Maslow's needs theory by aligning the needs hierarchy with empirical research. According to Robbins (1998), the ERG Theory is regarded as a more valid version of the need hierarchy and according to Luthans (1998), it has elicited more support from contemporary researchers as far as motivation work is concerned. Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) highlight one of the main strengths of Aldefer's theory is the job-specific nature of its focus and in the theory, specific reference is made to pay fringe benefits, relatedness needs from coworkers and superior, and growth need satisfaction at work.

#### **2.3.3.1.4 MCCLELLAND'S NEED THEORY**

According to Ramlall (2004), McClelland described the theory of needs and focused on three needs namely, achievement, power and affiliation. Hall, Baddoo, Beecham, Robinson and Sharp (2009) highlight that McClelland's theory omits the hierarchy structure of needs on which Maslow's theory is based.

#### **2.3.3.1.4.1 Achievement**

According to Ramlall (2004), the need for achievement was defined as the drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards and to strive to succeed. Kreitner and Kinicki (1998 cited in Ramlall, 2004) posit that achievement theories propose that motivation and performance vary according to the strength of need for achievement. “The need for achievement proposes that motivation and performance vary according to the strength of one’s need for achievement and is defined as a desire to accomplish something difficult” (Ramlall, 2004, p. 55). Hall et al. (2009) state that McClelland’s needs theory further suggest that individuals with strong achievement needs tend to constantly challenge themselves and need constant feedback on their achievements, and that such individuals will find security and financial rewards less motivating than for example, responsibilities and feedback.

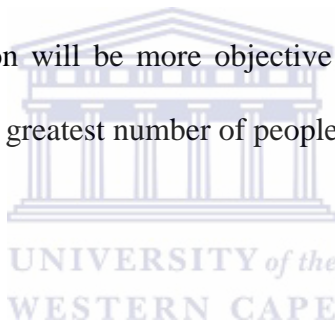


#### **2.3.3.1.4.2 Power (Authority)**

According to Ramlall (2004), the need for power reflects an individual’s desire to influence, coach, teach or encourage others to achieve. According to Kreitner and Kinicki (1998 cited in Ramlall, 2004), McClelland proposed that top managers should have a high need for power which should be coupled with a low need for affiliation. “Individuals with strong authority needs will be motivated by opportunities to direct and organize others” (Hall et al., 2009, p. 7). These types of individuals will mostly be found in supervisory and managerial position within organizations.

#### **2.3.3.1.4.3 Affiliation**

“The need for affiliation suggests that people have the desire to spend time in social relationships and activities” (Ramlall, 2004, p. 55). According to Ramlall (2004), people who fall into this category prefer to spend time maintaining social relationships, join groups and want to be loved. Kreitner and Kinicki (1998 cited in Ramlall, 2004) point out that people with high levels of affiliation usually do not make good managers or leaders as they tend to find it hard to make difficult decisions without worrying about being disliked by others. According to Hall et al. (2009), McClelland’s needs theory further suggest that everyone has a combination of these needs at various strengths and that someone whose needs mix is biased to affiliation will be more objective and this will increase his or her opportunity for bonding with the greatest number of people.



#### **2.3.3.2 PROCESS THEORIES**

##### **2.3.3.2.1 VROOM’S EXPECTANCY THEORY**

According to Chiang and Jang (2008), the Expectancy Theory explains the process that individuals use to make decisions on various behavioural alternatives. Chiang and Jang (2008) further allude that the theory is generally supported by empirical evidence and that it is one of the most commonly used theories of motivation in the workplace.

Gieger and Cooper (1995) postulate that the Expectancy Theory is made up of two related models namely, the valence model and the force model. Their view is that the valence model

attempts to capture the perceived attractiveness or valence of an outcome by aggregating the attractiveness of all associated resultant outcomes. “More specifically, the model posits that the valence of a first-level outcome is equal to the summation of the products from all associated second-level outcome valences, with the perceived belief (or instrumentality) that the first-level outcome will result in the second-level outcome” (Gieger & Cooper, 1995, p. 252). The second model namely, the force model of expectancy theory, attempts to capture motivational force to act by associating the expectancy of resultant outcomes and their individual valences. “The model more formally posits that the motivational force influencing a person to perform an act is equal to the sum of the products of the valences of first-level outcomes multiplied by the expectancy that the act will result in these outcomes” (Gieger & Cooper, 1995, p. 252).

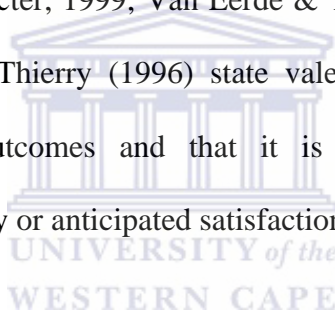
According to Isaac, Zerbe and Pitt (2001), Vroom suggested that people consciously choose particular courses of action as a consequence of their desire to enhance pleasure and avoid pain and that their particular course of action is based upon their perceptions, attitudes and beliefs.

According to Mitchell and Mickel (1999 cited in Isaac et al., 2001), the Expectancy Model is sometimes referred to as the VIE theory model where the letters stand for *valence*, *instrumentality* and *expectancy* respectively.

- (i) *Expectancy* suggests that people will expand effort when they believe that certain levels of performance are attainable to them (Isaac et al., 2001). Similarly, Van Eerde and Thierry (1996) define expectancy as a subjective probability of an action or

effort leading to an outcome or performance. “This relationship between effort and performance is known as the E-P linkage” (Isaac et al., 2001, p. 215).

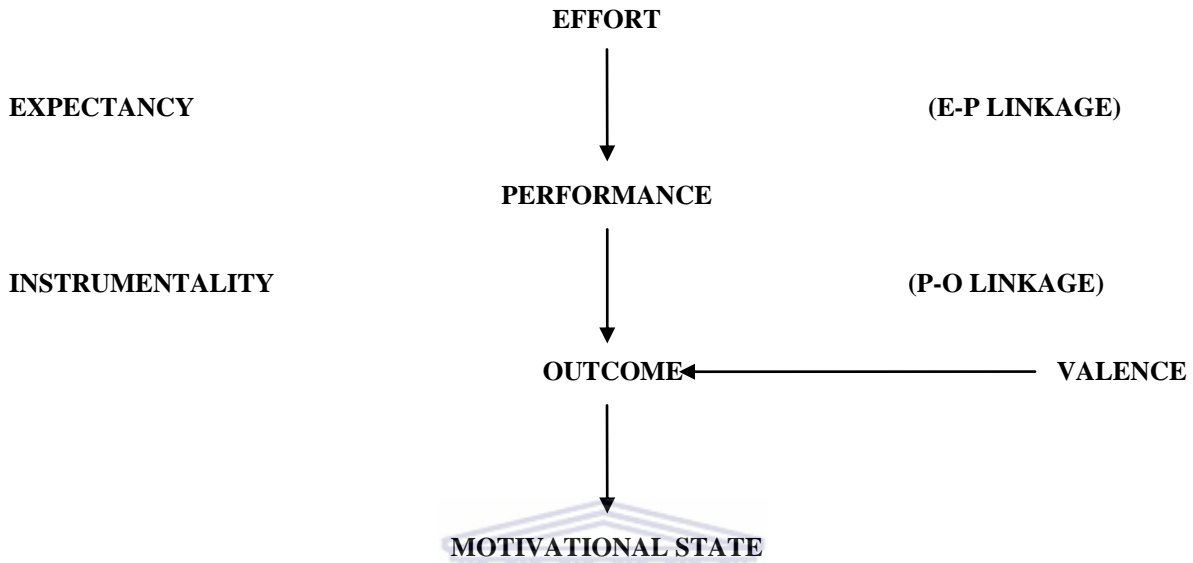
- (ii) *Instrumentality* is a perception that performance levels are related to rewards bestowed and is known as the P-O linkage (Isaac et al., 2001). Van Eerde and Thierry (1996) view instrumentality as an outcome-outcome association and posit that it has not only been interpreted as a relationship between two outcomes but also as a probability to obtain an outcome.
- (iii) *Valence* refers to the extent to which the individual values the reward he or she receives (Fudge & Schlacter, 1999; Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996 cited in Isaac et al., 2001). Van Eerde and Thierry (1996) state valence is the all possible affective orientations towards outcomes and that it is interpreted as the importance, attractiveness, desirability or anticipated satisfaction with outcomes.



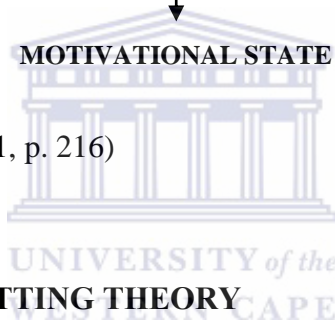
The Expectancy Theory Model is depicted in figure 2.2 on the next page.



**Figure 2.2: The Expectancy Theory Model**



Source: Isaac, Zerbe & Pitt (2001, p. 216)



### **2.3.3.2.2 LOCKE'S GOAL SETTING THEORY**

Buller and Bell (1986) postulate that the importance of goal setting for motivating employees' performance was first explicitly recognized in management literature by Taylor in 1911 and that Locke (1968) translated the concept into a contemporary theory of task performance. "This theory states goals that are hard to achieve, but are accepted by workers, lead to better performance than goals that are easy to achieve" (Hall et al., 2009, p. 2). According to Hall et al. (2009), Locke's goal setting theory stipulates that goals must be well defined, made specific and measurable and that feedback must be provided so that the person trying to achieve the goal will know when it is achieved.

Hall et al. (2009) believe that people are motivated by challenging work when they know exactly what is expected of them and when they get feedback on how well they have done. Locke and Latham (2006) points out that the goal setting theory was developed inductively within industrial and organizational psychology over a period of 25 years and that it is based on some 400 laboratory and field studies. These studies showed that specific, high (hard) goals lead to a higher level of task performance than do easy goals or vague, abstract goals such as the exhortation to “do one’s best” (Locke & Latham, 2006, p. 265).

#### **2.3.3.2.3 ADAMS’ 1963 EQUITY THEORY**

Chen, Gupta and Hoshower (2006) posit that a number of theories have been proposed to explain individual motivation to perform, but Adams’ 1963 Equity Theory (also known as the Theory of Fair Exchange) and Vroom’s Expectancy Theory are the two theories most widely referred to in the research literature. Chen et al. (2006) state that according to the Equity Theory, a person will compare his or her inputs into the situation and outcomes from the situation with a similar ratio of a referent other. In other words, he or she will compare outcomes  $A/\text{inputs } A$  with a similar referent other (namely, outcomes  $B/\text{inputs } A$ ). According to Adams (1963 cited in Chen et al., 2006), inequity exists when the perceived ratio of outputs to inputs for a person and his or her referent are unequal. “Perceived inequity is the source of motivation to act to restore equity or fairness in the exchange” (Chen et al., 2006, p. 180). According to Okpara (2006), the theory states that the way individuals are treated at work affects their behaviour and attitude towards their work and according to Kannan (2005 cited in Okpara, 2006), the Equity Theory is founded on the assumption that workers expect justice, fair play or equity in treatment by their employers

and that the employee seeks fair balance between what he or she puts into the job and what he or she gets out of the job - Adams refer to these as inputs and outputs (Okpara, 2006).

### **2.3.4 CAUSES OF JOB SATISFACTION**

In an attempt to answer what causes job satisfaction, Locke as early as 1969 stated that the understanding of the causes of job satisfaction has not advanced at a pace to commensurate with research efforts and that there exist a lot of confusion as to whether the determinants lie solely in the job itself (the intrinsic view), or whether the determinants lie solely in the worker's mind (the subjective view) or thirdly, whether job satisfaction is the consequences of an interaction between the worker and his or her work environment (Locke, 1969).

Numerous research have been conducted to answer the question as to what actually causes job satisfaction. Buitendach and Rothmann (2006) postulate that there are different aspects of job satisfaction cited by Locke, (1976) such as work, pay, promotions, recognition, benefits, working conditions, supervision, coworkers, company and management and that according to later research conducted these could be arranged into two dimensions, namely **intrinsic factors** and **extrinsic factors**.

#### **2.3.4.1 INTRINSIC FACTORS**

Chiu and Chen (2005, p. 527) define intrinsic job satisfaction as "... the degree of satisfaction an employee receives from the job itself such as independence, job variety, sense

of responsibility, creativity, the sense of accomplishment the job provides, the social standing the position brings.”

Similarly, Buitendach and Rothmann (2006) highlight that intrinsic satisfaction refers to the job tasks themselves namely, variety, skills utilization and autonomy. Other intrinsic factors include person–environment fit (namely, person–job fit, person–group fit, person–organization fit, person–vocation fit, person–supervisor fit) and disposition personality.

#### **2.3.4.1.1 Job Variety**

Price and Meuller (1986 cited in Allen, Lambert, Pasupuleti, Cluse-Tolar & Ventura, 2004) define job variety as the degree of variation in the job. Bajpai and Srivastava (2004) posit that employees tend to prefer jobs that give them opportunities to use their skills and abilities and offer a variety of tasks, freedom and feedback on how well they are doing. According to the researchers, when jobs are challenging in nature, they create an environment of satisfaction. Bajpai and Srivastava (2004) however, caution that jobs that have too little challenges or routine jobs can create boredom and monotony whilst jobs with too many challenges may create frustrations and feelings of failure.

According to Griffin, Patterson and West (2001), job enrichment practices such as increased job variety can lead to higher job satisfaction because of higher levels of perceived autonomy. It is further highlighted that job variety can be increased through job rotation programmes and that the job enrichment practice of increased job variety may increase job satisfaction.

#### **2.3.4.1.2 Skills Utilization**

O'Brien (1980 cited in Bolino & Feldman, 2000, p. 368) refers to skills utilization as “the degree of match or congruence between an individual’s skills and the opportunity to use these skills in that individual’s work role.” In a study conducted by Chaudhury and Banerjee (2004) it was found that poor utilization of skills was identified as a factor contributing towards job dissatisfaction and that the general belief is that the higher the degree of skills utilization, the higher will be the level of satisfaction. In other words, people with low levels of skills utilization will experience low levels of satisfaction and vice versa.

Groot and van den Brink (1999) distinguish between two types of skills mismatches namely, education level required for the job and the educational level of the employee occupying the job. It is further lineated that the level of education has a major role to play as employees may be over educated or under educated and that both over education as well as under education may indicate that the allocation of skills over jobs is less than optimal. Groot and van den Brink (1999) posit that over education may indicate that there is under utilization of skills and that the under utilization of skills may make employees less satisfied with the job they hold.

#### **2.3.4.1.3 Autonomy**

Agho, Mueller and Price (1993 cited in Allen et al., 2004) define job autonomy as the degree of freedom that employees have in making job related decisions. According to Green and Tsitsianis (2005 cited in Rose, 2005), job satisfaction is known to be associated with the degree of autonomy exercised by employees but that such autonomy exercised by employees

has fallen over the years. A possible reason for the drop in autonomy exercised by employees might be that supervisors do not allow for autonomy support. Deci, Eghrari, Patrick and Leone (1994 cited in Baard, Deci & Ryan, 2004) highlight that autonomy support involves the supervisor understanding and acknowledging the employee's perspective, providing meaningful information in a nonmanipulative manner, offering opportunities for choice and encouraging self initiation.

Deci et al. (1994 cited in Baard et al., 2004) found that when managers are more autonomy supportive, their work groups will report a higher level of trust in the corporation and more overall job satisfaction. Similarly, Blais and Briere (1992 cited in Baard et al., 2004) found that when employees found their managers to be more autonomy supportive, the employees display greater job satisfaction, less absenteeism occurs and employees experience better physical and psychological well-being. The opposite view can also be true - when managers are found to be less autonomy supportive, employees will display lesser satisfaction or even dissatisfaction which may lead to increased absenteeism and diminishing physical and psychological well-being.

#### **2.3.4.1.4 Person-Fit**

Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson (2005) distinguish between various types of person fit namely, person-environment fit, person-job fit, person-group fit, person-organization fit, person-vocation fit and person-supervisor fit.

#### *2.3.4.1.4.1 Person–Environment Fit*

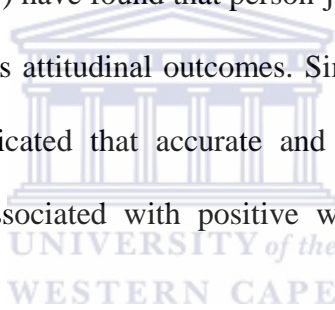
Kristof–Brown et al. (2005) postulate that person–environment fit can be broadly defined as the compatibility between an individual and his or her work environment that occurs when their characteristics are well matched. Furthermore, the researchers postulate that according to interactional psychology studies, person–environment had been defined as a statistical interaction between the person and the environment and that personality may be investigated as a moderator of environmental forces as in the case where growth need strength moderates job characteristics–job satisfaction relationship.

Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert and Shipp (2006) posit that person-environment is central to research in organizational behaviour, organizational psychology and human resource management. Dawis and Lofquist (1984); Holland (1997) both cited in Carless (2005) delineate that person-environment fit theories propose that a positive response occur when individuals fit or match their environment and that higher levels of satisfaction and mental and physical well being will occur when there is a fit between the individual and the environment. According to Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001), management scholars have expressed growing interest in person-environment fit due to many benefits for employee attitudes, employee benefits and behaviours. It is further highlighted that person-environment fit had been positively related to an individual’s career involvement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and career success.

#### *2.3.4.1.4.2 Person–Job Fit*

According to Kristof–Brown et al. (2005), person–job fit can be defined as the relationship between a person’s characteristics and the characteristics of the job or tasks that are performed at work. Edwards (1991 cited in Kristof–Brown et al., 2005) outlines two types of person–job fit namely, (i) the demands-abilities fit – this is when the employee’s knowledge, skills and abilities are in line with what the job requires and (ii) the needs–supply or supplies–value fit – this is when the employee’s needs, desires and preferences are met by the job that he or she performs.

Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001) have found that person-job fit have a unique impact on job satisfaction and that it influences attitudinal outcomes. Similarly, Carless (2005) highlights that previous research has indicated that accurate and realistic job information during recruitment and selection is associated with positive work outcomes such as high job satisfaction, etcetera.



#### *2.3.4.1.4.3 Person–Group Fit*

Kristof–Brown et al. (2005) delineate that person–group fit (also known as person–team fit) focuses on interpersonal compatibility between individuals and their work groups. The researchers’ view is that only a handful of research have been conducted and published with regards to person–group fit and the fit on characteristics such as goals and values, however, a number of studies have examined the person–group fit on personality traits.



According to Kristof-Brown, Jansen and Colbert (2002 cited in Ladebo, Awotunde & AbdulSalaam-Saghir, 2008), person-group fit suggest that although coworkers are a distinct part of the work environment, it is expected from an employee to work harmoniously with other members (known as person-group fit), which will have positive implications for an individual's work satisfaction.

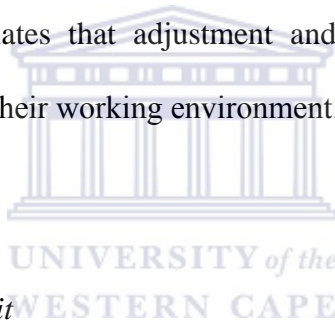
#### *2.3.4.1.4.4 Person–Organization Fit*

Wheeler, Gallagher, Brouer and Sablynski (2007) posit that the empirical evidence and advice to organizations are clear in the sense that organizations should increase person-organization fit which will increase job satisfaction and decrease intent to turnover. Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) indicate that person-organization fit addresses the compatibility between people and the entire organization. Tom (1971 cited in Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) suggests that individuals will be most successful in organizations that share their personalities and that research on this topic has emphasized individual-organizational similarities as the crux of person-organizational fit. Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) further posit that despite the operationalization of person-organization fit as a personality-climate congruence, it was value congruence that became widely accepted as the defining operationalization of person-organization fit. However, a third, lesser used operationalization of person-organization fit is goal congruence. Despite the operationalization of person-organization fit based on personality, values and goals that the person has in common with the employing organization, it pointed out that "... in all cases, the emphasis is on the compatibility between commensurate individual and organizational characteristics (Kristof-Brown, et al.,

2005, p. 285).” In other words, the individual’s personality, values and goals must be in line with the organizational characteristics.

#### *2.3.4.1.4.5 Person–Vocation Fit*

Kristof–Brown et al. (2005) posit that vocation–person fit (also known as occupation–person fit) is the broadest of all the person–environment fit levels. Basically two types of person–vocational fit research theories exists namely, vocational choice theories and the theory of work adjustment. The former theory propose matching people with careers that meet their interest whilst the latter postulates that adjustment and satisfaction is the result of an employee’s needs being met by their working environment.



#### *2.3.4.1.4.6 Person–Supervisor Fit*

Kristof–Brown et al. (2005) postulate that a final form of person–environment fit exists in the form of the relationship between an individual and other individuals in the work place and a fit may occur between, for example, coworkers applicants, recruiters, mentors, etcetera. Turban and Dougherty (1994 cited in Kristof–Brown et al., 2005) point out that the match between supervisor and subordinates are by far the most well researched area. The person–supervisor fit type is usually categorized into three categories namely, leader–follower value congruence, supervisor–subordinate personality similarity and manager–employee goal congruence. Kristof–Brown et al. (2005) postulate the supervisor’s personal characteristics represents the environment in all three aforementioned cases.

Ladebo et al. (2008) posit that when the expectation of an employee is met in the workplace, the employee will be more likely to reciprocate the fair treatment received from the coworkers and supervisors by developing a positive affective feeling towards his or her job. Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter and Yee Ng, 2001; Colquitt, 2001 all cited in Ladebo et al. (2008) highlight that employee satisfaction is enhanced when there is interactional fairness in the workplace and it is therefore suggested that fair treatments received from the supervisors and coworkers should provide strong reason for an employee to feel satisfied with his or her job.

#### **2.3.4.1.5 Disposition Personality**

According to Ilies and Judge (2003), the dispositional approach to job satisfaction has been the focus of major research efforts since the mid 1980's and researchers have used a large variety of personality measures in an attempt to capture the affective dispositions that underlies job satisfaction. According to Judge, Heller and Mount (2002 cited in Ilies & Judge, 2003), the Big Five framework of Goldberg (1990) also known as the five-factor model of personality, provides a "comprehensive taxonomy" to organize the traits that is relevant to job satisfaction. "The five-factor model comprises the dimensions of Neuroticism (often labeled by its opposite, Emotional Stability), Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness" (Ilies & Judge, 2003, p. 750).

In a study conducted by Judge et al. (2002 cited in Ilies & Judge, 2003) it was found that four of the big five traits were related to job satisfaction. Ilies and Judge (2003) posit that

Judge et al. (2002) concluded that there exists substantial support for the dispositional source of job satisfaction when organizing personality traits according to the five factor model.

#### **2.3.4.2 EXTRINSIC FACTORS**

“Extrinsic satisfaction refers to satisfaction with aspects that have little to do with the job tasks or content of the work itself, such as pay, working conditions and co-workers” (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2006, p. 446). Similarly, Chiu and Chen (2005) posit that extrinsic satisfaction “has to do with the degree of satisfaction an employee has with work conditions, policies and praise which are unrelated to the job itself” (Chiu & Chen, 2005, pp. 527-528).



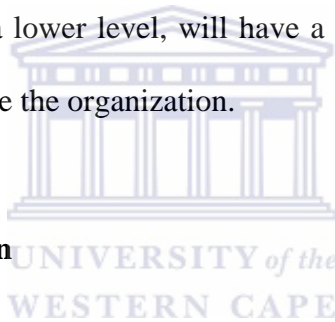
##### **2.3.4.2.1 Nature of Work Itself**

Saari and Judge (2004) state that the work situation matters in terms of job satisfaction and organizational impact and that the most notable situational influence on job satisfaction is the nature of the work itself. They further postulate that the nature of the work itself is often referred to as “intrinsic job characteristics”.

According to Judge and Church (2000) and Jurgensen (1978 cited in Saari & Judge, 2004), studies have indicated that when employees are asked to evaluate various facets of their job such as supervision, pay, promotion opportunities, coworkers, etcetera, the most important job facet that emerges is that of the work itself. Saari and Judge (2004) suggest that for

practitioners to understand what causes people to be satisfied with their jobs, they must focus on the nature of the work itself.

Brown and Peterson (1993); Hackman and Oldham (1974); Singh (1998) all cited in Friday and Friday (2003) posit that individuals who find their jobs to be highly motivating will likely to be highly satisfied with their work and will perform with a high degree of quality and hence, will display a low rate of absenteeism and will furthermore be less likely to leave the organization. Friday and Friday (2003) delineate that the opposite view is also true; if the job does not motivate the individual, he or she may experience a lower level of satisfaction with the work, will perform at a lower level, will have a high rate of absenteeism and will eventually be more likely to leave the organization.



#### **2.3.4.2.2 Promotion Satisfaction**

Sanborn and Berger (1990 cited in De Souza, 2002) define promotion satisfaction as the affective valuation of the events associated with promotion system parameters namely, promotion magnitude, opportunity and policies and practices. De Souza (2002) posits that promotion satisfaction is one module of overall satisfaction. A longitudinal study conducted by Bray and Howard (1980) who studied managers at a giant telecommunications company found that the managers reported greater career satisfaction and general satisfaction if they had received more promotions in the past (cited in De Souza, 2002).

Bajpai and Srivastava (2004) are of the opinion that employees want a fair unambiguous pay system and promotion policies and that those promotions should provide opportunities for

personal growth, more responsibilities, and increased social status. Witt and Nye (1992 cited in Bajpai & Srivastava, 2004) also add that individuals who perceive that promotion decisions are made in a fair and just manner are likely to experience satisfaction from their jobs. “When an employee gets fair promotion, which is generally based on his true assessment, he gets a type of recognition, and hence, increases his job-satisfaction” (Bajpai & Srivastava, 2004, p. 91).

#### **2.3.4.2.3 Pay Satisfaction**

“The study of employee satisfaction with pay and benefits is an area of long standing interest to psychologists” (Currall, Towler, Judge & Kohn, 2005, p. 614). Heneman and Judge (2000 cited in Williams, McDaniel & Nguyen, 2006) posit that research has unequivocally shown that pay dissatisfaction can have important and undesirable impacts on numerous employee outcomes. Heneman and Schwab (1985 cited in Thatcher, Liu & Stepina, 2002) refer to pay satisfaction as an employee’s satisfaction with income received from the organization whilst Miceli and Lane (1991 cited in Williams et al., 2006, p. 392) posit that “pay satisfaction can be defined as the amount of overall positive or negative effect (or feelings) that individuals have towards their pay.” “Pay satisfaction implies employees’ belief they have been treated fairly by the organization” (Thatcher et al., 2002, p. 27).

Bhal and Gulati (2007) are of the opinion that pay satisfaction is an important predictor of turnover and intent to quit and that most of the previous studies conducted treated pay satisfaction as a one-dimensional construct. According to the researchers (2007, p. 10), “...

assessing pay satisfaction through a one-dimensional measure is not likely to provide a complete picture of satisfaction with pay”.

According to Heneman and Judge (2000 cited in Tang & Chiu, 2003), the most widely used and known models of pay satisfaction is that of the Adams’ Equity Model and Lawler’s Discrepancy Model. “According to the equity theory, if one’s output/input ratio is smaller than that of others, one may experience pay dissatisfaction” (Tang & Chiu, 2003, p. 18). In other words, if a person puts more effort into his or her work (input) and receives the same pay or a lesser pay (output) than the next person, then he or she will experience pay dissatisfaction which may lead to intent to quit or ultimately quitting the job.

Tang and Chiu (2003) point out that the Discrepancy Model focuses on the difference between what one expects (expectation) in terms of pay and what one actually receives (reality). In other words, if a person expects to receive a certain amount of remuneration for his or her efforts (work) and receives less than what was expected, he or she will feel that there was a discrepancy with his or remuneration and will thus experience pay dissatisfaction.

It is also highlighted by Currall et al. (2005) that pay dissatisfaction has led to a number of employee outcomes namely, reduced levels of performance, lateness, theft, absence, turnover intentions and turnover.

#### **2.3.4.2.4 Supervision**

Supervisory support is an important factor that contributes to an employee's satisfaction. "Supervisory support is defined as individuals' beliefs that supervisors offer them work-related assistance to aid in the performance of their job" (Susskind, Kacmar & Borchgrevink, 2003, p. 181). If a supervisor does not support an employee or show very little interest in the employee, he or she may experience lower levels of satisfaction.

According to Yukl (1989 cited in Griffin et al., 2001), the support and consideration that supervisors display is a strong determinant of job satisfaction in a wide variety of work settings. Thatcher et al. (2002) refer to supervisory satisfaction as an employee's satisfaction with their interaction with and supervision from their manager. According to Bass (1990 cited in Thatcher et al., 2002), research has demonstrated that employees who are satisfied with their supervisors will feel a higher degree of competence and social integrity and will therefore find their jobs more intrinsically motivated.

Jackofsky (1984 cited in Khan & Farman, 2011) states that job satisfaction depends on a manager's characteristics and that employees give these characteristics a value. In this regard, Purcell and Hutchinson (2007 cited in Khan & Farman, 2011) delineate that there exist proof that employees are likely to be influenced by their manager's leadership behaviour. "One very important variable for determining the job satisfaction is manager characteristics. It is often said that people do not leave jobs, they leave managers" (Khan & Farman, 2011, p. 1197). van der Heijden (2002 cited in Khan & Farman, 2011) alludes that motivational supervisors will encourage employees in their efforts to make them work well



and high levels of managerial agreeableness, emotional stability and participative behaviour are related to high ratings of employee satisfaction. Hence, leaders can have a profound impact which directly affects subordinate satisfaction.

#### **2.3.4.2.5 Coworker Satisfaction**

Susskind et al. (2003) define coworker support as the extent to which employees believe their coworkers are willing to provide them with work-related assistance to aid in the execution of their service-based duties. If an individual do not have the support of his or her coworkers, he or she might feel demotivated and display lower levels of satisfaction. Morrison (2004) assessed the relationship between organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment and turnover and relationship factors and found that opportunities for relationships and friendship amongst coworkers were related to increased turnover. Kram and Isabella (1985 cited in Morrison, 2004) maintain that coworker friendships are a valuable means of growth and support. According to Morrison (2004), there exists empirical evidence that worker relations are an antecedent of job satisfaction.

Hulbert (1991); Hodson (1997); Ducharme and Martin (2000) all cited in Bonache (2005) posit that social support from coworker networks serves as resources that affect job satisfaction. Similarly, Acker (2004) found that social support from the employee's supervisor and coworkers showed statistically significant correlations with job satisfaction and negative correlations with intent to quit.

#### **2.3.4.2.6 Working Conditions**

The private security industry in South Africa is well known for its long hours and poor salaries. Gazioglu and Tansel (2006) delineate that long hours of work is associated with lower levels of satisfaction, and that hours of work are strongly and negatively related to the satisfaction with the amount of pay which is consistent with economic theory. Findings of a study conducted by Clark (1996 cited in Gazioglu & Tansel, 2006) showed that hours of work are strongly negatively related to satisfaction with pay and less strongly related to overall job satisfaction.

According to Faragher et al. (2005), there exists growing evidence that current trends in employment conditions may be eroding levels of job satisfaction and that it damages the physical as well as the mental health of employees. Faragher et al. (2005) also allude that the work climate impacts negatively on the levels of enjoyment and satisfaction that employees gain from their work.

Kinzl, Knotzer, Traweger, Lederer, Heidegger and Benzer (2005) posit that in a study they conducted to establish the effect that working conditions have on job satisfaction, they found that the indices of task demands (namely, complexity of demands and variability of work) and task-related problems (namely, concentration demands, time pressure and work interruptions) showed no significant relationship with job satisfaction. Kinszl et al.'s (2005) study however, revealed that the variables concerning control over work at the workplace (namely, influence on handling tasks, time control and participation) indicated a significant effect on job satisfaction further indicating that strong control over work produces greater job satisfaction. According to the researchers, their results indicate that job satisfaction is

strongly influenced by working conditions and they posit that if the level of job satisfaction is to be improved it is important that greater attention is paid to working conditions, but more importantly to resources.

#### **2.3.4.2.7 Fairness**

“Numerous studies have shown that fairness has positive effects in organizations” (Diekmann, Barsness & Sondak, 2004, p. 239). Diekmann et al. (2004) further allude that fairness is an important factor in determining a number of work-related attitudes and behaviour such as an employee’s reaction to layoffs, acceptance of assigned tasks and goals and complying with supervisor instructions, satisfaction and commitment to the organization. Bajpai and Srivastava (2004) are of the opinion that employees want a fair unambiguous pay system and promotion policies, and that those promotions provide opportunities for personal growth, more responsibilities, and increased social status. If an employee feels that he or she have not been treated fairly, he or she will experience a decreased level of satisfaction.

#### **2.3.4.2.8 Organizational Policies**

O’Rourke, Allgood, VanDerslice and Hardy (2000 cited in Willem, Buelens & De Jonghe, 2007) posit that the more individuals specialize, the more they will experience satisfaction with interaction and professional status, but they will experience less satisfaction with organizational policies. In a study amongst nurses, Willem et al. (2007) hypothesized that the more specialization there is amongst staff in hospitals the less satisfaction there will be with

organizational policies. The results of their study indicated that nurses were very dissatisfied with the hospital's organizational policies, especially when they considered their institution to be too centralized.

Paillé, Bourdeau and Galois (2010) posit that employees will be less inclined to leave their employing organization if they perceive their organization to be developing human resource policies which focuses on the employee's well-being.

#### **2.3.4.2.9 Communication Satisfaction**

Hecht (1978a, p. 350 cited in Mueller & Lee, 2002, p. 221) defines communication satisfaction as "the affective response to the fulfillment of expectation-type standards in message exchange processes and symbolizes an enjoyable, fulfilling experience." The researchers further posits that a number of researchers (Crino & White, 1981; Downs & Hazen, 1977; Hecht, 1978a) have defined communication satisfaction (in organizational settings) as "an individual's satisfaction with various aspects of communication in interpersonal, group, and organizational contexts" (Meuller & Lee, 2002, p. 221).

According to Blegen (1993 cited in Manojlovick, 2005, p. 367), "communication is one process that has been associated with job satisfaction." The results of a study conducted by Kim (2002) revealed that employees who believe that they have effective communication with their supervisors experienced higher levels of satisfaction than those employees who did not feel that they have effective communication with their supervisors.

### **2.3.5 CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION**

Gazioglu and Tansel (2006) posit that employers prefer that their employees be satisfied as employee satisfaction is closely related to their labour market behaviour such as productivity, turnover and absenteeism. Below is a brief discussion of the possible consequences that can impact the organization if employees' job satisfaction is low.

#### **2.3.5.1 Turnover**

According to Hom and Kinicki (2001 cited in Van Dick, Christ, Stellmacher, Wagner, Ahlswede, Grubba, Hauptmeier, Hohfeld, Moltzen & Tissington, 2004), job satisfaction is probably the most frequently investigated predictor of turnover. Hellman (1997 cited in Coomber & Barriball, 2007) delineates that increased dissatisfaction in employees result in higher chances of them considering other employment opportunities. Wheeler et al. (2007) allude that value-goal congruence has a role to play when it comes to deciding whether an employee will leave or stay with his or her employing organization. Wheeler et al. (2007) delineate that the degree to which the organization's and the employee's values overlap (namely, value-goal congruence) plays a major role and the greater the degree of overlap the greater the employee's job satisfaction, which in turn, leads to retention. Should there not be a great degree of overlap between the values of the organization and that of the employee, the employee will feel dissatisfied and this dissatisfaction may lead to voluntary turnover which will have consequences for both the organization as well as the employee.

Lam, Zhang and Baum (2001) posit that "most of the literature on employee turnover suggests that labour turnover is a 'hidden' cost for most organizations" (Lam et al. 2001, p. 157). "Turnover costs include direct expenses related to replacing an employee and indirect

expenses related to loss of experience and lowered productivity” (Silverthorne, 2004, p. 596-597). Hogan (1992 cited in Lam et al., 2001) concurs and posits that besides the tangible cost involved in employee turnover there are also intangible costs involved, amongst others, employees’ morale, employee productivity, reputation and goodwill of the organization.

### **2.3.5.2 Productivity**

McNeese-Smith (1997 cited in Loke, 2001) defines productivity as the contribution made towards an organization’s end result in relation to the amount of resources consumed. The researcher posits that productivity can be both qualitative as well as quantitative.

“It is often assumed that happy workers are also productive workers” (Taris & Schreurs, 2009, p. 120). Taris and Schreurs (2009) point out that one often-voiced idea in health psychology is that satisfied and happy workers are on average more productive. However, Taris and Schreurs (2009) posit that the evidence for this hypothesis is mixed as some researchers have found a weak correlation between employees’ job satisfaction whilst other have found a moderate correlation. Taris and Schreurs (2009) further highlight that findings also indicate that satisfied workers perform on average better than other workers but caution that these associations should not be overestimated.

### **2.3.5.3 Absenteeism**

Goldberg and Waldman (2000) allude that one of the most common models of employee absenteeism posits that absenteeism is largely a behavioural response to dissatisfaction with

some aspect of an employee's job, whilst another stream of literature on absenteeism rejects the role of job satisfaction as an antecedent to absenteeism but rather focus on the role of demographics and work and non-work constraints.

According to Grieshaber, Parker and Deering (1995 cited in Moyle, Skinner, Rowe & Gork, 2003, p. 170), "staff who are dissatisfied in their role may avoid work responsibilities through absenteeism, deliberately avoiding activities, taking shortcuts or making themselves unavailable when actions are required."

"'Taking a sickie' is a very common phenomenon in organizations" (Wegge, Schmidt, Parkes & van Dick, 2007, p. 77)." Wegge et al. (2007) allude that absence of employees from work had been cited as one of the top three concerns of human resource professionals and in the United Kingdom alone it accounts for 4% of working time and cost the economy between ten to twelve billion pounds per annum.

According to Grobler, Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2006 cited in Mendes & Stander, 2011, p. 3), "a high turnover in employees costs South Africa several millions of rands a year through decreased productivity, increased accidents and quality problems."

#### **2.3.5.4 Low Morale**

Although morale and job satisfaction had been used interchangeably in the literature, Evans (2000) clearly distinguishes between job satisfaction and morale by indicating that job

satisfaction is present-orientated whilst morale is future-orientated. Evans (2000) further explains that both these two variables are a state of mind but that satisfaction is a response to a situation whilst morale is anticipatory. Evans defines morale as "... a state of mind encompassing all of the feelings determined by the individual's anticipation of the extent of satisfaction of those needs which s/he perceives as significantly affecting his/her total (work) situation" (Evans, 2000, p. 178).

Farrell and Dares (1999); Taylor, White and Muncer (1999); Edwards, Burnard, Coyle, Fothergill and Hannigan (2000) all cited in Hegney, Plank and Parker (2006) posit that low morale has been associated with poor job satisfaction. Similarly, Secombe and Smith (1996) and Curran and Minnick (1989) cited in Barrett and Yates (2002) indicate that evidence suggest that staff morale and job satisfaction can affect turnover productivity, continuity and quality of service which may have diverse consequences for the organization.

#### **2.3.5.5 Physical and Psychological Consequences**

"Occupational safety is a major issue for employees, and how management deals with this issue is of both academic and practical significance" (Barling, Kelloway & Iverson, 2003, p. 276). Blegen, Goode, Johnson, Maas, Chen and Moorehead (1993); Adams and Bond (2000); Aiken, Clarke, Sloane, Sochalski and Silber (2002); Tummers, Landeweerd and van Merode (2002) all cited in Hegney et al. (2006) posit that job dissatisfaction is constantly linked to high levels of stress, burnout or mental and physical exhaustion. Probst (2002 cited in Barling et al., 2003) are of the opinion that when job satisfaction is increased it enhances



on-task activities which leads to greater attention to safety, motivation, knowledge and compliance. Job satisfaction plays a major role in the safety of employees and Barling et al. (2003) delineate that Ready, Boreskie, Law and Russel (1993) have found that employees who experience high levels of satisfaction work more safely. Barling et al. (2003) conclude that their study have found high-quality jobs affect occupational injuries directly but through the mediating effect of job satisfaction.

## **2.4 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**

### **2.4.1 INTRODUCTION**

According to Bashir and Ramay (2008), organizational commitment has been extensively researched and different researchers have identified its antecedents and outcomes. Elizur and Koslowsky (2000) postulate that organizational commitment has served as both a dependent variable for antecedents such as age, tenure and education as well as a predictor of various outcomes such as turnover, intention to leave, absenteeism and performance. In this study the impact of organizational commitment on the intent to quit will be investigated.

### **2.4.2 DEFINING ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**

According to Elizur and Koslowsky (2000), organizational commitment refers to the attachment (both emotionally and functionally) to an individual's place of work and had been empirically examined in several ways.

Farzad, Nahavandi and Caruana (2008) posit that the most popular definition of organizational commitment in the literature is that of Meyer and Allan's three-component model of organizational commitment namely, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment (which will be discussed later).

According to Kong et al. (1994), the two most significant developments in the literature on organizational commitment seem to be the approaches of *organizational behaviour* and *social psychology*. Ugboro (2006) posit that these two approaches have been used over the years to study organizational commitment namely, commitment-related attitudes and commitment related behaviours and it is stressed that each approach is defined differently. According to Porter, Crampton and Smith (1976 cited in Ugboro, 2006), commitment-related attitudes is defined as a state in which the individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate these goals. Wiener (1982 cited in Ugboro, 2006) posits that the commitment-related behaviour approach on the other hand, focuses on behavioural patterns guided by internalized normative pressures to act in a way that meets organizational goals and interests.

Reicher (1985) is of the opinion that organizational commitment can be accurately understood as a collection of multiple commitments to various groups that comprise the organization. The researcher postulate that various groups within the organization compete for an individual's energies and identifications and commitments and that these multiple identifications with various groups within the organization constitute multiple commitments. Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe (2004) purport that organizational commitment can be understood as a collection of multiple commitments in the organization and that commitment

can be directed at various targets or foci. According to Meyer et al. (2004), these commitments however, have the potential to both complement and conflict with one another.

## **2.4.3 THEORIES AND MODELS**

### **2.4.3.1 BECKER'S SIDE-BET THEORY**

One of the earliest theories of organizational commitment is the Side-Bet Theory by Becker. According to Ritzer and Trice (1969), this theory contends that commitment occurs through the process of placing a side-bet. Becker (1964 cited in Ritzer & Trice, 1969) postulate that when an individual makes a side-bet, he or she usually stakes something of value to him or to her that is unrelated to his or her present line of activities. "In general, Becker contends that the greater the side-bets, the greater the commitment of the individual" (Ritzer & Trice, 1969, p. 475).

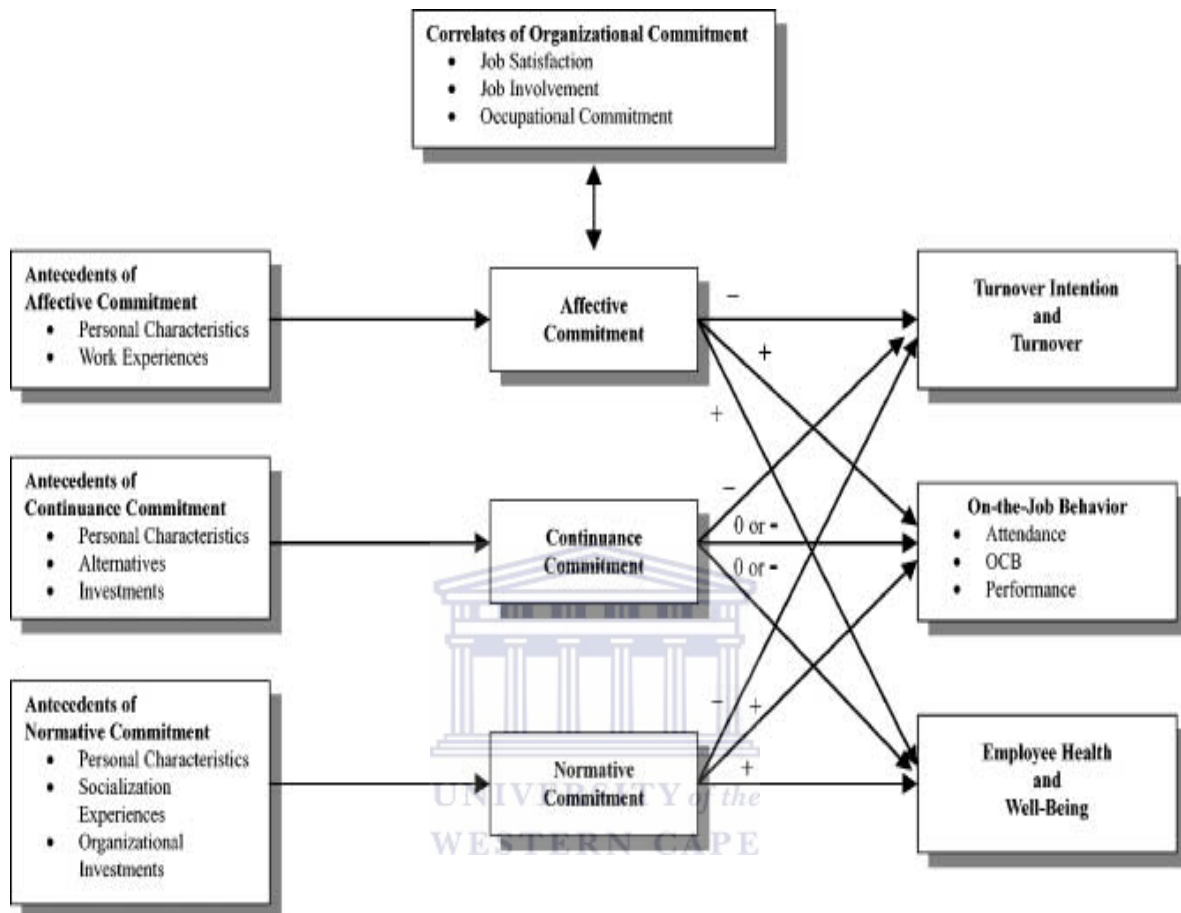
Griffin and Hepburn (2005) add that individuals develop a series of side-bets over time and commit themselves to a certain line of behaviour. The researchers distinguish between five types of side-bets - response to generalized cultural expectations, impersonal bureaucratic arrangements, individual adjustment to social positions, self-presentation concerns and non-work concerns. According to the researchers, these side-bets actually constrain an individual's future activity and thus bind him or her closer to the organization.

### **2.4.3.2 MEYER AND ALLEN'S THREE-COMPONENT MODEL**

According to Clugston (2000), Meyer and Allen's three component model of commitment appears to be emerging as the predominant conceptualization of organizational commitment amongst current researchers. Meyer and Allen (1991) reviewed organizational commitment theory and research and developed a model of commitment. The aim of their research was to (i) aid in the interpretation of existing research and (ii) to serve as a framework for future research on the topic. This model highlights that organizational commitment comprises of three components namely, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.



**Figure 2.3: A Three Component Model of Organizational Commitment**



Source: Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002, p. 22)

According to Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002, p. 21), Meyer and Allen (1984) initially proposed that a distinction be made between affective and continuance commitment whereby affective commitment denoted an “emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization” whilst, continuance commitment denoted “the perceived cost associated with leaving the organization.”

According to Meyer et al. (2002, p. 21), Meyer and Allen later added a third component of commitment namely, normative commitment “which reflects a perceived obligation to remain in the organization.” Meyer and Allen (1991 cited in Wasti, 2002) put forth that affective, continuance and normative organizational commitment must be seen as components of organizational commitment rather than types of organizational commitment and further put forth that an employee’s relationship with the organization may reflect verifying degrees of all three components of organizational commitment.

According to this model, employees with strong **affective commitment** remain with the organization because they *want to* whilst, employees with strong **continuance commitment** stay with the organization because they *need to*, and employees with strong **normative commitment** stay with the organization because they feel that they *ought to* stay.

These three components of commitment (affective, continuance and normative) is discussed in more detail below.

#### **2.4.3.2.1 AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT**

“Affective commitment is an attitudinal process whereby people come to think about their relationship with the organization in terms of value and goal congruency” (Clugston, 2000, p. 478). Clugston (2000) further elaborates that affective commitment has to do with the degree to which an individual’s goals and values align with the organization’s goals and desires and that it has a direct influence on the individual’s desire to stay with the

organization. Clugston (2000) indicates that individuals with strong affective commitment stay with the organization because they *want* to.

Bergman (2006) concur that affective commitment is a desire to belong to the organization. Vandenberghe, Bentein and Stinglhamber (2004) allude that commitment foci represents those individuals, groups or entities to which an employee is attached and Meyer and Allen (1991) and Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) maintain that whatever the foci of interest might be, affective commitment to the entity of interest can be defined as an attachment characterized by an identification to and involvement in the target entity. Herscovitch and Meyer (2002 cited in Vandenberghe et al., 2004) posit that commitment directed to a specific target was a better predictor of behaviour than commitment directed at the more general organization. It is highlighted that organizational support is an antecedent of affective commitment and that employees who feel supported by their organizations will attempt to repay the organization by means of affective commitment.

#### **2.4.3.2.2 CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT**

According to Meyer and Allen (1991 cited by Clugston, 2000), continuance organizational commitment is described as the need to remain with the organization based on the costs associated with leaving the organization. Clugston (2000) points out that these costs are manifested in two distinct ways namely, (i) the employee accrue investments in the form of pension plans, seniority, specialized and untransferable job skills, local affiliations, familial ties and so on which might be lost due to changing jobs and (ii) individuals stay in their jobs because of the fact that they do not have any alternative job prospects. It is believed that

employees with strong continuance organizational commitment will stay with their employing organization because they *have* to.

Meyer and Allen (1991 cited in Powell & Meyer, 2004) argued that the three components of commitment will develop in different ways and that continuance commitment will develop in a response to conditions that would increase the cost of leaving, for example by placing a side-bet. Bergman (2006) in this regards alludes that continuance commitment is based on a belief that leaving the organization will be costly to the employee. Similarly, Casper, Martin, Buffardi and Erdwins (2002) cites McGee and Ford (1987) who maintain that continuance commitment may comprise of two dimensions namely, (i) the commitment based on a lack of employment alternatives and (ii) commitment based on the high sacrifices entailed in leaving the organization.



#### **2.4.3.2.3 NORMATIVE COMMITMENT**

According to Meyer and Allen (1991 cited in Clugston, 2000, p. 478), normative organizational commitment has reference to an employee's desire to stay with the organization is based on "a sense of duty, loyalty, or moral obligation." Clugston (2000) posits that normative commitment can be distinguished from affective and continuance organizational commitment – according to the researchers, normative commitment does not reflect a need to associate with the organization's goals or mission and there is no explicit extrinsic exchange involved in the relationship. It can thus be implied that normative organizational commitment has to do with intrinsic factors such as the employee's culture, his or her work ethics, etcetera. "Thus, the sense of loyalty and duty underlying an



employee's normative commitment influences the individual to remain with the organization because they feel as though they *ought* to do so" (Clugston, 2000, p. 478).

Bergman (2006) posits that normative commitment is the least studied component of commitment. It is highlighted that the definition of normative commitment has changed over the years and that it had been associated with loyalty to the organization but it later became an obligation to stay with the organization with no specific reference to social pressures about loyalty.

Similarly, Yao and Wang (2006) delineate that when defining normative commitment according to the definition of Meyer and Allen (1997) and Wiener (1982), it can be posited that normative commitment is an internal norm of obligation which stems from early childhood or career experience and that normative commitment should be the result of a person's stable internal status and be less dependent upon any particular organization. It is further highlighted that culture and norms play a pivotal role and influences normative commitment in a sense that people grow up and adopt cultural norms which make them more attached to certain groups or organizations, especially in eastern cultures where obedience and loyalty are strong cultural norms.

#### **2.4.4 MOTIVATION AND COMMITMENT**

Meyer et al. (2004) state that when an individual compares the definitions of motivation with that of commitment, there are obvious similarities in that both motivation and commitment has been described as energizing forces with implications for behaviour. Pinder (1998 cited

in Meyer et al., 2004) describes motivation as a set of energizing forces whilst Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) define commitment as a force that binds an individual to a course of action. “This implies that motivation is a broader concept than commitment and that commitment is one among a set of energizing forces that contributes to motivated (intentional) behaviour” (Meyer et al., 2004, p. 994).

Meyer et al. (2004) postulate that another comparison that can be drawn from comparing motivation and commitment theories is that both these variables were developed in an attempt to understand, predict and influence employee behaviour. According to Meyer et al. (2004), motivational theorists have mostly been concerned with explaining tasks whilst commitment theorists have been focusing more on explaining employee retention and turnover. Meyer et al. (2004) argue that due to the overlaps found in the purpose and implications of both motivation and commitment, it is necessary that the integration of motivational and commitment theory is both plausible and warranted. It is based on this premise that Meyer et al. (2004) developed an integrated model of employee commitment and motivation.

#### **2.4.5 CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Organizational commitment, and especially the lack thereof, may lead to a number of consequences for organizations. However, Metcalfe and Dick (2002) posit that although the term commitment tends to be used in holistic sense, it is perceived by managers as a desirable feature.

### **2.4.5.1 Turnover**

Sikorska-Simmons (2005) alludes that organizational commitment has been associated with a number of positive outcomes. Mathieu and Zajac (1990 cited in Sikorska-Simmons, 2005) delineate that employees who are committed to their employing organizations are less likely to quit than those colleagues who are not committed to their employing organizations. “Since turnover results from a lack of commitment to an organization and turnover causes significant expense to an organization, this interaction has important implications for organizations” (Silverthorne, 2004, p. 596). Silverthorne (2004) further alludes that turnover costs include direct as well as indirect expenses to the organization. “Turnover costs include direct expenses related to replacing an employee and indirect expenses related to loss of experience and lowered productivity” (Silverthorne, 2004, p. 596).

Mak and Sockel (2001) also posit that poor retention could be due to employee turnover, burnout and a lack of commitment and that the turnover of employees should be well managed as employees who leave the organization might be the organizations’ best employees. Turnover will thus have dire consequences for an organization if the best employees leave and they take with them valuable skills and information.

### **2.4.5.2 Morale**

Mak and Sockel (2001) stress that organizations must retain their employees otherwise the best employees may leave the organization. Moore (1997 cited in Mak & Sockel, 2001) maintains that even should the employee decide to stay with the organization, the lack of

morale due to burnout and low commitment may mirror the problems caused by employee turnover. It is thus essential that organizations find means and ways to make sure that their employees remain committed to their employing organizations as low levels of commitment might lead to low morale and eventually burnout and turnover.

### **2.4.5.3 Absenteeism**

Geurts, Schaufeli and Rutte (1999); McNeese-Smith (1995) and Somers (1995) cited in Sikorska-Simmons (2005) point out that organizational commitment has been linked to lower levels of absenteeism and better job performance. Absenteeism is a huge financial and economic loss to the organization as it does not only obstruct work programmes but organizations at times need to employ temporary employees to substitute work employees who are absent, and these substitutes come at a financial loss to the organization. According to Meyer and Allen (1997) and Mowday (1998) both cited in Metcalfe and Dick (2001), committed individuals are less likely to be absent and will be more likely to improve individual as well as organizational performance. Similarly, Loke (2001, p. 194) posits that research has shown “that increased commitment improves work performance and reduces absenteeism and turnover.”

### **2.4.5.4 Productivity**

McNeese-Smith (1997 cited in Loke, 2001, p. 193) defines productivity as “...the contribution made towards an organizational end result in relation to the amount of resources consumed.” Mak and Sockel (2001) allude that for an organization to maintain a corporate

strategic advantage, it is necessary for organizations to retain a healthy team of committed and productive employees. Zangaro (2001) posits that the consequences of organizational commitment are retention, attendance and productivity and further delineates that if an employee is not committed to his or her employing organization “retention will decrease, absenteeism will increase, and productivity will decrease” (Zangaro, 2001, p. 19).

Eaton (2003) posits that various factors are known to contribute to an employee’s commitment to an organization and productivity namely, tenure, position, income, age, education and psychological predisposition. Lee and Bruvold (2003 cited in Kuvaas, 2006) allude that based on Adams’ 1963 equity theory and a broader social exchange view, it can be argued that the more inducement an organization provides to an employee, the more that employee will become effectively committed to that organization. Based on findings and arguments by Gardner, Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) and Thierry (2001) the researchers hypothesized that there will be a positive relationship between the level of base pay and both work performance and affective commitment.

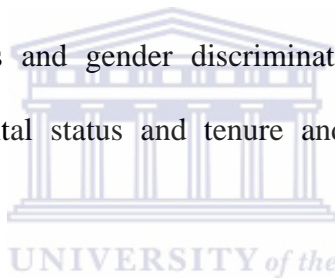
## **2.5 INTENT TO QUIT**

### **2.5.1 INTRODUCTION**

Lambert (2006) postulate that voluntary turnover are disruptive and harmful to the organization regardless of the type of organization. According to Ramlall (2004), the total cost of employee turnover is a minimum of one year’s pay and benefits or a maximum of

two years pay and benefits. Despite the financial costs to an organization, Ramlall (2004) stresses the fact that when an employee leaves his or her employing organization, he or she takes with him or her valuable information. The cost associated with replacing an employee and the valuable knowledge lost when the employee quits the organization makes it very important for organizations to retain their employees.

According to Brough and Frame (2004), turnover intentions refer to an individual's estimated probability that they will leave an organization at some point in the near future. Cotton and Tuttle (1986 cited in Brough & Frame, 2004) identifies three primary groups of variables that influences turnover intentions namely, (a) organizational variables such as job satisfaction, occupational stress and gender discrimination, (b) individual demographic variables such as gender, marital status and tenure and (c) external variables such as availability of alternative work.



According to Firth et al. (2004), actual quitting behaviour is the primary focus of interest to employers and researchers but intention to quit is argued to be a strong surrogate indicator for such behaviour. Firth et al. (2004) report that various researchers (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Igbaria & Greenhaus, 1992) found that intention is the most immediate determinant of actual behaviour and that the following variables are consistently found to be related to intention to quit, namely:

- The experience of job-related stress (job stress),
- The range of factors that lead to job-related stress (stressors),

- Lack of commitment to the organization and
- Job dissatisfaction.

## **2.5.2 DEFINING INTENT TO QUIT**

The literature makes reference to various terminology when referring to intent to quit (such as, intent to leave, turnover intention and job withdrawal intentions). According to Kong et al. (1994), although different terminology have been used, the construct intent to quit refers to the employee's intention to leave the employing organization voluntary and excludes the situation in which an employee is fired.

According to authors such as Mobley et al. (1979 cited in Lambert (2006), turnover intent is the cognitive process of thinking, planning and desiring to leave a job. Mobley et al. (1979 cited in Lambert, 2006) mentioned that there are four cognitive parts of turnover intent namely, (i) thinking of quitting, (ii) planning to stay or to leave, (iii) searching for alternative employment and (iv) a desire to leave the current job. Steel and Ovalle (1984 cited in Lambert, Hogan & Barton, 2001) posit that most researchers accept the premise that the intent to stay or leave a job with a particular employer is the final cognitive step in the decision making process of voluntary turnover.

Brough and Frame (2004) define turnover intentions as an individual's estimated probability that they will leave an organization at some point in the near future. According to Maertz and Campion (1998 cited in Brough & Frame, 2004), the identification of the variables

contributing to turnover intentions is considered to be effective in reducing actual turnover levels.

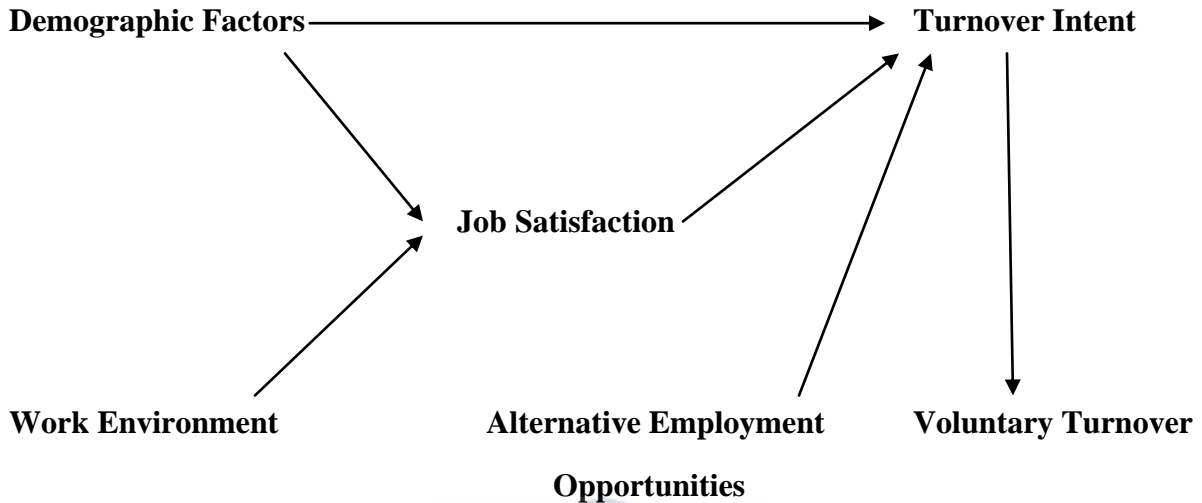
Elangovan (2001 cited in Jacobs & Roodt, 2008) views intention to leave as an attitudinal orientation or a cognitive manifestation of the behavioural decision to leave. Elangovan (2001 cited in Ferres, Connell & Travaglione, 2004) postulates that the intention to leave is one of the most important predictors of turnover and defines intent to leave as the strength of an individual's conviction that he or she will stay or leave the organization in which he or she is employed at.

### **2.5.3 AN INTENT TO QUIT MODEL**

Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth (1978) and Mobley et al. (1979) proposed a model of turnover and set out to explain the process of voluntary turnover and how turnover intent influences turnover. Mobley et al.'s 1978 model is depicted in figure 2.4 on the next page.



**Figure 2.4 : Mobley et al.'s (1978) Turnover Model**



Source: Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth (1978)



### **2.5.3.1 Mobley et al.'s Turnover Model**

In explaining their model, Mobley et al. (1978) stipulate that turnover is influenced by (i) the demographic characteristics which plays a role in a person's decision as to whether to stay or to leave the job (ii) the thought of turnover intention gets triggered and arises through job satisfaction (iii) employee job satisfaction are shaped by the work environment factors which shapes turnover intention and (iv) turnover is influenced by turnover intent.

Lambert et al. (2001) posit that generally two categories of factors exist that are believed to influence job satisfaction namely, demographic characteristics and work environment factors. In turn, job satisfaction negatively effects turnover intent, and turnover intent directly impacts voluntary turnover” (Lambert et al., 2001, p. 234). The above module

indicates that alternative employment opportunities triggers turnover intent which in turn, leads to voluntary turnover.

#### **2.5.4 FACTORS RELATING TO INTENT TO QUIT**

According to Emberland & Rundmo, 2010 and Mishra & Bhatnagar, 2010 all cited in Saungweme & Gwandure (2011), intention to leave is associated with negative work factors which may include the organizational climate and perceptions of job insecurity. According to Hughes, Avey and Nixon (2010 cited in Saungweme & Gwandure, 2011, p. 148), “turnover intentions can result from push factors like lack of interest in the job, bad working climate and pull factors like availability of opportunities in the market.” Firth et al. (2004) also posit that a number of variables have been associated with intent to quit namely, the experience of job related stress, the range of factors that lead to job related stress, a lack of commitment to the organization and job dissatisfaction. PE

According to Hinshaw, Smeltzer and Atwood, 1987; Blegen (1993 all cited in Coomber & Barriball, 2007) earlier studies indicate that stress had the strongest relationship with intent to leave and that other factors such as low autonomy, low recognition and poor communication with colleagues were described as the causes of this stress.

Coomber and Barriball (2007) points out that there exist four studies that particularly investigated the effects of stress on the intent to leave and that stress had consistently been cited as a major predictor of anticipated turnover. In a study conducted by Fang (2001 cited

in Coomber & Barriball, 2007, p. 308) it is posited that of all the variables that were measured, stress exerted the most substantial impact on turnover cognition where "...stress explained 8.5% from a total of 41% of the variance for turnover cognition and 4.6% from a total of 32% for turnover..." A study conducted by Shader, Broome, Broome, West and Nash (2001) revealed that higher levels of job stress resulted in lower job satisfaction through the lowering of group cohesion which in turn increased anticipated turnover or intent to quit.

According to Currall et al. (2005), pay dissatisfaction has led to a number of employee outcomes namely, reduced levels of performance, lateness, theft, absence, turnover intentions and turnover. However, Coomber and Barriball (2007) cite the findings of a study conducted by Cowin (2002) amongst nurses and posit that pay was not a statistically significant indicator of intent to leave. It is further highlighted that the dissonance between pay and level of responsibility may lead to retention issues and that the only major concern was the perceived inequality of pay for the high level of responsibilities. Coomber and Barriball (2007) further posit that Fang (2001) also found no significant influence of pay on turnover cognitions or the intent to leave.

## **2.5.5 RESEARCH FINDINGS ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND**

### **INTENT TO QUIT**

According to Blegen (1993 cited in Lum et al. (1998), commitment to the employing organization has been a topic of considerable research for the past two decades. "Common to

all the conceptualizations of commitment found in the literature is a link with turnover; employees who are strongly committed are those who are least likely to leave the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1).

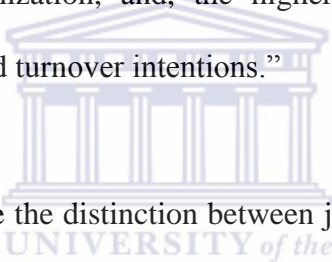
Tumwesigye (2010, p. 942) posit that “One of the antecedent factors of turnover and turnover intentions is believed to be organizational commitment.” According to Mathieu and Zajac (1990 cited in Clugston, 2000), organizational commitment has been most often used as an antecedent to predict withdrawal behaviours. Clugston (2000) also report that Allen and Meyer (1996) allude that numerous studies have found affective, continuance and normative types of commitment to be negatively correlated with turnover intentions.

Tumwesigye (2010) conducted a study amongst 297 postgraduate students employed in the private, public and NGO sectors in Uganda and attempted to investigate the relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intentions in a developing country and the mediating role that organizational commitment played in this relationship. Findings were reported that a strong negative relationship exists between all three dimensions of organizational commitment (namely, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment) and turnover intention (Tumwesigye, 2010). It also revealed that the beta coefficients for all three equations were significant and negative that is, affective commitment (-0.660), normative commitment (-0.598) and continuance commitment (-0.539) respectively. Furthermore, Tumwesigye (2010) reported with confidence that all three dimensions of organizational commitment played a mediating role in the relationship between perceived organizational support (POS) and turnover intentions.

## 2.5.6 JOB SATISFACTION, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND INTENT

### TO QUIT

“Numerous studies have continually shown the effect of both job satisfaction and organizational commitment on turnover intentions” (Martin & Roodt, 2008, p. 25). The researchers posit that job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment is both viewed as essential components of turnover models and that job satisfaction and organizational commitment correlate with one another yielding a positive response. Martin and Roodt (2008, p. 25) further posit that “the greater the job satisfaction, the less the likelihood that the individual will leave the organization, and, the higher the commitment levels of the employee, the lower the predicted turnover intentions.”



Williams and Hazer (1986) make the distinction between job satisfaction and organizational commitment by stipulating that organizational commitment is an effective response to the whole organization whilst job satisfaction is an effective response to specific aspects of the job. Mowday et al. (1979) posit that as an attitude, commitment differs from job satisfaction in that commitment as a construct is more global as it reflects a general effective response to the organization as a whole whilst job satisfaction on the other hand, reflects an individual's response to one aspect of the job or to certain aspects of the individual's job.

Slattery and Selvarajan (2005) examined the association between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions among temporary employees and report that previous research have shown that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are antecedents to turnover intentions. Slattery and Selvarajan (2005) further report that a

substantial body of literature exist indicating that job satisfaction is negatively related to turnover intent which further imply that there is a direct relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intent. Similarly, DeConinck and Stilwell (2004 cited in Jacobs & Roodt, 2008) indicate that most of the studies conducted to date concentrate on job satisfaction and organizational commitment as antecedents for turnover intentions and significant relationships were reported.

In a study conducted by Chen (2006) examining job satisfaction, organizational commitment and the impact of those variables on the intent to quit, it was found that job satisfaction and organizational commitment have a negative impact on turnover intentions.

Slattery and Selvarajan (2005) report that organizational commitment is negatively related to intent to quit but that the predominant view in the literature indicates that job satisfaction is an antecedent to organizational commitment. The opposite view is also true - a meta-analysis that was conducted on turnover intention research indicated that organizational commitment predicts turnover better than job satisfaction does. Similarly, Elangovan (2001 cited in Slattery & Selvarajan, 2005) posit that earlier research also report that the predominant view in the literature on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intent to quit indicates that organizational commitment predicts turnover better than job satisfaction.

In a study conducted by Elangovan (2001) amongst 155 business graduate students who were studying part-time and who were employed at the time, it was found that commitment had a strong negative effect on turnover intentions (-0.756), and the lower the commitment the higher the propensity for the employee to leave. The researcher postulated that variables

such as job satisfaction and stress does not directly affect turnover intentions but only affects turnover intentions through commitment. According to the researcher, “the effect of satisfaction operates through commitment” (Elangovan, 2001, p. 163).

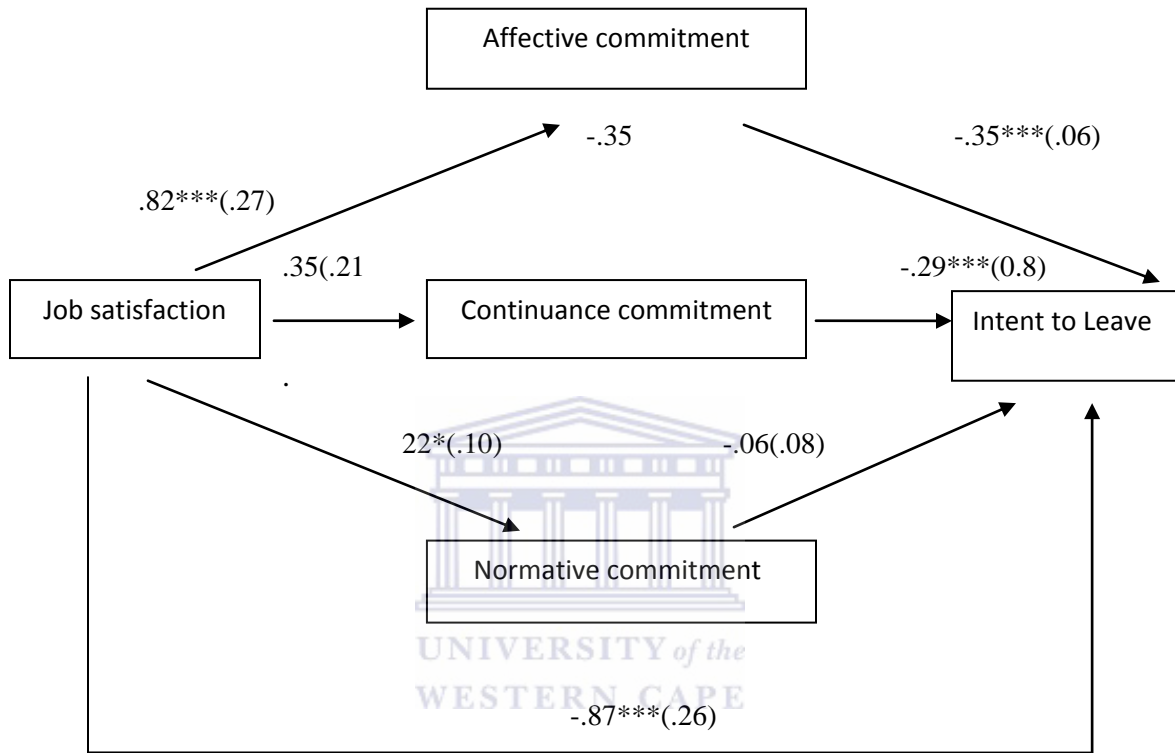
In another study conducted previously by Ben-Bakr et al. (1994) amongst 442 employees in Saudi Arabia to examine the predictive strength of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, value commitment and continuance commitment and how it relates to turnover, Ben-Bakr et al. (1994) found that organizational commitment (-0.40) was the strongest predictor of turnover followed by continuance commitment (-0.35), value commitment (-0.33) and lastly job satisfaction (-0.30). Ben-Bakr et al. (1994) posit that all these attitudinal variables predict turnover and that their findings indicate that it is consistent with previous research findings on organizational commitment and job satisfaction (that is, commitment predicts turnover better than job satisfaction). Contrary to the above, Loke (2001) posits that whilst job satisfaction correlates more strongly with the intention to quit, it is organizational commitment that has the strongest correlation with actual turnover.

Firth et al. (2004) highlight that the relationship between intent to quit and job satisfaction and the intent to quit and commitment to the organization have been found to prevail across a range of occupations. The researchers further postulate that a sense of commitment to the organization and a sense of job satisfaction have a major impact in reducing an employee's intention to quit.

According to DeConinck and Stilwell (2004), although a number of evidence exist proving that job satisfaction is a direct predictor of withdrawal cognitions (turnover, turnover intent,

etcetera), a number of studies also indicate that the relationship between job satisfaction and withdrawal cognitions is mediated by organizational commitment.

**Figure 2.5 Partially Mediated Model of Commitment**



Path coefficients for the partially mediated multidimensional commitment model (Note: S.E. in parenthesis.  $p < 0.10$ ; \* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ )

Source: Clugston (2000, p. 483)

Figure 2.5 above depicts a model presented by Clugston (2000) to demonstrate the standard path coefficient for a partially mediated model of commitment. The researcher hypothesized job satisfaction has a positive impact on affective as well as normative commitment. It was also hypothesized that job satisfaction will have a negative impact on continuance



commitment but contrary to his hypothesis, job satisfaction also demonstrated to have a positive impact on continuance commitment. According to Clugston (2000, p. 483) “Job satisfaction was initially proposed to have a negative impact on continuance commitment because job satisfaction was viewed as an affective response to work, and affective and continuance commitment are inversely related.” A possible reason for this occurrence may be due to the composite nature of the scale which contains items which taps into an individual’s satisfaction with pay (Clugston, 2000). A very important finding as depicted in figure 2.5 and as cited by Clugston (2000) is that normative commitment does not have a significant impact on the intent to leave but that job satisfaction has a greater direct impact on the intent to leave than organizational commitment.

DeConinck and Stilwell (2004) posit that a number of studies have analyzed the relationship amongst job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover and that Tett and Meyer (1993) have reported that job satisfaction correlated slightly more strongly with turnover intentions than did organizational commitment. Hence, the researchers concluded that organizational commitment does not completely mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

## **2.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER**

In chapter two a brief overview of the private security industry was introduced followed by a literature overview focusing on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intent to quit, respectively. The **first** section focused on the private security industry, in particular the development of the industry especially from a South African context. The **second** section

presented literature on job satisfaction and focused on defining the construct, highlighting various motivational theories and concluded with the causes and consequences of job satisfaction. The **third** section explored organizational commitment. The construct was defined, various theories discussed and the section concluded with consequences for organizational commitment. The **last** section provided an overview on intent to quit and concluded with literature pertaining to studies conducted amongst the three variables being investigated. As a paucity of literature exist with respect to studies in the private security industry, reference was made to other industries when reporting on research conducted.

The next chapter will highlight the research methodology that will be employed in this study.



## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on as to how the research problem was investigated. The population, sample and data gathering instruments are discussed. Furthermore, the research techniques that will be utilized to test the hypotheses are delineated.

#### 3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Babbie and Mouton (2007, p. 74), “a research design is a plan or blueprint of how you intend conducting the research.” The researchers further allude that the research design “... addresses the planning of scientific inquiry – designing a strategy for finding out something” (Babbie & Mouton, 2007, p. 72).

A non random sampling method was used. Purposeful sampling was used to select the sample. Maxwell (1997 cited in Teddlie & Yu 2007, p. 77) defines “purposeful sampling as a type of sampling in which particular settings, persons, or events are deliberately selected for the important information they can provide that cannot be gotten as well from other choices.”

**The advantages of purposeful sampling are:** (Sharma, 1997, p. 123)

- it uses the best available knowledge concerning the sample subject;
- it gives better control of significant variables;
- in it sample groups data can be easily matched and
- in it there is homogeneity of subjects used in the sample.

**The disadvantages of purposeful sampling are:** (Sharma, 1997, pp. 123-124)

- in it the reliability of the criterion is questionable;
- in it the knowledge of the population is essential;
- in it there may be errors in classifying sampling subjects;
- it is unable to utilize the inferential parametric statistics and
- it is unable to make generalizations concerning the total population.

### **3.3 POPULATION**

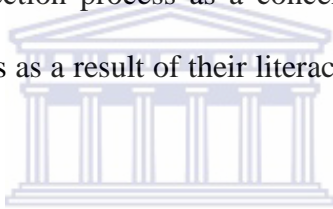
According to Marczyk, DeMatteo and Festinger (2010), the population is all individuals of interest to the researcher. Similarly, Sekaran (2001, p. 225) defines a population as “the entire group of people, events or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate.”

The population for this research project consists of private security personnel working in the Northern suburbs of Cape Town, South Africa. The population consists of 300 private security officers.

### **3.4 SAMPLE**

Marczyk et al. (2010) posit that researchers are unable to study the entire population and therefore study a subset of the population which is known as a sample. The researchers further posit that the sample must be a representation of the entire population.

The sample for the current study was drawn from private security personnel that work in the Northern suburbs of Cape Town. The sample for this research project consists of 143 private security officers. For the purpose of this research, security officers with a grade 10 qualification and higher were selected. Security officers with qualifications lower than grade 10 were excluded from the selection process as a concern was felt that they may find it difficult to interpret the questions as a result of their literacy level which, in turn, might have impacted the results of the study.



Of the 300 questionnaires that were administered, 143 questionnaires were returned. This indicates a 48% response rate. This exceeds the generally accepted convention with respect to surveys for which a minimal return rate is anticipated to be at least 30% (Sekaran & Bougie, 2011).

### **3.5 PROCEDURE FOR GATHERING DATA**

Permission to conduct the research was granted by the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the private security organization who tasked the Operations Manager to liaise with the researcher on issues such as distribution, completion and collection of the questionnaires. A memorandum was sent out by the Operational Manager informing participants about the

nature of the research. A cover letter explaining the nature of the research, the procedure and instructions for completing the questionnaires, the layout of the questionnaire and that formal permission was obtained from the organization's management accompanied the questionnaires. Confidentiality and anonymity were ensured as participants were not putting their names or any identifiable details on the questionnaires.

Three hundred questionnaires with envelopes were delivered to the Operations Manager who in turn, had to give them to the various site inspectors. The questionnaires were then distributed by the site inspector to the various premises where security officers are deployed. Administering of the questionnaires was done per shift roster thus ensuring no duplications.

Due to the nature of the private security industry and for security reasons, the researcher was unable to distribute the questionnaires himself hence, the reason for distribution and collection by the site inspectors. Security officers were allowed 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire at the commencement of their shifts and upon completion asked to return them in a sealed envelope to their respective site inspectors. This, in turn, was returned to the Operational Manager who then handed it over to the researcher. The time allocated for distribution and collection of the questionnaires were two weeks.

### **3.6 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS**

Three standardized questionnaires and a self-developed biographical questionnaire were used for the purpose of the current study. Gilbert (2001, p. 87) posit that the main advantages of using self completion questionnaires are as follows:

- \* a large population can be surveyed relatively cheaply,
- \* costs are lower as interviewers are not used,
- \* pre-coding and computerization speeds up analysis and
- \* respondents can complete the questionnaire at a time that is convenient for them.

### **3.6.1 Biographical Questionnaire**

The biographical questionnaire containing the following personal information was administered and completed by the respondents;

- (i) Age
- (ii) Gender
- (iii) Race
- (iv) Marital status
- (v) Highest educational qualification
- (vi) Years of service with the organization
- (vii) Grade level
- (viii) Shift work



### **3.6.2 Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)**

#### **3.6.2.1 Nature and Composition of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)**

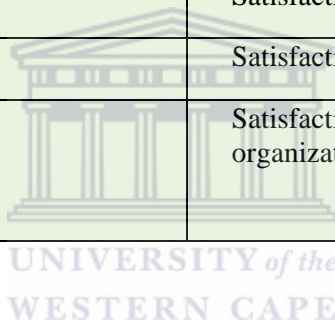
Job satisfaction was measured by making use of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The JSS was developed by Spector in 1985. The purpose of this questionnaire is to assess an employee's attitude towards his/her job and which facet of his/her job he/she is satisfied or dissatisfied with.

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) consists of 36 items which measure 9 facets, namely: (1) Pay; (2) Promotion; (3) Supervision; (4) Fringe Benefits; (5) Contingent Rewards; (6) Operating Procedure; (7) Coworkers; (8) Nature of Work; and (9) Communication as well as overall satisfaction (Spector, 1997). Table 3.1 on the next page depicts the nine facets as measured by the JSS accompanied by a description of each facet.



**Table 3.1 Facets of the Job Satisfaction Survey**

<b>Facet</b>	<b>Description</b>
Pay	Satisfaction with pay and pay raises
Promotion	Satisfaction with promotion opportunities
Supervision	Satisfaction with person's immediate supervisor
Fringe benefits	Satisfaction with fringe benefits
Contingent rewards	Satisfaction with rewards (not necessarily monetary) given for good performance
Operating conditions	Satisfaction with rules and procedures
Coworkers	Satisfaction with coworkers
Nature of work	Satisfaction with the type of work done
Communication	Satisfaction with communication within the organization



Source: Spector, 1997, p. 8

### **3.6.2.2 Scoring of the Job Satisfaction Survey**

The nine facets are assessed with four items each and a score is computed for all items. There are six responses per item ranging from 1 being “disagree very much” to 6 being “agree very much”. The items are written in both directions which indicate that about half of the items are reversed scored (Spector, 1985). Spector (1997) points out that “to reverse the scoring you renumber the negatively item responses from 6 to 1 rather than 1 to 6” (Spector, 1997, p. 9).

Spector (1997) posit that the JSS can yield 10 scores and that each of the nine subscales can produce a separate facet score. Translated into summed scores for the four-item subscale with a range of 4 to 24, scores of 4 to 12 are dissatisfied, 16 to 24 are satisfied and between 12 and 16 are ambivalent. For the 36-item total where possible scores range from 36 to 216, the ranges are 36 to 108 for dissatisfaction, 144 to 216 for satisfaction and between 108 and 144 for ambivalent (Spector, 1985). Table 3.2 below depicts which items represent which subscale as well as which of the items need to be reversed scored.

**Table 3.2 Subscale Contents for the Job Satisfaction Survey**

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

NOTE: Items followed by “r” should be reversed-scored.

Source: Spector, 1997, p. 9

### 3.6.2.3 Psychometric properties of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

#### 3.6.2.3.1 Reliability

“In the abstract, reliability is a matter of whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object, would yield the same result each time” (Babbie & Mouton, 2007, p. 118).

Spector (1985) posit that internal consistency reliability (coefficient alpha) was computed for each subscale and each subscale was found to be above the .50 minimum which was suggested by Nunnally (1967). “All but two were over .70 and the total scale was .91” (Spector, 1985, p. 700).

The researcher further posit that a test-retest estimate for the Job Satisfaction Survey was available from a relatively small sample (n=43) which were performed 18 months apart. Considering the long time span and the many changes within the organization, the correlation coefficient between the sub scales at both points in time were surprisingly high (ranging from .37 to .74 for the sub scales and .71 for the entire scale) (Spector, 1985).

Below are the internal consistency reliabilities (coefficient alpha) based on a study by Spector (1985) with a sample of 2870 participants. Table 3.1 (depicted on the [next page](#)) provides means, standard deviations, mean interitem correlations, coefficient alpha and test re-test reliability for Spector’s (1985) study.

**Table: 3.3 Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities for the JSS**

Subscale	Mean	SD	Mean	Coefficient Alpha	Test re-test Reliability
			Interitem		
			Correlation		
Pay	10.5	5.1	43	75	45
Promotion	11.5	5.1	40	73	62
Supervision	19.9	4.6	53	82	55
Benefits	13.1	5.0	40	73	37
Contingent Rewards	13.4	5.1	44	76	59
Operating Procedures	12.5	4.6	29	62	74
Co-Workers	18.8	3.7	33	60	64
Nature of Work	19.2	4.4	50	78	54
Communication	14.0	5.0	38	71	65
Total Satisfaction	133.1	27.9	21	91	71
n	3067	3067	2870	2870	43

Source: Spector (1985, p. 700)

### 3.6.2.3.2 Validity

“In conventional usage, the term validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration” (Babbie & Mouton, 2007, p. 122).

Spector (1985) found major evidence for discriminant and convergent validities which was provided by a multitrait-multimethod analysis of the JSS and the JDI. It was found that the validity correlations between equivalent subscales from both instruments were significantly larger than zero and of reasonable magnitude ranging between .61 and .80.

Spector (1985) allude that these values were all higher than correlations between noncorresponding subscales across the instrument and that the validity correlations were all higher than the intercorrelations among subscales within each instrument. The researcher reports that all but one subscale for each instrument ranged from .20 to .37 indicating and that the pattern of interrelationships among subscales for both instruments was reasonably consistent.

“If the JSS does indeed measure conceptually distinct facets of job satisfaction, which is implied by discriminant validity, one would expect small to moderate correlations among the subscales” (Spector, 1985, p. 702). The researchers reports these correlations to range from .11 to .59 with a meadian correlation of .35.

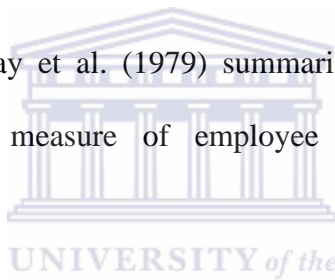
It is further reported that nine eigenvalues were greater than 1.0 and that these results are suggestive of convergent validity in that the individual items clustered more highly with other items which measured the same construct than different constructs (Spector, 1985).

### **3.6.3 Organizational Commitment Questionnaire**

#### **3.6.3.1 Nature and Composition of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire**

##### **(OCQ)**

Organizational commitment was measured by making use of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The OCQ was initially developed by Porter and Smith in 1970 to measure commitment within an organization. However, Mowday et al (1979) developed the instrument based on a series of studies amongst 2563 employees in 9 divergent organizations. Mowday et al. (1979) summarized numerous research aimed at developing and validating a measure of employee commitment to their working organization.



The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire consists of 15 items. Six (6) out of the 15 items are negatively phrased and reversed scored. The OCQ has seven responses (seven point Likert scale) ranging from 1 being “strongly disagree” to 7 being “strongly agree”.

#### **3.6.3.2 Psychometric Properties of the OCQ**

##### **3.6.3.2.1 Reliability**

“Internal consistency reliability was calculated in three different ways: coefficient alpha, item analysis, and factor analysis” (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 230). The researchers posit that

the coefficient alpha was consistently very high and ranged from .82 to .93 with a median of .90.

Mowday et al. (1979) postulate that they have examined the stability of the OCQ over time and computed the test-retest reliability over 2, 3 and 4 month periods and that the test-retest reliabilities over these months were  $r=.53$ ,  $.66$  and  $.75$  respectively. In another study conducted by the researchers over a period of two months, they reported the test-retest reliability to be  $r=.72$  and  $.62$  respectively.

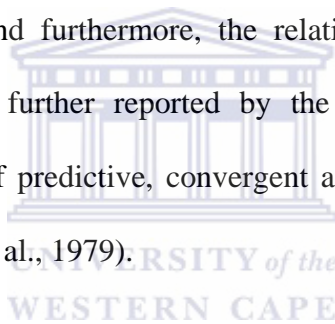
#### **3.6.3.2.2 Validity**

“In view of the absence of acceptable standards for comparison, it is difficult to establish convergent validity for a measure of organizational commitment” (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 234). However, the researchers allude that the OCQ was correlated with the Sources of Organizational Attachment Questionnaire which seemed very relevant for a point of comparison as it is structurally different from the OCQ which, in turn, reduces common method variance problems in the analysis. Mowday et al. (1979) further allude that the convergent validity over six diverse samples ranged from  $.63$  to  $.74$  with a mean of  $.70$ . “In this case, then, consistent evidence of convergent validity for the OCQ was found” (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 234).

“As an attitude, organizational commitment would be expected to be related to other job-related attitudes” (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 236). For this reason, the researchers the researchers made use of three other attitude variables (namely, job involvement, career

satisfaction and job satisfaction) to investigate the discriminant validity of the OCQ. The results indicated that when the OCQ was compared to other measures that measured job involvement, career satisfaction and scales of the Job Descriptive Index, the relationship ranged from  $r=.30$  to  $r=.56$ ;  $r=.39$  to  $r=.40$  and  $r=0.1$  to  $r=.68$  respectively. When testing for discriminant validity, Mowday et al. (1979) found that the highest relationship was between commitment and commitment with the work itself.

When examining predictive validity, the researchers concluded that commitment leads to high levels of performance but posit that these results must be interpreted with caution as it is based on a small sample and furthermore, the relationships did not reach levels of statistical significance. It was further reported by the researchers that cross-validated evidence of acceptable levels of predictive, convergent and discriminant validity emerged from the instrument (Mowday et al., 1979).



#### **3.6.3.2.3 Mean and Standard Deviation**

According to Mowday et al. (1979), the mean level of commitment ranged from a low 4.0 to a high 6.1 across the nine samples. “Moreover, standard deviations indicate an acceptable distribution of responses within samples” (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 230).



### **3.6.4 Intent to Quit Questionnaire**

#### **3.6.4.1 Nature and Composition**

Intent to quit was measured by making use of a questionnaire that was developed by Roodt in 2004. According to Jacobs and Roodt (2008), the Intentions Turnover Questionnaire consists of 14 items that are measured on a seven-point intensity response scale which are anchored at extreme poles, namely, “never” (1) to “always” (7).

#### **3.6.4.2 Psychometric properties of the Intent to Quit Questionnaire**

##### **3.6.4.2.1 Reliability and Validity**

Jacobs and Roodt (2008) posit that they obtained a Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.913 which indicates an acceptable reliability. In an earlier study conducted by Jacobs and Roodt (2007), the researchers allude that they also obtained a Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.913 for the same instrument. In a recent study conducted by the same researchers, they reported that “the questionnaire was factor analyzed and it yielded a Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.839 indicating acceptable reliability” (Jacobs & Roodt, 2011, p. 4).

According to Sager, Griffeth and Hom (1998 cited in Jacobs & Roodt, 2008, p. 69), “the turnover literature lacks formally validated scales to represent turnover cognitions” however, the motivation behind the development of this questionnaire is that most of the instruments that measure intentions to quit only uses a small number of items whilst other instruments at times only use one item. Sager et al. (1998 cited in Jacobs & Roodt, 2008) posit that the use

of single-item indicators to measure turnover intentions is criticized as their construct validity is unknown.

### **3.6.5 Rationale for using the Questionnaires**

#### **(Job Satisfaction Survey, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire and Intent to Quit Questionnaire)**

- They are the most widely used instruments,
  - the instruments are proven to be reliable and valid,
  - it is easy to use, understand and to interpret,
  - it can be administered to individuals and to a larger group,
  - it possesses the facets that the researcher wanted to measure,
  - it can be used across all industries and not limited to certain industries.
- 
- the Intent to Quit Questionnaire was included because unlike other instruments that measures turnover intentions, it possesses more than one item to measure turnover intentions. According to Martin and Roodt (2008), other researchers have only used a single item scale whilst only a few studies have used more than three items per instrument.
  - the Intent to Quit Questionnaire is a South African developed instrument and appropriate for the population under study,

### **3.6.6 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES**

#### **3.6.6.1 The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation**

According to Rodger and Nicewander (1988), Pearson's  $r$  was the first formal correlation measure and is the most widely used measure of relationships. Similarly, Cooper and Schindler (2003) posit that the Pearson's  $r$  is the most common of all correlation techniques. Cooper and Schindler (2003) and Leedy and Ormrod (2001) postulate that correlation coefficients reveal the strength and the relationships between two variables.

The Pearson's  $r$  correlation will be used to test the following hypotheses:

- The relationship between job satisfaction and intent to quit; and
- The relationship between organizational commitment and intent to quit.



#### **3.6.6.2 Multiple Regression Analysis**

“Multiple regression analysis can be looked upon as an extension of straight-line regression analysis (which involves only one independent variable) to the situation in which more than one independent variable must be considered” (Kleinbaum, Kupper, Nizam & Muller, 2007, p. 114).

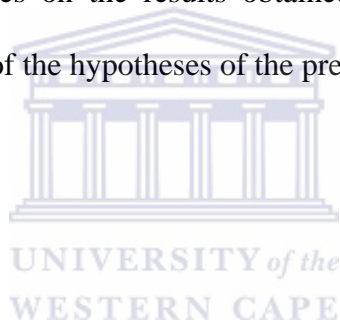
In the above regard, multiple regression analysis will be used to test the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to quit as well as the strength of the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to quit. Multiple regression analysis will be used to test the following hypothesis:

- Organizational commitment will show a stronger relationship with intent to quit than job satisfaction will.

### **3.7 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER**

This chapter highlighted the research design, the sampling technique, data gathering procedure and the statistical techniques that were used to answer the research questions pertaining to this study.

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

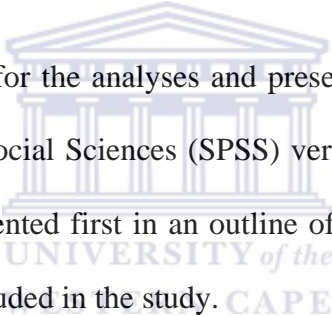


## CHAPTER 4

### PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous section, the research methodology and design utilised during the current study were outlined. The information provided and discussed in the previous chapters will serve as a background against which the contents of this chapter will be presented and interpreted and is based on the empirical analyses conducted to test the hypotheses.

The statistical programme used for the analyses and presentation of data in this research is the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19. The descriptive statistics computed for the study are presented first in an outline of the characteristics of the sample with regards to the variables included in the study.  UNIVERSITY of the CAPE

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 four measuring instruments employed, are summarised by means of calculation of descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data clearly emerge and an overall picture thereof is obtained.

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 & Bougie, 2011).

## 4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated as obtained by the variables included in the biographical questionnaire. The demographic variables that received attention are:

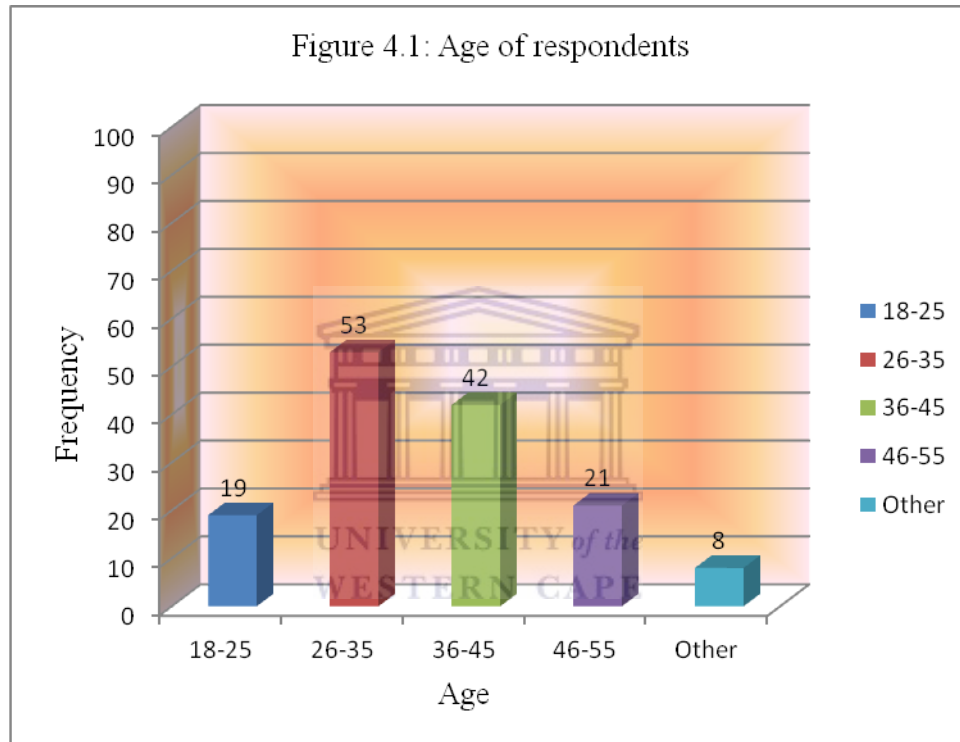
- Age,
- Gender,
- Race,
- Educational qualification,
- Marital status,
- Tenure,
- Grade level and
- Shift work



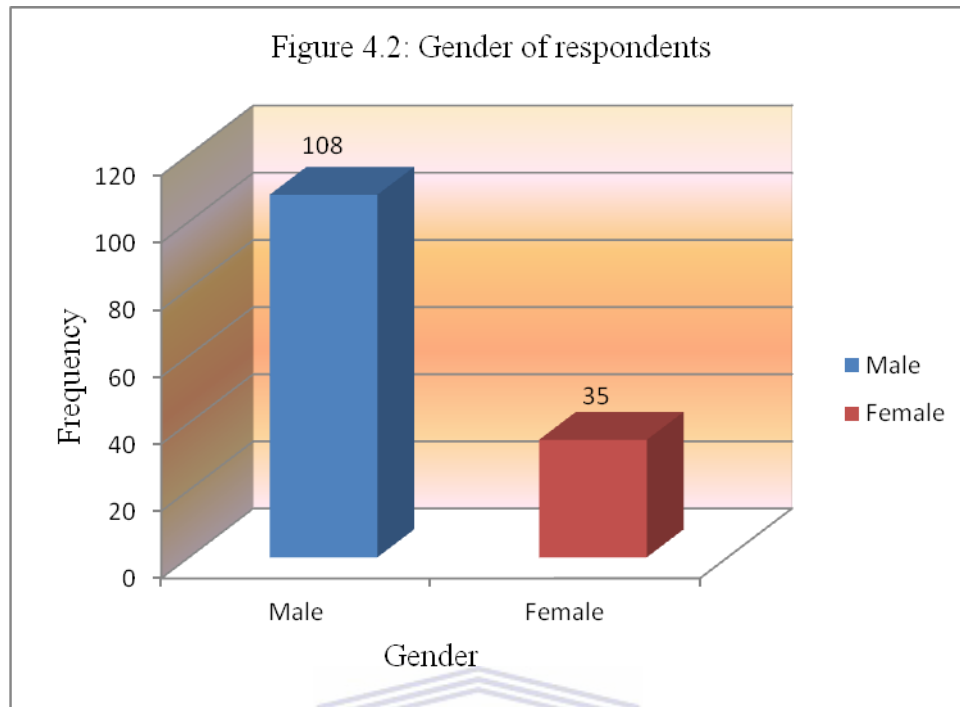
Descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and percentages are subsequently graphically presented for each of the above-mentioned variables.

#### 4.2.1 BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

The respondents' ages are depicted in Figure 4.1

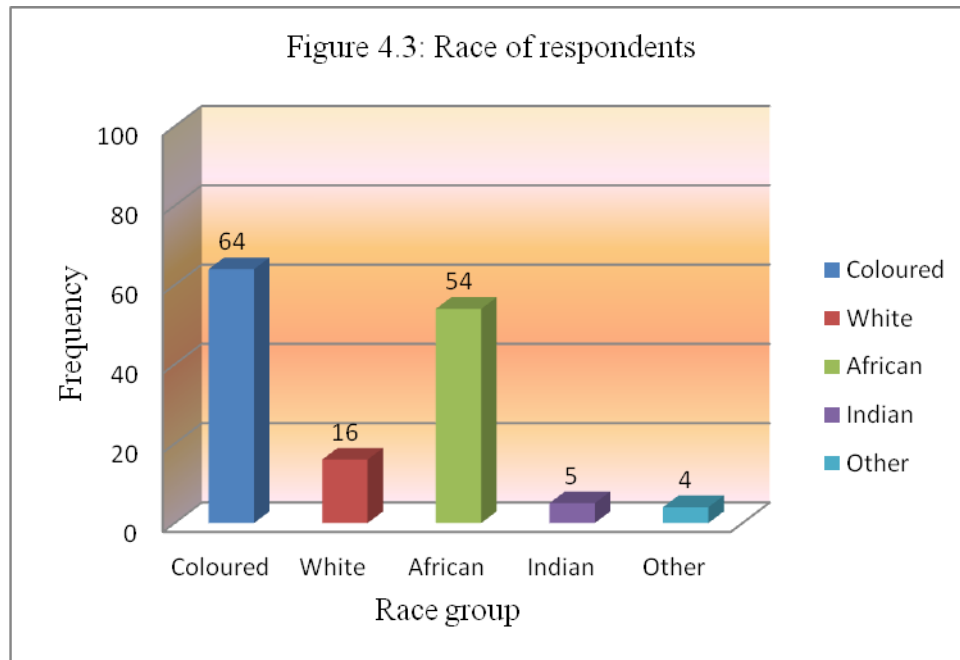


Respondents in the age group 26-35 comprised 37% of the sample (n=53), with a further 29% (n=42) being from the age group 36-45 and those in the age group 46-55 comprised 15% (n=21) of the sample. While 13% (n=19) of the respondents represented those in the age group 18-25, those classified as other constituted 6% (n=8) of the sample.



It can be seen from figure 4.2, that the majority of the respondents, that is 76% (n=108) were male and the remaining 24% (n=35) was comprised of female respondents.





The largest proportion of respondents comprising 45% (n=64) of the sample were Coloured, followed by African respondents who constituted a further 38% (n=54) of the sample. White respondents represented a further 11% (n=16) of the sample, Indian respondents represented 3% (n=5) of the sample and those classified as Other comprised 3% (n=4) of the sample.

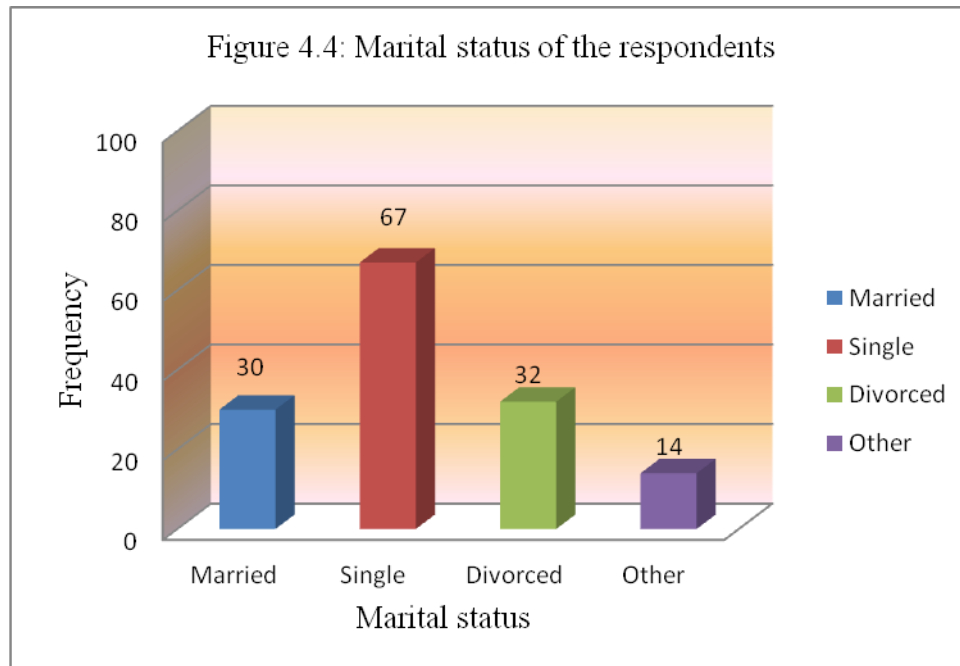
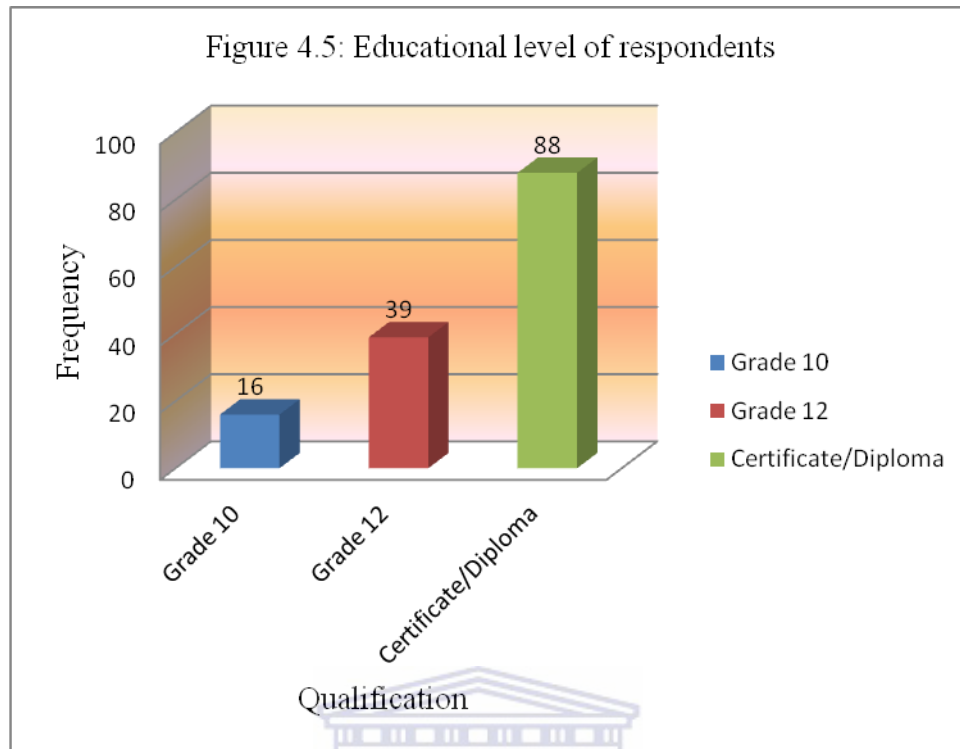
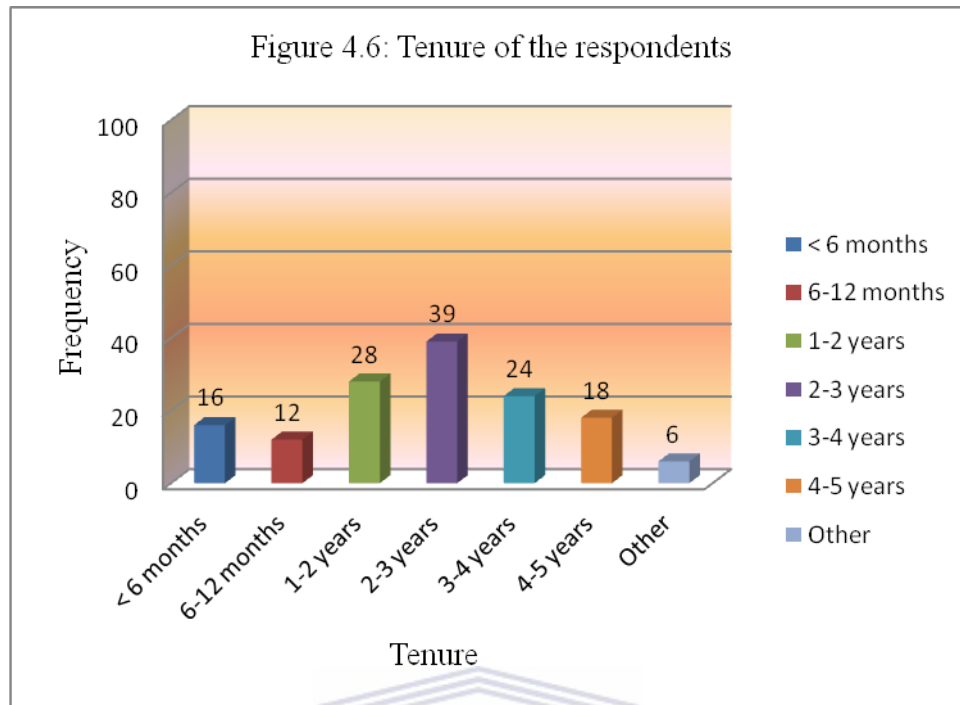


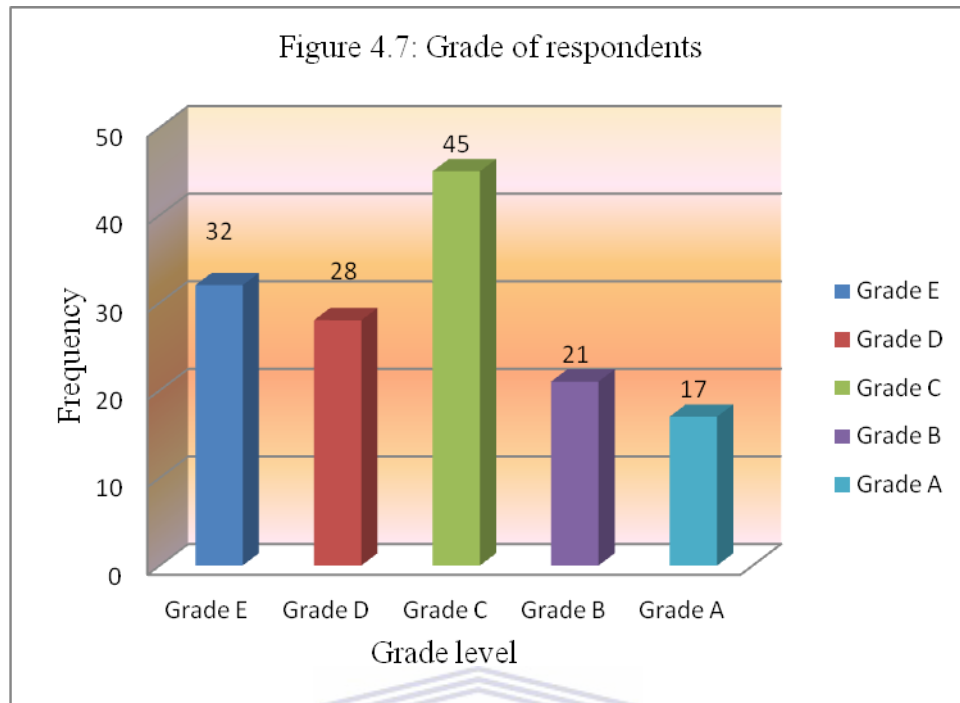
Figure 4.4 indicates that 47% (n=67) of the sample were single, with an additional 22% (n=32) of the respondents being divorced and 21% (n=30) being married. The remaining 10% (n=14) classified their marital status as Other.



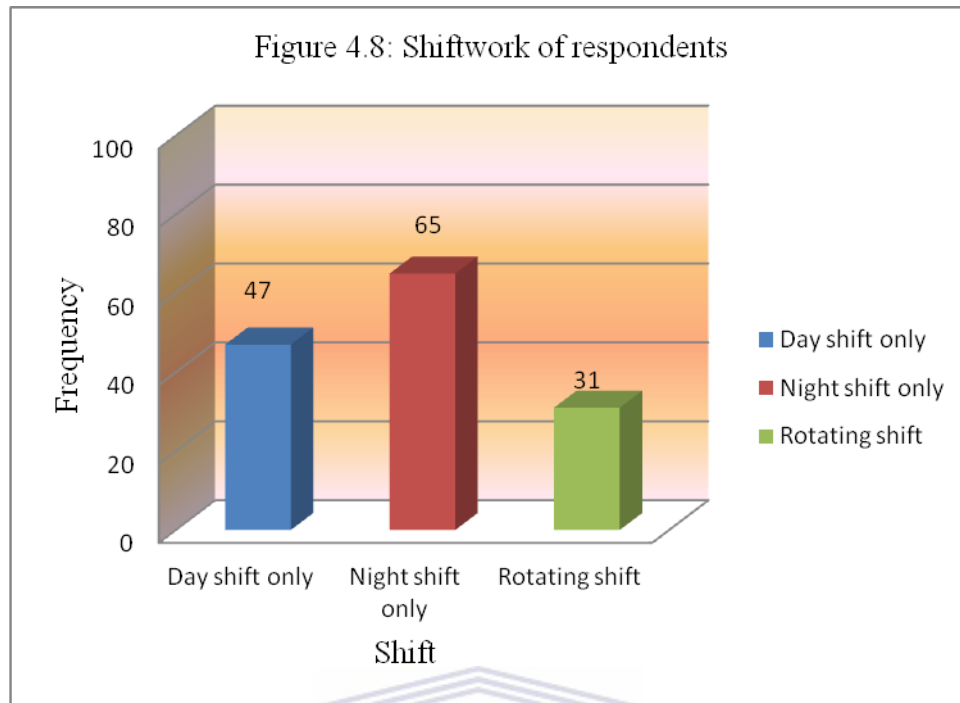
With respect to the educational level of respondents, it may be seen that 62% (n=88) of the respondents had completed a Certificate/Diploma. Moreover, 27% (n=39) of the respondents had completed Grade 12, and 11% (n=16) had completed Grade 10.



Respondents with 2-3 years' service in the organization constituted 27% (n=39) of the sample. Those with 1-2 years' service in the organization represented 20% (n=28) of the sample, and those with 3-4 years' service comprised 17% (n=24) of the sample. In addition, those with 4-5 years' service represented 13% (n=18) of the sample, and those with less than 6 months service in the organization constituted 11% (n=16) of the sample. Of the remaining sample, those with 6-12 months service constituted 8% (n=12) of the sample and only 4% (n=6) could be classified in the category Other.



Grade C level employees constituted 31% (n=45) of the respondents, and a further 22% (n=32) were represented by Grade E. This was followed by Grade D level employees who made up 20% (n=28) of the sample, Grade B who comprised 15% (n=21) of the sample and finally Grade A represented 12% (n=17) of the sample.



Those respondents who worked night shift comprised the majority of the sample (that is 45%; n=65). Individuals who worked the day shift only comprised a further 33% (n=47) of the respondents, and the remaining 22% (n=31) worked on rotating shifts.

**Table 4.1 Descriptive Statistics for Job Satisfaction**

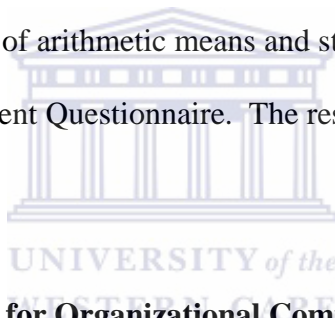
<b>Variable</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard deviation</b>
Benefits	143	9.5	3.6
Pay	143	6.7	2.9
Supervision	143	12.9	1.8
Promotion	143	8.9	1.2
Contingent rewards	143	13.7	2.7
Operating procedures	143	16.8	1.5
Coworkers	143	21.9	2.2
Nature of work	143	16.3	1.6
Communication	143	18.2	2.8
Total Job satisfaction	143	89.7	12.3

The results for the dimensions of job satisfaction as determined by the Job Satisfaction Survey are presented in table 4.1. It can be seen that respondents reported they derived their job satisfaction primarily from co-workers (Mean = 21.9, s.d = 2.2). They also experienced communication as relatively contributing to job satisfaction (Mean = 18.2, s.d = 2.8),

followed by operating procedures (Mean = 16.8, s.d = 1.5). They reported pay as the least satisfying aspect of their job satisfaction (Mean = 6.7, s.d = 2.9), followed by promotion opportunities (Mean = 8.9, s.d = 1.2) and benefits (Mean = 9.5, s.d = 3.6). When the total job satisfaction reported by security officers is scrutinized, it becomes apparent that they report very low levels of job satisfaction (Mean = 89.7, s.d = 12.3). This is based on the normative data which indicates that average levels of job satisfaction as computed by the JSS are 140.

#### 4.3 RESULTS OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations were computed for the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. The results are presented in Table 4.2.



**Table 4.2 Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Commitment**

Variable	Cases (n)	Mean	Standard deviation
Organizational commitment	143	48.445	8.932

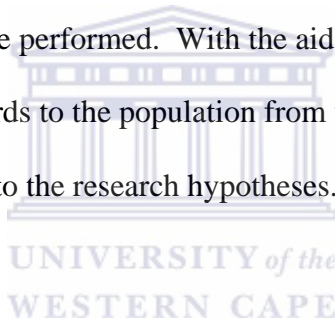
Table 4.2 shows that the arithmetic mean and standard deviation for the organizational commitment of the sample are 48.445 and 8.932, respectively. Given that a mean score of approximately 60 would constitute an average level of organizational commitment, it may be concluded that the sample in question demonstrates below average levels of organizational



commitment as assessed by the OCQ. The obtained standard deviation of 8.932 is also not particularly high, which would suggest that most responses are distributed relatively close to the mean with regards to this construct.

#### **4.4 INFERENCE STATISTICS**

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



**Hypothesis 1: Private security officers who experience low levels of job satisfaction will show an intention to quit their employing organization in the near future.**

The Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was computed for the purposes of determining whether a statistically significant relationship exists between job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst security officers. The results are presented in Table 4.3.

**Table 4.3 Pearson Correlation between Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention**

	<b>Turnover intention</b>
<b>Job satisfaction</b>	-0.722  p = 0.000**

\*\* p < 0.01

Table 4.3 indicates the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst security officers. The results indicate that there is a strong, inverse relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst the sample of employees ( $r=-0.722$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). This indicates that higher levels of job satisfaction are strongly associated with lower turnover intention amongst security officers.

Hence, the research hypothesis is accepted.

**Hypothesis 2: Private security officers who experience low levels of organizational commitment will show an intention to quit their employing organization in the near future.**

**Table 4.4 Pearson Correlation between Organizational Commitment and Turnover Intention**

	<b>Turnover intention</b>
<b>Organizational Commitment</b>	- 0.642  p = 0.000**

\*\* p < 0.01

Table 4.4 indicates the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention amongst security officers. The results indicate that there is a significant inverse relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention (r=-0.642, p < 0.01). This indicates that low organisational commitment is likely to translate into higher turnover intentions amongst security officers in the current research.

Hence, the research hypothesis is accepted.

**Hypothesis 3: Organizational commitment will show a stronger relationship with intent to quit than job satisfaction will.**

**Table 4.5 Multiple regression: Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Turnover Intention**

<b>Turnover Intention</b>			
Multiple R	0.614235		
R Square	0.377284		
Adjusted R Square	- 0.01956		
Standard error	8.97585		
Degrees of freedom			
Regression	5		
Residual	138		
F	3.50881		
Sign F	0.000**		
<b>Variable</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>Sig T</b>
<b>Job satisfaction</b>	- 0.079274	- 0.777	0.043*
<b>Organizational Commitment</b>	- 0.105214	- 1.120	0.026*

In terms of Table 4.5, it can be seen that the correlation of the three variables, is 0.614235, as represented by Multiple R. Furthermore, the R Square value of 0.377284 suggests that only 37.7% of the variance in turnover intention can be attributed to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Table 4.5 further shows that the F-statistic of 3.50881 at 5 and 138 degrees of freedom is statistically significance at the 0.01 level. The results moreover suggest that organizational commitment appears to be a better predictor of turnover intentions amongst security officers than is job satisfaction. In addition, given that these two variables accounted for approximately 38% of the variance in turnover intentions, it is likely that variables which were unexplored in the current research, could have influenced the results.

Hence, the research hypothesis is accepted.



**Table 4.6 Reliability of the Job Satisfaction Survey, Organisational Commitment Questionnaire and the Turnover Intention Questionnaire**

<b>Dimension</b>	<b>Number of items</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Cronbach</b>
<b>JSS</b>	116	143	0.742
<b>Organizational Commitment</b>	15	143	0.915
<b>Turnover Intention Questionnaire</b>	14	143	0.824



The reliability Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability of the scale. Table 4.6 shows that acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for the various constructs which were assessed. The results indicate that the coefficient were all in excess of 0.7, thereby indicating consistency, stability and freedom from error (Sekaran & Bougie, 2011).

**Table 4.7 Summary of Hypotheses**

	<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Findings</b>
<b>H1</b>	<b>Private security officers who experience low levels of job satisfaction will show an intention to quit their employing organization in the near future.</b>	<b>Accepted</b>
<b>H2</b>	<b>Private security officers who experience low levels of organizational commitment will show an intention to quit their employing organization in the near future.</b>	<b>Accepted</b>
<b>H3</b>	<b>Organizational commitment will show a stronger relationship with intent to quit than job satisfaction will</b>	<b>Accepted</b>



## **4.5 CONCLUSION**

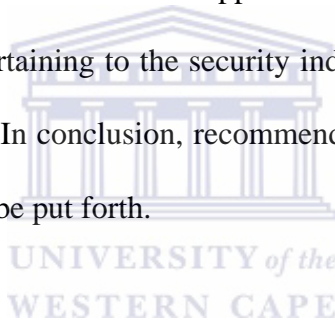
This chapter presented the most salient findings which emerged from the study investigating job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions amongst a sample of security officers. The results were graphically presented and descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were tabulated and discussed. The next chapter provides a discussion of the results, and presents the findings in relation to previous research. Conclusions which can be drawn are presented and recommendations to the organization and future research are highlighted.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact that push factors (namely, job satisfaction and organizational commitment) have on the intent to quit amongst private security officers. In this chapter, the prominent findings of the study will be discussed and reference will be made to relevant research to support the findings of the current study. As there is a paucity of research pertaining to the security industry, other environments will be referred to support the findings. In conclusion, recommendations for both future research as well as for the organization will be put forth.



#### **5.2 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS**

##### **5.2.1 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION ABOUT THE SAMPLE**

Respondents in the age group 26-35 comprised the majority (37% ; n=53) of the sample followed with a further 29% (n=42) being from the age group 36-45. The majority of the respondents, that is 76% (n=108) were male; this was expected as the private security industry is a primarily male dominated industry. The largest proportion of the sample comprised of Coloured (45% ; n=64), followed by African respondents who constituted a further 38% (n=54) of the sample. Fourty seven percent (n=67) of the sample were single,



with an additional 22% (n=32) of the sample (n=32) being divorced and 21% (n=30) being married.

With respect to the educational level of respondents, 62% (n=88) of the sample had completed a Certificate/Diploma whilst 27% (n=39) of the respondents had completed Grade 12, and 11% (n=16) had completed Grade 10. Respondents with 2-3 years' service in the organization constituted the majority (27% ; n=39) of the sample followed by those with 1-2 years' service in the organization representing 20% (n=28) of the sample. With regards to job grade level, 31% (n=45) of the respondents were on a Grade C level, and a further 22% (n=32) were represented by Grade E. Grade A (which is considered managerial level) represented 12% (n=17) of the sample (n=17). Those respondents who worked night shift comprised the majority (45% ; n=65) of the sample with those respondents working a rotating shift comprising the minority (22% ; n=31) of the sample.



### **5.3 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND THE INTENT TO QUIT**

**Hypothesis 1: Private security officers who experience low levels of job satisfaction will show an intention to quit their employing organization in the near future.**

The results of the current study indicate that there is a strong, inverse relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention amongst the sample of employees ( $r=-0.722$ ,

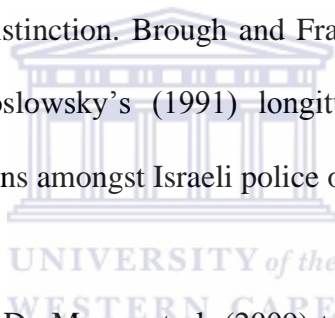
$p < 0.01$ ). **Hence the null hypothesis is rejected.**

The results furthermore indicate that higher levels of job satisfaction are strongly associated with lower turnover intention amongst security officers. Due to a paucity of studies amongst private security officers with respect to job satisfaction and their intent to quit references will be made to other industries which also investigated these variables.

According to Hellman (1997 cited in Coomber & Barriball, 2007), the increased dissatisfaction in employees result in a higher chance of considering alternative employment opportunities. Coomber and Barriball (2007) report on the findings of Hellman's 1997 meta-analysis of studies conducted in the United States, which indicated that the relationship between job satisfaction and the intent to quit was found to be consistently negative for most studies. Similarly, Carsten and Spector (1987 cited in Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006, p. 194) allude that "... job satisfaction and intention to quit generally demonstrate an inverse relationship, although the magnitude may vary." However, De Moura, Abrams, Retter, Gunnarsdottir and Ando (2009) posit that it is unclear as to how strong the job satisfaction-turnover intention relationship should be as it is dependent on specific aspects of work in a particular organization.

In a study conducted by Brough and Frame (2004) amongst New Zealand police officers, the researchers set out to establish the influence of three sources of social support and the impact that police organizational variables have on intent to quit. "The participants were invited to complete two identical self-report questionnaires, with a four month time lag" (Brough & Frame, 2004, p. 10). Time 1 had a response rate of 57% (n=229) whilst Time 2 had a response rate of 43% (n=169). It was hypothesized that job satisfaction will be a direct

negative predictor of turnover intentions. The results of the study indicate that there is no clear support that any of the research variables including job satisfaction predicted intent to turnover over time. Furthermore, the researchers hypothesize that the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to quit will be stable over the four month period. The results revealed that the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to quit was partially supported. The researchers further posit that intrinsic job satisfaction alone predicted turnover intentions thus partially supporting the hypothesis. It is further highlighted that the research makes a distinction between the specific types of job satisfaction (namely, intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction) and that the research reinforces the value of including this job satisfaction distinction. Brough and Frame (2004) posit that their results failed to replicate that of Koslowsky's (1991) longitudinal relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions amongst Israeli police officers.



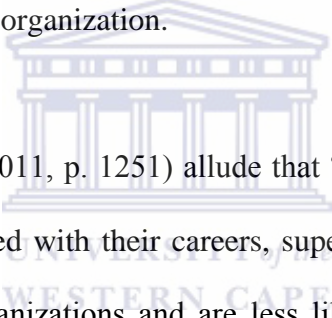
In a recent study conducted by De Moura et al. (2009) to establish how identification and job satisfaction predict turnover intention, the researchers hypothesized that identification with the organization and job satisfaction will be negatively related to turnover intentions within and across the samples. The researchers made use of seven sample groups namely, (i) United Kingdom universities (n=46), (ii) Japanese universities (n=71), (iii) a commercial organization (UK offices)(n=49), (iv) a commercial organization (Japan office)(n=50), (v) hospital employees (n=870), (vi) mail service workers (n=176), and (vii) a legal firm (n=130). The results of the study indicated that both job satisfaction as well as identification with the respective organizations is both significantly negatively correlated with turnover intention within all the samples and that the correlations for job satisfaction ranged from

$r = -.22$  to  $-.46$ . According to George and Jones (1996) and Hellman (1997) both cited in De Moura, et al. (2009), job satisfaction has widely been reported as a predictor of turnover intention. De Moura et al. (2009) postulate that as job satisfaction decreases, turnover intentions increases and that the obvious response to dissatisfaction would be to leave one's job.

A meta-analysis conducted by Irvine and Evans (1995 cited in Tsai & Wu, 2010) on 70 studies concluded that job satisfaction is strongly related to intent to leave. Furthermore, Williams and Skinner (2003 cited in Tsai & Wu, 2010) delineate that a negative correlation exists between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Williams and Skinner (2003) set out to investigate the decline of job satisfaction amongst physicians and purport that their findings are based on a review of 44 studies relating to job satisfaction and physicians as a sample. In their recent cross sectional study amongst a sample of 237 nurses, Tsai and Wu (2010) hypothesized that job satisfaction was negatively correlated with turnover intention. Better working opportunities that are offered by other institutions followed by a lack of identification with the organization ranked the highest amongst motivation given for intent to quit. The results of their study supported their hypothesis and also concurred with previous studies conducted.

Pettijohn, Pettijohn and Taylor (2008) conducted a study amongst 14 retailers who employed 156 salespeople. The aim of the study was to empirically assess the relationship between the level of an employer's ethics, business ethics in general, attitudes from a customer's point of view and the employee's job satisfaction and turnover intentions with regard to the

employee's employer. Jaramillo, Mulki and Solomon (2006 cited in Pettijohn et al., 2008) are of the opinion that whenever employees perceive their employers to be unethical, employees' job satisfaction may decline and turnover intentions might increase. The results of their study indicate that when an employee perceives his or her employer to be unethical, employee's job satisfaction will be negatively affected. The results show a strong significant ( $p < 0.0001$ ) relationship between the salesperson's perception of the employer's ethics and his/her turnover intention. In the above study, the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to quit is mediated by perceived unethical behaviour and it is in line with De Moura et al.'s (2009) view that the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to quit is dependent on specific aspects of work in an organization.



Suhaime, Mahmud and Hasin (2011, p. 1251) allude that “previous research has found that employees who are more satisfied with their careers, supervisors and co-workers are more likely to identify with their organizations and are less likely to seek other employment.” Similarly, Sloane and Williams (2000 cited in Pienaar, Sieberhagen & Mostert, 2007, p. 62) highlight that “... job satisfaction is influenced by a myriad of job-related factors, such as pay, benefits, conditions of employment, relationships with supervisors and colleagues and fundamental benefits individuals perceive themselves as receiving from doing the job.” Alam and Mohammad (2010) delineate that job satisfaction characteristics or facets may not be of equal importance to every individual and that an employee may be satisfied with one facet whilst he or she may be dissatisfied with another. According to Johnson and Johnson (2000) and Taber and Alliger (1995) both cited in Alam and Mohammad (2010), research

have indicated that employees develop attitudes towards job facets such as work variety, pay, promotion, coworkers, company policies and supervisors.

In a study conducted by Chan, Luk, Leong, Yeung and Van (2008) amongst 426 nurses, the researchers set out to investigate the factors that influence nurses' intention to quit their current positions. The results of the study indicated that of the 426 nurses, 166 (39%) indicated their intention to leave their current employment. The results furthermore indicated that age, work experience, the workplace and job satisfaction facets such as pay and benefits were significant predictors of nurses' intention to quit their current position. The age of the nurses and their years of tenure with the organization played a role in the nurses' intent to leave. Nurses above the age of 45 and who were employed longer than 10 years however, were less likely to leave their current positions. According to Chan et al. (2008), a possible reason for the large number of nurses' intention to leave may be that the majority of nurses who participated in the study are under the age of 45 which indicate that they are generation Xers. According to Duchscher and Cowin (2004 cited in Chan et al., 2008), generation Xers prefer more changes and challenges than nurses who are born in the 1960's (silent generation) who prefer seniority and loyalty, thus the possible reason for their intent to leave their current positions.

According to Carmeli and Weisberg (2006, p. 194), "one of the classifications of job satisfaction is between extrinsic and intrinsic factors." Carmeli and Weisberg (2006) conducted a study amongst 509 employees who worked in three different professions namely, (i) financial officers (n=98), (ii) certified lawyers (n=183) and (iii) social workers (n=228). The researchers hypothesized that the relationship between intent to turnover will

be negative for both intrinsic job satisfaction as well as extrinsic job satisfaction. Furthermore, the researchers hypothesized that “the effects of intrinsic job satisfaction on turnover intentions will be more significant than the effects of extrinsic job satisfaction” (Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006, p. 194). Their findings indicated that there exists a negative relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and intent to turnover. Their results however, failed to show a significant negative relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and turnover intent. Additionally, the results revealed that the effects of intrinsic job satisfaction on intent to turnover are more significant than the effects of extrinsic job satisfaction on turnover intentions. Carmeli and Weisberg (2006) highlight the importance of considering the differences across professional groups and stresses that this is needed to make generalization possible. The researchers posit that a possible reason for extrinsic job satisfaction not to show a significant negative correlation with turnover intent might be due to social workers working in a public domain and as a result do not have much choice when it comes to extrinsic benefits.

Brough and Frame (2004); Eisenberger, Stinglahamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski and Rhoades (2002) all cited in Pienaar et al. (2007) are of the opinion that job satisfaction is a direct predictor of an employee’s intention to quit but that the employee’s intentions can be tempered with when the employee perceives that they are supported by their supervisor. Brough and Frame (2004) who conducted a study amongst 398 New Zealand police officers, posit that low levels of supervisory support are related to higher levels of turnover intentions. “Social support has been shown to play an important role in mitigating intention to quit, although not all findings have been in agreement” (Firth et al., 2004, p. 172). Firth et al.

(2004) report that a number of studies indicate that supervisor support impacts the intent to quit through job satisfaction, stresses and burnout.

The results of the current study indicate that the job satisfaction facet that participants are the most satisfied with is that of co-workers. Newman, Maylor and Chanskar (2002 cited in Suhaime et al., 2011) similarly found that the main element in nurses' recruitment and selection were derived from patients, characteristics of the job and the team and people that they work with. Coworker support and the people that an individual works with play an important role in a person's overall job satisfaction. Purani and Sahadev (2007 cited in Alam & Mohammad, 2010, p. 126) highlight that "satisfaction with co-workers is the dimension of perceived job satisfaction, which determines how an employee perceives his/her job accomplishment by the support or the presence of his/her coworker's attitude and behaviour such as selfishness, friendly or supportive."

Felps, Mitchell, Hekman, Lee, Holtom and Harman (2009) are of the opinion that the influence of an employee's co-workers on turnover decision has been largely ignored. Jones, 1989 and Limbert (2004) both cited in Pienaar, et al. (2007) are of the opinion that social support at work is an important contributor to an individual's experience of job satisfaction. Furnham and Walsh (1991 also cited in Pienaar et al., 2007) postulate that more social support usually translate into higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Pienaar et al.'s (2007) study was conducted to investigate the relationship between an employee's qualitative and quantitative experiences of role overload, job satisfaction, social support and turnover intentions. The study was conducted amongst 206 South African mining company managers. The results revealed that intent to quit increases



when employees' experience low social support conditions especially when qualitative role overload increases. According to Kirmeyer and Dougherty (1988 cited in Pienaar et al., 2007), there exist two explanations for the buffering effect of support namely, (i) feeling supported may aid the individual in displaying problem-focused coping in resolving their experienced stress, and (ii) colleagues may act as an important emotional outlet for experienced frustrations of employees.

The job that people perform is also a very important factor that contributes to a person's job satisfaction. In this regards, Meeusen, Van Dam, Brown-Mahoney, Zundert and Knape (2011 cited in Suhaime et al., 2011) posit that it is important to improve job satisfaction by creating a positive work climate and work context. Shepard (1973) and Stinson and Johnson (1977) both cited in Roos and Van Eeden (2008, p. 56) allude that the literature show that "repetitive jobs lead to lower levels of job satisfaction." Alam and Mohammad (2010, p. 126) postulate that "satisfaction with variety is another dimension of job satisfaction, whereby employees perceive the level of satisfaction by having variety of tasks such as challenging but not routine." This is also true for private security officers whose jobs are very repetitive in nature. Similarly, Bajpai and Srivastava (2004, p. 90) put forth that "jobs that have too little challenge create boredom, but too much challenge creates frustration and a feeling of failure." However, Katzell, Thompson and Guzzo (1992 cited in Bajpai & Srivastava, 2004) allude that most employees will experience pleasure and satisfaction under conditions of moderate challenge. It is further posited (Suhaime et al., 2011) that an increase in organizational support will improve job satisfaction and will result in employees carrying out the work more effectively thus increasing employee retention. Acker, 1999 and Oberlander (1990) both cited in Acker (2004, p. 65) are of the opinion that "...workers who

derive satisfaction from their occupation are more likely to continue staying on their job, and provide high quality services to clients.”

Jones, Chonko, Rangarajan and Roberts (2007) investigated the role of overload on job attitudes, intent to quit and salesperson performance. The sample consisted of 343 sales and marketing executives who participated in the study. The findings indicated that role overload affected job satisfaction negatively and that the higher the level of job satisfaction the lower the level of turnover intent.

The results of the current study indicate that respondents are the least satisfied with their pay. According to Miceli and Lane (1991 cited in Williams et al., 2006, p. 392), “pay satisfaction can be defined as the amount of overall positive or negative effect (or feelings) that individuals have towards their pay.” Currall et al. (2005) delineate that pay dissatisfaction has led to a number of employee outcomes namely, reduced levels of performance, lateness, theft, absence, turnover intentions and turnover. Hom and Griffeth (1995 cited in Bhal & Gulati, 2007) posit that pay satisfaction is an important predictor of turnover and the intent to leave. Similarly, Alam and Mohammad (2010) are of the opinion that compensation is one of the most extrinsic indicators of job satisfaction and that this dimension determines the level of job satisfaction of an employee by indicating how much they are satisfied with their pay, compensation or any other security their jobs provide to them.

In a study conducted by Lee and Whitford (2007) amongst 106 742 public employees who are employed by 24 major agencies on the President’s Management Council, the researchers hypothesized that an employee is less likely to state his/her intention to leave an organization when his/her pay is satisfactory. The researchers used data obtained from the 2002 Federal

Human Capital Survey conducted by the United States office of Personnel Management and draws the conclusion that dissatisfaction with pay is a substantial cause of intention to leave and that the effect of pay satisfaction on the intent to exit the organization varies across hierarchical levels. “Overall, executives are less likely to leave the organization than are respondents in the other two levels as their pay satisfaction increases” (Lee & Whitford, 2007, p. 661).

Coomber and Barribal (2007) cites a study that was conducted by Cowin (2002) whereby satisfaction with pay was measured over an eight month period at two points in time (T1= 0 months and T2= 8 months). The sample consisted of Australian graduate nurses ((n= 506 at T1 and n= 110 at T2) and experienced nurses (n= 528 at T1 and n= 332 at T2). “The findings indicated that although the issue of pay was not ranked as the most important, it rated as the least satisfying for graduates (T1 and T2) and second least satisfying for experienced nurses (T2)” Coomber & Barribal, 2007, p. 307). Coomber and Barribal (2007) allude that the importance of pay increased over time for both groups and that this occurrence can be attributed to other confounding factors that occurred over the eight month period of the study. Cowin (2002 cited in Coomber & Barribal, 2007, p. 307) posit that although “...the results of the multiple regression analysis suggest that pay was not a statistical significant indicator of intent to leave for either groups” the qualitative component of the study “... which consisted of written comments, indicated that dissonance between pay and level of responsibility may lead to retention issues.”

The results of the current study indicate that the job satisfaction facet that respondents are the second least satisfied with are promotional opportunities. Roos and Van Eeden (2008)

are of the opinion that many employees are strongly motivated by opportunities for promotion, especially highly achievement-orientated people. Coster (1992); Hoole and Vermeulen (2003); Moynihan and Pandey (2007) and Visser, Breed and Van Breda (1997) all cited in Roos and Eeden (2008) posit that the opportunity for promotion has shown to improve job satisfaction amongst employees tremendously. Similarly, Witt and Nye (1992 cited in Bajpai & Srivastava, 2004, p. 90) allude that “individuals who perceive that promotion decisions are made in a fair and just manner are likely to experience satisfaction from their jobs.”

According to Bagdadli, Roberson and Paoletti (2006) a number of studies (Carson, Carson, Griffeth, & Steel, 1994; Porter & Steers, 1973; Price, 1977; Stroh, Brett, & Really, 1996) on promotion or advancement proxies have suggested negative relationships with turnover intentions and voluntary turnover. In a study conducted by Shields and Ward (2001 cited in Beecroft, Dorey & Wenten, 2008) the researchers posit that they have found that dissatisfaction with promotion had more impact on intent to leave than dissatisfaction with pay amongst nurses.

Purani and Sahadev (2007 cited in Alam & Mohammad, 2010) allude that the overall policies and strategies of the organization is associated with a macro perspective with regard to the employee’s evaluation of the organization, whilst issues like supervisory behaviour and compensation form part of the micro issues regarding an employee’s engagement with the organization. It is highlighted that although an employee may be satisfied with his or her supervisor (he/she is sympathetic and fair), the employee might be inclined to leave the

organization if he or she deem that the overall policies of the organization with regard to personnel are not up to the satisfaction level of the employee.

According to Rahman, Naqvi and Ramay (2008), a number of researchers have found a significant negative correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intention (Brough & Frame, 2004; Chen, Chang & Yeh, 2004; Harrell, Chewning & Taylor, 1986; Korunka, Hoonakker & Carayon, 2005). Howard and Homma (2001 cited in Rahman et al. (2008) argue that job satisfaction alone is not a sufficient predictor of turnover intentions and suggested that organizational commitment should be included as another independent variable in turnover models.

#### **5.4 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND INTENT TO QUIT**



**Hypothesis 2: Private security officers who experience low levels of organizational commitment will show an intention to quit their employing organization in the near future.**

The results indicate that there is a significant inverse relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention ( $r=-0.642$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). This indicates that low organisational commitment is likely to translate into higher turnover intentions amongst security officers. **Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.**

According to Meyer et al. (2002), organizational commitment continued to be a major focus of research during the 1990's and considerable attention was given to theory development. However, the researchers posit that "it is now well recognized...that commitment is a multi-dimensional construct and that the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of commitment vary across dimensions" (Meyer et al., 2002, p. 21).

Mohamed, Taylor and Hassan (2006) posit that organizational commitment is recognized as a key factor in the employment relationship and that it is widely accepted that one way to reduce voluntary turnover is by strengthening employee commitment to the organization. According to Griffeth and Hom (1995) and Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner (2000) all cited in Loi, Hang-yue and Foley (2006, p. 101), "existing literature suggests that employees' organizational commitment and intention to leave are two important predictors of employee turnover." Lum et al. (1998) and Wong, Hui and Law (1995) report that significant negative relationships have been found between organizational commitment and intention to leave. Similarly, Meyer and Allen (1997 cited in DeConinck & Stilwell, 2004, p. 227) delineate that previous literature indicate that "a consistent, negative correlation has been reported between organizational commitment and both turnover intentions and actual turnover."

In a study conducted by Bagdadli et al. (2006) to examine the mediating role of procedural justice in the relationships between promotion decisions and organizational commitment and between promotion decisions and intent to leave the organization, the researchers hypothesized that organizational commitment will be negatively related to intent to quit. The sample for this study consisted of 156 managers and executives in Italian subsidiaries of two large multinational organizations in the chemical industry. Although the researchers posit

that the direct path from promotion to commitment and the path from promotion to intent to leave were not significant due to their hypothesized model being nested within an alternative model, the researchers reported that their findings were nonetheless consistent with results from previous research and that the path from organizational commitment to intent to quit was significant and thus supporting their hypothesis.

Cole and Bruch (2006) posit that the relationship between an employee and the employing organization has long been known to have an impact on the attitudes, behaviour and well-being of employees. The researchers investigated the relationship between organizational identity strength, identification, commitment and intent to quit. Their sample consisted of 10 948 employees employed at a large steel manufacturer in India and comprised of three hierarchical levels namely, (i) officers, (ii) middle-management and (iii) workers. The researchers conclude that “in general, our results demonstrated that OI strength, identification, and commitment differentially relate to turnover intention when considering employees’ hierarchical level” (Cole & Bruch, 2006, p. 598).

The results furthermore indicate that commitment to the organization was negatively correlated to turnover intentions but only for two groups namely officers and middle management. The researchers cite a possible reason for their findings (and indicate that their findings are consistent with the social exchange theory) is that an employee (officer and middle management) will make considerable sacrifices for their exchange partner’s (employer’s) benefit. Cole and Bruch (2006) further posit that employees in a social exchange relationship want to give back to the organization and become increasingly committed to the organization which results in their intent to quit being lessened. Non-

management workers, on the other hand, are in more economic based relationships with their employer and Cole and Bruch (2006) are of the opinion that these workers enjoy very little status in and outside of the organization, thus the reason for them not to give an indication of their desire to remain or leave the organization.

In a study conducted by Cho, Johanson and Guchait (2009), the researchers hypothesized that organizational commitment will have a negative relationship with intention to leave. The sample consisted of 416 non-managerial employees employed at 13 mid- to upscale restaurants. “Although the relationship between OC and intention to leave has been studied on a large scale, this relationship is investigated in this study to compare the relationship with the intention to stay” (Cho et al., 2009, p. 376). The researchers report that the finding of their study revealed that commitment decreases intent to leave and that the finding is consistent with that of previous studies that “also found a significant negative relationship between organizational commitment and intention to leave” (Cho et al., 2009, p. 376).

Tumwesigye (2010) conducted a study amongst 297 postgraduate students employed in the private, public and NGO sectors in Uganda and attempted to investigate the relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intentions in a developing country and the mediating role that organizational commitment played in this relationship. Findings were reported that a strong negative relationship exists between all three dimensions of organizational commitment (namely, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment) and turnover intention. It also revealed that the beta coefficients for all three equations were significant and negative (that is, affective commitment (-0.660), normative commitment (-0.598) and continuance commitment (-0.539) respectively



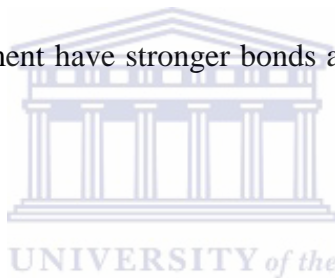
(Tumwesigye, 2010). The researchers further posit that the findings of the study suggest that employees who perceive lack of support from their employing organization will feel less committed to the organization and that the lack of commitment to the organization will induce stronger turnover intentions.

In a study conducted by Mohamed et al. (2006) amongst 1149 correctional officers, they hypothesized that those employees who report greater levels of affective commitment will experience weaker desires to leave the organization. In STEP 1 of their analysis, the researchers included variables such as tenure and gender as control variables and posit that these variables have been identified in past research as variables that influence intent to quit. The researchers found this model to be statistically significant and reported the following results:  $F = 3.520$ ,  $p = .03$  and  $R^2 = .012$ . In STEP 2 of their analysis, the researchers included the affective commitment variable with control variables and reported a very large increase in variance (namely,  $F = 230.057$ ,  $p = .0001$  and  $R^2 = .547$ ). Mohamed et al. (2006) posit that their findings are consistent with previous research findings and support the existence of a negative relationship between affective commitment and intent to quit.

Similarly, Meyer et al. (2002) conducted a meta-analysis to determine the relationship between the three forms of organizational commitment (namely, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment) as identified in Meyer and Allen's (1991) three component model. Meyer et al. (2002) furthermore was interested in establishing the relationship between the three forms of organizational commitment and the variables that are identified as their antecedents, their correlates and their consequences. The researchers report that "as expected, the correlations between the three commitment scales

and turnover were all negative. Affective commitment correlated most strongly ( $p = -.17$ ), followed by normative ( $p = -.16$ ) and continuance ( $p = -.10$ ) commitment” (Meyer et al., 2002, p. 36). It was further reported that correlations with turnover cognitions were stronger than those of actual turnover indicating the following correlations: (i) affective commitment ( $p = -.56$ ), (ii) normative commitment ( $p = -.33$ ) and (iii) continuance commitment ( $p = -.18$ ) (Meyer et al., 2002).

In a review of the literature on correctional staff turnover conducted by Lambert (2001) it was found that organizational commitment impacts the intent to quit negatively and that those employees with low commitment are less inclined to remain on the job whilst employees with higher commitment have stronger bonds and will want to remain with their employing organization.



## **5.5 STRENGTH OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**

**Hypothesis 3: Organizational commitment will show a stronger relationship with intent to quit than job satisfaction will.**

The results of the current study indicate that the correlation of the three variables is 0.614235, as represented by Multiple R. Furthermore, the R Square value of 0.377284 suggests that only 37.7% of the variance in turnover intention can be attributed to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The results of the current study furthermore suggest that organizational commitment appears to be a better predictor of turnover

intentions amongst security officers than is job satisfaction. **Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.**

In support of the findings of the current study, Slattery and Selvarajan (2005) posit that the predominant view in the literature indicates that job satisfaction is an antecedent to organizational commitment and that organizational commitment predicts turnover better than job satisfaction. Similarly, Sager and Johnston (1989 cited in Boles, Madupalli, Rutherford & Wood, 2007) allude that most research (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Curry, Wakefield, Price and Mueller, 1986; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992) support the aforementioned direction of the relationship that job satisfaction is an antecedent to organizational commitment.

Martin and Roodt (2008) delineate that a number of studies have continually shown the effect of both job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment on intent to quit. The researchers posit that “the greater the job satisfaction, the less the likelihood that the individual will leave the organization, and, the higher the commitment levels of the employee, the lower the predicted turnover intentions” (Martin & Roodt, 2008, p. 25). Similarly, Suhaime et al. (2011) agree that low job satisfaction and low organizational commitment increases an employee’s propensity to leave his or her employing organization.

Rahman et al. (2008) conducted a study amongst 74 IT professionals in Pakistan. “The objective of the research was to find out the effect of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and perceived alternative job opportunities on turnover intentions so that an insight to high turnover among IT professionals may be acquired” (Rahman et al., 2008, p. 47). The results of their study indicate that job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment to be negatively related to intent to quit. The researchers allude that a possible

factor that might have played a role amongst the participants in their study might have been the availability of alternative job opportunities as IT professionals are high in demand and IT companies are competing for the best talent and offer better working conditions, salaries and other incentives.

Mosadeghrad, Ferlie and Rosenberg (2008) studied the relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intent to turnover amongst 629 hospital employees at Isfahan hospital in Iran and reported that their results indicated that the hospital employees were moderately satisfied with their jobs and committed to their employing organization. It was further reported that "... job satisfaction and organizational commitment were inter-related with turnover intention ( $P < 0.001$ )" (Mosadeghrad et al., 2008, p. 211). The researchers posit that the correlation between the two variables was expected however, the results further indicated that there were also unexpected correlations with turnover intentions but that those unexpected correlations might have been due to external factors such as job market conditions.

Slattery and Selvarajan (2005) conducted a study to determine the association between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions amongst temporary employees. The participants were temporary associates that were employed at a franchised temporary service organization who employed workers in several industries. The sample consisted of 472 males, 769 females and 16 people who did not indicate their gender ( $n=1257$ ). The researchers hypothesized that job satisfaction with the temporary agency will be negatively related to turnover intention and that there will be a negative relationship between client organization, job satisfaction and intention to the client organization. The

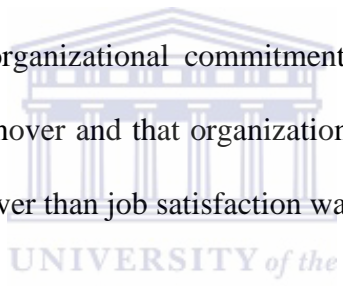
researchers furthermore hypothesized the same for organizational commitment to the temporary agency (that is that organizational commitment will be negatively related to turnover intention toward the temporary agency) and that there will be a negative relationship between organizational commitment with the client organization and turnover intention towards the client organization. They report that all of the above hypotheses were supported and furthermore, reported that “the relationship between commitment and turnover intention is stronger than the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention” (Slattery & Selvarajan, 2005, p. 8). They posit that their results are consistent with a major body of research in the turnover literature which indicates that organizational commitment has a stronger relationship with turnover than job satisfaction.

In a study conducted by Chen (2006) examining job satisfaction, organizational commitment and the impact of those variables on the intent to quit amongst flight attendants, it was found that job satisfaction and organizational commitment have a negative impact on turnover intentions. The researcher posit that flight attendants who are single and who receive a lower salary than their counterparts will be more likely to leave their employing organization.

Wagner (2007) conducted a literature review to examine the role that organizational commitment plays as a predictor variable in nursing turnover research and postulated that the question remains as to whether organizational commitment is more predictive of turnover behaviour than job satisfaction, remains puzzling. The researcher further posited that even studies amongst the same researchers vary in the placement of these two concepts (namely, job satisfaction and organizational commitment). However, “in studies that examine the relationships with all three concepts, the majority place organizational commitment as more

strongly predictive of turnover behaviour and or turnover antecedents than job satisfaction” (Wagner, 2007, p. 245). Balaji (1988) posit that a number of attempts have been made to compare the relative powers of job satisfaction and organizational commitment to cause turnover. Findings revealed that a number of researchers have found organizational commitment to be a stronger predictor of turnover than job satisfaction.

Similarly, Mowday et al. (1979 cited in Wagner, 2007) found that organizational commitment was a better predictor of turnover than any of the facets of job satisfaction. However, the researchers posit that this is only the case as long as the intention to remain component of the commitment questionnaire was left in place. Similarly, Jamal (1981 cited in Wagner, 2007) found that organizational commitment had a significant and negative relationship with anticipated turnover and that organizational commitment was more highly correlated with anticipated turnover than job satisfaction was.



In other studies conducted amongst organizational commitment and job satisfaction and their impact on the intent to quit, various researchers (Lum et al., 1998; Taunton, Boyle, Woods, Hansen & Bott, 1997) found that organizational commitment showed a stronger relationship with intent to quit than job satisfaction did.

McFarlane Shore and Martin (1989) conducted a study to determine the relation between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work performance and turnover intentions amongst bank tellers (n=71) and professional nurses (n=72). The researchers concluded that the findings of their research indicated that organizational commitment was more strongly related to the intent to turnover than job satisfaction amongst the bank tellers but not for the professional nurses. However, the researchers further postulated that job satisfaction was

more strongly related to supervisory ratings of performance than organizational commitment for both the samples. McFarlane Shore and Martin (1989, p. 621) conclude by stating that their "...findings suggest that specific job attitudes are more closely associated with task-related out-comes such as performance ratings, whereas global organizational attitudes are more closely associated with organization-related outcomes like turnover intentions."

In a study conducted by Lambert (2006) amongst 400 correctional services staff, the findings revealed that both job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment had significant effects on turnover intent. "As job satisfaction increased, turnover intent dropped" (Lambert, 2006, p. 75). "Similarly, as organizational commitment increased, the desire to leave decreased" (Lambert, 2006, p. 75). Although the above mentioned study indicated that both job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment had highly significant negative impacts on turnover intent, it is reported that job satisfaction had the largest impact on intent to turnover followed by organizational commitment. Lambert, Hogan and Barton (1999 cited in Lambert, 2001) are of the view that job satisfaction is an antecedent to organizational commitment and that job satisfaction occurs relatively quickly whilst organizational commitment takes time to develop.

However, Mowday et al. (1982 cited in Daly & Dee, 2006, p. 786) postulate that "organizational commitment is a stronger variable than job satisfaction because it is more stable over time." It is argued that it will take an employee a greater amount of time to determine his or her level of commitment to the organization than it will take him or her to determine his or her level of job satisfaction.

Currivan (1999) examined four possible models of the causal relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment in turnover models, namely: (i) satisfaction precedes commitment, (ii) commitment precedes satisfaction, (iii) satisfaction and commitment have a reciprocal relationship, and (iv) satisfaction and commitment have no significant relationship. The researcher highlights that the predominant view in the literature indicates that satisfaction causes commitment and that researchers that take "...this position implicitly assume employee orientations towards a specific job necessarily precedes orientations towards the entire organization" (Currivan, 1999, p. 498). The researcher reported that at least two studies (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992) have found commitment to be causally prior to satisfaction and the aforementioned researchers have argued that "employees adjust their satisfaction levels to be consistent with their current commitment levels" (Currivan, 1999, p. 498).

Clugston (2000) posit that prior research has found that affective commitment mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and the intent to quit and although considerable work has been done to establish the relationship between multidimensional commitment on job satisfaction and intent to quit, there still remain small gaps in the research. The researcher used structural equation modeling to estimate the mediating effects of affective, continuance and normative commitment on the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to quit. The aim of the study was to test several competing configurational models "to test whether the best fitting model is one whereby multidimensional commitment fully mediates, partially mediates, or does not mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave" (Clugston, 2000, p. 477). The sample consisted of 156 employees (mostly, accountants, auditors, assessors, etcetera) who were employed in a government agency who were



responsible for the administration of the state's tax revenue. The researcher posits that the findings of the study indicated that a partially mediated model of multidimensional commitment fits their data better than a fully mediated or non-mediated model and that this result indicated that satisfaction at work may simultaneously heighten all three dimensions of commitment in employees.

## **5.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

The limitations of the study are highlighted and where possible recommendations are put forth.

- Due to the nature of the private security industry and for security reasons, the researcher did not have direct access to the participants. Having no access resulted in the researcher depending on the Operational Manager and Site Inspectors for the administering, distribution and collection of questionnaires.
- As a result of the sampling technique that was adopted (that is, the purposeful sampling technique) the findings of the current study is not generalizable as it is not representative of the entire population under study. It is recommended that a representable sampling technique (such as stratified random sampling which allows for a more representable sample) be utilized.

- The private security industry is dominated by males and the findings are thus not representative and lend itself to gender bias.
- Furthermore, the study was conducted within one organization and within one geographical area and can thus not be deemed to be generalizable across the entire private security industry. Future researchers could consider a bigger population and sample. A national sample representing the entire private security industry is recommended.
- A paucity of literature existed addressing the variables under investigation hence, reference was made to other industries.
- The self-report questionnaire is subjected to bias and the researcher did not have direct access or control over the respondents when it was administered. It is recommended that future researcher be directly involved in the administering of the questionnaires.
- The current study viewed job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment as single dimensions. It is suggested that future research relating to organizational commitment include the various facets of commitment, namely affective, normative and continuance commitment and multi-dimension rather than to investigate only the global measure (uni-dimension) of job satisfaction. Boles et al. (2007, p. 313) are of the opinion that researchers “need to look at the job satisfaction-organizational commitment relationship from a more detailed perspective of job satisfaction facets rather than global or overall job satisfaction.” Bagraim and Hayes (1999 cited in Boshoff, van Wyk, Hoole & Owen, 2002, p. 16) highlight that “the measurement of organizational commitment by means of a multidimensional rather

than a uni-dimensional model is more comprehensive of the psychological bond between employees and the organizations to which they are attached.”

- The commitment of private security officers to their organization and their commitment to the client organization also needs to be investigated. Slattery and Selvarajan (2005) investigated temporary employees’ commitment to their employing organization as well as to their contracting organization. The results of their study indicates that employees with more positive attitudes towards their temporary agency had less intention to quit due to variables such as pay, benefits, agency support and agency supervision. Likewise, the results indicate that employees with more positive attitudes towards the client organization are more committed to the client organization and had less intention to quit the client organization due to aspects such as independence, challenging work, amount of work, learning and growth on the job and help from supervisors and coworkers. Private security officers (contract security officers) are also working for a company (their organization) but are deployed on the premises of a client company. When a contract ends with the client company, the private security officer many a times have the choice of either remaining with their organization and be deployed at a new client’s premises or they leave their employing company and join the new organization at the existing client’s premises. It can thus be hypothesized that if a private security officer is committed to his employing organization, he or she will remain with the organization and leave his or her assignment at the client organization. The opposite view can also be purported, in other words, should a private security officer not feel committed to his or her employing organization, he or she will leave the employ of that organization and remain with the client organization by joining the new employer.

- Lastly, it is recommended that other push factors such as stress, burnout, job involvement and organizational citizenship behaviour be included in future research as these are also variables which could impact on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intent to quit.

## **5.7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE ORGANIZATION**

According to Snyder and Lopez (2002 cited in Mendes & Stander, 2011, p. 2), the “leaders within an organization play a vital role in designing a healthy work environment that encourages the talent of the organization to stay.” The role that supervisors play is of significant importance. The security officers are in more contact with their supervisors and the supervisor forms the link between management and the employee. Cheng et al. (2003, p. 329) highlight that for an organization to increase an employee’s job performance, “improving the relationship between supervisors and employees is the key” and by promoting attachment to the supervisor an employee’s job satisfaction will improve, turnover intention will decrease and job performance and extra efforts will be enhanced. It is recommended that the company’s management encourage security officer and supervisor/inspector relationships by means of providing training on team work effectiveness thus enhancing supervisor job satisfaction amongst officers and ultimately decreasing the intent to quit.

It is suggested that the organization plays a more supporting role to enhance employee satisfaction and commitment. It is suggested that the organization’s management heed and

pay attention to those job satisfaction facets which employees are not satisfied with and develop strategies to address those issues. Tumwesigye (2010, p. 950) point out that “...managers who want to reduce turnover intentions and related withdrawal behaviours, need to take steps to understand factors influencing organizational commitment.”

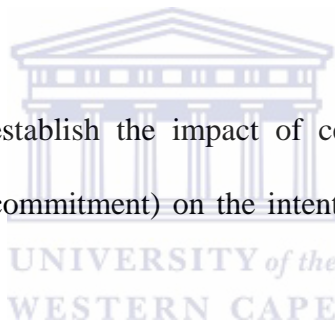
The current study indicates that private security officers are the least satisfied with their pay. Although the minimum wage of private security officers are not dictated by legislation or by the company management (see page 22, chapter 2) but by a sectoral determination by the minister of labour, it is recommended that the company’s management implement a reward system for employees who demonstrate commitment to the organization (arriving on time for work, not staying absent from work, etcetera). Incentives could be in the form of an extra bonus, gift voucher or paid time off at the end of the month.

In the current study, satisfaction with promotion was the second least facet of job satisfaction that private security officers were not satisfied with. According to Bajpai and Srivastava (2004, p. 90), “employees seek fair promotion policies and practices.” According to Witt and Nye (1992 cited in Bajpai & Srivastava, 2004, p. 90), employees “...who perceive that promotion decisions within the organization are made in a fair and just manner are more likely to experience job satisfaction from their jobs.” It is suggested that the organization seek out highly committed and satisfied employees and establish internal training programs which will allow for promotion from inside the organization. According to Bagdadli et al. (2006), the promotion decisions that organizations make are of the utmost importance to both organizations as well as the employees and by promoting the best employees will allow the organization to preserve its competitive advantage.

It is recommended that the organization's management conduct regular surveys and liaise regularly with their security officers to get a sense of their employees' intentions to quit. Saungweme & Gwandure (2011) posit that managers must conduct regular intention to leave surveys amongst their employees. By doing so, the manager will have a sense of which employees wishes to leave and why they intent leaving. The manager can thus discuss the factors that the employee is not satisfied with and by so doing decrease the employee's intention to leave.

## **5.8 CONCLUSION**

The current study set out to establish the impact of certain push factors (such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment) on the intent to quit amongst private security officers.

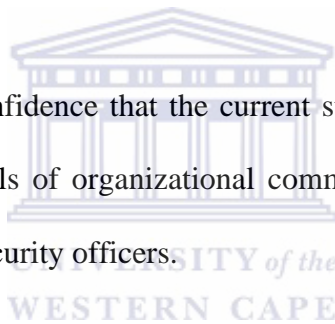


The findings of the current study indicate that private security officers report very low levels of job satisfaction and that they derive their job satisfaction mostly from co-workers followed by communication. The findings of the study furthermore indicate that private security officers are the least satisfied with their remuneration (pay) followed by promotional opportunities. The results of the study also indicate that private security officers demonstrate below average levels of organizational commitment and that organizational commitment is a better predictor of intent to quit than job satisfaction.

The findings of the study thus support the hypotheses, namely:

- Private security officers who experience low levels of job satisfaction will show an intention to quit their employing organization in the near future.
- Private security officers who experience low levels of organizational commitment will show an intention to quit their employing organization in the near future.
- Organizational commitment will show a stronger relationship with intent to quit than job satisfaction will.

It can thus be reported with confidence that the current study found that low levels of job satisfaction as well as low levels of organizational commitment impact negatively on the intent to quit amongst private security officers.



The researcher must stress that the results of the current study must be interpreted with caution due to a number of limitations which were highlighted. However, the results of the study are in line with findings of previous studies conducted in other industries investigating the same variables.

## REFERENCE LIST

Abrahamsen, R., & Williams, M.C. (2009). Security beyond the state: Global security assemblages in international politics. International Political Sociology, 3, 1-17.

Acker, G.M. (2004). The effect of organizational conditions (role conflict, role ambiguity, opportunities for professional development, and social support) on job satisfaction and intention to leave among social workers in mental health care. Community Mental Health Journal, 40(1), 65-73.

Alam, M.M., & Mohammad, J.F. (2010). Level of job satisfaction and intent to leave among Malaysian nurses. Business Intelligence Journal, 3(1), 123-137.

Ali Shah, I., Fakhr, Z., Ahmad, M.S., & Zaman, K. (2010). Measuring push, pull and personal factors affecting turnover intention: A case of university teachers in Pakistan. Review of Economic and Business Studies, 3(1), 167-192.

Allen, N.J., & Meyer, J.P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63, 1-18.

Allen, R.I., Lambert, E.G., Pasupuleti, S., Cluse-Tolar, T., & Ventura, L.A. (2004). The impact of job characteristics on social and human service workers. Social Work and Society, 2(2), 173-188.



Arnolds, C.A., & Boshoff, C. (2002). Compensation, esteem valence and job performance: An empirical assessment of Alderfer's ERG theory. International Journal of Human Resource Management, 13(4), 697-719.

Baard, P.P., Deci, E.L., & Ryan, R.M. (2004). Intrinsic need satisfaction: A motivational basis of performance and well-being in two work settings. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 34(10), 2045-2068.

Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2007). The practice of social research. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Bagdadli, S., Roberson, Q., & Paoletti, F. (2006). The mediating role of procedural justice in responses to promotion decisions. Journal of Business and Psychology, 21(1), 83-102.

Bajpai, N., & Srivastava, D. (2004). Sectoral comparison of factors influencing job satisfaction in Indian banking sector. Singapore Management Review, 26(2), 89-99.

Balaji, C. (1988). Organizational commitment of job satisfaction: Which explains intent to quit better? Indian Journal of Industrial Relations, 23(3), 313-328.

Barling, J., Kelloway, E.K., & Iverson, R.D. (2003). High-quality work, job satisfaction, and occupational injuries. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88(2), 276-283.

Barrett, L., & Yates, P. (2002). Oncology/haematology nurses: A study of job satisfaction, burnout, and intention to leave the specialty. Australian Health Review, 25(3), 109-121.

Bashir, S., & Ramay, M.I. (2008). Determinants of organizational commitment: A study of information technology professionals in Pakistan. Institute of Behavioral and Applied Management, 9, 226-238.

Bassett-Jones, N., & Lloyd, G.C. (2005). Does Herzberg's motivation theory have staying power? Journal of Management Development, 24(10), 929-943.

Bateman, T.S., & Strasser, S. (1984). A longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of organizational commitment. Academy of Management Journal, 27(1), 95-112.

Beecroft, P.C., Dorey, F., & Wenten, M. (2008). Turnover intention in new graduate nurses: A multivariate analysis. Journal of Advanced Nursing, 62(1), 41-52.

Ben-Bakr, K.A., Al-Shammari, I.S., Jefri, O.A., & Prasad, J.N. (1994). Organizational commitment, satisfaction, and turnover in Saudi organizations: A predictive study. Journal of Socio-Economics, 23(4), 449-456.

Benson, S.G., & Dundis, S.P. (2003). Understanding and motivating health care employees: Integrating Maslow's hierarchy of needs, training and technology. Journal of Nursing Management, 11, 315-320.

Berg, J. (2003). The private security industry in South Africa: A review of applicable legislation. South African Criminal Justice Journal, 16(2), 178-196.

Berg, J. (2004). Challenges to a formal private security industry-SAPS partnership: Lessons from the Western Cape. Society in Transition, 35(1), 105-124.

Berg, J. (2007). The accountability of South Africa's private security industry. Criminal Justice Initiative Occasional Paper, 2, 1-35.

Bergman, M.E. (2006). The relationship between affective and normative commitment: Review and research agenda. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27, 645-663.

Bhal, K.T., & Gulati, N. (2007). Pay satisfaction of software professionals in India. Vikalpa, 32(3), 9-21.

Boles, J., Madupalli, R., Rutherford, B., & Wood, J.A. (2007). The relationship of facets of salesperson job satisfaction with affective organizational commitment. Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, 22(5), 311-321.

Bolino, M.C., & Feldman, D.C. (2000). Increasing the skills utilization of expatriates. Human Resource Management, 39(4), 367-379.

Bonache, J. (2005). Job satisfaction among expatriates, repatriates and domestic employees. Personnel Review, 34(1), 110-124.

Boshoff, A.B., van Wyk, R., Hoole, C., & Owen, J.H. (2002). The prediction of intention to quit by means of biographical variables, work commitment, role strain and psychological climate. Management Dynamics, 11(4), 14-28.

Brough, P., & Frame, R. (2004). The role of social support and police organizational variables. New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 33(1), 8–16.

Buitendach, J.H., & Rothmann, S. (2006). Job insecurity, job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees in selected organisations in South Africa. European Journal of Scientific Research, 13(4), 444–461.

Buller, B.F., & Bell, C.H. (1986). Effects of team building and goal setting on productivity: A field experiment. Academy of Management Journal, 29(2), 305-328.

Carmeli, A., & Weisberg, J. (2006). Exploring turnover intentions among three professional groups of employees. Human Resource Development International, 9(2), 191-206.

Carless, S.S. (2005). Person-job fit versus person-organization fit as predictors of organizational attraction and job acceptance intentions: A longitudinal study. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 78, 411-429.

Casper, W.J., Martin, J.A., Buffardi, L.C., & Erdwins, C.J. (2002). Work--family conflict, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment among employed mothers. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 7(2), 99-108.

Chan, M.F., Luk, A.L., Leong, S.M., Yeung, S.M., & Van, L.K. (2008). Factors influencing Macao nurses' intention to leave current employment. Journal of Clinical Nursing, 18, 893-901.

Chang, R.T., Wunn, K.T., & Tseng, Y.C. (2003). A study of the relationship between career orientation, achievement motivation, job satisfaction, and intention to stay for auditors: Using big CPA firms as an example. Journal of Business and Economic Research, 1(4), 117-128.

Chang, W.L., & Yuan, S.T. (2008). A synthesized model of markov chain and ERG theory for behaviour forecast in collaborative prototyping. Journal of Information Technology Theory and Application, 9(2), 45-63.

Chaudhury, S., & Banerjee, A. (2004). Correlates of job satisfaction in medical officers. Medical Journal Armed Forces India, 60(4), 329-332.

Chen, C. (2006). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and flight attendants' turnover intentions: A note. Journal of Air Transport Management, 12(5), 274-276.

Chen, L.H. (2008). Job satisfaction among information system (IS) personnel. Computers in Human Behavior, 24, 105-118.

Chen, Y., Gupta, A., & Hoshower, L. (2006). Factors that motivate business faculty to conduct research: An expectancy theory analysis. Journal of Education for Business, 81(4), 179-189.

Cheng, B.S., Jiang, D.Y., & Riley, J.H. (2003). Organizational commitment, supervisory commitment, and employee outcomes in the Chinese context: Proximal hypothesis or global hypothesis? Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24(3), 313-334.

Chiang, C.F., & Jang, S. (2008). An expectancy theory model for hotel employee motivation. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 27, 313-322.

Chiu, S.F., & Chen, H. (2005). Relationship between job characteristics and organizational citizenship behavior: The mediational role of job satisfaction. Social Behavior and Personality, 33(6), 523-540.

Cho, S., Johanson, M.M., & Guchait, P. (2009). Employees intent to leave: A comparison of determinants of intent to leave versus intent to stay. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 28, 374–381.

Clugston, M. (2000). The mediating effects of multidimensional commitment on job satisfaction and intent to leave. Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 21, 447-486.

Cole, M.S., & Bruch, H. (2006). Organizational identity strength, identification, and commitment and their relationships to turnover intention: Does organizational hierarchy matter? Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 27, 585-605.

Coomber, B., & Barriball, K.L. (2007). Impact of job satisfaction components on intent to leave and turnover for hospital-based nurses: A review of the research literature. International Journal of Nursing Studies, 44, 297–314.

Cooper, D.R., & Schindler, P.S. (2003). Business research methods (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). **Place:** McGraw Hill International Edition.

Currall, S.C., Towler, A.J., Judge, T.A., & Kohn, L. (2005). Pay satisfaction and organizational outcomes. Personnel Psychology, 58, 613-640.

Curry, D.B. (1999). The causal order of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in models of employee turnover. Human Resource Management Review, 9(4), 495-524.

Daly, C.J., & Dee, J.R. (2006). Greener pastures: Faculty turnover intent in urban public universities. The Journal of Higher Education, 77(5), 776-803.

DeConinck, J.B., & Stilwell, C.D. (2004). Incorporating organizational justice, role states, pay satisfaction and supervisor satisfaction in a model of turnover intentions. Journal of Business Research, 57, 225-231.

De Moura, G.R., Abrams, D., Retter, C., Gunnarsdottir, S., & Ando, K. (2009). Identification as an organizational anchor: How identification and job satisfaction combine to predict turnover intention. European Journal of Social Psychology, 39, 540-557.

De Souza, G. (2002). A study of the influence of promotions on promotion satisfaction and expectations of future promotions among managers. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 13(3), 325-340.

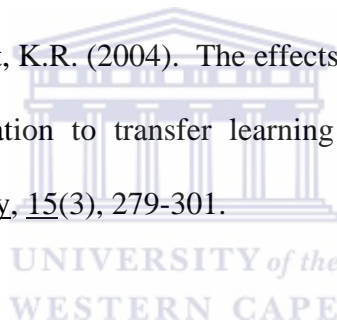
de Waard, J. (1999). Private security industry in international perspective. European Journal of Criminal Policy and Research, 72(2), 143-174.

Diekmann, K.A., Barsness, Z.I., & Sondak, H. (2004). Uncertainty, fairness perceptions, and job satisfaction: A field study. Social Justice Research, 17(3), 237-255.

Eaton, S.C. (2003). If you can use them: Flexibility policies, organizational commitment, and perceived performance. Industrial Relations, 42(2), 145-167.

Edwards, J.R., Cable, D.M., Williamson, I.O., Lambert, L.S., & Shipp, A.J. (2006). The phenomenology of fit: Linking the person and environment to the subjective experience of person-environment fit. Journal of Applied Psychology, 91(4), 802-827.

Egan, T.M., Yang, B., & Bartlett, K.R. (2004). The effects of organizational learning culture and job satisfaction on motivation to transfer learning and turnover intention. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 15(3), 279-301.



Elangovan, A.R. (2001). Causal ordering of stress, satisfaction and commitment, and intention to quit: A structural equations analysis. Leadership and Organizational Development Journal, 22(4), 159-165.

Elizur, D., & Koslowsky, M. (2000). Values and organizational commitment. International Journal of Manpower, 22(7), 593-599.

Evans, L. (2000). The effects of educational change on morale, job satisfaction and motivation. Journal of Educational Change, 1, 173-192.



Faragher, E.B., Cass, M., & Cooper, C.L. (2005). The relationship between job satisfaction and health: A meta-analysis. Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 62(2), 105-112.

Farzad, A., Nahavandi, N., & Caruana, A. (2008). The effect of marketing on organizational commitment in Iranian banks. American Journal of Applied Sciences, 5(11), 1480-1486.

Felps, W., Mitchell, T.R., Hekman, D.R., Lee, T.W., Holtom, B.C., & Harman, W.S. (2009). Turnover contagion: How coworkers' job embeddedness and job search behaviors influence quitting. Academy of Management Journal, 52(3), 545-561.

Ferres, N., Connell, J., & Travaglione, A. (2004). Co-worker trust as a social catalyst for constructive employee attitudes. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 19(6), 608-622.

Firth, L., Mellor, D.J., Moore, K.A., & Loquet, C. (2004). How can managers reduce employee intention to quit? Journal of Management Psychology, 19(2), 170-187.

Friday, S.S., & Friday, E. (2003). Racioethnic perceptions of job characteristics and job satisfaction. Journal of Management Development, 22(5), 426-442.

Gambrel, P.A., & Cianci, R. (2003). Maslow's hierarchy of needs: Does it apply in a collectivist culture? The Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship, 8(2), 143-161.

Gazioglu, S., & Tansel, A. (2006). Job satisfaction in Britain: Individual and job related factors. Applied Economics, 38, 1163-1171.

Gieger, M.A., & Cooper, E.A. (1995). Predicting academic performance: The impact of expectancy and needs theory. Journal of Experimental Education, 63(6), 251-262.

Gilbert, G.N. (2001). Researching social life. London: SAGE Publications.

Goldberg, C.B., & Waldman, D.A. (2000). Modeling employee absenteeism: Testing alternative measures and mediated effects based on job satisfaction. Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 21, 665-676.

Gordon-Rouse, K.A. (2004). Beyond Maslow's hierarchy of needs: What do people strive for? Performance Improvement, 43(10), 27-31.

Grandey, A.A., Cordeiro, B.L., & Crouter, A.C. (2005). A longitudinal and multi-source test of the work-family conflict and job satisfaction relationship. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 78, 305-323.

Griffin, M.L., & Hepburn, J.R. (2005). Side-bets and reciprocity as determinants of organizational commitment among correctional officers. Journal of Criminal Justice, 33, 611-625.

Griffen, M.A., Patterson, M.G., & West, M.A. (2001). Job satisfaction and teamwork: The role of supervisor support. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 22, 537-550.

Groot, W., & van den Brink, M.H. (1999). Job satisfaction of older workers. International Journal of Manpower, 20(6), 343-360.

Hall, T., Baddoo, N., Beecham, S., Robinson, H., & Sharp, H. (2009). A systematic review of theory use in studies investigating the motivations of software engineers. ACM Transaction on Software Engineering and Methodology, 18(3), 1-29.

Hegney, D., Plank, A., & Parker, V. (2006). Extrinsic and intrinsic work values: Their impact on job satisfaction in nursing. Journal of Nursing Management, 14, 271-281.

Hersen, M. (2004). Comprehensive handbook of psychological assessment: Industrial and organizational assessment. New Jersey: John Wiley and Sons.

Howard, W.G., Donofrio, H.H., & Boles, H.H. (2004). Inter-domain work-family, family-work conflict and police work satisfaction. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management, 27(3), 380-395.

Igbaria, M., & Greenhaus, J.H. (1992). Determinants of MIS employees' turnover intentions: A structural equation model. Communications of the ACM, 35(2), 35-49.

Ilies, R., & Judge, T.A. (2003). On the heritability of job satisfaction: The mediating role of personality. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88(4), 750-759.

Irvine, D.M., & Evans, M.G. (1992). Job satisfaction and turnover among nurses. A review and meta-analysis. (Monograph Series no. 1) Toronto: University of Toronto and McMaster University, Quality of Nursing Worklife Research Unit.

Isaac, R.G., Zerbe, W.J., & Pitt, D.C. (2001). Leadership and motivation: The effective application of expectancy theory. Journal of Managerial Issues, 13(2), 212-226.

Jacobs, E., & Roodt, G. (2007). The development of a knowledge sharing construct to predict turnover intentions. Aslib Proceedings: New Information Perspectives, 59(3), 229-248.

Jacobs, E., & Roodt, G. (2008). Organisational culture of hospitals to predict turnover intentions of professional nurses. Health South Africa, 13(1), 63-77.

Jacobs, E., & Roodt, G. (2011). The mediating effect of knowledge sharing between organizational culture and turnover intentions of professional nurses. South African Journal of Information Management, 13(1), 1-6.

Jones, E., Chonko, L., Rangarajan, D., & Roberts, J. (2007). The role of overload on job attitudes, turnover intentions, and salesperson performance. Journal of Business Research, 60, 663-671.

Kalleberg, A.L. (1977). Work values and job satisfaction: A theory of job satisfaction. American Sociological Review, 42, 124-143.

Khan, A.W., & Farman, N. (2011). Motivators of job satisfaction: A study of Pakistan telecommunication and banking sector. 2<sup>nd</sup> International Conference on Business and Economics Research Proceeding. 1194-1203. Langkawi Kedah, Malaysia.

Khan, S.A. (2005). How to motivate good performance among government employees. Pakistan Journal of Social Sciences, 3(9), 1138-1143.

Kim, S. (2002). Participative management and job satisfaction: Lessons for management leadership. Public Administration Review, 62(2), 231-241.

Kinzl, J.F., Knotzer, H., Traweger, C., Lederer, W., Heidegger, T., & Benzer (2005). Influence of working conditions on job satisfaction in anaesthetists. British Journal of Anaesthesia, 94(2), 211-215.

Kleinbaum, D.G., Kupper, L.L., Nizam, A., & Muller, K.E. (2007). Applied aggression analysis and other multivariable methods. Belmont: Thomson.

Knights, J.A., & Kennedy, B.J. (2005). Psychological contract violation: Impacts of job satisfaction and organizational commitment among Australian senior public servants. Applied Human Resource Management Research, 10(2), 57-72.

Koltko-Rivera, M.E. (2006). Rediscovering the later version of Maslow's hierarchy of needs: Self-Transcendence and opportunities for theory, research, and unification. Review of General Psychology, 10(4), 302-317.

Kong, S.X., Wertheimer, J.S., Serradell, J., & McGhan, W.F. (1994). Psychometric evaluation and measurement of organizational commitment and intention to quit among pharmaceutical pharmacists. Pharmaceutical Research, 11(1), 171-180.

Koslowsky, M. (1991). A longitudinal analysis job satisfaction, commitment, and intention to leave. Applied Psychology: An International Review, 40, 405-415.

Kristof-Brown, A.L., Zimmerman, R.D., & Johnson, E.C. (2005). Consequences of individuals' fit at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-group, and person-supervisor fit. Personnel Psychology, 58, 281-342.

Kuvaas, B. (2006). Work performance, affective commitment, and work motivation: The roles of pay administration and pay level. Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 27, 365-385.

Ladebo, O.J., Awotunde, J.M., & AbdulSalaam-Saghir, P. (2008). Coworkers' and supervisor interactional justice: Correlates of extension personnel's job satisfaction, distress, and aggressive behavior. Journal of Behavioural and Applied Management, 9(2), 206-225.

Lam, T., Zhang, H., & Baum, T. (2001). An investigation of employees' job satisfaction: The case of hotels in Hong Kong. Tourism Management, 22, 157-165.

Lambert, E.G. (2001). To stay or quit: A review of the literature on correctional staff turnover. American Journal of Criminal Justice, 26(1), 62-67.

Lambert, E.G. (2006). I want to leave: A test of a model of turnover intent among correctional staff. Applied Psychology in Criminal Justice, 2(1), 58-83.

Lambert, E.G., Hogan, N.L., & Barton, S.M. (2001). The impact of job satisfaction on turnover intent: A test of a structural measurement model using a national sample of workers. The Social Science Journal, 38, 233-250.

Lauver, K.J., & Kristof-Brown, A. (2001). Distinguishing between employees' perceptions of person-job and person-organization fit. Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 59, 454-470.

Lee, S.Y., & Whitford, A.B. (2007). Exit, voice, loyalty, and pay: Evidence from the public workforce. Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory, 18, 647-671.

Leedy, P., & Ormrod, J. (2001). Practical research (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice-Hall.

Locke, E.A. (1969). What is job satisfaction? Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 4, 309-320.

Locke, E.A., & Latham, G.P. (2004). What should we do about motivation theory? Six recommendations for the twenty-first century. The Academy of Management Review, 29(3), 388-403.

Locke, E.A., & Latham, G.P. (2006). New directions in goal-setting theory. Association for Psychology Science, 15(5), 265-268.

Loi, R., Hang-yue, N., & Foley, S. (2006). Linking employees' justice perceptions to organizational commitment and intention to leave: The mediating role of perceived organizational support. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 79, 101-120.

Loke, J.C.F. (2001). Leadership behaviours: effects on job satisfaction, productivity and organizational commitment. Journal of Nursing Management, 9, 191-204.

Lu, H., While, A.E., & Barriball, K.L. (2005). Job satisfaction among nurses: A literature review. International Journal of Nursing Studies, 42, 211-227.

Lum, L., Kervin, J., Clark, K., Reid, F., & Sirola, W. (1998). Explaining nursing turnover intent: Job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, or organizational commitment? Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 19, 305-320.

Luthans, F. (1998). Organizational Behaviour. Singapore: McGraw-Hill.

Maidani, E.A. (1991). Comparative study of Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction among public and private sectors. Public Personnel Management, 20(4), 441-448.

Mak, B.L., & Sockel, H. (2001). A confirmatory factor analysis of IS employee motivation and retention. Information and Management, 38, 265-276.

Manisera, M., Dusseldorp, E.M.L., & Van der Kooij, A.J. (2005). Component structure of job satisfaction based on Herzberg's theory. (Working Paper no. 253). Rapport di Ricerca del Dipartimento di Metodi Quantitativi, Brescia University.



Manojlovich, M. (2005). Linking the practice environment to nurses' job satisfaction through nurse-physician communication. Journal of Nursing Scholarship, 37(4), 367-373.

Marczyk, G.R., DeMatteo, D., & Festinger, D. (2010). Essentials of research design and methodology. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Martin, A., & Roodt, G. (2008). Perceptions of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions in a post-merger South African tertiary institution. South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 34(1), 23-31.

McBey, K., & Karakowsky, L. (2000). Examining sources of influence on employee turnover in the part-time work context. Leadership and Organizational Development Journal, 21(3), 136-144.

McFarlane Shore, L., & Martin, H.J. (1989). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment in relation to work performance and turnover intentions. Human Relations, 42(7), 625-638.

Mendes, F., & Stander, M.W. (2011). Positive organization: The role of leader behaviour in work engagement and retention. South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 37(1), 1-13.

Metcalfe, B., & Dick, G. (2001). Exploring organizational commitment in the police: Implications for human resource strategy. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management, 24(3), 399-419.

Metcalfe, B., & Dick, G. (2002). Is the force still with her? Gender and commitment in the police. Woman in Management Review, 17(8), 392-403.

Meyer, J.P., & Allen, N.J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. Human Resource Management Review, 1(1), 61-98.

Meyer, J.P., Becker, T.E., & Vandenberghe, C. (2004). Employee commitment and motivation: A conceptual analysis and integrative model. Journal of Applied Psychology, 89(6), 991-1007.

Meyer, J.P., & Herscovitch, L. (2001). Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. Human Resource Management Review, 11, 299-326.

Meyer, J.P., Stanley, D.J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnysky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis antecedents, correlates, and consequences. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 61, 20-52.

Minnaar, A. (2005). Private-public partnerships: Private security, crime prevention and policing in South Africa. Acta Criminologica, 18(1), 85-114.

Mobley, W., Griffeth, R., Hand, H., & Meglino, B. (1979). Review and conceptual analysis of the employee turnover process. Psychological Bulletin, 86, 493-522.

Mobley, W.H., Horner, S.O., & Hollingsworth, A.T. (1978). An evaluation of the precursors of hospital employee turnover. Journal of Applied Psychology, 63(4), 408-414.

Mohamed, F., Taylor, G.S., & Hassan, A. (2006). Affective commitment and intent to quit: The impact of work and non-work related issues. Journal of Managerial Issues, 18(4), 512-529.

Morrison, R. (2004). Informal relationships in the workplace: Associations with job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions. New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 33(3), 114-128.

Mosadeghrad, A.M., Ferlie, E., & Rosenberg, D. (2008). A study of the relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention among hospital employees. Health Management Services Research, 21(4), 211-227.

Mowday, R.T., Steers, R.M., & Porter, L.W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 14, 224-247.

Moyle, W., Skinner, J., Rowe, G., & Gork, C. (2003). Views of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in Australian long-term care. Journal of Clinical Nursing, 12, 168-176.

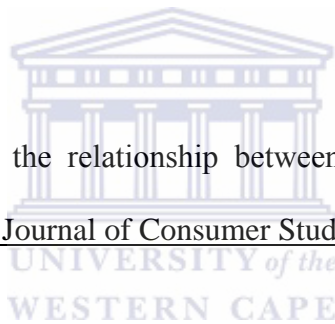
Mueller, B.H., & Lee, J. (2002). Leader-member exchange and organizational communication satisfaction in multiple contexts. Journal of Business Communication, 36(2), 220-244.

Nedd, N. (2006). Perceptions of empowerment and intent to stay. Nursing Economics, 24(1), 13-19.

Nickson, J.W., & Karp, H.B. (1974). Deprivation, incentives and mental illness: An application of motivator-hygiene theory to motivational patterns and economic variables among the black, working poor. The American Journal of Economics and Sociology, 33(2), 113-125.

Okpara, J.O. (2006). Gender and the relationship between perceived fairness in pay, promotion, and job satisfaction in a sub-Saharan African economy. Women in Management Review, 21(3), 224-240.

Olesen, M. (2004). Exploring the relationship between money attitudes and Maslow's hierarchy of needs. International Journal of Consumer Studies, 28, 83-92.



Oyedele, L.O. (2009). Sustaining architects' and engineers' motivation in design firms: An investigation of critical success factors. Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management, 17(2), 180-196.

Paillé, P., Bourdeau, L., & Galois, I. (2010). Support, trust, satisfaction, intent to leave and citizenship at organizational level. A social exchange approach. International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 18(1), 41-58.

Payne, S.C., & Huffman, A.H. (2005). A longitudinal examination of the influence of mentoring on organizational commitment and turnover. Academy of Management Journal, 48(1), 158-168.

Pettijohn, C., Pettijohn, L., & Taylor, A.J. (2008). Salesperson perceptions of ethical behaviours: Their influence on job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Journal of Business Ethics, 78, 547-557.

Pienaar, J., Sieberhagen, C.F., & Mostert, K. (2007). Investigating turnover intentions by role overload, job satisfaction and social support moderation. South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 33(2), 62-67.

Pietersen, C. (2005). Job satisfaction of hospital nursing staff. South African Journal of Human Resource Management, 3(2), 19-25.

Potgieter, P.J., Ras, J.M., & Naser, J.J. (2008). Can private security stand up to the challenges of crime and crime prevention in South Africa? A contemporary perspective. Acta Criminologica, 21(1), 33-43.

Powell, D.M., & Meyer, J.P. (2004). Side-bet theory and the three-component model of organizational commitment. Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 65, 157-177.

Rahman, A., Navqi, R., & Ramay, M.I. (2008). Measuring turnover intention: A study of IT professionals in Pakistan. International Review of Business Research Papers, 4(3), 45-55.

Ramlall, S. (2004). A review of employee motivation theories and their implications for employee retention within organizations. Journal of American Academy of Business, 5, 52-63.

Reicher, A.E. (1985). A review and reconceptualization of organizational commitment. The Academy of Management Review, 10(3), 465-476.

Ritzer, G., & Trice, H.M. (1969). An empirical study of Howard Becker's side-bet theory. Social Forces, 47(4), 475-478.

Robbins, S.P. (1998). Organizational behaviour: Concepts, controversies, applications. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Rodger, J.L., & Nicewander, W.A. (1988). Thirteen ways to look at the correlation coefficient. The American Statistician, 42(1), 59-66.

Roos, W., & Van Eeden, R. (2008). The relationship between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture. South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 34(1), 54-63.

Rose, M. (2005). Job satisfaction in Britain: Coping with complexity. British Journal of Industrial Relations, 43(3), 455-467.

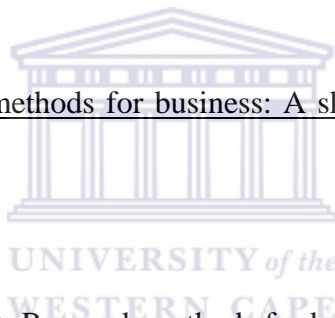
Saari, L.M., & Judge, T.A. (2004). Employee attitudes and job satisfaction. Human Resource Management, 43(4), 394-407.

Schneider, B., & Alderfer, C.P. (1973). Three studies of measure of need satisfaction in organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly, 18(4), 489-505.

Saungweme, R., & Gwandure, C. (2011). Organisational climate and intent to leave among recruitment consultants in Johannesburg, South Africa. Journal of Human Ecology, 34(3), 145-153.

Segal, G., Borgia, D., & Schoenfeld, J. (2005). The motivation to become an entrepreneur. International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research, 11(1), 42-57.

Sekaran, U. (2001). Research methods for business: A skill building approach. New York: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.



Sekaran, U. & Bougie, R. (2011). Research methods for business: A skill building approach. USA: John Willey & Sons Ltd.

Shader, K., Broome, M., Broome, C., West, M., & Nash, M. (2001). Factors influencing satisfaction and anticipated turnover for nurses in an academic medical centre. Journal of Nursing Administration, 31(4), 210-216.

Sharma, R.K. (1997). Sociological methods and techniques. New Delhi: Atlantic Publisher and Distributors.

Shearing, C.D., & Stenning, P.C. (1981). Modern private security: Its growth and implications. Crime and Justice, 3, 193-245.

Siebrits, L.S. (2001). Regulation of the private security industry. Unpublished master's thesis, University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.

Sikorska-Simmons, E. (2005). Predictors of organizational commitment among staff in assisted living. The Gerontologist, 45(2), 196-205.

Silverthorne, C. (2004). The impact of organizational culture and person-organization fit on organizational commitment and job satisfaction in Taiwan. The Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 25(7), 592-599.

Slattery, J.P., & Selvarajan, T.T.R. (2005). Antecedents to temporary employee's turnover intentions. Submitted for possible inclusion in the program for the Organizational Behavior and Organizational Theory track at the March 31 – April 2, 2005 Midwest Academy of Management Annual Meeting.

Spector, P.E. (1985). Measurement of human service job satisfaction. Development of the Job Satisfaction Survey. American Journal of Community Psychology, 13, 693-712.

Spector, P.E. (1997). Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Steers, R.M., Mowday, R.T., & Shapiro, D.L. (2004). The future of work motivation theory. Academy of Management Review, 29(3), 379-387.

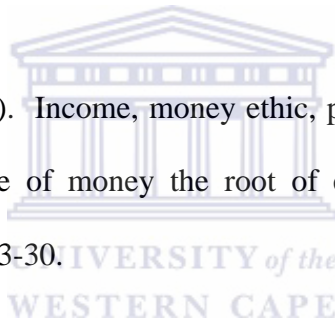


Suhaime, I.L., Mahmud, N., & Hasin, H. (2011). Relationship analysis of job satisfaction, job related stress and intention to leave among nurses. International conference on management (ICM 2011) Proceeding, 1248-1257.

Susskind, A.M., Kacmar, K.M., & Borchgrevink, C.P. (2003). Customer service providers' attitudes relating to customer service and customer satisfaction in the customer-server exchange. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88(1), 179-187.

Taljaard, R. (2008). Private and public security in South Africa. The private security sector in Africa. ISS Monograph Series, no. 146, pp. 1-103.

Tang, T.L., & Chiu, R.K. (2003). Income, money ethic, pay satisfaction, commitment, and unethical behaviour: Is the love of money the root of evil for Hong Kong employees? Journal of Business Ethics, 46, 13-30.



Taris, T.W., & Schreurs, P.J.G. (2009). Well-being and organizational performance: An organizational-level test of the happy-productive worker hypothesis. Work and Stress, 23(2), 120-136.

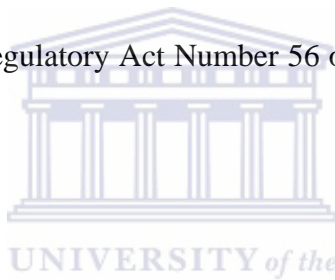
Taunton, R.L., Boyle, D.K., Woods, C.Q., Hansen, H.E., & Bott, M.J. (1997). Manager leadership and retention of hospital staff nurses. Western Journal of Nursing Research, 19(2), 205-226.

Teddle, C., & Yu, F. (2007). Mixed methods sampling: A typology with examples. Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1(1), 77-100.

Tepper, B.J., Carr, J.C., Breaux, D.M., Geider, S., Hu, C., & Hua, W. (2009). Abusive supervision, intentions to quit, and employees' workplace deviance: A power/dependence analysis. Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes, 109, 156-167.

Thatcher, J.B., Liu, Y., & Stepina, L.P. (2002). The role of the work itself: An empirical examination of intrinsic motivation's influence on IT workers attitudes and intentions. SIGCPR '02 Proceedings of the 2002 ACM SIGCPR conference on Computer personnel research. The Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA.

The Private Security Industry Regulatory Act Number 56 of 2001. Cape Town: Government Gazette.



Tikkanen, I. (2007). Maslow's hierarchy and food tourism in Finland: Five cases. British Food Journal, 109(9), 721-734.

Tsai, Y., & Wu, S.W. (2010). The relationships between organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction and turnover intention. Journal of Clinical Nursing, 19, 3564-3574.

Tumwesigye, G. (2010). The relationship between perceived organisational support and turnover intentions in a developing country: The mediating role of organisational commitment. African Journal of Business Management, 4(6), 942-952.

Ugboro, I.O. (2006). Organizational commitment, job redesign, employee empowerment and intent to quit among survivors of restructuring and downsizing. Institute of Behavioural and Applied Management, 7(3), 232-257.

Urwiler, R., & Frolick, M.N. (2008). The IT value hierarchy: Using Maslow's hierarchy of needs as a metaphor for gauging the maturity level of information technology use within competitive organizations. Information Systems Management, 25, 83-88.

Vandenberghe, C., Bentein, K., & Stinglhamber, F. (2004). Affective commitment to the organization, supervisor, and work group: Antecedents and outcomes. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 64, 47-71.

Van Dick, R., Christ, O., Stellmacher, J., Wagner, U., Ahlswede, O., Grubba, C., Hauptmeier, M., Hohfeld, C., Moltzen, K., & Tissington, P.A. (2004). Should I stay or should I go? Explaining turnover intentions with organizational identification and job satisfaction. British Journal of Management, 15, 351-360.

Van Eerde, W., & Thierry, H. (1996). Vroom's expectancy models and work-related criteria: A meta-analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 81(5), 575-586.

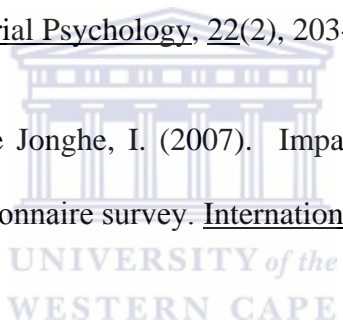
Wagner, C.M. (2007). Organizational commitment as a predictor variable in nursing turnover research: Literature review. Journal of Advanced Nursing, 60(3), 235-247.

Wasti, S.A. (2002). Affective and continuance commitment to the organization: Test of an integrated model in the Turkish context. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 26, 525-550.

Wegge, J., Schmidt, K.H., Parkes, C., & van Dick, R. (2007). 'Taking a sickie': Job satisfaction and job involvement as interactive predictors of absenteeism in a public organization. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 80, 77-89.

Wheeler, A.R., Gallagher, V.C., Brouer, R.L., & Sablinski, C.J. (2007). When person-organization (mis)fit and (dis)satisfaction lead to turnover. The moderating role of perceived job mobility. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 22(2), 203-219.

Willem, A., Buelens, M., & De Jonghe, I. (2007). Impact of organizational structure on nurses' job satisfaction: A questionnaire survey. International Journal of Nursing Studies, 44, 1011-1020.



Williams, L.J., & Hazer, J.T. (1986). Antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in turnover models: A reanalysis using latent variable structural equation methods. Journal of Applied Psychology, 10, 47-52.

Williams, M.L., McDaniel, M.A., & Nguyen, N. (2006). A meta-analysis of the antecedents and consequences of pay level satisfaction, Journal of Applied Psychology, 91(2), 392-413.

Wong, C.S., Hui, C., & Law, K.S. (1995). Causal relationship between attitudinal antecedents to turnover. Academy of Management, Best Papers Proceedings, 35, 342-346.

Yao, X., & Wang, L. (2006). The predictability of normative organizational commitment for turnover in Chinese companies: A cultural perspective. International Journal of Human Resource Management, 17, 1058-1075.

Yousef, D.A. (2002). Job satisfaction as a mediator of the relationship between role stressors and organizational commitment. A study from an Arabic cultural perspective. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 17(4), 250-266.

Zangaro, G.A. (2001). Organizational commitment: A concept analysis. Nursing Forum, 36(2), 14-22.



## APPENDICES



**Appendix A: Request to Complete Questionnaires**

**Date: 07 May 2011**

**Re.: Permission to Conduct Research**

**Dear Sir/Madam**

This communiqué serves as a formal request to conduct research among Security Officers employed at your organization.

My name is Chris Williams and I am a Masters student in the Department of Industrial Psychology at the University of the Western Cape. My research project aims to establish the impact that certain push factors such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment has on the intent to quit amongst private security officers.

Participation in this project will be voluntary and all information gathered from the participants will be dealt with in a highly confidential manner. The name of the organization as well as the names and particulars of the participants will remain anonymous.

The findings of the project will not be published without the consent of your organization. I also guarantee no harm to participants both physically as well psychologically and pledge to abide by the Code of Ethics as set out by the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA).

The findings of this research project will be of value to both the private security industry, future researchers, but in particular to your organization. Recommendations will be made which can be used by your organization to improve employee relations or to put measures in place to retain staff and thus minimize employee turnover which is very costly to any organization.

Please direct your response to this communiqué to the e-mail address below.

**Yours in Safety and Security,**

.....

**CJ (Chris) Williams**

[williamscj@cput.ac.za](mailto:williamscj@cput.ac.za)

## **Appendix B: Cover Letter to Respondents**

### **MASTERS RESEARCH PROJECT**

### **DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY**

### **UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE**

I am currently a Masters student in the Department of Industrial Psychology at the University of the Western Cape. As part of my degree I have to complete a research project. The aim of the research project is to establish the impact that certain push factors (such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment) have on the intent to quit amongst private security officers.

Permission has been granted to conduct the research from the management of the security company.

#### **COPMPLETION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

This questionnaire pack consists of five sections (A – D).

**Section A** – Biographical Information Questionnaire (gender, age, and etcetera)

**Section B** – Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

**Section C** – Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

**Section D** – Turnover Intention Questionnaire

It should take you approximately twenty minutes to complete all four sections (A-D). All the sections and all the questions must be answered. Please be as honestly as possible in your responses. Upon completion the questionnaire must be placed in the attached envelope provided and must be sealed to guarantee confidentiality.

#### **Furthermore:**

- Participation in this project is voluntary.
- Participants and information given will remain anonymous. No identifying information (such as your name) needs to be written on the questionnaire.
- Information gathered will only be used for research purposes.
- The researcher pledges to abide by the code of ethics as set out by the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA).

**Closing date:** 20 September 2011

Should you have any queries please feel free to contact the researcher (contact details provided below).

**Thank you for your participation,**

**Yours Sincerely,**

**Chris Williams: [williamscj@cput.ac.za](mailto:williamscj@cput.ac.za)**



## Appendix C: Biographical Questionnaire

### SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please tick the appropriate box under each section.

#### AGE

18 – 25	<input type="checkbox"/>
26 – 35	<input type="checkbox"/>
36 – 45	<input type="checkbox"/>
46 - 55	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>

Specify.....

#### GENDER

Male	<input type="checkbox"/>
Female	<input type="checkbox"/>

#### RACE

White	<input type="checkbox"/>
Coloured	<input type="checkbox"/>
African	<input type="checkbox"/>
Indian	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>



Specify.....

#### MARITAL STATUS

Married	<input type="checkbox"/>
Single	<input type="checkbox"/>
Divorced	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>

Specify.....

**HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION**

<b>Matric/Grade 10</b>	
<b>Matric/Grade 12</b>	
<b>Post Matric Certificate/Diploma</b>	
<b>Degree</b>	

**YEARS OF SERVICE WITH ORGANIZATION**

<b>Less than 6 months</b>	
<b>6 – 12 months (1Yr)</b>	
<b>Between 1 – 2 years</b>	
<b>Between 2 – 3 years</b>	
<b>Between 3 – 4 years</b>	
<b>Between 4 – 5 years</b>	
<b>Other</b>	

Specify.....

**GRADE LEVEL**

<b>Grade E</b>	
<b>Grade D</b>	
<b>Grade C</b>	
<b>Grade B</b>	
<b>Grade A</b>	



**SHIFTWORK**

<b>Day shift only</b>	
<b>Night shift only</b>	
<b>Rotating shift (day &amp; night shift)</b>	

**END OF SECTION A**

## Appendix D: Job Satisfaction Survey

### SECTION B – JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Communications seem good within this organization,	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit package that we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I have too much paper work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

END OF SECTION B

## Appendix E: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

### SECTION C

## ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that you may have about the organization for which you work. With respect to your own feelings about the organization for which you are now working please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling the number which is most applicable to you.								
		Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I am will to put a great deal of effort beyond that is normally expected in order to help this organization to be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I feel very little loyalty to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I find that my values and the organization'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 organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	This organization really inspires the 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 organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	There's not to much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on the important matters relating to its employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I really care about the fate of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## Appendix F: Intent to Quit Questionnaire

### SECTION D: TURNOVER INTENTION 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 time
2	How frequently do you scan news papers for job opportunities?	Never	1—2—3—4—5—6--7	Most of the time
3	To what 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 jeopardized?	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 possibility 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?	Never	1—2—3—4—5—6--7	Always
9	How often do you think about starting your own business?	Never	1—2—3—4—5—6--7	Most of the time
10	How often do only family responsibilities preventing you from quitting?	Never	1—2—3—4—5—6--7	Always
11	How often do 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 from work?	Never	1—2—3—4—5—6--7	Always
13	How often is your current job affecting on 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

END OF SECTION D

END OF QUESTIONNAIRES

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION



UNIVERSITY *of the*  
WESTERN CAPE